English Language & Literature Teaching, Vol. 26, No. 1 Spring 2020
https://doi.org/10.35828/etak.2020.26.1.55

Analyzing Co-occurring Errors of Adult L2 Learners in Speaking and Writing PDTs

Miran Seo[*]
(Hoseo University)
Sunmee Chang[**]
(Hoseo University)

Seo, Miran & Chang, Sunmee (2020). Analysing co-occurring errors of adult L2 learners in speaking and writing PDTs. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, *26*(1), 55-86.

This study was conducted to determine whether South Korean L2 adult learners' errors in speaking and writing co-occur. It also focused on answering whether Picture Description Task (PDT) can elicit enough language production to analyze errors in both speaking and writing. Eleven university students participated in the study completing ten paired sets of PDTs. The order of speaking and writing tasks was switched and different pictures were used throughout every set of PDT. The most common errors found in speaking and writing PDTs were the use of determiners, verbs, and prepositions respectively. The speaking errors outnumbered writing errors but the types of errors in speaking and writing appeared very similar along with the smaller language features of each category. This confirmed that whether it is speaking or writing, determiners, verbs, and prepositions are the three most common areas where L2 learners commit errors. The participants showed low level of confidence in speaking and more errors were made whenever a speaking description was given first. This suggests in PDTs teachers can lower learners' L2 anxiety by presenting writing tasks first. PDTs practically activated L2 productions and made the comparison between speaking and writing outputs possible.

[PDT/adult L2 learners/TBL/EA/errors in speaking/errors in writing]

[*] First Author
[**] Corresponding Author

I. INTRODUCTION

In the late 1990s, to emphasize oral competency South Korea (hereafter Korea)'s on English education shifted from a behavioristic approach to a communicative This shift focused more on improving listening and speaking skills than reading and writing skills (Kim, 2018; Park, 2009). Since then, the need for English proficiency has led to an "English fever" in Korea, making children as young as five years old start studying English (Park, 2009, p.50). Moreover, "English fever" has gone beyond the school. Some workers continue seeking higher English proficiency even after they finish school as their English proficiency decides their promotions. This tendency implies that English is now important for students in schools and those who have graduated schools as well. Thus, the interest in studying language development of L2 adult learners is increasing since the needs are growing. Because the more we know about language learning, the more likely to be successful in L2 teaching (Ravem, 1968).

Beginning in the 1960s, researchers conducted studies on L2 learners' language production to understand language development. To achieve better results in language courses, what language L2 learners actually produce has been studied, especially errors. Many language instructors have recognized the value of learner errors and have used them as a resource to help students acquire more accurate use of the target language (Corder, 1967). Researchers can indicate specific parts and types of the target language students have the most difficulty producing correctly (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982). In short, Error analysis (EA) presents the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language usage (James, 2013).

EA benefits both learners and instructors. As EA is able to tell what teachers are looking for, it has been at the center of language curriculum design (Baker, 2008; Corder, 1981; Etherton, 1977; Johansson, 1975). Above all, there are a large number of studies on learners' errors in their speaking and writing productions. Studies on errors in spoken output in Korea showed errors in using determiners, nouns, and prepositions manifest (Chin, 2001; Kim, 2004; Yoon, 2012). In writing EA, errors in using determiners and verbs have been critically discussed (Cha, 2004; Chin, 2013; Jung, Shin & Huh, 2010; Kim, 1998; Ok, 2010). Overall, the errors most commonly detected are in using determiners, verbs and prepositions despite the different approaches to analyze errors either in speaking and writing.

These studies discuss errors in either written output or spoken output respectively. There are large numbers of studies on EA but few analyze co-occurring errors in both writing and speaking. To set a more productive curriculum that guides both teachers and L2 learners through practical language usage, investigations of common errors must be conducted. In this respect, if investigators notice common errors in both writing and

speaking, those errors are considered as more significant language features that language learners find difficult than those occurring only in writing or in speaking. Predictability of errors in certain learners can lead to teachers developing a curriculum that addresses those errors at that level and situation.

In order to study L2 learners' errors, language productions are collected in various ways. For gathering speaking production data, expressing one's opinions, taking part in a role play, or describing pictures are commonly used. For gathering writing production data, other than writing essays, writing letters is commonly used (Kang, Cho & Lee, 2015). To collect language production data for analyzing speaking errors and writing errors respectively, expressing one's opinion is used as one of the common tools. There are only a few EA studies focused on both speaking and writing productions.

Most of the researchers who studied errors in both speaking and writing asked their participants to express their opinions in speaking and writing for collecting language production data (Back, 2011; Jung, 2005; Kim, 2017; Munkhochir & Lee, 2015). They used the same set of questions for speaking tasks and writing tasks. The investigators first asked a question for the writing task. Usually twenty-four hours later, they asked the same questions for the speaking task or vice versa for a single time.

To fill the gap, the researcher of this current study investigated errors in both speaking and writing, using multiple pairs of speaking and writing productions, to see whether errors in speaking and writing have similar occurrences. The current study looks for whether those errors manifest over time using various pictures for speaking and writing description tasks. This current study also looks for what errors co-occur both in speaking and writing by using Picture Description Tasks (PDTs). Ten sets of PDTs for speaking and writing will be used to collect language output from L2 adult learners. The research questions are as follows:

1. What errors are committed in speaking and writing PDTs?
2. Are there common errors occurring in speaking and writing? If so, what are they? And what do they suggest?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. The Movements of EA and Its Concepts

In the 1950s and 1960s, when behaviorism and structuralism were educational trends, analyzing formal distinctions between one's first language (L1) and the target language (TL) was prevalently used to predict errors. In Contrastive Analysis (CA), linguists

believed errors occur from the gap between the L1 and L2 as they interfered with each other. So the result of analyzing gaps of L1 and L2 was the most prevalent source of error of "interlingual interference" (Wetzork, 2005, p.9). Applied linguistics focused mainly on L1 learners to analyze errors and to predict difficulties that L2 learners would face. However, since it was considered to be either uninformative (teachers had known about these errors already) or inaccurate, errors were predicted that did not materialize in interlanguage, and errors manifested that the CA had not predicted (James, 2013).

With the decline of CA which was only effective in phonology (Richards & Schmidt, 2002), applied linguistics changed interest from Mother Tongue (MT) in order to find sources of errors to Target Language (TL) itself for EA. EA considers errors in the TL are due to the language interference within the TL. EA also reveals errors like CA but they are "deemed to be 'intralingual interference'" (Wetzork, 2005, p.10). Richards (1971, p.174) defined intralingual interference as "faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules, and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply."

While EA's focus is exclusively on TL, Transfer Analysis (TA) has proved the impossibility to deny totally the effect of MT on TL, since they are ubiquitously and patently obvious (James, 2013).

2. Errors and Mistakes

Distinctions between errors and mistakes have been defined by many linguists. For example, Brown did not regard incorrect usage with no repudiation as an error either and described a mistake as a "performance error" (Brown, 2000, p.217). Also, James said a mistake is related to a "performance weakness" (James, 2013, p.84). Another distinction that Ellis makes is that errors are produced from lack of knowledge (the language competence) but mistakes occur when language learners actually know the rules but "fail to perform their competence" (Ellis, 1994, p.51). Gefen (1979) distinguishes mistakes as lapses in performance and errors as inadequate competence. Ellis (1997) suggests two ways to distinguish whether it is an error or a mistake: first to check the consistency of learners' performance and second to ask the learners to try to correct their own deviant utterance, and it is considered as a mistake if they end up successfully correcting it. Slip or lapse is generally considered a mistake or a subtype of it as it has the characteristic of self-correction feasibility. If a language learner can recognize his or her 'error' and is able to correct the 'error', it cannot be a true error since s/he can tell what has been incorrect or correct. If a language learner makes same mistakes with no self-correction and is unsure what exactly has gone wrong, then it can be considered that an error has been committed. The most significant aspect about mistakes is the 'awareness' of their failure in language production so a

self-correction can follow the mistake. However, "further relevant learning" (James, 1998, p.83) is needed to elicit correct usage from errors.

