INCIDENTAL FOCUS ON
FORM AND TWO DIFFERENT TYPES OF
RECONSTRUCTION TASKS

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INCIDENTAL FOCUS ON FORM AND TWO DIFFERENT TYPES OF RECONSTRUCTION TASKS

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MA THESIS
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RASLANTISAL YAPI ODAKLILIK
VE İKİ FARKLI YAPILANDIRMA AKTİVİTESİ

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YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Danışman: Yard. Doç. Hasan ÇEKİÇ

Eskisehir
Anadolu Üniversitesi
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Haziran, 2010

To my beloved family and husband

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ÖZÜ

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Bu çalışma alanda yapılan önceki çalışmalara dayalı olarak, iki farklı yapı odaklı aktivitenin İngilizce yabancı dil öğrencilerinin dil üretimine etkisini araştırmayı amaçlamıştır. "Yapıya odaklanma" ilk olarak Long (1991; in Long, 2000) tarafından, anlama dayalı eğitim yapılan ortamlarda, öğrencilerin dikkatinin dilsel öğelere odaklamasını açıklamak için ortaya atılmıştır. "Yapıya odaklanma" nın uygulaması ile ilgili olarak Swain (1998) metin ve anlam arasındaki ilişkiyi sürdürerek örencilerin dikkatini çeşitli dil öğelerine odaklayan işbirliği içinde üretim aktivitelerini önermiştir. Bu aktivitelrin en çok kullanılanları öğrencilerin kendilerine verilen içerik kelimelerini kullanarak kısa bir metni işbirliğiyle yeniden oluşturdukları "metin yeniden yapılandırma" aktivitesi (Storch, 1998, 2001a, 2001b, 2002, 2008) ve öğretmenin sesli olarak okuduğu metni, aldıkları notlardan yaralanarak işbirliği içinde yeniden yazdıkları "dikte" (Kowal and Swain, 1994; Swain, 1998; Swain and Lapkin, 2000-2001) aktiviteleridir.

Bu çalışma da iki tip yapı odaklı aktivitenin (dikte aktivitesi ve metin yeniden yapılandırma aktivitesi) öğrencilerin dil öğelerine odaklanmasını teşvik etmedeki etkisi karşılaştırılmıştır. Çalışmaya toplam 20 anadolu lisesi dil bölümü son sınıf öğrencisi katılmıştır. Öğrenciler aktiviteleri ikişerli gruplar halinde (her aktivite için 5 grup öğrenci) tamamlamış ve konuşmaları ses kayıt cihazları kullanılarak kaydedilmiştir. Konuşmaların

transkriptleri "farlı dilsel öğeler" halinde kodlanmıştır. İki aktivitenin tamamlanması sırasında ortaya çıkan dikkatin miktarını, türünü ve doğasını (etkileşimli ya da etkileşimsiz) incelemek için öğrencilerin her iki aktiviteyi tamamlarken ürettikleri "dil ile ilgili öğeler"in sayısı, türü ve doğası analiz edilmişitr. Ayrıca tamamlanan aktiviteler dil ile ilgili verilen kararların doğruluğu ya da yanlışlığı açısından da incelenmiştir. Bulgular her iki aktivitenin de öğrencinin dikkatini dil öğelerine odaklama açısından etkili olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Öğrenciler kendi metinlerini oluştururken farklı; anlama dayalı, dilbilgisine dayalı, ve yazımsal, öğelere odaklanmışlardır. Ama, iki aktivitenin de tamamlanması sırasında, diğer iki kategoriye (anlama dayalı ve yazımsal) kıyasla dilbilgisine dayalı öğeler öğrencilerin dikkatini daha çok çekmiştir. Son olarak, her iki aktivitenin de öğrencilerin anlam ya da dil bilgisi üzerine tartışmalarını teşvik etmede etkili olduğu ve tartışmalarının sonunda karşılaştıkları dilsel problemleri büyük oranda doğru olarak çözebildikleri bulunmuştur.

ANAHTAR KELİMELER: YAPIYA ODAKLANMA, İŞBİRLİKÇİ YAZMA AKTİVİTELERİ, DİL İLE İLGİLİ ÖĞELER

M.A. THESIS ABSTRACT

INCIDENTAL FOCUS ON FORM AND TWO DIFFERENT TYPES OF
RECONSTRUCTION TASKS

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This study derived from the growing body of descriptive research investigating two different types of focus on form tasks requiring the learners to produce output collaboratively. Focus-on-form was firstly introduced by Long (1991; in Long, 2000) as a way to draw learners' attention to linguistic features within primarily meaningful contexts. Concerning the application of focus on form, Swain (1998) suggested collaborative output tasks to fix learners' attention on form by holding overall text-meaning constant. Typical of these tasks are text reconstruction task (Storch, 1998, 2001a, 2001b, 2002, 2008) in which learners collaboratively reconstruct short written texts by using content words given to them and dictogloss task (Kowal and Swain, 1994; Swain, 1998; Swain and Lapkin, 2000-2001) during which the students reconstruct the text the teacher read aloud.

The study aimed to compare the effectiveness of two types of collaborative output tasks (dictogloss task and text reconstruction task) on promoting the students' attention to form. The participants were 20 Turkish EFL students in a foreign language class in Eskişehir, Salih Zeki Anatolian High school. The students completed the tasks in pairs (5 pairs in each task group) and their talk was audio-recorded. The transcriptions were coded as language related episodes (LREs). The number, types and the nature (interactive or noninteractive) of LREs the students produced while completing the tasks were analyzed to compare the amount, type and the nature of attention the two tasks generated. The completed tasks were

also examined for the accuracy of the linguistic choices reached. The findings revealed that both tasks were effective in promoting the student's attention to from. While reconstructing the texts, two groups of students paid attention to a variety of grammar-based, meaning-based and orthographic items. However, in both tasks, grammar based episodes took the learners attention more compared to other two categories; meaning based and orthographic episodes did. Lastly, both tasks were found to be effective in facilitating the students' discussion on both form and meaning, and at the end of their discussion, the pairs could correctly resolve a high proportion of the linguistic problems they encountered.

KEY WORDS: FOCUS ON FORM, COLLABORATIVE WRITING TASKS, LANGUAGE RELATED EPISODES

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INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Beginning with the early stages of the language teaching, various approaches and techniques have been tried to find out how language is learnt best. At the early stages, grammar oriented teaching gave rise to a linear behaviorist model consisting of explicit grammar teaching, repetitions of models, memorization of short dialogues and mastering an item at a time (Long, 2000). As a response to the frustration the weaknesses of grammar-oriented teaching caused in terms of communicative needs, more communication-oriented, meaning based approaches found support from L2 researchers (Prabhu, 1987 in Swain, 1998; Allwright, 1984). The lessons focusing on meaning were purely communicative as the second language learning was believed to be implicit and incidental, not intentional like the first language learning. In the same way, grammar rules were considered to be learned implicitly and incidentally through exposure to input (Long, 2000). Types of tasks encouraging learner interaction and the classroom activities targeting creative and fluent use of language sources were advocated by communication oriented, meaning based approaches. (Mayo, 2002a) However, the findings especially from the immersion classes suggested that only input-rich instruction and communication oriented activities were insufficient for the learners to develop target-like language proficiency (Long and Robinson, 1998). The learners in immersion classes could convey their message across in the second language yet despite the years of exposure to input and the opportunities of interaction, the learners developed a non-targetlike morphology and syntax (Swain, 1998). Due to these reasons, meaning based approaches saw a decline in 1980s (Long and Robinson, 1998). Instead, the tasks encouraging the students to focus on form within meaningful contexts

appeared as a new way to let the students develop their interlanguage (Swain, 1985; in Reinders, 2009).

Shortly, as Swain (1998) stated neither input-rich communicative activities nor the activities aiming to teach isolated grammar rules out of context with mechanical drills are adequate for the learners to acquire language. The students should be allowed to develop their interlanguage through output, talking or writing. Output has three functions in language development of the students. According to Swain (1998), to acquire input it should be noticed firstly. While the students are trying to express something they want in target language, they notice the gaps in their interlanguage or the differences between their interlanguage and the target language. Noticing the gaps, then push the learners to compensate them by formulating hypotheses. Through positive or negative feedback, the learners confirm these hypotheses or reformulate them. This process helps the learners to develop their interlanguage. Finally, while outputting, talking or writing, the students find the opportunities to reflect on language.

In Turkish EFL setting, the students generally learn the language through traditional PPP (presentation, practice, production) model. In this model, after the students are presented a certain linguistic item within a situation created, it is practiced via firstly mechanical and then meaningful activities. The output opportunities of the students are usually limited to single words or phrases they produce to complete the activities assigned. Therefore, it seems that Turkish EFL students are not given much chance to notice the gaps in their interlanguage or the differences between their interlanguage and the target language, and thus to reflect on their outputs.

Therefore, this study is motivated from the need to let the students notice the gaps in their interlanguage through output. It aims to investigate to what extent two different collaborative output tasks help Turkish learners to focus on different aspects of the

language, which are incorrect or unavailable in their interlanguage, and promote their reflection on their outputs.

1.2 Background of the Study

Since the very early stages of language teaching, teaching grammar has been one of the most debatable issues taking place at the centre of the field. At these early stages, language teaching was perceived as "teaching grammar items explicitly", language learning referred to the "learning of grammatical items of the language consciously" (Richards and Rogers, 1986).

Noticing the fact that none of traditional methodologies ensure language acquisition due to some deficiencies, SLA researchers have always been in search of new ways of language teaching (Richards and Rogers, 1986). Krashen (1985; in Swain and Lapkin, 1998) thinks that the comprehensible input is prior to language teaching. As it is the case in the first language learning, the second language is learnable through exposure to input or positive evidence, which means there is no need for negative evidence, corrections or formal language teaching. Therefore; input rich, communication-oriented activities focusing on meaning help the learners to acquire the second language.

