Collaborative consciousness-raising tasks in EAL classrooms

JOSH MCNICOLL
Ewha Womans University, Seoul, South Korea

JANG HO LEE[1]
Korea Military Academy, Seoul, South Korea

ABSTRACT: *The present study investigates learning gains resulting from collaborative consciousness-raising (CR) tasks. For this purpose, text reconstruction and text repair tasks, two varieties of CR, were adapted from previous CR studies and administered to EAL (English as an Additional Language) learners in a women's university in South Korea. We implemented a pre-test, post-test and delayed-test design, with each dyadic CR task measuring student knowledge of different grammatical elements of English. The participants were shown to make learning gains resulting from text repair tasks, but not from their text reconstruction counterparts. These findings suggest that text repair tasks may be pedagogically preferable to text reconstruction, when promoting focus on form and dyadic discussion of specific linguistic aspects of the target language. This article ends with a brief summary of considerations from social learning theory that can aid the teacher in promoting collaborative behaviour during pair work and how CR tasks can be adapted for various learning groups.*

KEY WORDS: *Consciousness-raising, EAL learners, grammar learning, collaborative tasks, focus on form.*

INTRODUCTION

As English as an additional language (EAL) teachers, we are often faced with the question of how to improve our students' spoken accuracy, while perhaps wondering why students continue to make spoken errors if they "know" better. It is often the case that students have not sufficiently grasped the grammatical instruction they have already received – through communicative opportunities in the classroom. "Consciousness-raising" (CR) is one available method which allows for students to collaboratively improve their grammatical knowledge through discussion, thereby keeping the classroom communicative and maximising student talk time. Both the text reconstruction task (dictogloss) (Wajnryb, 1990) and the text repair task (Ecketh, 2008) are described in relation to this goal.

Motivated by preliminary, small-scale action research projects which have shown the positive effects of CR on learning second language (L2) grammatical elements, we have implemented the above CR tasks in our daily EAL speaking classes. While we observed during these activities that our students appeared to be highly motivated and took a measure of autonomy, we wished to move beyond the intuitive feeling that

---

[1] Corresponding author – Contact details: Department of English, Korea Military Academy, PO Box 77-2, Gongneung dong, Nowon gu, Seoul, South Korea 139-799. email: jangho330@gmail.com

these activities were useful for them and to confirm empirically the extent to which these tasks aided their English learning.

This quasi-replication study is based on a framework for examining consciousness-raising (CR) tasks proposed by Eckerth (2008). The purpose of this study was to see how well his findings are applicable to our own teaching context – adult EAL classrooms in South Korea – and if not, why such a discrepancy might occur. Based on the results of the study in naturally occurring situations, the implications of CR tasks are explored in reference to transcripts of learner interactions, and a pre-, post- and delayed-test interventional research model. This is followed by a discussion of how we can adapt CR tasks for various EAL learner groups after having considered proficiency, social learning theory and cultural aspects of our students.

BACKGROUND: CR TASKS AND SLA THEORIES

Ellis (1997) defines CR as:

> a pedagogic activity where learners are provided with L2 data in some form and required to perform some operation on or with it, the purpose of which is to arrive at an explicit understanding of some linguistic property or properties of the target language. (p. 160)

Sharwood-Smith (1981) gives a similar account of CR activities, describing the goal to be "a conscious analytic awareness of the formal properties of the target language" (p. 159). Therefore, the focus of CR activities is to develop learners' explicit knowledge of L2 grammar. While the role of explicit knowledge has been greatly contested and even disregarded by some (for example, Krashen, 1985), Eckerth (2008) holds a more optimistic view of explicit knowledge in regards to CR, namely, that it further "contributes to the detection of L2 features in the input" (p. 121). To summarize, CR is a type of activity where learners are provided with data, through which inductive (as opposed to deductive) learning of L2 grammar is believed to occur.

Among various types of CR tasks are collaborative and communicative activities, which draw our attention and fit in well with communicatively oriented classrooms. Indeed, collaborative CR tasks are theoretically linked to, and supported by several Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories/hypotheses. Taking an example, Swain's (2005) comprehensible output hypothesis suggests that, when learners are pushed to produce some output (for example, in collaborative activities), they can notice gaps in their interlanguage and engage in "hypothesis testing". Considering the fact that collaborative CR tasks are designed such that learners are forced to produce comprehensible output for a shared goal and that teachers intentionally involve target linguistic elements therein, it is likely that such tasks push learners' limits, and thus allow them to make some developments.