The possibility always exist in that any utterance without self-correction or self-corrigibility might be a slip or mistake as we do not correct what we utter all the time with incorrect usage, so distinguishing mistakes from errors can be imperfect. Deciding whether incorrect usage is a true error can be subjective since it depends on the corrector's competence and his or her subjective opinion (Legenhausen, 1975 in Thyen, 2011). Ellis (1994, p.51) defined "correct usages" of target language as "the standard written dialect," which is there as stated "norms." Although the definition and the distinction of errors and mistakes are not exactly identical from linguist to linguist, it seems clear there is an agreement that errors occur by unawareness.

Corder (1967) admits the difficulty of distinguishing mistakes and errors stating "Mistakes are of no significance to the process of language learning. However the problem of determining what is a learner's mistake and what a learner's error is one of some difficulty and involves a much more sophisticated study and analysis of errors than it usually accorded them. (Corder, 1967, p.167)" Most studies in EA conducted in Korea also used every misused language as a token to analyze errors (Back, 2011; Cheon, 2017; Jung, 2005; Kang et al., 2015; Kim, 2017; Lee & Kang, 2019; Munkhochir & Lee, 2015; Ok, 2010). For this current study, every misuse of language without a self-correction is counted an error without giving a distinction from mistakes.

3. Studies on Writing and Speaking Errors in Korea

Back (2011) investigated the frequency and nature of learners' errors specific to prepositions in the corpora of written and spoken English provided by 134 Korean university undergraduate students. They used the same topic to elicit spoken and written output. In the study, the students freely wrote their opinions on a topic first and they were individually interviewed to provide oral interaction data on the same topic later. The study found that prepositions account for a considerable proportion of all grammatical errors in 'misformation.' The reasons for the high number of preposition errors were: 1) high variability level of English preposition usages, 2) interlingual transfer between L1 and L2, and 3) low level of semantic information on prepositions resulted in a high number of omission errors.

Kim (2017) investigated phrase errors of the different types of verb and noun in speaking and writing in fifty-two Korean adult English learners: undergraduate students, graduate student, and office workers. Kim (2017) also used the same questions to elicit language production. The participants were asked to provide an opinion and a solution for three speaking tasks in a storytelling form for the first step, and at least 24 hours later they

were asked to produce answers in writing for the second step with the same questions. This study showed the noun determiners in noun-phrase errors outnumbered the verb-phrase errors.

Jung (2005) analyzed verb errors in speaking and writing from adult L2 learners. Jung (2005) used different questions for speaking task and writing task but the questions were related to each other. The students in the study completed a writing task first and a speaking task second. Ten adult learners participated and provided three writings and interview dialogues of 20-30 minutes long. As a result, the error rates in speaking appeared higher for every participant.

Munkhochir and Lee (2015) conducted a study to summarize the linguistic error and surface error taxonomies from writing and speaking of thirty adult participants by analyzing data from computer-based writing and speaking (CBW and CBS) with the same question of asking opinions. More errors of tokens, types, sentences, and embedded sentences occurred in writing (CBW) than in speaking (CBS) and additional errors were more frequent in speaking (CBS) than in writing (CBW). Moreover, the participants produced less syntactic errors in writing than in speaking.

Kang et al. (2015) used pictures to investigate the types of verb and noun phrase errors that EFL adult learners produce in speaking and writing. Twenty participants described two sets of paired pictures in speaking first and about twenty four hours later, they described the same pictures in writing. In the study, subject-verb agreement errors in verb phrases (VPs) and determiner errors in noun phrases (NPs) accounted for the highest ratio in both speech and written outputs.

Except Jung (2005), studies mentioned above used the same task to elicit productive languages. There is no study that switches the order of the task sequence of language description and they only compared errors from one pair of speaking and writing outputs. Here, this study switches the description order of speaking and writing ten times. This current study looks into errors both in speaking and writing to see whether errors appear as the previous studies discussed by using ten sets of paired PDTs. A total of eleven students participated in the study to provide language outputs.

4. Studies on Effectiveness of Picture Description Task (PDT)

A picture description task is a common activity that is often implemented for inducing L2 learners' language production especially in a spoken form. Brown and Abeywickrama (2004) said presenting visual pictures, photographs, diagrams, and charts is one of the most common techniques for eliciting oral production. Wright (1989) said that pictures can motivate language learners to be engaged in speaking activities. Byrne (1980) said that using pictures can stimulate discussion and interpretation of the topic in

class. For example, TOEIC speaking test which is one of the most well-known standardized test tools in Korea uses pictures to evaluate English proficiency. In the test, examiners are asked to describe a picture for forty-five seconds after having thirty seconds of preparation time[1]. Also IELTs[2] uses a visual aid to make examinees describe a graph. Aside from the part two of TOEIC speaking test and IELTs, there are many types of picture related activities which are included in a communicative class. 'Picture Stories: Language and Literacy Activities for Beginners' is another example of the application of pictures for communicative language learning (CLL) by Ligon and Tannenbaum (1990). Scrivener (2005) also suggests using pictures for a task to approach accuracy and fluency. As an experimental elicitation, pictures are used to draw data containing the linguistic features in this study. Language teachers can engage learners in real language use in the classroom by using pictures (Willis & Willis, 2012).

Lavalle and Briesmaster (2017) conducted a study by using picture descriptions to enhance L2 learners' communication skills. Twenty eighth-grade students who are aged thirteen to fourteen at a private English school in Chile participated in the study. They found that students' pronunciation, motivation, and communicative competence increased and the learners' overall participation improved as a result of integrating picture descriptions.

King and Dickinson (2018) also used PDT to collect language data. They investigated issues of variability and acceptability in written text by non-native speakers (NNSs) and native speakers (NSs). They used pictures to get multi-dimensional ways to answer for describing pictures with specific oriented questions, and acquired meaningful data for corpus development. They compared answers from non-native speakers to native speakers and found that motivations and task environment can affect the quality of responses and suggested not including any symbols or numerals in pictures to avoid response complications. Sulastri (2011) established a study to investigate the effectiveness of using picture chart media for students' English vocabulary with forty students. The researcher presented pictures through four 'treatments' (the researcher's word), and managed two more meetings for pre- and post-tests. The study discovered that teaching vocabulary with picture aids gives significant effect towards vocabulary skill. Hidayah (2014) also performed a study to find out whether using picture media for teaching vocabulary to seventh-grade L2 learners is effective in their vocabulary achievement. Hidayah (2014) concluded that using a picture media for teaching vocabulary is effective to the junior high school students and said that picture media increased the level of interests and motivations in studying English. Although the number of studies on the effectiveness of using pictures

[1] http://exam.ybmnet.co.kr
[2] https://www.ielts.org/about-the-test/test-format

and PDTs ar only few, the study results are quite concrete and all indicate the effectiveness of utilizing pictures in L2 learning and teaching.

III. METHODS

1. Participants

The current study employed eleven university students to analyze errors in both speaking and writing in a similar group. They were selected because of their suitability as L2 output providers who have studied English under the typical education system in Korea and no one experienced living in another country using English as a first language. The age range of the participants is from the early to mid-twenties and all are attending the same university in Chungnam province. They have been studying English for more than ten years since English is taught from elementary school. Among the 11 participants, 5 are males, 6 are females, and all are engineering students except for 2 art students. To know their level of English proficiency the researcher asked for their current TOEIC scores. Their TOEIC scores vary from a low of 315 to a high of 680 and the average score is 514[3] out of 990. They were told that none of the output from the PDTs was for assessment and every task would be conducted during the school break via an internet based communication system called Kakao Talk[4]. The participants completed 10 sets of PDTs over 9 weeks.

2. Data Collection

PDTs were used to analyze errors in both speaking and writing along with two sets of surveys and interviews were carried out as a triangulation to yield more valid data reading. For the pictures used in the PDTs, an illustrator drew pictures after consulting with the researcher on themes and other details such as the number of objects and types of actions. A total of 20 pictures were drawn and were paired to elicit the language learners' language production. The order of description task order was switched in order to prevent either of description way from being a practice for the latter one. Thus, every odd number of PDTs asked the students to do writing description first and speaking description second and every even number of PDTs required the learners to do speaking

[3] Decimal points were omitted.
[4] Kakao Talk is an application for sending instant messages and it is one of the most popular communication tools in Korea.

task first and writing task second.