On the other hand, although meaning-centered instruction was proved to be successful in enabling the students to understand much of what they hear or read in target language and get their message across even at intermediate and higher levels, it was observed that these students can't reach target-like proficiency regarding the use of morphology, syntax and discourse patterns (Swain, 1999). To put it another way, even though CLT was successful in terms of learners' motivation and fluency, it didn't ensure native-like correct production of language (Harley and Swain, 1984; in Mayo, 2002b). This lack of CLT seems to have drawn researchers' attention to learners' awareness of form and led

them to find ways of how to focus learners' attention on form while maintaining meaningful communication (Swain and Lapkin, 2002; Swain, 1998, 1999).

Originally, "focus-on-form" was defined by Long (1991; in Long, 2000) as a brief turning of attention to some formal features while overriding focus of the interaction remains on meaning. Focus should arise incidentally in response to some problems in comprehension or production. However, Long and Robinson (1998) provided a narrower definition of focus on form.

> Focus on form refers to how focal attentional resources are allocated . . . during
> an otherwise meaning-focused classroom lesson, focus on form often consists of
> an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features – by the teacher and/or
> one or more students – triggered by perceived problems with comprehension
> or production. (p:23)

Long (2000) distinguishes focus on form from traditional and meaning-focused approaches. According to him, teaching explicit grammar rules, repetition of models, and memorization of short dialogues and mastering a linguistic item at a time are the key features of traditional formal language teaching methodologies. Contrarily, in focus-on-form approaches primary focus of attention is on meaning and attention to form occurs incidentally. On the other hand, focus on form is also different from meaning focused approaches which exclude formal language teaching. Focus on form requires the students to take attention to form in case of occurrence of a problem in production or comprehension of a structure. Briefly, focus-on-form captures the strengths of two types of instructions while it tries to compensate their weaknesses (Long and Robinson, 1998).

Ellis (2002) expands Long's definition further and divides it into two categories; "planned focus on form" and "incidental focus on form". In planned focus on form, the

form to be discussed is pre-determined and communicative task is designed to elicit use of this form in the context of meaning centered language use. Thus, attention to form occurs during interaction where primary focus is on meaning. However, the students are not told the form targeted explicitly.

Unlike the planned focus on form, incidental focus on form is used to elicit general samples of language rather than a specific aspect of the language. During these unfocused, communicative tasks, learners may attend to various types of linguistic features incidentally as there is no pre-determined linguistic feature.

Figure-1.1 illustrates the types of form-based instruction (Ellis at al, 2002)

Type	Syllabus	Primary Focus	Distribution
1. Focus-on-forms	Structural	Form	Intensive
2. Planned focus-on-form	Task-based	Meaning	Intensive
3. Incidental focus-on-form	Task-based	Meaning	Extensive

Concerning the implementation of focus on form, the studies suggest the use of tasks requiring the learners to produce collaborative written output. According to Swain (1999), the most salient and common feature of focus-on-form tasks is that they lead the students to work jointly to understand the meaning of the series by talking about them and write what they understand as coherently, accurately and appropriately as possible. Motivation behind these activities are interaction hypothesis of Vygotsky (1986; in Fortune and Thorp, 2001) and collaborative dialogue extended from output hypothesis (Swain, 1998).

Vygotsky (1986, in Fortune and Thorp, 2001) claims that all learning derives from social interaction, taking place first on an interpersonal level before becoming intrapersonal. Dialogue triggers developmental processes such as language learning.

However, Long and Robinson, (1998) extend interaction and add one more dimension. According to them, focus on form activities evidence that in addition to the interaction between the learners, the interaction between the learner and certain types of written texts is vital for language development.

Swain's hypothesis (1998) emphasizes three functions of output; noticing, hypothesis testing and metatalk which allow learners to develop their interlanguage system. Noticing is necessary for the learners to acquire the input; in other words; to acquire the input, it should be noticed firstly. There are several levels of noticing. Learners may notice a form only as it is salient or available or they can notice both the form and the fact that it is different from their interlanguage. The most effective level of noticing is when learners notice that they can't express what they want to say in target language. Swain describes this highest level of noticing as "noticing the hole". Through interaction, the students will notice the gap in their interlanguage as they compare it with the target language.

Hypothesis testing function of the output begins when the learner notices the gap in his interlanguage and tries to compensate it. The learner forms a hypothesis to handle the output required to be produced. When external feedback is available, he finds the chance of confirming and reformulating the hypothesis; which helps him to modify his utterances and develop his interlanguage system.

Lastly, metatalk function refers to learners' using language to reflect on language use. In this case, the learner's interlanguage indicates the learner's awareness of something about his own or interlocutor's interlanguage. The students don't have to use specific terminology to define their speech as metatalk. Sometimes they can use metatalk without using the terminology. Metatalk serves the function of deepening the students' consciousness on grammar rules and their relationship to the meaning they want to

express. Also, it allows the students to notice the relationship between meaning, form and function within context.

Collaborative tasks encourage the learners to produce output collaboratively and consciously reflect on their output (Swain, 1999). Swain and Lapkin (1998,2002) and Swain (1998,1999, 2000) name the dialogue the learners produce during these tasks as collaborative dialogue which is extended from output hypothesis and defined as "the dialogue in which the learners engage in problem solving and knowledge building". In other words, collaborative learning helps the second language learning by motivating the students to solve their linguistic problems and co-construct language or language about the language. Consequently, collaborative dialogue leads the learners to activate and develop their mental resources and focus on form to express what they want as accurately and coherently as possible. (Kim, 2008)

Collaborative writing tasks include eight principles of collective learning (Jacobs, 2003). These are heterogeneous grouping of the learners in terms of age, sex, level and personality, collaborative skills needed to work with others, group autonomy which means depending on group learners' sources rather than teacher's, simultaneous interaction which allows a big number of students to speak at the same time, equal participation leading each learner to have a different role within group, positive interdependence which involves common goals, struggle and benefits among all group members and, lastly, cooperation accepted as a common value by all members of the group.

In consistence with Swain and Lapkin (1998, 2002) and Swain (1998, 1999), Donato (1994; in Williams, 2001) discusses the collective scaffolding function of the collaborative tasks. When the learners use the collective resources of the group, they could further the knowledge of the group members through collective scaffolding in which each contribution builds on the previous one. Availability of peer-feedback

during collaborative written texts enables the students either to focus their attention on the gaps in their interlanguage or to provide confirming feedback which consolidates their language knowledge (Storch, 1998).

Although different types of tasks such as editing, close test and composition writing have been reported to be effective collaborative writing activities, typical of these tasks which attempt to fix attention on form by holding text-meaning constant are the reconstruction tasks. These require the learners to reconstruct short written texts either by using the key lexical items given to them or after they listen to the text read aloud by the teacher (Fortune, 2005). Reconstruction is one of meaning-oriented task types allowing the learners to focus on linguistic forms and compare their interlanguage output with the target models (Thornbury, 1997).

Thornbury (1997) describes the reconstruction tasks as a three-step process which involves both bottom-up and top-down processing. The starting point of reconstruction tasks is the teacher's text or the text provided by the teacher, which the students, firstly, listen or read and then reconstruct collaboratively. While reconstructing a text, the students have to use their available linguistic competence which falls behind the target model. This process forces their attention on form and activates bottom-up processes. Forcing the students to produce the second language helps them to recognize some of their linguistic problems and take attention to what they need to compensate the problems in their L2 (Swain and Lapkin, 2002). On the other hand, the students can decode the input through activated background knowledge or content words, which involves top-down processing. Lastly, in matching stage of reconstruction tasks, the learners compare their own version with the target model, so this stage helps the learners to convert newly-acquired input into intake (Thornbury, 1997).

Among the learning strategies suggested by O'Malley and Chamot (1990, in Thornbury, 1997) are two kinds of noticing strategies; "selective attention" which refers to

attending certain aspects of language during task execution and "self evaluation" that involves learners' checking the outcomes of their performances against a certain measure of accuracy and completeness. These strategies defined by O'Malley and Chamot are parallel with the matching stage offered by Thornbury (1997). According to him, consciousness raising activities targeted at noticing strategies with special reference to reconstruction tasks can be used to make the students aware of the gaps in their own language and to let them develop their language by compensating these gaps.

Schmidt (1990 in Storch, 2008) distinguishes between three levels of attention. The first level is "registration" involving unconscious attention to a form. The second level is "noticing" consisting of both attention and awareness; thus, noticing refers to detection of a form with the same conscious processing of this form into short term memory. Lastly, the highest level is "understanding" which entails higher level of awareness and a more complex processing of information into long-term memory. As a result, according to Schmidt (1990 in Storch, 2008), a linguistic item should be noticed before it is learned. Reconstruction and matching stages of reconstruction tasks provide the students with the opportunity of noticing which is essential for learning linguistic items at all levels; discoursal, syntactic, lexical and phonological. By the way of correct manipulation of task design or correct task choice, reconstruction tasks can be used to meet the needs of both grammar-driven programme and meaning-driven task based syllabus (Thornbury, 1997).

1.2.1 Dictogloss Task

Dictogloss is a kind of reconstruction task requiring the learners to reconstruct the text collaboratively after they listen to it from the teacher (Thornbury, 1997). Dictogloss is a new way of dictation developed firstly by Wajnryb in order to draw the learners' attention to language form (1990). In the standard dictation procedure, the students try

to write exactly what the teacher says. This technique was criticized as "root learning"; which led the development of dictogloss (Jacobs, 20003).