CR tasks are also valid from Schmidt's point of view (2001), as CR can assist learners to build explicit knowledge concerning the target language (TL), and it is this explicit knowledge that Eckerth (2008) and Schmidt suggest may facilitate noticing. Contrary to Krashen's (1985) acquisition/learning dichotomy, where the roles of explicit instruction and conscious learning are downplayed, much empirical evidence in SLA

literature indicates that noticing plays a large role in L2 developments, at least for some linguistic knowledge, if not all. This paper suggests CR tasks, explicit knowledge concerning the TL, and noticing are interrelated.

Findings from social learning theorists (Storch, 2002; Donato, 2004) have contributed towards a more comprehensive account of collaboration in the classroom, which is particularly relevant to this study concerning collaborative CR tasks. These views have supplemented psycholinguistic explanations provided from the integrationist research tradition by showing that cognitive approaches do not provide a complete account of language learning because they lack a perspective of how learners relate to one another in the social environment in which they are learning. Donato points out, "in many studies of language learning in interactive settings, the relational level of collaborative functioning of participants is ignored" (p. 287). While social learning theory does not account for L2 learning outcomes *per se*, it provides methodological lenses through which to seek an explanation for students' learning gains, or lack thereof. By looking at dyadic interaction during CR tasks and drawing on social learning theory, we can more fully account for our participants' learning gains.

To summarise, collaborative CR is well situated in communicative-oriented classrooms, as it can often help generate learner interaction and output. If carefully designed, CR also raises the likelihood that students will inductively learn target linguistic properties through noticing and hypothesis testing, while still engaging in and relishing communicative aspects of the tasks.

THE STUDY

Our primary research questions were as follows:

1. To what extent do pedagogically targeted learning gains result from the completion of dyadic CR text reconstruction and repair tasks?
2. To what extent do non-targeted learning gains result from engaging in dyadic CR tasks?

Participants

EAL learners participating in this study were all female and recent high-school graduates in South Korea. They had enrolled in a conversation course designed to help them prepare for their upcoming, mandatory English classes at a women's university. The participants were provided with an oral proficiency test to place them into levels, with one group of dyads being pre-intermediate learners and the other group being intermediate ones. Dyads were formed after the first four days of instruction and in all there were ten dyads.

CR tasks

We implemented two types of CR tasks: text reconstruction (also known as dictogloss) and text repair. The dictogloss activity (see Wajnryb, 1990 for a full description) was carried out using two texts, with one being teacher-created and the other being adapted from ESL materials. The dictogloss technique includes a text

which is either read orally or played from a recording two times at normal speed. Students listen and individually take notes of content words during each listening. After the listening and note-taking stages are completed, students meet together (as dyads in the present study) to share their notes and attempt to puzzle together a text resembling the original text – with no grammatical inaccuracies. During the dictogloss, students are not asked to replicate the original but "maintain the informational content of the original" (Wajnryb, 1990, p. 10). To encourage interaction and to better facilitate discussion during the activity, a key word from each dictated sentence was provided on the notepaper issued to the students in the study. Immediately preceding the text reconstruction, the participants were given a short ten-minute lesson by the teachers, and were told of the general topic of the text they would be reconstructing. Grammatical form was not taught or discussed as the study wanted to focus on targeted learning gains purely from task completion – not from teacher-led instruction.

The other activity, the text repair, was an activity implemented by Eckerth (2008). In the text repair task, students are provided with a grammatically incorrect or incomplete text and are asked to restore its grammaticality. Another important feature of text repair activities is that the language is contextualised in a paragraph or within a conversation. An example of a text repair from Eckerth's study is present below:

> A farewell letter:
> 'Dear Martin, I want say good-bye. You recently very much change. Earlier, you always annoy about my ex-boyfriends. Now you go out often other women and you hardly worry I. Earlier I complain not your behaviour, but now I have enough you. I no longer can rely you. Therefore I decide in favour another man.
> Irene'

The text repair task uses a text which possesses meaning – in the example above, the language is contextualised in a farewell letter. Through repairing the text, students engage in communication and hypothesis-testing which, as mentioned before, promotes discussion of how the language works.

Research design and tests

Once a week and repeating over the course of Eckerth's five week study, a pre-test was administered, then a task which was followed by a post-test. After one week, a delayed-test was administered without advance notice to the participants. The pre-test aimed to capture the participants' initial state concerning the target language of the CR task. The post-test captured immediate learning gains and the delayed-test measured the amount of retention of these gains over time (one week). Figure 1 illustrates the research cycle of the present study.