The researcher tried to get similar language output by using pictures as an experimental elicitation. The pairs of pictures were designed to elicit similar patterns of language use under the same theme. In a picture description, language output can be predictively elicited by the objects in a picture. Two different pictures under the same theme were used for a set of PDT asking the participants for descriptions, one for writing and the other for speaking. Since the first description can be a practice for the coming description, a picture used for a writing description was not used again for a speaking description. The description's order of writing and speaking was switched after using one pair of PDTs. The themes for the PDTs were based upon what can be familiar to the participants' everyday life (refer to Appendix A for the themes used).

The example Figure 1 shows the PDT9 used in this study. In the pictures the number of objects and actions are limited. For example, the number of people (one), the action (cleaning/washing), and displayed objects (clock, calendar, dish or book/plant) are similar. The possible outputs can be predicted since the items in the pictures that can be described are limited.

FIGURE 1

Example Pictures Used in the 9th PDTs

Theme of the Pictures: House Chores

<Task1> Picture for Writing Description	<Task2> Picture for Speaking Description



Although the 10 sets of PDTs are not designed as an evaluation tool to score students, some rules were strenuously asked to be followed to keep the originality of the data. The guidelines for PDTs were also exchanged by Kakao Talk. The students were asked to

complete and submit each task as soon as they received it and they submitted tasks right after they finished each set and the participants usually returned the task within one hour after receiving them. The participants had 2 minutes in speaking and 5 minutes in writing descriptions. Considering that speaking takes less time than writing, a 2.5 times longer duration was given for the writing descriptions. Kang et al. (2015) also allotted five minutes when they gave the participants a writing description task. Moreover, the participants were strictly required to keep the time limits on the writing tasks as they could otherwise freely revise their descriptions. The participants' descriptions were transcribed after they were submitted on a feedback sheet designed for the current study (refer to the Appendix B) to organize the answers sentence by sentence. Every error was marked and customized corrective feedback was provided with an explanation and proper usages before the participants move on to the next task.

The collected errors and proper usages have been proofread by a native English speaker who has been teaching English for more than 10 years at a private institute in Canada. There can be a disagreement on errors since deciding whether a certain usage is an error can be subjective as it depends on the corrector's competence and individual opinion (Legenhausen, 1975 in Thyen, 2011). Thus, the native speaker and the researcher of this study referred to the book titled 'Practical English Usage' by Swan (2005) as a standard. After all PDTs were completed, the researcher analyzed the data according to the algorithm from Corder (1981) and categorized the errors in the error taxonomy that the researcher of this study adopted and revised suggested by Dulay et al. (1982) and James (2013). The error types were categorized and grouped by grammatical errors by the use of the determiner, noun, pronoun, preposition, verb, word order, and transformation. The lexical errors were categorized by noun, verb, adjective, adverb, and auxiliary (refer to the Appendix C for the taxonomy).

To supplement the validity of data, this study employed internet surveys and telephone interviews. Since there was no relevant survey to refer to for the study of PDTs, one had to be developed for the current study. Two surveys were conducted. The first survey was conducted after the 6th PDTs and second was managed after the 10th PDTs. Every participant completed the surveys. The first survey gathered general information about the participants. The first section consisted of two questionnaires regarding the gathering of personal information with the consent for using the data collected throughout the study. In section 2, the participants responded to questions about their English correlation level in their everyday life and social life. In section 3, they responded to questions about their motivations, goals, and stress levels in studying. In section 4, they responded to the questions about personal preferences on communication methods and their opinions on the importance of the four English skills; listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In section 5, they responded to questions about

their previous experience of PDTs. Moreover, the question about which English skills were challenging while they participated in the study, and the usefulness of corrective feedback, were asked. In the last section, their English scores on standardized English tests were requested.

The second survey had questions regarding the PDTs only. The participants answered questions about any changes in their level of confidence and their level of motivation after they completed the 10 sets of PDTs. They also rated the degree of improvement on four English skills respectively during the writing and speaking descriptions. The level of correlation between the pictures used in the PDTs and real-life was asked as well. Their opinions on the effectiveness of feedback on errors, and suggestions for teaching them in the classroom were also asked.

The telephone interviews were conducted by the researcher. Through an instant massage system, interviews were frequently conducted throughout the study whenever questions arose from the participants' language production. The participants also freely asked the researcher any questions they had and expressed their thoughts on the PDTs. The researcher of this study transcribed the casual interview in the research log. These frequent interviews helped the researcher to draw comprehensive perspectives and develop more relevant questionnaires to construct validity for the survey.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

1. Errors from the PDTs

The errors gathered from the language data in PDTs will be firstly discussed to compare the total number and types of errors from speaking and writing respectively. Table 1 shows the number of errors in speaking and writing. As Table 1 below shows, there were a total of 1,110 errors found throughout the 10 PDTs.

TABLE 1
Total Number of Errors in Speaking and Writing

PDTs	Speaking	Writing	Sum
1st PDTs	53 (4.77%)	52 (4.48%)	105 (9.46%)
2nd PDTs	82 (7.39%)	58 (5.23%)	140 (12.61%)
3rd PDTs	82 (7.39%)	74 (6.67%)	156 (14.05%)
4th PDTs	76 (6.85%)	53 (4.77%)	129 (11.62%)
5th PDTs	51 (4.59%)	44 (3.96%)	95 (8.56%)

6th PDTs	81 (7.30%)	79 (7.12%)	160 (14.41%)
7th PDTs	38 (3.42%)	49 (4.41%)	87 (7.84%)
8th PDTs	53 (4.77%)	48 (4.32%)	101 (9.10%)
9th PDTs	13 (1.17%)	6 (0.54%)	19 (1.71%)
10th PDTs	77 (6.94%)	41 (3.69%)	118 (10.63%)
Total	606 (54.59%)	504 (45.41%)	1,110 (100%)

The errors from speaking accounted for 54.59% (606) and writing accounted for 45.41% (504). The errors in speaking outnumbered the errors in writing from the nine sets of PDTs out of ten sets. Only the 7th PDTs produced fewer speaking errors than writing errors. More errors were found in speaking PDTs than writing PDTs except for the 7th PDTs. The number of errors between speaking and writing showed a gap of 9.18% with 102 more errors committed in speaking. These figures indicate the number of errors for speaking is usually higher than writing. This is accordant to the survey result where the participants said that they think speaking is more difficult than writing.

The fact the number of errors significantly dropped at the 9th PDTs, but sharply rose up at 10th, is quite noticeable. Including the 9th PDTs, the 5th and 7th showed a lower number of errors than others. Considering the fact that the pictures in the 1st, 5th, 7th, and 9th have similar contents, it can be assumed that the students became accustomed to describing similar contents. However, the new contents and the high complexity of 10th PDTs caused the students to make more errors since the participants were unfamiliar with the new contents of the pictures.

From the error taxonomy that was implemented in the study, the three most common errors identically appeared in their frequency precedence order. The most frequently committed errors in speaking and writing were on determiners (511/46.04%), on verbs (237/21.35%), and on prepositions (167/15.05%) in that order. In speaking errors, out of 605 (100%), the three highest error types were first on determiners (289/26.04%), second on verbs (124/11.17%), and third on prepositions (93/8.38%). Among the 504 (100%) errors in writing, the first was on determiners (222/20.00%), the second was on verbs (113/10.18%), and the third was on prepositions (74/6.67%). Interestingly, the top three highest error types in speaking and writing turned out to be the same. The minor errors occurring in speaking and writing resulted in being very alike as well.

2. Three Most Common Errors from the PDTs

The three most common errors are: 1) determiners, 2) verbs, and 3) prepositions. All the errors have been identified, classified into various grammatical categories, and

presented with examples in speaking and writing respectively. Since the examples presented are raw data from PDTs, they usually hold several linguistic errors in one example. So asterisks are used to distinguish a matching error for a particular category.

1) Errors in Using Determiners

Out of 511 (46.04%) errors in determiners, 289 (56.46%) speaking errors were committed and 222 (43.44%) writing errors were made. In the errors in using determiners, the four most common types of errors appeared to be the same in the both speaking and writing.