Wajnryb (1990) defined the dictogloss as "a contemporary approach to learning grammar in which language forms, structures and patterns are treated from the perspective of their particular contextual meaning." (p:13). To put it another way; dictogloss is a task based procedure designed to help language learning by leading the students towards a better understanding of how grammar works on a text based task. It leads the students to use their productive grammar for text creation and, during reconstruction stage, the students are encouraged to discover what they (don't) know about language; which triggers internalization process in language learning.

Application of dictogloss involves four stages. In the preparation stage, the students are familiarized with the topic of the text, taught unknown key words, given the purpose and expected outcomes of each stage of the task and grouped. Secondly, in dictation stage, the teacher reads the text twice; in the first instance, the students are required to listen to the teacher while he is reading the text at normal speed without taking any notes. In the second instance, the teacher reads the text in semantic units, by pausing between the sentences and without breaking the sentences up into isolated units. Meanwhile, the students are instructed to take notes in phrases, not in full sentences. In the reconstruction stage, the students are allowed to work in pairs or small groups, so they can pool their notes to create their own version of the text. Immediate task objectives of this stage are to maintain the informational content of the original form, and to produce a sound English text. In order to reach these objectives, the students are instructed to produce a grammatically correct, semantically cohesive text with logical order and logical sentences on the bases of their world knowledge. Lastly, in correction and analysis stages, firstly the students' versions of the text are analyzed sentence by sentence with the whole class. After the students' versions are examined, original text is reflected on an OHP to let the students compare different versions and discuss the

language choices. Thus, the students should not be allowed to see the original text until after their own versions are examined.

1.2.2 Text-reconstruction task

Text reconstruction is another kind of reconstruction task which was proved to be effective on making the students focus on form. It allows the learners to work collaboratively and benefit from peer feedback (Storch, 1998). Like the dictogloss task, text reconstruction task aims to elicit the learners' attention to form. However, contrary to the audial stimulus given in the dictogloss task, in the text-reconstruction task, the learners are presented written stimulus. They receive a coherent text which contains only the content words and most of the grammatical features are removed from (Storch, 2008).

The stages, objectives and the rationale of the text-reconstruction task is the same as the dictogloss task; however, the input characteristic of this second type of task is different from the audial input provided in the dictogloss task. In text reconstruction task, the students are presented a written stimulus and the students working in pairs or small groups use this stimulus to create their own versions (Mayo, 2002a). Therefore, in reconstruction stage, the students are instructed to insert necessary function words (e.g. articles, prepositions), linking words, inflectional morphemes (e.g. tense and aspect markers, singular/plural markers), and/or changing word-order in order to produce an accurate, meaningful and appropriate text (Storch, 1998). As it is the case in the dictogloss task, after the versions produced by each group are analyzed with the whole class, the groups' versions are compared to the original text, and language preferences by the students are discussed.

1.3 Statement of the problem

As mentioned above, in Turkish EFL classes, "PPP" (presentation, practice, production) model is the most common technique used to teach English. In this model, a linguistic item is taught and practiced at a time. After the students master the target item, other one begins to be taught. Mechanical and meaningful activities requiring the students to practice the target linguistic item out of context seem to be used intensely during the lessons. Despite this overtly grammar focused lessons, the students still cannot produce correct language. Also, as their output opportunities are generally limited to single words or phrases, they usually have difficulty in incorporating what they are taught in lessons into their writing or speaking. This difficulty that Turkish EFL learners experience may be explained by what Long and Robinson (1998) and Swain (1998) proclaim; they think that the learners do not always acquire what the teachers teach because explicit teaching of grammar points through a structural syllabus does not guarantee the students to acquire them. Hence, the students should be allowed to discover the weaknesses or holes in their own language through output (speaking or talking) so that they will try to find ways to handle the output required expressing what they want in target language, which will trigger the development of their interlanguage. Shortly, to acquire input provided, the students have to notice it firstly. It is highly possible that, as Turkish EFL students don't have necessary amount of chance to output (write or talk) during the lessons, they cannot notice the weak or deficient parts of their interlanguage.

Collaborative writing tasks are a way to make the students to notice problematic areas of interlanguage. In other words, collaborative writing tasks aiming the students to focus on form while maintaining text-meaning connections may be an alternative in Turkish EFL classes to give the students a chance to discover and learn better.

1.4 Purpose of the study and research questions

As stated above, Turkish students cannot use what they are taught in lessons accurately, or they cannot transfer their newly-learnt knowledge to their writing or speaking. Probably, this situation stems from the fact that they don't have necessary amount of chance to output and discover what is missing or incorrect in their interlanguage. Thus, this study aims to explore which types of collaborative writing tasks (focus on form tasks) are more effective in terms of providing learners with opportunities to notice the missing or problematic aspects of their interlanguage.

For this purpose, this study compared the effects of two types of collaborative writing tasks – a dictogloss and a text reconstruction task- on students' noticing the aspects which are missing in their interlanguage or different from the target language. After a two-week training session, 10 pairs of Turkish EFL learners were required to complete one of the two tasks and their interactions during implementation of these tasks were audio recorded and analyzed as Language Related Episodes.

These two types of collaborative written tasks were selected to compare for the following reasons:

1. In a number of studies, these two task types were proved to be effective in terms of encouraging the learners to deepen awareness of their output; during both tasks, the students worked collaboratively to reconstruct a text, they explained the reasons of their language choice; which was expected to help them to notice the holes or errors in their interlanguage. (For dictogloss; Swain and Lapkin 1998, 2002; Swain 1998, 1999 and for text-reconstruction, Storch 1998, 2001a-b, 2002, 2008)

2. Input characteristics provided during each text were different. In the text reconstruction task, the students were provided with written stimulus which the

students used to reconstruct a paragraph. Contrarily, in the dictogloss task, they were presented auditory stimulus which the students had to understand firstly to reconstruct the paragraph. Hence, it was expected that two tasks would generate different amount of attention to form. As the learners taking text-reconstruction task would have written version of the paragraph they would write, it was anticipated that this type of task would elicit more attention to form. However, the students taking the dictogloss task had to understand the text provided as an aural stimulus and use the words they chose to reconstruct the paragraph. Thus, they were expected to be more concerned with producing a coherent paragraph while paying attention to more diverse aspects of language. (Mayo, 2002a).

1.4.1 Research Questions

The study formulated the following research questions:

- What is the amount of attention to form two different tasks (dictogloss versus text-reconstruction) generate measured on the base of Language Related Episodes (LREs)?

- What types of Language Related Episodes do the students primarily focus on while completing two different tasks (dictogloss versus text-reconstruction): grammar based episodes, meaning-based episodes or orthographic episodes?

- Which task engenders more interaction over the decisions reached at the end of LREs?

In order to measure the amount of attention the tasks generated, the number of LREs the students produced while completing the tasks were calculated (the first research question). Then, these episodes were analyzed according to three main categories (grammar based episodes, meaning-based episodes or orthographic episodes) to answer

the second question. Lastly, to measure the amount of interaction each task generated, the episodes were coded as interactive or noninteractive and the numbers of interactive and noninteractive LREs were calculated for each task.

1.5 Significance of the study

The significance of this study is both theoretical and pedagogical. Use of collaborative written tasks has begun when the researchers such as Kowal and Swain (1994), Lapierre (1994, in Swain and Lapkin, 1998), Swain (1998) and Swain and Lapkin (1998, 2002) noticed the case in immersion classes. Though these students could understand most of what they read or hear and could easily express what they want to say in target language even at lower levels, they cannot reach native-like proficiency level in terms of accuracy. At the end of their observations, the researchers noticed the need to focus students' attention to form while they are maintaining meaningful communication. The results of the studies evidenced the effectiveness of collaborative tasks regarding pushing the students to focus on form, explaining or justifying their language choice during these tasks. Afterwards, studies conducted in different settings such as intensive ESL programmes (Williams, 1999) and content based courses (Leeser, 2004) supported the results of the previous studies conducted in French immersion classes. However, as Storch (2001a) points out, we need more classroom based research to investigate which written output task focuses the learners' attention on form more and allows them to explain their decisions. Consistent with the Storch's call, this study may provide a basis for which type of written task is more effective in terms of leading the students to focus on form and explaining or justifying their language choice. Also, as it is expressed by Mayo (2002a) classroom-based research to be conducted in EFL setting are necessary to assess the sustainability of these tasks and to improve their designs in this context.

Besides, as Doughty and Williams asserted, profile of foreign language students are highly different from SL students or immersion classes. They have had overtly metalinguistic instruction with limited meaning-focused input or output opportunities and pedagogical limitations such as teacher-centered classes, large class sizes and exam-centered instruction. Focus on form tasks designed according to the conditions of

these students can facilitate two functions of output described by Swain: noticing and output hypothesis (1998). The studies investigating the effects of collaborative written tasks in EFL classes (Fortune and Thorp, 2001; Mayo, 2002a; Fortune, 2005) are not many and further classroom based research are needed to investigate the effectiveness of these tasks in EFL setting. Briefly, this study responds this need expressed by Doughty and Williams (1998).

The study may also generate some implications for the foreign language teachers. As Swain (1998) claims, through collaborative written tasks, the teachers can gain insights into the hypotheses their students hold about language so that they can organize their instruction by taking incorrect hypotheses into consideration to prevent the students from developing fossilized knowledge related to certain aspects of language, or they can help the students internalize the correct hypotheses by confirming them. Also, while completing these tasks, the students notice their linguistic shortcomings and develop strategies to solve in cooperation with a partner. In this case, again, the teachers will have the opportunity to prepare materials, activities or instruction appropriate to the needs of their students.