The pre-, post- and delayed-test were basically identical (but see "Data analysis" for some additional testing items included in the delayed-test). They contained the same number of test items and the same tests were given to each of the two groups of participants in the study. Test items in the pre-test as well as the post-test and delayed-test were adapted from Azar's *Fundamentals of English grammar* (2002) and each test item targeted a particular grammatical property. Test items were predominantly discrete-item, sentence assembly tasks, following Eckerth's study. In the first and third week, text repair tasks were administered, with their respective linguistic focus

being simple past/interrogatives (first week) and present perfect/simple past (third week). We administered text reconstruction tasks in the second and fourth week, respectively dealing with modals of ability and probability (second week) and past perfect (fourth week).
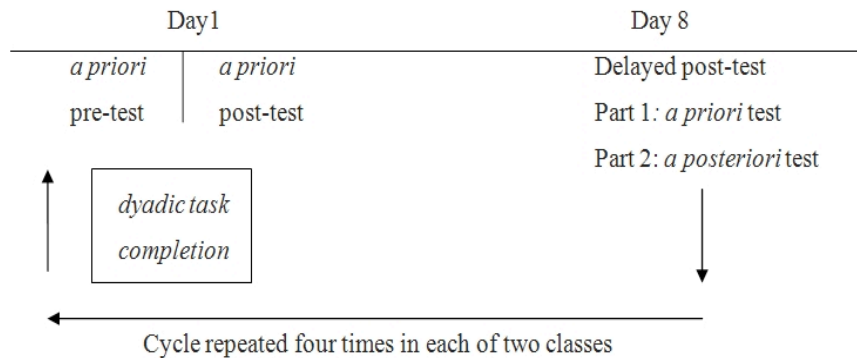
Figure 1. Research cycle (modified from Eckerth, 2008)

Data analysis

In view of the small sample size, we opted for non-parametric statistics in our statistical analyses. Data analysis was performed with SPSS 15 (SPSS Inc., 2006); the first and third tasks (text repair) were analysed together as were the second and fourth tasks (text reconstruction), yielding two sets of data.

Transcriptions were made from MP3 recordings of student interaction while on task. Self-talk was transcribed and instances of back-channeling were indicated with brackets to illustrate the nature of the communication between the students.

Based on our transcript data, we drew on Swain's tailor-made, dyad-specific tests to measure "linguistic knowledge that appeared to be co-constructed through the meta-talk of individual pairs" (Swain, 1998, pp. 75-76). Dyadic discourse was immediately transcribed and categorised after the completion of each of the tasks concerned in this study. Both researchers reviewed transcribed data for occurrences of controversial language-related episodes (CLREs) and inter-rater reliability was calculated at 90 percent. CLREs were classified as instances where dyads expressed divergent views of non-targeted aspects of the L2 among themselves. When a CLRE was identified, the researchers designed two testing items to assess whether any learning took place between students as a result of discussion on the non-targeted linguistic property in question. These items were then added to each of the delayed-tests. The newly added items were only added to the exams of students which entered into the non-targeted discussion. Since the purpose of the tailored test was to see whether members of the dyad learnt non-targeted aspects of the L2 from each other, the newly constructed test item was placed on both members' delayed-tests.

RESULTS

Our first research question examined whether the participants made any learning gains through engaging in the CR text reconstruction and repair tasks (Table 1).

Task	Group	Mean (SD) of Test Score		
		Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed test
Text reconstruction	Pre-intermediate	14.40 (2.8)	14.80(2.1)	14.8 (2.62)
	Intermediate	15.1 (3.98)	15.2 (2.74)	16.2 (3.12)
	Combined	14.75 (3.36)	15 (2.38)	15.5 (2.89)
Text repair	Pre-intermediate	21.90 (4.09)	23.8 (3.73)	23.7 (3.06)
	Intermediate	23.0 (3.27)	26.2 (1.48)	26.0 (1.83)
	Combined	22.45 (3.65)	25.0 (3.03)	24.85 (2.72)

Table 1. Descriptive statistics concerning text reconstruction and repair tasks

To investigate whether the immediate improvement to student ability concerning the target language was significant and how durable these learning gains were over time, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test, a non-parametric alternative to the paired t-test, was used. As for the text reconstruction tasks, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test measured both immediate learning gains ($Z = -3.06$, $p > .05$) and delayed learning ($Z = -1.43$, $p > .05$) to be insignificant. In other words, the CR text reconstruction tasks devised in this study did not appear to aid the participants to improve their mastery of the target linguistic property.