TABLE 2

Errors in Using Determiners and Example Sentences

FRQ	Use of the Determiner 511 (46.04%) out of 1110	S289 (56.46%)	W222 (43.44%)
	a. Omission of the indefinite article		
1st	S129 (44.64%)	*The place of in the picture is *street.*	
	W99 (44.59%)	*The place in the picture is *bus stop.*	
	b. Misselction of the definite or indefinite article		
2nd	S75 (25.95%)	*I think *the they are calling to their family.*	
	W48 (21.62%)	*She will send *the email to boss and go shop. (the email_first time mentioned)*	
	c. Omission of the definite article		
3rd	S43 (14.88%)	*At downside two people take a picture *car accident.* *(car accident_second time mentioned)*	
	W32 (14.41%)	*A bus is coming to *bus station.* *(bus station_second time mentioned)*	
	d. Misselection of the singular determiner with plural nouns		
4th	S14 (4.84%)	*There is *a many shops.*	
	W15 (6.76%)	*He is wearing a shirt and *a long pants.*	
	e. *a* used for *an* before vowels		
	S13 (4.50%)	*A clerk is take *a order.*	
	W6 (2.70%)	*I can see *a exhausted man.*	
	f. Misselection of the singular determiner with uncountable nouns		
	S8 (2.77%)	*She has *a short hair.*	
	W12 (5.41%)	*She has *a curly long hair.*	
	g. Misselection of another/other(s)/the other(s)		
	S7 (2.42%)	*There are four people. Three people are customers *another is host.*	
	W10 (4.51%)	*There are four people. *The other woman is looking for some clothes.*	

Among the determiner errors, omission of the indefinite article accounted for the

largest percentage both in speaking (129/44.64% out of 289 determiner errors in speaking) and in writing (99/44.59% out of 222 determiner errors in writing). Also, misselection of the definite or indefinite article appeared as the second most frequent error in the both (S: 76/25.95%, W: 48/21.62%). Omission of the definite article appeared as the third most frequent error in the both (S: 43/14.88%, W: 32/14.41%). As for the example presented in this case, the missing definite article was needed since the noun was mentioned for the second time. Also, misselection of the singular determiner with plural nouns appeared as the fourth largest group of errors both in speaking (14/4.84%) and in writing (15/6.76%). Other than these, there were errors by misusing *a* for *an* before vowels (S: 12/4.50%, W: 6/2.70%) by misselecting the singular determiner with uncountable nouns (S: 8/2.77%, W: 12/5.41%), and by misselecting of *another/other(s)/and the other(s)* (S: 7/2.42%, W: 10/4.51%).

The assumption drawn from these figures is that in the determiner errors, omission of the indefinite article, misselection of the definite article or indefinite article, omission of the definite article, and misselection of the singular determiner with plural nouns co-occur in speaking and in writing.

2) Errors in Using Verbs

Out of 237 errors in verbs, 124 (52.32%) errors were committed in speaking and 113 (47.69%) were made in writing. In the errors when using verbs, the percentile rank in frequency distribution was the same in both speaking and writing.

TABLE 3

Errors in Using Verbs and Example Sentences

FRQ	Use of the Verb 237 (21.35%) out of 1110		S124 (52.32%)	W113 (47.69%)
	a. Use of tense			
1st	S56 (45.23%)	*A woman is *ask to the man ~.*		
	W55 (48.66%)	*She *wears two piece clothes and little ~.*		
	b. Agreement of subject and verb			
2nd	S48 (38.71%)	*She *ask him where the hair shop is.*		
	W36 (31.86%)	*A girl *want to get to the bakery.*		
	c. Omission of the verb			
3rd	S13 (10.48%)	*One couple *sitting on the chair.*		
	W16 (14.16%)	*She *wearing skirt, shits and shoes.*		

	d. Misselection of voice	
4th	S7 (5.64%)	*Car accident *was happened.*
	W5 (4.42%)	*The bus *is already arrived.*
	e. Regularization by adding ~*ed* for the irregular past tense	
5th	S0 (0%)	*None*
	W1 (0.88%)	*Yesterday, I *eated a chicken with my friend.*

Among the 237 (21.35%) verb errors out of 1110 (100%), misusing of tense, disagreement of subject and verb and omission of verb were the most frequently found. The errors in misusing of tense accounted for the largest percentage both in speaking (56/45.23% out of 124 verb errors in speaking) and in writing (55/48.66% out of 113 verb errors in writing). Errors on agreement of subject and verb appeared as the second most frequent errors in both (S: 48/38.71%, W: 36/31.86%). Omission of the verb appeared as the third most frequent error in the both (S: 13/10.48%, W: 16/14.16%). Lastly, errors of misselecting voice (S: 7/5.64, W: 5/4.42%) and regularization (S: 0/0%, W: 1/0.88%) by adding ~*ed* for irregular past tense were found as the lowest.

The assumption that can be drawn from these numbers is that in the verb errors the use of tense, disagreement of subject, omission of verb and the error of misselecting voice co-occur in speaking and in writing.

3) Errors in Using Prepositions

Out of 167 errors in prepositions, 93 (55.69%) errors were committed in speaking and 74 (44.31%) were made in writing. In the errors in using prepositions, the percentile rank in frequency distribution occurred in the same order for both speaking and writing.

TABLE 4

Errors in Using Prepositions and Example Sentences

FRQ	Use of the Preposition 167 (15.05%) out of 1110	S93 (55.69%)	W74 (44.31%)
	a. Omission of the preposition		
1st	S47 (50.54%)	~ *another man is listening *the explain.*	
	W45 (60.81%)	*A man is listening * their orders.*	
	b. Misuse of the preposition		
2nd	S36 (38.71%)	*He will turn left *at first block.*	
	W20 (27.03%)	*A man is surprised *about her question.*	
	c. Overuse of the preposition		
3rd	S10 (10.75%)	*The man is leaning *to against the bed.*	
	W9 (12.16%)	*Behind *of all of them, there is Eiffel tower.*	

Among the preposition errors, omission of the preposition accounted for the largest percentage both in speaking (47/50.54% out of 93 preposition errors in speaking) and in writing (45/60.81% out of 74 preposition errors in writing). Also, misselection of the preposition appeared as the second most frequent error in the both (S: 36/38.71%, W: 20/27.03%). Overuse of the preposition appeared as the third most frequent error in both (S: 10/10.75%, W: 9/12.16%).

The assumption drawn from these figures is that in the preposition errors, omission, misuse, and overuse co-occur in both speaking and writing.

4) Errors in Using Lexicon

Out of 63 errors in lexicon use, 30 (47.62%) errors were committed in speaking and 33 (52.38%) were made in writing. The linguistic features are misselecting the verb, noun, adjective, and adverb. In the errors in lexicon use the most common two types of errors shared the same percentile rank in frequency distribution.

TABLE 5

Errors in Using Lexicon and Example Sentences

FRQ	Lexical Errors 63 (5.68%) out of 1110	S30 (47.62%)	W33 (52.38%)
	a. Misselection of the verb		
1st	S21 (70.00%)	S: The picture **is* a bedroom.	
	W28 (84.85%)	*W: A woman who *watches clothes, and a man who sits in a chair and *watches her.*	
	b. Misselection of the noun		
2nd	S4 (13.33%)	*S: He is wearing *a night gown.*	
	W2 (6.06%)	*W: He is wearing a corn and is blowing *a wind.*	
	c. Misselection of the adjective		
	S5 (16.67%)	The man is **surprised*.	
	W1 (3.03%)	He has a **sorrowful* face.	
	d. Misselection of the adverb		
	S0 (0%)		
	W2 (6.06%)	*The location of the bakery should be 3 blocks *forward from the women's position.*	

Among lexicon use, misselection of the verb accounted for the largest percentage both in speaking (21/70.00% out of 30 lexical errors in speaking) and in writing (28/84.85% out of 33 lexical errors in writing). Also, misselection of the noun appeared as the second most frequent error in the both (S: 4/3.33%, W: 2/6.06%). Even though the proportion of lexical errors to total errors is very low (5.68%), the fact that errors in

misselection of the verb accounted for a higher amount than three-quarters within the lexical errors (both speaking and writing), indicates that verb lexicon use usually confuses the L2 learners most. From the errors collected in the study, the researcher could see that the students were usually not able to tell the differences among "watch, see, and look" which exist only in one word in Korean (보다: *Boda*).