1.6 Limitations and the assumptions of the study

The study has following limitations:

a) As there is no other 12th grade language class in the school of research, Salih Zeki Anatolian High School, the texts were piloted with 12nd grade language students in a different high school (Gazi Mustafa Kemal Anatolian High School).

b) Personal characteristics of the students might have affected the number and the nature of the LREs produced by different pairs. However, this issue was not considered in the discussion of the findings.

c) Although the pairs were encouraged to use English while discussing on the items, the discussions were mostly in L1. However, as the amount of L2 or L1 use in the tasks was not the concern of the study, this point was not taken into consideration.

d) It was assumed, depending on the previous studies, that conscious noticing leads to better learning and accurate use of the target language.

1.7 Definition of the Terms

Form: It is generally used to refer to grammatical items, however; in the current study, the definition of Ellis at al (2001b) is taken into consideration. According to Ellis at al (2001b) form needs not to be used to refer to grammar only, but to different dimensions of language such as phonology, vocabulary, grammar or discourse.

Collaborative writing tasks are reconstruction tasks creating opportunities for the learners to work in collaboration to reconstruct the knowledge by talking what they notice, how they understand this, and how they find a solution (Malmquist, 2005). Ellis (2002) calls these types of tasks as "focused communicative tasks" and offers them as a way to focus the students' attention on form.

These type of focus on form tasks attempt to fix learners' attention on form by holding overall text-meaning constant (Fortune, 2005). Typical of these tasks are either text-reconstruction task, in which learners collaboratively reconstruct short written texts by using key lexical items given to them in advance (Storch, 1998, 2001a, 2001b, 2002, 2008) or dictogloss task in which learners listen to the text read aloud by the teacher and reconstruct the text by making use of the notes they take during the second listening (Kwal and Swain, 1994; Swain, 1998; Swain and Lapkin, 2000).

Language Related Episode (LRE) is defined as "any part of dialogue in which the students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or other– or self- correct" (Swain, 1998 p.70). It begins with the identification of a language issue or item needing attention and ends when a correct or incorrect resolution is reached, or the learners move on to consider another issue.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Tasks have been defined by a number of ways. Although Nunan (1989, in Mayo, 2002a) presents diverse definitions of a task, common points of these definitions are that all of them consist of communicative language use and the learners' attention is directed on meaning rather than linguistic structures. Hence, task based language teaching finds support in both SLA literature and communicative language teaching (CLT). Types of tasks advocated by SLA research and used in CLT classes encourage interaction. Creative and fluent language use is the aim of these tasks. On the other hand, the findings of the studies coming from SLA literature and immersion classes have demonstrated that if there is no room for drawing learners' attention to linguistic features of the language, it is impossible for them to achieve high levels of accuracy in L2 production, though they may be fluent. (Long and Robinson, 1998; Doughty and Williams, 1998; Swain, 1998, Kowal and Swain, 1994) Consequently, these research have asserted the learners' need to attend to form by taking its facilitative effect on the second language acquisition process into consideration.

Output conditions through which the learners can produce meaningful output and modify it in response to positive or negative feedback is one of the ways to let the students focus on form within meaningful contexts (Swain, 1999). Concerning the implementation, Kowal and Swain (1994), Swain (1998) and Swain and Lapkin (1995, 1998, 2000,) use collaborative tasks in which learners jointly work in pairs or triads to understand the meaning of series by talking about them, write what they understand as coherently, accurately and appropriately as possible.

However, the question "to what extent are collaborative tasks effective and their effects sustainable in different settings" has still to be answered. In order to find convincing answers to this question, the review of current literature, which will form the basis of this study, is presented in this chapter. Specifically, this chapter deals with the concepts of "form focused instruction, focus on forms, focus on meaning, focus on form, incidental focus on form, planned focus on form, noticing, collaborative output tasks and output hypothesis along with previous studies and findings.

2.2 Form Focused Instruction

According to Ellis (2001), form focused instruction (FFI) involves a number of instructional activities making the learners attend to various linguistic features of the language regardless of if they are explicit, implicit, deductive, inductive, planned or incidental. FFI covers a variety of teaching techniques barrowed from the most traditional ones such as Audio lingual method or grammar translation method and the recent meaning focused communicative approaches.

Similarly, Long (1991, in Eş, 2003)) explains form focused instruction as an umbrella term used to refer to any pedagogical technique proactive or reactive, implicit or explicit used to draw students' attention to form. It includes not only focus on form procedures but also all activities used for focus on forms.

In his study, Ellis (2002) reviews 11 articles which have examined the effect of FFI on learners' free production. Reviewing the body of data has revealed that form focused instruction contributes to the acquisition of implicit knowledge. Similarly, Norris and Ortega (2000) have compared the overall effects of both implicit and explicit form focused instruction and concluded that both types of focused L2 instruction results in large and durable gains although explicit types of instruction are more effective than implicit ones. Contrarily, explicit instruction types don't sustain its superiority when the learners' gains are measured via post tests requiring them to produce the target structures in meaningful contexts.

According to Ellis (2001) form focused instruction has two distinctive types; focus on forms (FONFs) and Focus on form (FONF)

2.2.1 Focus on Forms

The starting point of a course is the critical issue of if the language should be taught explicitly or implicitly. The oldest and the most popular approach used while designing a syllabus is "syntactic approach" in which the language is divided into categories such as words, collocations grammatical rules, phonemes… Then, the items in resulting lists are taught to the students explicitly and in a linear way by the way of presenting models of language and then practicing them. However, this syntactic approach simplifies the language teaching with the notion of "what you teach is what the learners learn" (Long and Robinson, 1998 pp.48).

Long (2000) calls these traditional approaches as "focus on forms" which refers to the application of structural and syntactic syllabus that presents discrete linguistic items separately in order for the students to learn them. Key features of these methods are explicit grammar rules, repetition of models, memorization of short dialogues, mastering a linguistic item at a time. Therefore, during the class time, the students are aware of what they are expected to learn as they are required to focus on a pre-selected linguistic items.

In their review article, Norris and Ortega (2000) expresses that the results of the previous studies prove that explicit instruction techniques are more effective than the implicit ones, and focus on form and focus on forms interventions lead to larger effects.White Long (1991, in Long and Robinson 1998) compared the performances of two instructed classes on acquiring the target structures (auxiliaries and "wh" questions) to the performances of three uninstructed classes. He used a pre test, immediate and delayed post test design for his study. The findings revealed that the students in

instructed groups obtained better gains compared to the ones in uninstructed groups and maintained their gains in delayed post test administered after five weeks.

Likely, DeKeyser (1998) compared the effectiveness of explicit-deductive learning and the implicit-inductive learning by using an artificial linguistic system including five morphological rules and a set of 98 words. During the study, total 61 participants joined 20 computerized sessions each lasting 25 minutes. Implicit-inductive instruction group students were exposed to pictures and sentences without taking any explicit instruction. On other hand, the students of explicit-deductive group were given explicit instruction and required to produce the target form. At the end of the study, explicit deductive learning was seen to be highly more superior to implicit-inductive one.

Robinson (1996) investigated the claim of while simple grammar rules can be learned through explicit instruction by making the underlying rules salient, complex grammar rules can be learned through implicit instruction better. He examined the generalizability of this claim in the context of adult second language acquisition with 104 learners randomly delivered to four computerized sessions: 1-incidental group, 2-insructed group, 3- rule-exploring group and 4-implicit group. All groups were taught two target structures, a simple structure which is "subject verb inversion" and a complex one which is "pseudocleft of location". The results of the study supported the claim partially as instructed group outperformed other groups in acquisition of simple rules; however, no significant difference was available between the groups regarding the acquisition of complex rule. Thus, it can be set forth that explicit instruction is more effective in making the students gain simple rules but there is no superiority between explicit and implicit instruction regarding the acquisition of complex rules.

Long (2000) calls all of the lessons accompanied with syntactic methods such as audio-lingual method, grammar translation method, audio-visual method, silent way, TPR and syntactic syllabuses such as structural, lexical, national-functional syllabuses as "focus-

on forms". According to him, these dry, grammar-oriented lessons suffer from six vital deficiencies:

1. It is a one-size-fits-all approach that usually results in teaching the genres or skills the students don't need, or vice-versa. No needs analysis is conducted to diagnose the communicative needs of the learners. Learning styles, differences or preferences aren't respected.

2. Simplification and artificiality of classroom language cause the learners to be exposed to restricted and impoverished input.

3. Syntactic syllabus requiring "mastering one item at a time" doesn't respect the internal syllabuses of the learners. It ignores the fact that learning an item is not a one-time categorical event.

4. During the construction phase of the syllabus, the ideas of the students are not taken into consideration.

5. Despite all efforts of the teachers, focus on forms lessons are boring and decline the motivation of the students.

6. In spite of language instruction lasting for many years, most of the learners fails in reaching high proficiency levels and remain as beginners or false beginners.

These deficiencies of focus on forms have pushed the researchers to a search for other options and focus on meaning was offered as an alternative.

2.2.2 Focus on Meaning

As an alternative to the first type of syllabus, another single-minded syllabus "focus on meaning" was offered by SLA research. Rationale behind this analytic syllabus is that L2 should be acquired in the way L1 is acquired, and second language learning should be incidental or implicit (Long and Robinson, 1998). There is neither need nor place for explicit language teaching; exposition to comprehensible input is primary and sufficient for L2 learners to acquire the second language (Krashen, 1985; in Swain and Lapkin, 1998). In this newer syllabus, lessons focusing on meaning are purely communicative, and the learners are presented holistic samples of communicative second language. Neither the teacher nor the text book but the students are at the centre of learning; they

analyze the language and learn grammar rules only from positive evidence and through exposure to input. (Long, 2000)

Briefly, focus-on-meaning lessons follow Prabhu's procedural syllabus (Long and Robinson, 1998) which involves communicative meaning focused activities and unlike to focus on forms, it excludes controlled practice, explicit instruction and error correction from second language classes.