As for the text repair, immediate learning gains were found to be significant, ($Z = -3.21$, $p < .05$). Further, the participants retained a significant amount of what was learnt from the tasks when post repair-test scores were compared with delayed repair-test scores ($Z = -3.46$, $p < .05$).

Regarding the text-repair tasks, further statistical analyses showed that there was no significant difference between proficiency-level groups on the pre-test regarding TL grammatical competence, and differences of gains between the two classes were not statistically significant. This means that while two classes' test scores did improve, neither class made significant gains in relation to the other class. While this result was somewhat unexpected, it bears mentioning that the placement test was of oral type and may not have been adequately sensitive to gauge TL grammatical competence.

Our second research question was concerned with the extent to which *non-targeted* learning gains result from the completion of dyadic CR tasks. This question is *post-hoc* by nature, as we base our analysis here on *non-targeted* TL elements brought up by the participants during the discussions.

From the analysis of audio-recorded interaction, nine CLREs were indentified. The results of the tailor-made post-tests suggest that in roughly half of the negotiations between the dyads, non-conforming views of the TL were replaced with conforming L2 (English) norms and these were maintained over the seven-day period between task completion and post-test. Through transcript analysis, we found learning gains due to interactions in the dyad and this could be traced to collaborative dialogue that

was engaged in to fulfil the task. For example, in the following extract (*Extract 1*), a controversial learning episode concerning "address" occurs. Student A appears to consider "address" only as a noun, as in a mailing address. Student B disagrees with A's assessment and believes that address in this context is used as when talking to someone.

Extract 1: A learning episode regarding the lexical item "address"

Student A: You heard jewelry stores? I heard who address…

Student B: Ah… so one of the robbery go to jewelry store … and clean or … maybe address that … address that where is jewelry store? <u>Address is like saying. Isn't it?</u>[2]

Student A: <u>Address … only write to … not saying.</u>

Student B: Writing? That mean … so that we can guess that cleaners give that … the jewelry store's address to criminals? On the morning, one of the robbery went to? Go to…go to jewelry store. Which is…who address? *No. I don't think so … is like saying*[3].

It is interesting to note that the lexical item "address" was not our target item and that the CR task helped generate a situation where participants were forced to produce some output which provided opportunities for acquiring new linguistic knowledge. Although an interaction such as the above may not guarantee acquisition, at least hypothesis-testing or noticing (Schmidt, 2001) on the part of learners may follow.

DISCUSSION

This study was conducted as a quasi-replication of Eckerth (2008), but in a different learning context and with different TL linguistic focus. Unlike Eckerth's study, where significant learning gains were demonstrated from the completion of both CR tasks involved, in our study significant gains were demonstrated only as a result of the text-repair tasks. Transcript analysis showed that text repair tasks generated significantly more discussion than the text reconstruction counterparts: word counts from repair tasks were 30 per cent longer on average. Additionally, more LREs – instances where learners talked about the L2 – were found in repair tasks, implying that text repair tasks promoted more form-focused interaction than text reconstruction tasks and that participants paid more attention to target linguistic aspects planted in the tasks.

An explanation for significantly longer interactions and discussions during text repair tasks can be provided by considering the nature of the tasks. Whereas the text repair tasks were presented in a written format for the participants, the CR text reconstruction tasks placed participants in a more cognitively demanding situation (in particular, the listening requirement of such tasks). Although they were instructed to anticipate such challenges and were reminded that reconstructions of the text need not be identical to the original text, we still found many instances such as that below:

Extract 2: A learning episode from a CR text reconstruction task

---

[2] Text <u>underlined</u> to mark LRE's
[3] Text *italicized to mark CLRE's* occurring in student interaction

S1:   I … heard the last sentence but I don't know what it means.
S2:   Sorry?
S1:   I … heard the last sentence but … I didn't know about this … it means.
S2:   Mm … what is last sentence? Do you remember?
S1:   No (laughs).

Navigating through these instances in our transcript, we found that the participants occasionally placed more emphasis on remembering specific details during the text reconstruction, and not on producing grammatically correct sentences. On the other hand, during the text repair, the participants were able to channel their energy directly on manipulating various aspects of the L2, as the text was already provided for them (unlike text reconstruction tasks). Consequently, this enabled more time to be spent focusing on form and to discuss specific linguistic aspects of the language that were to appear on the post- and delayed-tests.