The assumption drawn from these figures is that in the lexical errors, misselesion of the verb and noun co-occur in speaking and in writing.

5) Errors in Using Nouns

Out of 60 errors in noun use, 34 (56.67%) errors were committed in speaking and 26 (43.33%) were made in writing. The linguistic features found from the errors are sorted by frequency in descending order. They are: substitution of singulars for plurals, substitution of plurals for singulars, regularization by adding ~*s* to plural nouns, omission of subjects, and using two subjective nouns in a row.

TABLE 6

Errors in Using Nouns and Example Sentences

FRQ	Use of the Noun 60 (5.41%) out of 1110	S34 (56.67%)	W26 (43.33%)
	a. Substitution of singulars for plurals		
1st	S15 (44.12%)	*Two *driver are angry.*	
	W15 (57.69%)	*Two *passenger are sitting at the bus station.*	
	b. Substitution of plurals for singulars		
2nd	S14 (41.18%)	*He has *shirts and pants and shoes.*	
	W9 (34.62%)	*Except for *children, women are ~.*	
	f. Omission of subject		
3rd	S3 (8.82%)	*Go across the Jason street *is on the fantastic perfume's right.*	
	W1 (3.38%)	*Around the kitchen * are water purifier ~.*	
	e. Regularization by adding ~*s* to plural nouns		
4th	S1 (3.38%)	*There are two *peoples in the picture.*	
	W1 (3.38%)	**Womens are wearing sunglasses.*	
	g. Two subjective nouns in a row		
5th	S1	*One *it's dot.*	
	W0	(None)	

Among the noun errors, substitution of singulars for plurals accounted for the largest percentage both in speaking (15/44.12% out of 34 noun errors in speaking) and in writing (15/57.69% out of 26 noun errors in writing). Also, substitution of plurals for singulars

appeared as the second most frequent error in both (S: 14/41.18%, W: 9/34.62%).

The assumption drawn from these figures is that in the noun errors, substitution of singulars for plurals, substitution of plurals for singulars, regularization by adding *~s* to plural nouns, omission of subject, and using two subjective nouns in a row co-occur in both speaking and writing.

6) Minor Errors: Pronouns, Word Order, and Transformations

Table 7 organizes the errors in speaking and writing committed less than 3% out of the 1,110 errors in the PDTs.

TABLE 7

Other Minor Error Errors and Example Sentences

Minor Errors	Speaking	Writing
- Word order / 30 (2.70%) e.g., There are **hanging three socks* on the wall.	19 (63.33%)	11 (36.67%)
- Use of Pronouns / 21 (1.89%) *e.g., A girl is holding her *mother hand and candy.*	34 (56.67%)	26 (43.33%)
- Transformations / 21 (1.89%) e.g., There **are* a woman.	9 (42.86%)	12 (57.14%)

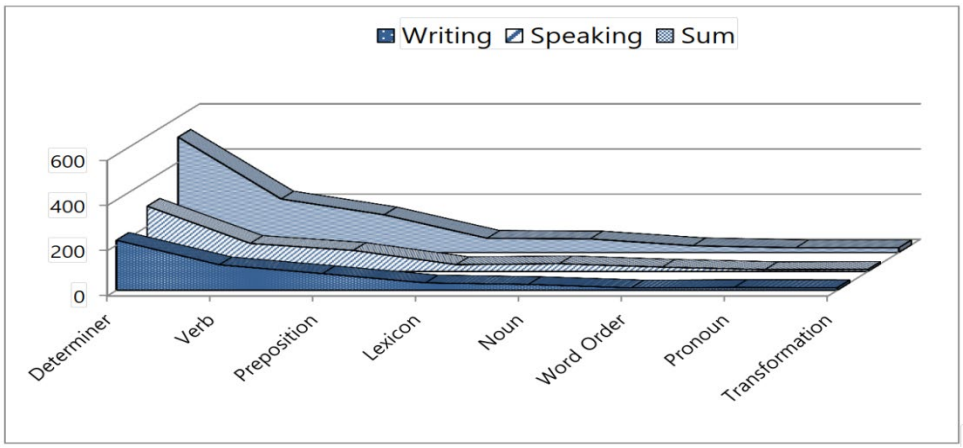
Errors in word order such as misordering of adjective and noun, omission of the conjunction, omission of the subject and verb pair after a conjunction, and overuse of the conjunction were found 30 (2.70%) out of 1,110 in speaking (19/63.33% out of the 30 errors) and writing 11/36.67% out of the 30 errors. Errors in using pronouns (21/1.89% out of 1110) such as regularization by adding *'s* for possessive pronoun, misselection of pronoun, use of wrong pronoun, using *It's* instead of *its*, and omission of *'s* for the possessive pronoun are found in speaking (8/38.10% out of the 21 errors) and in writing (13/61.90% out of 21%). Lastly, which is the lowest of all, transformation errors (21/1.89% out of 1,110) such as question transformation and *there* transformation are found in speaking (9/42.89% out of the 21) and writing (12/57.14% out of 21).

To sum up, the distribution of errors under the eight categories in speaking and writing along with the smaller language features were quite similar to each other. The errors in using determiners co-occurred as the largest percentage in both speaking and writing. Errors in using verbs co-occurred in speaking and writing by taking up the second largest. Errors in speaking and writing using prepositions co-occurred as the third largest. The errors in the smaller grammatical linguistic features in each category

occurred similarly between speaking and writing descriptions as well. The comparison of errors is summarized in Figure 2 below.

FIGURE 2

The Summary of Errors



3. Results of Surveys and Interviews

According to the answers from the two sets of surveys, the results are described as follows. The results show that English is not highly related to their current study at school (7/63.7%), but more than half of them think that English is critical to their future career (6/54.5%). Most of them (8/72.7%) study English to get a decent score on standardized English tests. The majority of them (8/72.7%) showed a high motivation in studying English despite the low chance of using English. Among the four language skills, their confidence in speaking showed the lowest level as 8 (72.7%) said their speaking skill is beginner and 3 (27.3%) said it is intermediate. Also, their writing confidence was shown to be low as 6 (54.5%) said their writing skill is beginner and 5 (45.4%) said it is intermediate. Especially for productive language skills, speaking and writing, most of them showed low confidence levels.

Concerning the questions on importance of the four language skills, 6 (54.5%) and 5 (45.4%) valued speaking skill as the most important and second most important respectively. However, for most of them (7/63.6%), speaking was regarded as the most difficult even though speaking was valued as the most important one. Unlike speaking, most of them (8/72.7%) said writing is the least important and tended to think it is not difficult. From this, it can be said that all participants consider speaking more important and also more challenging than writing.

Most of the participants (9/81.8%) said they had experienced that they had become reluctant due to the mistakes that they might commit. Moreover, when they communicate in English most (7/63.6%) of them said that they try to say what is necessary and 3 (27.3%) said they try not to talk. Very different from this, when they communicate in their L1 (Korean), 7 (63.6%) said they try to talk a lot whenever possible. This indicates that using L2 makes the L2 learners less talkative than when they use L1. With the question on choosing preference between speaking and writing, the difference showed little (speaking 6/54.5%, writing 5/45.4%) in using English, but when it comes to their L1 speaking (10/90.9%) was much more preferred in their L1 than L2.

The majority of the participants (7/63.6%) had no experience with PDTs before they participated in the study. Only 3 (27.3%) had described pictures by speaking and writing, and 1 (9.1%) had described pictures by writing only. Everyone answered the pictures in the PDTs were highly related or usually related to their everyday life (54.5% and 45.4% respectively). Seven (63.6%) of the respondents said the time allotted for writing descriptions was appropriate, but 4 (36.4%) said they needed more time. However, no one said it was long. Unlike writing PDTs, more than half (6/54.5%) said 2 minutes of speaking description time was long and only one (9.1%) said it was short. It can be said that the students tend to need more time on writing description even though they had more time on writing than speaking. Moreover, they tend to think they had more time than they actually needed when they did speaking descriptions. In short, the students said it is more difficult to do speaking PDTs than writing PDTs and this will be further discussed with comparing the result of PDTs in next section.