One of the studies proving the effectiveness of focus on meaning was conducted by Morgan-Short and Bowden (2006), who compared the performances of 45 students divided into three different groups: 1-processing instruction group 2-meaningful output-based group and 3-control group. The input provided to experimental groups was the same, however, they were given meaningful practice which is input or output based. The form targeted in the study was Spanish preverbal direct object pronouns. The gain of the students was measured through immediate and delayed post tests administered in both interpretation and production levels. The findings demonstrated that in interpretation level the experimental groups outperformed the control group, yet in production level, the students in MOI group obtained higher scores than other the two groups.

Like the first type of syllabus, the lessons focusing the students' attention on meaning and communication have been observed to create some problems. Long and Robinson (1998) summarizes the shortcomings of focus on meaning as follows:

1. There exist maturational constraints because early beginners learn the second language better via this approach, which evidences that adult learners do not have the same capacity as the children to attain native norms in a new language by the way of exposure to it only; thus, they need something extra to compensate what they lost.

2. Although learners can speak new language fluently, their productions, especially in terms of grammatical competence, remain far from native-like level

3. Some L1-L2 constrasts are impossible for learners to learn through solely exposure to language. Then, although much of language can be gained trough exposure, it is not enough.

In line with the statements of Long and Robinson, Long (2000) emphasizes negative aspects of focus on meaning. According to him, no needs-means analysis is conducted to guide curriculum and content of the lessons.

Additionally, Swain (1999) points out to the condition in Canadian immersion classes where the context of language teaching involves input-rich instruction and communicative oriented activities. Beginning from the basic levels, these students can understand much of what they read or hear in target language and get message across easily in intermediate and higher levels. In contrast, they cannot reach target like proficiency regarding the use of morphology, syntax, semantics and discourse patterns. After noticing these problems, Swain and his team conducted an observational research in a number of immersion classes from different grades. As a result of their research, two main problems emerged concerning these meaning focused lessons.

1. Although grammar is taught in immersion classes, nature of the instruction emphasizes manipulating or categorizing language forms rather than relating form to their meaningful use.

2. Rate of student talk is too low during the lessons. Even though the students can express what they want to say in target language, their utterances are limited to one or two words.

Considering the deficiencies of focus on meaning, Long (2000) have proposed the application of focus on form in second language classes.

2.2.3 Focus on Form

Focus on form tries to reconcile the weaknesses of focus on forms and focus on meaning while benefitting from their strengths. Advantage of focus on form is that it, rather than excluding formal elements of language as in communicative language teaching or limiting such focus as in focus on forms, requires both meaning and use to be evident in classroom while drawing learners' attention to formal elements of language (Doughty and Williams, 1998).

Similarly, Swain (1998) proclaims that an input-rich instruction and communication oriented activities are not sufficient for learners to develop target like language proficiency; on the other hand, teaching only grammar rules out of context with mechanical drills is not also adequate. Students should focus their attention on form while maintaining meaningful communication (Lightbrown, 1998; Campillo, 2006).

Focus on form was defined by a number of researchers; however, Michael Long (1991; in Eş, 2003) is the first presenting "focus on form" to the literature. He defines focus on form as "it refers to how attentional resources are allocated and involves briefly drawing students' attention to linguistic elements in context, as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding attention is on meaning or communication" (pp: 45)

The second definition proposed by Long and Robinson (1998 p: 23) treats focus on form as an unplanned approach drawing the learners' attention to form:

> During a[n] … meaning focused classroom lesson, focus on form often consists of an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features- by the teacher and/or one or more students triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production.

Contrary to the broader definition of Long and Robinson (1998 p: 23), Spada (1997; in Mayo, 2002a) provides a much broader definition offering greater assistance for practical implementation.

> . . . form-focused instruction will mean any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners' attention to language form either implicitly or explicitly. This can include the direct teaching of grammar language (e.g. through grammatical rules) and/or reactions to learners' errors (e.g. corrective feedback). (p:73)

Lastly, another definition comes from Ellis at al (2002). According to him, focus on form "is a particular type of form-focused instruction treating linguistic form in the context of performing a communicative task." (p: 419)

Long (1998; in Long and Robinson, 1998) bases focus on form on his so-called interaction theory, which claims that interaction between the learners and other speakers is a crucial site for language development, but not only the interaction between the learners and more proficient speakers but also the one between the learners and certain type of written text are vital for language development.

Likely, Ellis (1993, in Williams 1995) explains the facilitative effect of drawing learners' attention to form within communicative content based curricula. Development of explicit rule based knowledge is important in helping the learners to find out input and facilitative output. Then, it is possible that some degree of focus on form could lead to improved, more accurate performance.

The findings of the studies in immersion classes in Canada (Swain, 1998) support the claim of Ellis. In these communicative classes, an approach based on focus on form was

perceived to be a way to help the students develop target like proficiency. Ellis at al (2002) rests the rationale behind this argument on some premises from literature.

1. To make the students gain the ability to use linguistic form communicatively, they need to engage in meaning focused communicative activities; however, the students have the opportunity to guarantee full acquisition of target form if they attend to form while engaged in meaning focused language usage. Long (1991; in Ellis at al 2002) argues that "only in this way can attention to form be made compatible with the immutable processes that characterize L2 acquisition and thereby overcome persistent developmental errors." (p. 422)

2. As adult learners don't have necessary mechanisms as do children to process the second language and attend to form and meaning, they will prioritize the meaning over form while performing a communicative activity. Therefore, a way to take adult learners' attention to form during a communicative activity has to be found.

Long (1996; in Williams, 2001) summarizes two advantages of focus on form. Initially, it increases the salience of positive evidence and also, it can often provide essential negative evidence in the forms of direct or indirect feedback.

A number of previous studies have proved the effectiveness of focus on form. One of these studies was conducted by Doughty and Varela (1998) with 34 students of content based math, science intermediate level ESL classes at university. The study aimed to explore if a natural, incidental focus on form task is effective in promoting L2 use and accuracy. Both oral and written performances of the students were evaluated via pretest, immediate post test and delayed post test administered to measure the gains of the students in acquiring the target form, simple past and conditional. During three science experiments carried out between pre tests and immediate tests, the experiment group received focus on form instruction in addition to science content instruction, whereas control group received only science content instruction. The findings of the study evidenced the effectiveness of focus on form technique in a content based classroom

because the students in experimental group improved in accuracy and total number of effects in past time references. However, the students were seen not to maintain their gains during delayed post test administered after two weeks.

Another study supporting benefits of focus on form was conducted by Williams and Evans (1998) to ascertain amenable forms to focus on form and instructional treatment. Two sets of forms were chosen for the study: 1-partiple adjectives of emotive verbs and 2-the passive, and three instructional focus-on-form techniques –flood of positive evidence in the input, explicit instruction and feedback, and dictogloss tasks the students were instructed to complete in two forms- were used to teach target structures. The subjects of the study were intermediate ESL students at a university. The results of the study led the researcher to make important inferences. First of all, focus on form was proved to have a positive effect in teaching both structures. The students made great gains in acquisition of both forms. Furthermore, all focus-on-form activities were not effective equally for all target forms. Interactions among instructional treatment, form type and learner profile were seen to be important factors effecting the effectiveness. Briefly, the study suggested an interaction between choice of forms and instruction.

Also, Harley (1998) conducted a research evidencing both immediate and lasting impact of focus on form on the second language proficiency of grade-2 French immersion class learners as young as 7-8 years old. The study aimed to determine if an early instruction of focus on form could have an influence on proficiency in an area of French language: gender of French nouns. Contrary to the students in control group, treatment group students received focus on form instruction on gender of French nouns. A pre test, immediate post test and delayed post test design was used for the study. The scores of the students obtained from both post tests demonstrated that use of L2 tasks drawing the learners' attention to formal feature as a part of task demands is beneficial even for young children in terms of both immediate and delayed time effect. On the other hand, as the learners couldn't generalize the knowledge about noun endings to unfamiliar

nouns, the researcher concluded that instruction was more successful in item learning rather than system learning.

Lastly, Muranoi (2000) have compared the effect of interaction enhancement, in which a teacher provides implicit negative feedback during an interactive problem-solving task, on learners' restructuring of their interlanguage. With this aim, he compared the performances of experimental group receiving interaction enhancement with the performances of control group students. In addition, two types of interaction enhancement differing in the manner of focus-on-form (1-implicit negative feedback during an interactive problem-solving task plus formal debriefing 2-implicit negative feedback during an interactive problem-solving task plus meaning-focused debriefing) were compared to investigate what type of form-focused treatment is necessary and sufficient for restructuring in L2 to be triggered. The study was conducted with 91 EFL learners and the target structure was "articles". The performances of the participants were measured via a pretest and post test. At the end of the study, IE group was seen to surpass the control group, and also, IE plus formal debriefing treatment was better than IE plus meaning-focused debriefing.

Despite these research supporting focus on form, "how to focus on form in language classes" is a debatable issue. Various techniques or ways were offered by different researchers to take students' attention to form during a primarily meaning-based activity. Two of these researchers presenting the possible focus-on-form tasks and techniques were Doughty and Williams (1998) who classified them as "input flood, task essential language, input enhancement, negotiation, recasts, output enhancement, interaction enhancement, dictogloss, consciousness-raising tasks, input processing and garden path" according to their degree of interrupting the flow of communication (Figure:2)

	Unobtrusive						Obtrusive
Input flood	X						
Task-essential language	X						
Input enhancement		X					
Negotiation		X					
Recast			X				
Output enhancement			X				
Interaction enhancement				X			
Dictogloss					X		
Consciousness-raising tasks					X		
Input processing						X	
Garden path							X

Figure-2.1 : focus on form tasks and techniques on the basis of obtrusiveness (Doughty and Williams, 1998 p:258)

Similar to Doughty and Williams, Long and Robinson (1998) advised four ways to get learners' attention to form during the tasks.