Extract 3.1. A segment of the third task (text repair)

Dear Minjung,
   It was a long time since I saw you. How have you be? Yesterday I've told my dad that it is a shame we did not see each other much these days. Yesterday, I've decided to study English again.

Extract 3.2 A learning episode from the third task (text repair)
S1:   Uh … a letter from Minjung … [dear Minjung, it's a]
S2:   [dear Minjung it was] a long time.
S1:   [Since I saw you]
S2:   [Since I saw you] Uh … since …
S1:   Ah (laughs).
S2:   have PP?
S1:   Present perfect? So because of since … it could be it has been a long time?
        ...it has been a long time … since I saw you.

Above are two extracts, with *Extract 3.1* being a segment of the third task (text repair) and *Extract 3.2* being the dialogue of the students as they worked on the task. To illustrate the challenge of the dictogloss, it can be observed that certain words are of higher value than others in preserving the meaning of the dictation; if dyads fail to hear key words (such as "since" in this example) they cannot go backwards or forwards or otherwise contextualise the language – they must make a guess which they may not feel comfortable doing.

To summarise, the participants in our study seem to have produced more output when performing tasks which did not require supposition involving listening and reconstructing, but when performing operations on an already set text. Because the text repair tasks were somewhat more closed (having fewer possible solutions) than the text reconstruction tasks, participants may have favoured them and consequently felt more comfortable spending collaborative energy on fulfilling them.

Having said that, insignificant learning gains in our study, contrary to Eckerth's, may be attributed to the rather low proficiency level of our participants. That is, text reconstruction tasks caused a severe cognitive load on our participants, which shifted

their focus towards other aspects of the tasks (for example, lexis, listening) and consequently restricted their ability to focus on our target forms. It may also have been the case that the participants in Eckerth's study were accustomed to less concrete tasks. Additionally, students may have exhibited higher avoidance uncertainty, not wanting to engage in possible face-losing scenarios with their partners, as they had not developed adequate rapport and trust over the time allotted for the study.

Having discussed our findings, we now shift to a more pedagogical question: how should CR tasks be adapted for various EAL learner groups? In light of current theories and studies examining the effects of CR including the one at hand, we would point to two learner attributes in designing CR tasks. First, learners' proficiency in conjunction with the amount of cognitive loading attached to a particular CR task needs to be taken into consideration; otherwise learners will not be able to take full advantage of engaging in such a task, no matter how well it is designed. We saw in our study that text reconstruction has the potential to cause a cognitive overload on the part of learners, and this would negatively affect their acquisition of TL elements.

Secondly, from a social learning perspective, the social realities of the learners and the relationships they share in dyadic interaction seem to have a significant bearing on the amount and quality of interaction. We found through the transcript data that each dyad produced considerably different configurations of interactions, and we further noticed that this was most likely due to the nature of bond/relationship between learners. For example, during work on the task reconstruction, one student would assume the job of reading and locating errors. She would then propose an answer to the error and defer to her partner, who would have the final say on the grammaticality of the item in question. The extract from this dyad (*Extract 4*) suggests S1 perceived S2 to be more knowledgeable and, consequently, defers to S2 throughout.

Extract 4. A learning episode from a less collaborative dyad

S1: It have been a long time?	(reads text verbatim, defers)
S2: Mm mmmm	(shows agreement)
S1: It have been	(refines question)
S2: A long time since I saw you	(offers no challenge; item is missed)
S1: How have you…to be? [How have you been]	(S1 reads and defers)
S2: [How have you been]	(S2 confirms S1's idea)
S1: Yesterday I told my dad that it is a shame we did not see each other much these days…	(S1 reads text verbatim)
S2: It was? That it was a shame…we did not … we didn't see each other much these days	(S2 proposes answer; it is not contested) Ss move on to next item.
S1: Yesterday I decide to study English again when I was in high school I study- I studied-	(S1 changes "study" to "studied")
S2: Mm…ah for about three years I-	(S2 confirms S1's verb change of base form of verb *study*)
S1: I have?	(S1 defers to S2)

In the example above, the nature of each person's contribution seems somewhat predictable. The perceived weaker student tries to elicit the answer from the perceived stronger student. Such a question and answer routine is not particularly rich in potential for learning, as neither student appears to be challenging themselves. S2 answers are generally brief and hold no rationale or scaffolding for the weaker learner. This is in strong contrast to *Extract 3.2* presented before, in which the nature of the interaction goes beyond checking and confirming to giving useful rationales, which contain potential learning experiences.