Most (8/72.7%) said they felt comfortable with the description sequence of writing first and speaking second. This is consistent with the answers from the surveys that mentioned the students prefer to describe pictures in writing first and speaking second. They expressed the preferences in the interviews they prefer writing in L2 than they prefer writing in L1 for their way of communication. The majority of the participants (8/72.7%) said writing descriptions were easier than speaking and this can explain why many students said they needed more time on writing descriptions while they answered that the time for speaking was enough or rather long.

All participants said that their motivation and confidence in speaking descriptions have increased after they completed the 10 sets of PDTs. When they self-evaluated their skill improvement, the result was consistent with the confidence increase. Over 90% (10/90.8%) said they think their speaking description skills improved. Over 90% (10/90.8%) said they think their writing description skills improved. All participants agreed that their confidence in speaking and writing descriptions increased after they completed all the PDTs. From the survey questions and interviews about the PDTs, it is

clear that PDTs have helped all participants to increase their confidence level in writing and speaking, and it is also helpful to improve their speaking and writing description skills for most of the participants (10/90.9%).

All of the participants answered that receiving corrective feedback is useful and they usually spent no longer than 20 minutes for reviewing feedback. Many (8/72.7%) said they usually received corrective feedback on similar or the same errors, and 3 (27.3%) said it was usually on different errors. Likewise, 8 (72.7%) said corrective feedback on their errors was usually something that they already know, and 3 (27.3%) said it was new for them. In short, the students usually made similar or the same errors and they were usually aware of the grammatical language features of the errors.

Eight (72.7%) said their repeated errors reduced considerably and everyone agreed that repeated errors should be addressed in class lessons. Most of them (10/90.9%) thought those errors restrict their describability in English.

4. Overall Discussion on the Results

Errors in using determiners showed the largest number of 511 (46.04%) out of 1,110 errors, and errors in using verbs showed the second largest number of 237 (21.35%). The third largest error was in using prepositions of 167 (15.05%). The minor errors were shown in the errors in lexical use of 63 (5.68%), in nouns of 60 (5.41%), and in word order of 30 (2.70%). The errors showing the lowest frequency rate were in pronouns of 21 (1.89%) and in transformations of 21 (1.89%), such as *there is* and *there are* usages.

The distribution of errors under the eight categories in speaking and writing along with the smaller language features was quite similar to each other. In speaking errors, the most frequently committed was in using determiners (289/26.04%). Using verbs (124/11.17%) appeared as the second largest number. Using prepositions (93/8.38%) accounted for the third largest. For minor errors, errors in using nouns (34/3.06%), lexicon (30/2.70%), word order (19/1.71%), transformation (9/12%), and pronouns (8/0.72%) were found.

In writing errors, the most frequently committed was in using determiners (222/20.00%). Using verbs (113/10.18%) appeared the second largest number. Using prepositions (74/6.67%) accounted the third largest. For minor errors, errors using in lexicon (33/2.97%), nouns (26/2.34%), pronouns (13/1.17%), transformation (12/1.08%), and word order (11/0.99%) were found.

The errors in using determiners co-occurred as the largest percentage in both speaking and writing. Errors in using verbs co-occurred in speaking and writing by taking up the second largest. Errors in speaking and writing using prepositions co-occurred as the third largest. The errors in the smaller grammatical linguistic features in each category occurred similarly between speaking and writing descriptions as well.

Thus, conclusively, in both speaking and writing the major errors tend to co-occur along with their smaller grammatical features. Unlike the major errors shared similar distributions, the minor errors showed a little difference, but the gap was still in a very small range. The error totals are as follows. In lexicon use there are 63 (5.68%); 30 in speaking (2.70%), and 33 in writing (2.97%). In nouns there are 60; (5.41%) 34 in speaking (3.06%), and 26 in writing (2.34%). In word order, there are 30; (2.70%) 19 in speaking (1.71%), and 11 in writing (0.99%). In pronouns there are 21 (1.89%), 8 in speaking (0.72%), and 13 in writing (1.17%). In transformation there are 21 (1.81%); 9 in speaking (0.81%), and 12 in writing (1.08%) turned out to be different.

In the study, the three most manifested determiner errors were 1) omission of the indefinite article, 2) misselection of the definite article, and 3) omission of the definite article. The reasons of these manifested errors found in this study can be stated as follows. First, the large spectrum of determiners can be one of the main reasons that make it appear as a large ratio. Also, the fact that some language features such as definite and indefinite articles in determiners do not have strong linguistic features in Korea as much as they do in English could be another reason (Lee & Kang, 2019). Second, in the PDTs, the participants had to make more declarative sentences and affirmative statements by inevitably designating objects on the pictures. This characteristic in describing contents of pictures may have caused errors in using determiners and prepositions. Third, the high need of present progressive to describe actions in the pictures may have also caused the participants to make more errors in using the present progressive tense.

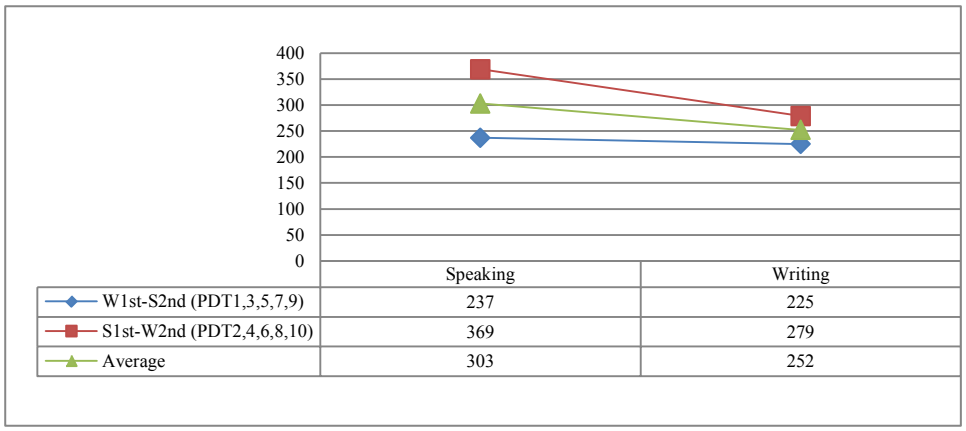
On the minor errors in speaking and writing which showed low frequency in this study, more language outputs in lexicon use, verbs, nouns, word order, pronouns and transformation should be collected to deliver in depth discussions on performance differences.

Out of 1,110 (100%) errors, 606 (54.59%) errors were committed by speaking and 504 (45.41%) errors were made by writing. The number of errors showed a gap of 9.18% with 102 more errors committed in speaking. From this gap, it is understood that the number of errors for speaking is usually higher than in writing.

The majority of participants expressed more difficulties in speaking descriptions and said it was easier to do PDTs in the order of writing first and then speaking second. In fact, it turned out the learners committed more errors when they did speaking PDTs first then writing PDTs. Out of 606 (54.59%) speaking errors, the participants made 132 (11.9%) more errors when they did the PDTs speaking first and writing second. Out of 504 (45.41%) writing errors, the participants made 54 (4.87%) more errors when they did the speaking PDTs first and writing second. This is summarized as Figure 3.

FIGURE 3

Comparison of the Number of Errors in Task Order



	Speaking	Writing
W1st-S2nd (PDT1,3,5,7,9)	237	225
S1st-W2nd (PDT2,4,6,8,10)	369	279
Average	303	252

As Figure 3 shows, the participants committed more errors both in speaking and writing when they did speaking PDTs first and writing second. With the average number of errors compared, both of the numbers in speaking and writing are above the average when the participants did the speaking PDTs first. This result implies that the lower confidence the participants have, the more errors they make. Thus, doing writing PDTs first can help the learners commit errors less.