1- Repeated occurrence of certain linguistic items in input make the learners notice it. Repeated use of items in different passages and underlined or italized items in a passage make them salient to the learners and help learners notice them.

2- If the students are allowed to work in pairs to produce a written text by using the reading passage seeded with target form given to them in advance, they are encouraged to use the target form in a communicative context.

3- After noticing that most of the students have problem with a certain linguistic item, the teacher can interrupt the task and draw learners' attention to the problematic item by using a suitable technique.

4- Implicit negative feedback is also a way to take the learners' attention to form (i.e. recasts)

Similarly, Ellis (2001a) and Ellis at al (2002) categorize focus-on-form according to the design of the lesson. A focus-on-form task may emerge in two ways: incidentally or in a planned manner. If the teacher prepares a task without planning the form to be focused during the lesson, focus on form occurs incidentally. On the other hand, linguistic item

to be focused during the lesson can be determined in advance and the materials can be prepared in a way to make the students notice targeted item. In this case, it occurs in a planned manner.

2.2.3.1   Types of Focus on Form

2.2.3.1.1 Incidental Focus on Form

Long (1991, in Ellis at al, 2002) suggests that the form should be focused in case of failure or need of the students in the class. Controversial adjustments between the students and the teacher help the learners to make the meaning clear. Similarly, Long and Robinson (1998) states that the syllabus content of a focus on form programme is series of pedagogical tasks related to current or future needs of the target group. Attending to an interview, making an airline reservation are the examples of this analytic syllabus. Linguistic problems the students will encounter are not listed in advance, but they are paid attention as a result of opportunities arising naturally from the interaction of learners and the task.

Doughty and Varela (1998) assert that the aim of implicit focus on form is to take the students' attention to linguistic form during the communication without departing them from communicative goal of the lesson in order to discuss a linguistic feature. In other words, as focus on form will be incorporated to the lessons incidentally, classroom interaction will remain still centered on the learning of the content.

Jessica Williams (2001) is one of the researchers investigating the students' incidental attention to form in communicative classrooms by using eight participants, two from four different levels. She obtained a corpus including 65 hours of audio taped listening-

speaking lessons at an intensive English programme. She analyzed the data according to language related episodes and concluded that incidental focus on form may arise in number of ways during the lessons, but more proficient learners benefit from these opportunities more as they are more willing and able than the less proficient ones to achieve the task. As a result, focus-on-form tasks are effective in creating a cooperative learning atmosphere and learner autonomy in language classes.

Another recent study investigating incidental focus on form was conducted by Leoven (2005). The researcher observed seventeen hours of naturally occurring meaning focused second language lessons of young adult learners. Parallel to the focus on form episodes identified, the students were prepared individual tests to explore to what extent they recall targeted item 1 day and 2 weeks after the focus on form episodes. The results demonstrated that the students can recall the 60% of the targeted item 1 day after the episodes and 50% two weeks after the episodes. Furthermore, the study proved the significance of uptake as a predictor of correct test scores. Overall, the study has suggested that incidental focus-on-form can be useful especially if the learners incorporate target item to their productions.

Ellis at al (2002) categorizes the incidental focus on form as reactive focus on form and preemptive focus on form. Reactive focus on form results from the needs of the students. When the teacher notices that the students produce a form inaccurately, he provides corrective feedback to allow the students to correct their errors. Corrective feedback can be implicit or explicit, but in focus on form lessons, implicit corrective feedback is much more common.In a number of studies (Long, Inegaki and Ortega, 1998; Han, 2002; Iwashita, 2003; Ellis, Leoven and Erlam, 2006), positive effect of corrective feedback on promoting interlanguage development of the students in the context of communicative activities was proved.

Emphasizing the relationship between implicit and explicit negative feedback in the first language and the second language development, Long, Inegaki and Ortega (1998) conducted two studies to explore the utility of recasts and models in acquisition of Spanish and Japanese languages as second language. The results of both studies supported the notion that the learners can benefit from recasts, even short term recasts can lead to better gains than models, preemptive positive input.

Similarly the findings of Iwashita's (2003) study proved the positive impact of recasts on short term L2 acquisition development among other conversation turns. The study aimed to compare the effectiveness of negative feedback and positive evidence on the acquisition of two different structures of Japanese language. At the end of the study, higher proficiency students were seen to benefit from positive evidence, while implicit negative feedback was useful for all students regardless of their proficiency level.

Parallel to the results of the first study, the findings obtained by Han (2002) in a study conducted with l2 learners divided into two groups (1-recast group and 2- group without recast) proved the utility of recasts in language lessons. During oral and written narrative tasks lasting total 11 sessions, contrary to the control group, experimental group received recasts on tense consistency. The scores of the experimental group students in immediate and delayed post tests supported the use of recasts in language lessons. Also, Han presented four conditions essential for recasts to be effective according to the results of the study. These conditions are developmental readiness, intensity, consistent focus and individualized attention.

In contrast to the results of the studies reviewed above, Rod Ellis, Shawn Loewen, and Rosemary Erlam (2006) reached the findings revealing the superiority of explicit corrective feedback over implicit corrective feedback. During the study, delivered into two experimental groups (an explicit feedback group and an implicit feedback group) and a control group completed two communicative tasks. While the students belonging

to experimental groups received either recasts or metalinguistic explanation in response to their errors in production, control group students were not supplied any feedback. Acquisition of the students were measured via 3 different tests; an oral imitation test, an untimed grammaticality judgment test and a metalinguistic knowledge test administered before the study, one day after the tasks and two weeks later, respectively. The comparisons of the performances of three groups demonstrated the advantage of explicit corrective feedback over the implicit one.

A second type of implicit focus on form suggested by Ellis at al (2002) is preemptive focus on form. As different form the first type of implicit focus on form, the teacher takes the students' attention to a form he perceives as problematic even though the students do not fail to produce it during a communicative activity. A short pause is given during the activity, and the form perceived to be problematic but essential to complete the task is focused for a while.

For instance, Ellis at al (2001a) observed 12 hours of meaning focused interaction in intact classes in order to investigate preemptive focus on form. He concluded that the number of preemptive focus on form was almost equal to the number of reactive focus on form. Most of preemptive focus on form was student initiated and dealt with vocabulary. Other implications drawn from the study were that when the preemptive focus on form is student-initiated, it is easier for the learners to incorporate it to their utterances and preemptive focus on form doesn't interrupt the flow of communication during the lessons.

2.2.3.1.2 Planned Focus on Form

In planned focus on form, the structures to be targeted during the lesson are predetermined and the design and the materials of the lesson are prepared accordingly

(Ellis at al, 2002). Lightbown (1998) emphasizes the necessity of planned focus on form in the classroom to teach problematic structures appearing rarely in natural contexts. As these structures won't be mentioned frequently in classroom language too, they have to be planned in advance in order to ensure their appearance in classroom activities. If they are not planned, it will be unlikely for the students to be exposed to them in classroom context. One of the ways proposed by Ellis at al (2002) to implement planned focus on form in classroom is focused communicative tasks. In these tasks, the learners' primary aim is to exchange meaning rather than practicing the form.

2.2.4 Noticing Hypothesis

Schmidt (1990; in Kuiken and Vedder, 2002 p. 344) defines noticing as "a conscious attention to input". Furthermore, he claims that there seems to be connection between the students' noticing a certain linguistic form and their learning this form; consequently, noticing is necessary for the learners to process a linguistic item. Therefore, noticing is a prerequisite for acquisition.

Schmidt (1990 in Storch, 2008) distinguishes between three levels of noticing. "Registration" is the first level of attention involving unconscious attention to a form. If attention and awareness occurs at the same time, this second level is defined as "noticing". Thus, noticing refers to detection of a form with the same conscious processing of this form in short term memory. Lastly, "understanding" is the third level involving higher degree of awareness and a more complex processing of information into long-term memory"

Moreover, Schmidt and Frota (1986; in Thornbury, 1997) propose two conditions for the noticing to occur. Firstly, the learners should take attention to linguistic features of input they are exposed to, so input can become intake. This type of noticing is achieved through activities involving input enhancement.

The conditions leading the students to notice "the gap" during output and make comparisons between their current state of developing language system and target language system are the second condition for noticing. This second type of noticing is mediated through corrective feedback, but correcting the learners' mistakes doesn't always result in acquisition, so the students should be let hear correct version after making an error to help them match their present level of language with the target one. Scott Thornbury (1997) recommends reconstruction and reformulation tasks to enable the learners to focus on linguistic structures and compare their interlanguage output with the target models.

Different from Schmidt and Frota, the conditions offered by Bardovi-Harlig (1995; in Williams, 2001) to cause the learners to notice are developmentally readiness and having a communicative need to use the form within a context. Similarly, according to Skehan (1998, Kuiken and Vedder, 2002), the frequency and salience of the input, classroom instruction, task demands on processing resources, individual differences between learners in processing ability, and readiness to pay attention to certain linguistic forms are among the particular factors effecting noticing.

Apart from these, Swain (1998) proposes collaborative output tasks as a way to make the students to notice. If learners need a form they don't know or fully control this increase the noticing. Swain describes this process as "noticing the hole". The students notice the holes in their interlanguage while reconstructing a text.

2.2.4.1 Collaborative Output Tasks

Collaborative tasks encourage the students to produce output in pairs or small groups and consciously reflect on their own output. Swain proposes three crucial characteristics of these tasks as follows:

1- The students work in pairs to complete the tasks, which forces participation.
2- A final product of written text or oral presentation is required.