From the onset of class, it would be possible over time for teachers to identify learners' relationships and consider these when pairing them up for target tasks. Social learning theory and careful monitoring could, over time, help uncover interactional tendencies among learners, which could possibly lead to more collaborative pairs and help teachers become more aware of students' behavioural differences. We found two of Storch's (2001) findings particularly instructive when considering how collaborative a dyad can be considered. Both linguistic features (especially the use of pronouns in dyadic conversation, such as "we" versus "I", as well as imperatives) and "the amount and nature of each partner's contributions" (p. 33) offer insights into how well knowledge is being co-constructed and how collaborative dyads are.

LIMITATIONS AND PROPOSALS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

While some shortcomings are apparent in this study, perhaps the most significant factor which bears mentioning is the short period between the post- and delayed-test. Although a one-week gap for the administration of delayed-tests is relatively common in this kind of study, it is debatable whether such a period is long enough to ascertain the true acquisition of target elements on the part of the learners. On the other hand, a non-EAL readership would wonder about the extent to which these CR tasks are effective for the acquisition of syntactically more complex grammatical elements, on which native speakers of English would make mistakes on some occasions. We have to acknowledge that such grammatical elements in English were not incorporated into our study, partly due to the fact that such elements were beyond the current proficiency level of our participants – those who learn English as an additional language.

Future research would aim to address the aforementioned drawbacks, but also consider new directions. We would like to develop a monitoring system informed by social learning theory that could be used for teachers to more deeply understand the behavioural patterns of their students of which only a few were presented here due to lack of space. Diary studies, in particular, could be used to come up with such a framework for teachers hoping to more deeply understand their students from a social learning perspective. Finally, we would like to further study how increased rapport and trust among dyads may translate into different learning outcomes concerning the tasks mentioned in this study.

CONCLUSION

Findings from this quasi-replication suggest that collaborative CR activities can produce valuable learning gains for students. Further, insight provided by social learning theory into the nature of student interaction offers an invaluable perspective when considering the CR tasks involved in this study. When designing CR tasks, we have suggested that lower-proficiency-level learners may benefit more from concrete tasks, such as the text-repair, than from freer and more cognitively demanding tasks. In addition, while the task design itself is important, the design of the dyad cannot be overlooked. For those who do not teach exclusively in the EAL context, any instructors faced with the task of explaining a rule of some kind in an academic setting – whether it is one explaining how language works, or perhaps even a mathematical principle – might wish at some point to have students pool their knowledge so that they may learn at their own pace and briefly pursue related topics of concern.

The inductive principles of learning underlying the same activities used in this article could, with some ingenuity, be used to foster student-centred classrooms in almost any academic setting. Students in an Algebra class could be given an assignment in pairs, where they would have to find out how an imaginary student came to an incorrect value for a variable – the teacher of course, having already planted the pedagogical point to be brought into focus. Perhaps by completing such an activity, a teacher might be able to covertly lead students to notice errors which they themselves tend to commit, and through dialogue in pairs or in groups, these students might come to a fuller understanding of the surrounding concepts the teacher wishes to target. What is more, students might come up with questions that the teacher has not yet asked.

REFERENCES

Azar, B. (2002). *Fundamentals of English grammar* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Longman.

Donato, R. (2004). Aspects of collaboration in pedagogical discourse. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *24*, 284-302.

Eckerth, J. (2008). Investigating consciousness-raising tasks: Pedagogically targeted and non-targeted learning gains. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *18*(2), 119-44.

Ellis, R. (1997). *SLA research and language teaching*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. London, England: Longman.

Schmidt, R. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 3-32). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sharwood-Smith, M. (1981). Consciousness-raising and the second language learner. *Applied Linguistics*, *2*(2), 159-68.

SPSS Inc. (2006). *SPSS for Windows, Rel. 15.0.0.* Chicago, IL: SPSS Inc.

Storch, N. (2001). How collaborative is pair work? ESL tertiary students composing in pairs. *Language Teaching Research*, *5*, 29-53.

Storch, N. (2002). Relationships formed in dyadic interaction and opportunity for learning. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *37*, 305-22.

Swain, M. (1998). Focus on form through conscious reflection. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 64-81). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Swain, M. (2005). The output hypothesis: Theory and research. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 471-483). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Wajnryb, R. (1990). *Grammar dictation*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.