Implementing PDTs and presenting individual corrective feedback for twenty picture descriptions showed no static reduction on the number of errors in total. However, this study implied the possibility that number of errors can be reduced if the same level of PDTs repeats with corrective feedback, considering the fact that the number of errors decreased in PDTs 1, 5, 7, 9, which hold similar contents. Moreover, the survey results and interviews that the participants believed their skills and confidence improved along with PDTs and corrective feedback support the argument. Plus, the fact that participants said they enjoyed doing PDTs and the PDTs also made their motivation for English study increase shows that PDT helps L2 adult learners actively participate in their language learning. The result that the participants' confidence increase in describing pictures in speaking and writing means their confidence in L2 production also increased.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The results of the study can be outlined in four parts. Firstly, even if the speaking errors outnumbered writing errors, the type of errors in speaking and writing appear very similar when the frequency distribution in errors is illustrated in a graph. The three most common

errors found in speaking and writing were the use of determiners, verbs, and prepositions along with the smaller language features of each category.

Secondly, the students felt the writing descriptions were easier than the speaking descriptions in their L2. Although they think the speaking skill to be more important than the writing skill, they preferred writing when they communicate in L2, and they considered speaking is more challenging than writing. The reason of the higher preference on writing, even though they think speaking is more important, could be the modifiability of the written language form. This explains the participants' low level of confidence in speaking, and in fact, as the results of the study showed, the participants committed more errors in speaking descriptions. The students in the study actually preferred to have a writing description first and a speaking description second. As the participants showed more difficulties in speaking descriptions, they actually made more errors when they did speaking descriptions first. This result suggests that in PDTs teachers can lower learners' L2 anxiety by presenting writing tasks first followed by speaking tasks.

Thirdly, PDTs seem very practical in order to activate L2 production and made the comparison between speaking and writing outputs possible. The language output from speaking and writing was produced very similar so that the errors can be analyzed. The errors occurred with a high frequency ratio (determiners, verbs, and pronouns) indicating what language features can be practiced by using PDTs. Over 90% of respondents agreed that PDT was helpful to increase their motivation in studying English and confidence in speaking and writing productions. Even though the total number of errors did not decrease over ten pairs of PDTs, which was not a goal of the study, the significant drop in the number of errors at the ninth PDTs implies that students' descriptions can become grammatically more accurate if they practice similar or the same level of PDTs with corrective feedback.

Lastly, all of the respondents wanted to learn the most common errors in speaking and writing; determiners, verbs, and prepositions in class more specifically. The participants expressed their interest in the errors that they kept making and wanted to make an improvement to correct them. Also, as the survey results showed, PDT can help L2 learners get actively involved in practicing language features that are not familiar in their L1.

This study presents pedagogical implications on the errors found and in using PDTs. The current study has found the types and frequency distributions of errors are almost identical with the smaller types of language features both in speaking and writing. There have been various studies conducted on L2 learners' language outputs but there are few studies on

discussing errors in both speaking and writing. The current study aimed to fill the data gap by analyzing errors in both speaking and writing to understand L2 learners' language outputs better.

Through using PDTs to analyze the errors in both speaking and writing, the number of errors in determiners, verbs, and prepositions accounted for the three highest errors as the previous studies critically discussed (Cha, 2004; Chin, 2001, 2013; Kim, 2004; Ok, 2010). This result confirms that determiners, verbs, and prepositions are three of the most difficult language features to acquire which do not exist in Korea as strong as in English (Lee & Kang, 2019). It supports the argument that L1 inference is critical in language learners' acquisition (Brown, 2000). Thus, as Kellerman (1979), and Touchie (1983) said negative transfer or interference is an important factor in L2 learning.

As EA can reveal a learner's system of language development (Mitchell & Myles, 2004) these errors can be removed or minimized through well designed curriculum so that L2 learners can successfully achieve their language goals. Discussing what certain errors occur both in speaking and writing is highly critical in teaching English and also in designing a learner centered curriculum to be effective and productive.

As language skills are interwoven in our everyday life, educating an L2 needs to be approached in a holistic way. For this matter, L2 learners can practice speaking and writing spontaneously with holistic activities such as simulated conversation in pairs and small groups, speech making or story telling (Nunn, 2001) and this study used PDT. This study has shown that PDT can be an effective tool in eliciting L2 productions.

It is recommended for L2 instructors to present a writing task first and a speaking task second because the L2 learners showed higher L2 anxiety in speaking. The L2 adult learners in this study showed lower preference and lower confidence in speaking than writing in their L2 communication. In fact, they committed more errors in speaking PDTs than writing PDTs. Moreover, they made more errors when they did the speaking PDT first then writing PDT. The interviews also showed that the students prefer to do writing PDT first and speaking PDT second. While L2 learners are doing writing PDTs, they will be able to go over their L2 production and possibly succeed self-corrections. Afterwards, they can activate what they have practiced while doing a writing PDT as "Preparation, practice, and prioritizing" from Ferris (1999).

In this way, we can lower students L2 anxiety and facilitate L2 production, which is a critical role of language instructors. L2 learners can share descriptions with one another and compare them in class so that they can be exposed to various language outputs. When language features are taught in class, L2 teachers can integrate language skills rather than segregate the skills by using PDT.

The study may have four limitations. First, although the errors discussed throughout the study were all cross checked with a native speaker who is an English instructor, the result can differ from ones' language competence (Legenhausen, 1975 in Thyen, 2011). Second, the language data gathered by PDTs can be restricted to the specific members. Third, the limited number of participants eleven may not be enough to generalize the results. Last, the result can be differently delivered according to pictures' contents and complexity. Nevertheless, this study contributes delivering necessary data for language instructors, curriculum designers, and textbook writers. As Corder (1967) argued, errors are indicative both for language instructors and L2 learners, so finding and discussing errors in production language of L2 learners can afford insights into where or what level the language learners currently are. L2 instructors can strategically approach successful language teaching by knowing what the possible obstacles are for L2 learners. As Ravem (1968, p.176) says "The more we know about language learning the more likely we are to be successful in our teaching of a second language." L2 teachers can also reduce the level of L2 learners' anxiety about committing errors as they are aware of what the common and persistent learners' errors are.

REFERENCES

Back, J. (2011). Preposition errors in writing and speaking by Korean EFL learners. *Studies in British and American Language and Literature*, *99*, 227-247.

Baker, D. (2008). *An A-Z of common English errors for Japanese learners*. Nagoya, Japan: BTB Press.

Brown, H. D., & Abeywickrama, P. (2004). *Language assessment: Principles and classroom practices.* White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.

Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching (4th ed.).* New York: Longman Inc.

Byrne, D. E. (1980). *English teaching perspectives.* U.K.: Longman.

Cha, K. A. (2004). An error analysis of Korean university students' writing. *Foreign Language Education, 11*, 149-169.

Cheon, S. M. (2017). A study of effective instructional methods based on the error analysis of vocabulary from cyber university students' spoken learner corpus. *Foreign Study Institute, Chung-Ang University, 39*, 167-192.

Chin, C. S. (2001). Error analysis: An investigation of spoken errors of Korean EFL Learners. *English Teaching, 56*(2), 97-123.

Chin, C. S. (2013). An investigation on written English from low level college EFL

learners. *English Language Teaching, 25,* 1-26.

Corder, S. P. (1967). The significance of learner's errors. *IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 5(1-4)*, 161-170.

Corder, S. P. (1981). *Error analysis and interlanguage.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dulay, H., Burt, M., & Krashen, S. (1982). *Language two*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (1997). *Second language acquisition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Etherton, A. R. (1977). Error analysis: Problems and procedures. *English Language Teaching Journal, 32*(1), 67-78.

Ferris, D. (1999). The case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes: a response to Truscott. *Journal of Second Language Writing 8*(l), l-l1.

Gefen, R. (1979). *The analysis of pupils' errors. English Teachers' Journal, 22*, 16-24.

Hidayah, L. W. (2014). *The effects of using picture media to reinforce vocabulary learning for the seventh of MTs Parteker Pamekasan Research.* Unpublished thesis. Islamic University, Madura. Retrieved March 21, 2019, from the World Wide Web: https://www.academia.edu/24558605.