3- The students focus on language aspects as they work to express content accurately, coherently and appropriately. They are communicative tasks allowing the students to talk about form and content.

Donato (1994, in Williams 2001) explains the essentialness of collaborative tasks for the language classes by mentioning "collective scaffolding" function of these types of tasks. According to him, "marked individual linguistic differences exist at the onset of the interaction whereas the co-construction of the collective scaffold progressively reduces the distance between the task and individual abilities" (p. 46). Consequently, when the learners used the collective resources of the group, they could further the knowledge of the group members through collective scaffolding in which each contribution builds on the previous one.

In the same vein, Storch (1998) points out to the availability of peer feedback as an advantage of these tasks. Peer feedback helps the learners to either focus their attention on the gaps in their language or receive confirmation which reconciles language knowledge.

Swain and Lapkin (2002) name the process the students undergo while completing collaborative output tasks as "collaborative dialogue" in which they engage in problem solving and knowledge-building. Through output, thought is externalized. While the learners work collaboratively to output, they are involved in meaning making and debate the meaning made. To make their meaning as clear as possible, the learners will discuss language form or lexical choices. This process supports the language development.

Swain (1999) summarizes the opportunities collaborative tasks provide for the second language learning as follows.

1. The students notice the gaps in their interlanguage while they are trying to express their intended meaning and seek solutions to compensate and fill the gaps. They formulate hypotheses to express intended meaning and test them via available sources. Students reflect on their language use, revise it, or apply it.

2. All participants are active during these tasks and final products help them to improve their use and knowledge of target language.

3. Collaborative tasks are arbitrary, their results can be different from what the teacher intended because the students work according to their own needs and goals. However, they learn eventually and accomplish what they cannot alone by working in pairs.

4. When the learners focus on an aspect of language they need or want to know, they give the signal of readiness to acquire a function, hereby; the teachers can instruct according to these signal. (Williams, 2001)

5. Thanks to these tasks, grammatical accuracy is contextualized beyond sentence level (Storch, 2001b).

2.2.4.1.1 Output Hypothesis

Swain's (1998) output hypothesis claims that providing only rich and comprehensible input is not enough for the children to acquire the language, and they should be given opportunities to output (write or talk). Output helps the students to improve both their fluency and accuracy. Swain mentions three functions of output that have positive effects on language acquisition: noticing function, hypothesis testing function and metalinguisitc function.

Initially, output promotes noticing. While the students are trying to produce language orally or in the written form, they notice the deficiencies and differences between their

own language and target language. To express their intended meaning they try to solve these problems. By this way, they fill in the gaps or correct their errors.

Secondly, hypothesis testing function refers to the struggle of the students in trying out new language forms to meet their oral or written production needs. They just want to see what works or doesn't work in language. Additionally, availability of external feedback leads the students to test their hypothesis and reach acceptable knowledge in language.

Lastly, output has metalinguistic function. While the students are producing language, they use metatalk to reflect on their language. This increases their awareness of rules, forms and the relationship of forms and rules to the meaning. In a number of studies, the effectiveness of collaborative output tasks in promoting students' noticing was compared.

2.2.4.1.1.1 Previous Studies and Findings

In previous studies different types of collaborative tasks such as jigsaw, text-reconstruction, text editing, composition writing, dictogloss, and close test were compared to investigate if they help the students to focus on form and the nature of learner interaction occurring during these tasks. Previously conducted studies can be categorized according to their settings.

Initially, the studies testing the effectiveness of collaborative tasks were conducted in immersion and ESL classes. One of these studies focusing language learning evident in collaborative tasks was conducted by Donato (1994; in Swain and Lapkin, 1998) in order to investigate if the learners' developmental influence on each other's

interlanguage system is observable. The subjects used in the study were three third semester students of French at an American University. The data was collected during one hour interaction of the students to prepare an oral activity to take place next week. Interactions of the students were audio-recorded and the transcriptions were examined in terms of examples of scaffolding which is defined as "a situation where during social interaction, more knowledgeable students can create supportive conditions for less knowledgeable students who can participate and extent their skills and knowledge to higher levels" (p:40). The findings of the study demonstrated that 32 examples of scaffolding were available during one-hour conversation. To determine if these examples of scaffolding offered occasions for L2 development for individual learner, the data gathered during work was compared to the data obtained during individual oral performance of the students the following week. As a result; it is proved that collaborative work helped the students to extent their linguistic skills and to develop their interlanguage because 75% of the occasions of scaffolding were used correctly by individual learners the following week.

Likewise, the study conducted by Swain and Lapkin (1998) with a pair of French immersion students completing a jigsaw task evidenced the fact that collaborative tasks promotes learning in ongoing classroom of the students. A pre and post test design was used for the study. After the pretest administered one week before, the pair was trained on how to complete the task to be used during treatment session for two weeks. The activity selected for the study was a jigsaw task during which the pair created an oral story and, afterwards; they wrote it out. Interactions of the students recorded were coded for language related episodes. A post test basing on the content and the number of interactions was prepared to measure the parallelism between the LREs the pair focused on during the task and the answers of the students in pairs. The results of the study suggested that dialogue serves as both a means of communication and a cognitive tool. Also, the students use their L1 to regulate their own behavior, to focus attention on specific L2 structures and to assess alternatives. In conclusion, the study supports the hypothesis that collaborative dialogue consisting of LREs is a useful concept for understanding L2 learning.

Another study conducted by Swain and Lapkin (2002) aimed to investigate the effect of reformulation and collaborative dialogue on participants who were 7th grade immersion students in an early French immersion programme. For the study, the students in the same class were grouped into three pairs (2 strong students, 2 average students and 2 weak students) according to their level of proficiency. During the treatment, the students completed a jigsaw task including five steps. Firstly, they wrote a story by using the pictures given to them, then they compared it to a native speaker model. In the 3rd stimulated recall session, they reflected on the differences between two models of writings and, afterwards; the students delivered their own writings were asked to rewrite it independently by making any changes they wanted; at the last step, the students were interviewed individually. The data was gathered from the audio recorded talk of the students in the first, second, third and the fifth stages of the task. Transcriptions were coded in the format of LREs categorized as lexical, form and discourse items. In conclusion, the analysis of the data confirmed that reformulation of the learners' writing is an effective technique for stimulating noticing and reflecting on language.

The first research applied in ESL setting comes from Storch (2001a) who examined patterns of pair interaction during pair work and the relationship between the way the learners interacted and their written texts. The subjects of the study included low to upper intermediate ESL students in a writing classroom. The tool used for the research was a writing task in which the students had to compose a brief description of data by looking at a diagram and working in pairs. The data was obtained from three distinct sources; observation notes regarding time and level of engagement and salient features of interaction, tape recordings of the pair interactions while completing the task and composition writings of the students. Pair interactions were examined according to three categories which are linguistic features which entail use of pronouns, text reconstruction behavior and metatalk containing lexis and grammatical features. The findings confirmed the value of pair interactions as the learning opportunities available to the students. Moreover, dyads collaborating with an upper intermediate level student produced the most accurate texts.

Similarly, in a different study Storch (2002) tried to find an answer to the question of if different types of dyadic interaction relate to different learning outcomes. 10 pairs of ESL students from a writing class in an Australian university participated in the study. The instruments used for the study consisted of three diverse types of collaborative tasks (a composition writing task, an editing task and a text reconstruction task). The students completed three versions of each task, two in pairs and one individually. In the second week of the treatment, the interactions of the students were tape-recorded. During data analysis firstly, pair talk was analyzed for pattern of interaction and salient features categorizing these patterns and secondly, pair talks reaching a solution were compared to the individual tasks to trace the effect of interactions. Interactions of the students were categorized according to four patterns; collaborative, dominant/dominant, dominant/passive and expert/novice. Also, three types of effects were determined at the end of the comparisons of the pair and individual works. These effects were named as 1- instances suggesting a transfer of knowledge, 2-instances suggesting no transfer of knowledge and 3- instances suggesting missing opportunities. As a conclusion, the study indicated that even though group work didn't guarantee collaboration for all pairs; collaborative pattern was dominant pattern of dyadic interaction. Besides, once established, patterns of interactions were stable over time. Likewise, peer scaffolding and knowledge transfer occur mostly when the pairs interact in a certain pattern; in collaboratively or novice/expert pattern.

The effectiveness of collaborative tasks was proven also in content based programmes and ESP classes. Different from other studies mentioned, Storch (2001b) compared three types of collaborative tasks; editing task, composition writing and text-reconstruction in content based classroom setting to answer the questions 1-if some collaborative writing tasks are more effective than others in making the students focus on form, 2-what the amount and the nature of the learners' attention to grammar in three tasks and 3- if nonnative speakers working in pairs provide correct feedback to each other. All of the tasks used in the study had similar theme, whereas, text reconstruction and editing tasks are more form-focused than the composition writing task. The

participants of the study were ten pairs of low to high intermediate students in content based ESL class. During the study, the participants worked in pairs and their interactions were audio taped. Transcriptions of pair talk were analyzed for the quantity of attention to form, nature of attention to grammatical choices and the accuracy of these choices. At the end of the study, it was realized that all tasks were successful in pushing the learners to focus on form although text-reconstruction is better than other two types of tasks. Furthermore, text reconstruction and composition tasks led the students to focus on grammatical items more while composition writing task was more effective in making them focus on lexical items. Lastly, at the end of almost all LREs the pairs reached correct decisions.