James, C. (1998). *Errors in language learning and use: Exploring error analysis*. U.K.: Longman.

James, C. (2013). *Errors in language learning and use: Exploring error analysis.* New York: Routledge.

Johansson, S. (1975). The use of error analysis and contrastive analysis. *English Language Teaching, 29*(3), 751-758.

Jung, S. Y. (2005). *An analysis of verb errors in Korean adult learners' English writing and speaking.* Unpublished master's thesis. Sookmyung Women's University, Seoul.

Jung, T. Y., Shin, K. S., & Huh, J. (2010). A corpus-based analysis of grammar errors among adult EFL students: Focusing on structures containing 'be ~ing'. *Lingua Humanitatis, 12*(2), 423-445.

Kang, H. Y., Cho, S. R., & Lee, Y. U. (2015). Error analysis of verb and noun phrases by Korean learners of English in spontaneous speech and written output. *Journal of Language Sciences 22*(3), 27-54.

Kellerman, E. (1979). Transfer and non-transfer: Where we are now. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 2*(1), 37-57.

Kim, D. K. (2017). *Error analysis of verb phrase and noun phrase by Korean adult: English learners in speaking and writing.* Unpublished master's thesis. Yonsei University, Seoul.

Kim, J. Y. (1998). Error analysis: A study of written errors of Korean EFL learners. *Korean Journal of Applied Linguistics, 41*(2), 21-58.

Kim, Y. S. (2004). Error analysis: A study of spoken errors of business English learners. *Korean Association of Secretarian Sicence, 13*(2), 179-200

Kim, Y. S. (2018). An analysis of content structure matrix for primary English education in the 2015 national curriculum. *Primary English Education, 24*(4), 31-51.

King, L., & Dickinson, M. (2018). Annotating picture description task responses for content analysis. In Proceedings of the Thirteenth Workshop on Innovative Use of NLP for Building Educational Applications. *Association for Computational Linguistics,* 101-109. New Orleans, Louisiana.

Lavalle, P. I., & Briesmaster, M. (2017). The study of the use of picture descriptions in enhancing communication skills among the 8th-grade students—learners of English as a foreign language. i.e.: *Inquiry in Education, 9*(1), Article 4. Retrieved September 17, 2019, from the World Wide Web: https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1171736.pdf

Lee, H. J., & Kang, M. K. (2019). Error analysis of article uses in English and effective teaching methods. *Asia-pacific Journal of Multimedia Service Convergent with Art, Humanities, and Sociology, 9*(3), 213-222.

Legenhausen, L. (1975). *Fehleranlyse und Fehlerbewertung.* Berlin: Cornelsen-Velhagen & Klasing.

Ligon, F., & Tannenbaum, E. (1990). *Picture stories: Language and literacy activities for beginners.* New York: Longman.

Mitchell, R., & Myles, F. (2004). *Second language learning theories. (2nd ed).* London: Hodder Arnold.

Munkhochir, G., & Lee, C. I. (2015). A study on error types represented in computer-based speaking and computer-based writing: Centered around Korean learners. *Learning, 18*(3), 122-141.

Nunn, R. (2001). A holistic classroom activity-the class survey. *The Internet TESL Journal, 7*(4).

Ok, J. S. (2010). An error analysis of English verbs: A case study of a Korean local university. *Journal of The English Language and Literature. 54*(4), 213-247.

Park, J. K. (2009). 'English fever' in South Korea: Its history and symptoms. *English Today 97, 25*(1). Printed in the United Kingdom. Cambridge University Press.

Ravem, R. (1968). Language acquisition in a second language environment. *IRAL, 6*(2), 175-185.

Richards, J. C. (1971). A non-contrastive approach to error analysis. Error analysis: Perspectives on second language acquisition, 172-188. Reprinted from English *Language Teaching, 25*(3), London: Oxford University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. W. (2002). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics.* U.K.: Longman.

Scrivener, J. (2005). *Learning Teaching.* Oxford: Macmillan.

Sulastri, N. (2011). The effectiveness of picture chart media on students' English vocabulary. *Journal on English as a Foreign Language (JEFL), 1*(2), 103-110.

Swan, M. (2005). *Practical English usage. (3rd ed.).* New York: Oxford.

Thyen, N. (2011). Analysis of a learner's interlanguage. *Seminar paper.* Munich: GRIN Verlag.

Touchie, H. Y. (1983). Second language learning errors their types, causes, and treatment. *JALT Journal, 8*(1). 75-80.

Wetzork, R. (2005). An introduction to the concept of error analysis, *Seminar paper.* Munich: GRIN Verlag, Munich: GRIN Verlag.

Willis, D., & Willis, J. (2012). *Doing task based teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wright, A. (1989). *Pictures for language learning.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Yoon, H. K. (2012). Grammar errors in Korean EFL learners' TOEIC speaking test. *English Teaching 67*(4), 87-309.

APPENDIX A

PDT Themes and the Task Orders

Task Sets	Theme of the Pictures	Task Sequence of S&W	
		First	Second
1	Seasons	Writing	Speaking
2	Café and Shop	Speaking	Writing
3	Transportation	Writing	Speaking
4	Schedules	Speaking	Writing
5	Special Days	Writing	Speaking
6	Directions	Speaking	Writing
7	Imagination (Dreams)	Writing	Speaking
8	Doctor's Office and Hair Salon	Speaking	Writing
9	House Chores	Writing	Speaking
10	Traveling	Speaking	Writing

APPENDIX B

Example Feedback Sheet

Feedback for Picture Descriptions **Task Number: 8**

1. Participant:

2. Writing (Order: 2nd)

#	Original	Feedback
1		
...		
10		
Total Words:		

3. Speaking (Order: 1st)

#	Original	Feedback
1		
...		
10		
Total Words:		Time:

4. The Description Order and Pictures

Speaking-1st Task	Writing-2nd Task
	

APPENDIX C

Error Taxonomy Used in the Study

1. Use of the Article
a. Omission of the definite article
b. Omission of the indefinite article
c. Use of the wrong article
d. *Misselection of another/other(s)/the other(s)*

e. *a* used for *an* before vowels
2. Use of the Noun
a. Substitution of singulars for plurals
b. Substitution of plurals for singulars
c. Misselection of singular determination with plural nouns
d. Misselection of plural determination with singular determination uncountable nouns
e. Regularization by adding ~*s* to plural nouns
f. Omission of the subject
g. Two subjective nouns in a row
3. Use of the Pronoun
a. Regularization by adding *'s* for the possessive pronoun
b. Misselection of the pronoun
c. Use of the wrong pronoun
d. *It's instead of its*
e. Omission of *'s* for the possessive pronoun
4. Use of the Preposition
a. Omission of the preposition
b. Misuse of the preposition
c. Overuse of the preposition
d. Misuse of noun after the preposition
5. Use of the Verb
a. Omission of the verb
b. Use of the progressive tense
c. Agreement of subject and verb
d. Regularization by adding ~*ed* for the irregular past tense
e. Misselection of voice
6. Word Order
a. Misorder of the adjective and adverb
b. Omission of the conjunction
c. Omission of the subject/verb pair after a conjunction
d. Overuse of the conjunction
7. Transformations
a. Question transformation
- Omission of the auxiliary - Misorder of the auxiliary
b. There transformation
- Use of *is* instead of *are* - Use of *are* instead of *is*
- *Use of it is instead of there is* - *Use of there are instead of they are*
8. Lexical Errors: Misselection of Word
- Misselection of the verb - Misselection of the noun
- Misselection of the adjective - Misselection of the adverb
- Misselection of the auxiliary

Examples in: English
Applicable Language: English
Applicable Level: Tertiary

Miran Seo (Lecturer)
Dept. of English Language and Literature
Hoseo University
12, Hoseodae-gil Dongnam-gu
Cheonan, Chungnam, Korea
Email: miranglish@gmail.com

Sunmee Chang (Professor)
Dept. of English Language and Literature
Hoseo University
12, Hoseodae-gil Dongnam-gu
Cheonan, Chungnam, Korea
Email: schang@hoseo.edu

Received: January 16, 2020
Reviewed: February 27, 2020
Revised version received: March 5, 2020