In the same way, Mayo (2002b) conducted a research with 14 adult EFL philosophy degree students to report on the effectiveness of five different form focused activities (close test, multiple choice, dictogloss, text-reconstruction and text edition) regarding the performances of learners, the amount and the nature of the attention to form. Common properties of the activities were that they promote overt focus on form and, also they have a communicative objective the students have to reach interactively. The performances of the students during the tasks were recorded for one and half months. These recordings obtained were transcribed and coded for LREs to quantify the amount of attention to form during each task. The results revealed that text-edition, text-reconstruction and multiple-choice are the activities generating the highest number of attention, however; dictogoloss was the task letting students produce the least number of language related episodes. The researcher bases the reason of this research on the difference of the stimulus types provided for the students during the digtogloss and other four tasks. While the stimulus type provided during dictogloss was aural, it was written in other tasks. Similarly, during dictogloss task, the students focus on lexical items more while other tasks generated grammar focused items mostly. Consequently, the researcher reported that all types of tasks were effective in leading the students to focus on form, eliciting discussion and reflecting on the use of language.

In his study conducted with two groups of lower intermediate ESP students studying humanity, Campillo (2006) ascertained the effectiveness of four collaborative tasks; dictogloss, text reconstruction, multiple choice and close test tasks in terms of providing feedback to the students. Target features decided on for the study were articles and second conditional in which all the students were instructed before the study. After that, the students working in dyads received one of four tasks and two combinations of feedback; repetition of error + recast or metalinguistic info + elicitation. The students were audio taped while they are engaged in the tasks. Unit of analysis used to code the transcriptions was LREs. On the other hand, only grammar or meaning based LREs were taken into consideration for the study. The findings demonstrated that text reconstruction was the activity producing the highest number of LREs while dictogloss is the one generating the least number of episodes and providing the least feedback opportunities. However, dictogloss task was seen to be the most effective activity in terms of ensuring three functions of the output. Moreover, compared to other three tasks to which the teachers can include mainly the target forms they want the students to attend, dictogloss gave the learners chances to focus on wider range of language aspects.

Lastly, the studies on collaborative tasks were tested in EFL setting by many researchers. Fortune and Thorp (2001) are two of these researchers seeking out the utility of form focused tasks in Efl setting. The study targeted to look at the relationship between the presence and absences of prior focus on form, to describe the LREs produced during the tasks and explore the post task whole class discussion. For the study, interactions of the intermediate level subjects divided into 5 triads were tape recorded every two weeks while they were reconstructing one of four dictogloss tasks. Unlike to previous studies, various features of the language related episodes were examined and four more subcategories; continuous, embedded, overlapping and entangled were added to the ones available before. Therefore, the study was stated to present a new taxonomy of describing the complexity of student interaction. The data collected proved the cruciality of collective scaffolding in encoding language items and resolving the problems.

As a follow-up study of the previous one, Fortune (2005) conducted another research in order to investigate metalanguage use of the intermediate to advanced level of students working in triads to complete a series of dictogloss tasks and to compare the results of current study with those in earlier study of intermediate students. The most commonly used metalinguistic terms and the frequency of grammatical and lexical LREs occurring in current study were identified and compared to the ones in previous study. Advanced students were found out to use metalinguistic terms more than intermediate level students. Also, focus on form activities were attested to provide a facilitative role in making the students attend to form and encouraging them to give explanations regarding their choices of linguistic items.

One of the recent studies on collaborative writing tasks were conducted by Hanoka (2007) so as 1-to explore the language aspects Japanese students in pairs notice while they are completing a collaborative writing task and comparing their passage to the one produced by a native speaker, 2- how this noticing affect their immediate and delayed revisions and 3- the relationship between the proficiency level of the students and noticing. 37 EFL students taken from advanced and intermediate classes at a women's university in Japan were the subjects joining the study. During the treatment, the students from two levels were said to collaboratively create a passage by looking at the pictures given to them, then they compared their own text with a model text written by a native speaker. Then, they revised their initial texts immediately after the comparison and two weeks later working with their partners. The pair talks were recorded during all stages of the study. Consequentially, 94 percent of the items the students focused on while constructing their own passage was founded out to be lexical ones. Likely, mostly the students noticed lexical problems while they were comparing their own text with the native speaker's model, but the rate of content related problems increased. Lastly, more proficient learners could produce more language related episodes and incorporate solutions to their writing; which means they can utilize spontaneous focus on form tasks more.

In another recent study, Reindeers (2009) compared effects of three different tasks, two of which were individual tasks and the other was collaborative task (dictation task, individual construction and collaborative construction tasks) on upper intermediate students' uptake and acquisition of negative adverbs. The study was conducted in computerized environment. After a timed and an untimed grammaticality judgment tests were administered, a total 27 students were assigned into three tasks randomly. The students in dictation group listened to the text part by part and only typed what they heart individually. Likely the students in individual construction listened to the text twice to take notes which they would use to reconstruct it on their own. They were instructed to think aloud while reconstructing the text, and they were audio recorded. The students in collaborative reconstruction group applied the same procedures as the ones in individual construction task, but they worked in pairs while creating their own texts. Immediately after the treatment and one week later, the students were given a timed and an untimed grammatical judgment tests. To measure the students' uptake of the target structure, their answers during the treatments, and acquisition their answers in the tests were used. At the end of the study, all groups were seen to improve significantly on the uptake of negative adverbs, but the students receiving the dictation task were better than the ones receiving other two tasks. However, in terms of acquisition, no significant difference was found among the tasks. As the writer emphasized, because the students needed only to keep what they heart in their short term memory, dictation was easier regarding working memory so it affected the students' uptake of target structure positively.

To sum up, findings obtained in a series of studies conducted in various language teaching settings proved that focus on form tasks help the learners notice different aspects of language while keeping meaning and content constant. Dictogloss and text-reconstruction are two most common of these tasks in which the students work in pairs or small groups to reconstruct a text, explain their reasons of choices, and discover their language. While the procedures followed to apply each task are the same, nature of input presented during these tasks is different from each other, because in dictogloss

task oral stimulus is provided but in text reconstruction written input is presented to the students (Mayo, 2002a).

2.2.4.1.2 Dictogloss Task

Dictogloss was firstly presented by Wajnryb (1990) who defines it as "a task-based procedure designed to help the students learning language towards a better understanding of how language grammar works on a text base" during the task; the students use their productive resources for text-creation. Also during reconstruction step of dictogloss, the students are encouraged to discover what they know or don't know about language; which leads to the internalization of the language.

Wajnryb (1990) suggests four main steps in application of dictogloss tasks. First of all, during the preparation step, the students are familiarized with the content of the task, unknown vocabularies are taught and the instructions related to each step is explained beforehand. Secondly, dictation step entails providing the input for the students. For this aim, the teacher reads the text twice in sentences and at a normal speed for the students to listen to him in order to get general understanding of the text during the first reading and to take notes in phrases during the second reading. In reconstruction step, the students working in pairs or small groups scribe their group's text emerging from discussion, and lastly in analysis stage, each text is analyzed with the whole class by comparing to the original text.

In most of the studies on dictogloss, functions of output presented by Swain (1998, 1999) were tested. In one of the earliest studies conducted by Kowal and Swain (1994; in Swain, 1999) with 7th and 8th grade immersion classes, utility of collaborative dialogue emerging during the dictogloss task was asserted. The results confirmed the researcher's hypothesis that dictogloss task elicited the student talk about the language

of the text; metatalk, helped them to notice what they know or don't know about the language and to formulate hypotheses to express what they want to say in target language. Thus, the students functioned both in semantic level trying to use correct words, thinking about correct inflections and the relationships between the words and also in grammatical level focusing on many other words apart from the one targeted by the teacher. Thereafter, in order to test if metatalk of the students generated by means of dictogloss task provide L2 development two more studies were conducted by Lapierre (1994; in Swain, 1998) and Swain and Lapkin (2001 in Kim, 2008).

Initially, Lapierre (1994; in Swain, 1998) examined the effectiveness of explicit focus on form through language related episodes on L2 learning. The study aimed to confirm the hypothesis that if the students engage in a task in which they have to use metatalk to complete, it helps their L2 learning process. Dictogloss was the tool used in the study. The interactions of the students trying to create their own versions of text in pairs were recorded and transcribed. After the language aspects the students focused on while reconstructing the text were determined, tailor-made dyad specific tests were prepared and administered one week after the application of the task to test L2 learning of the students. The results demonstrated that there was a correlation between the items the students answered correctly or incorrectly and LREs they could or couldn't solve during the task. Shortly, the findings suggested that LREs where the students reflected on language they were producing helped their learning.

In another similar study, Swain and Lapkin (2001 in Kim, 2008) compared two collaborative tasks; dictogloss and jigsaw tasks in terms of the learners' performances on acquisition of target form which is prominal verbs. The study was conducted with 8th grade mixed ability French immersion classes and a pre and post test design was preferred to evaluate the impact of two tasks on the L2 learning of the students. The talk of the pairs receiving one of two tasks was recorded while they were reconstructing their own texts. After the language aspects the students noticed during each language related episode were decided, tailor-made dyad specific tests were given to the pairs to

assess their knowledge of these particular linguistic features. The results revealed that occurrence number of lexical or grammatical language related episodes in two tasks were almost the same. Overall, the dictogloss task led the students to focus on grammatical items and resulted in more accuracy; additionally, helped them to notice and produce more complex syntactic structures. On the other hand, jigsaw task caused the students to notice a greater number of LREs and a range of vocabulary use.

Similarly, after he observed the need to make the students in French immersion classes to focus on grammar rules within meaningful context, Swain (1998) researched if the teacher's modeling of metatalk effect the students' use of metatalk and the relationship between the use of metatalk and the students' language processing. After the students were trained on the procedures of dictogloss task, they were divided into two groups. Experimental group students were heightened awareness on aspects of language that will be useful in carrying out the task via a small lesson while control group students weren't provided such an explanation. As in previous studies, the interactions of the students in both groups were recorded and the transcriptions were analyzed according to the categories of LREs. According to the analysis of the episodes, tailor-made dyad specific tests were delivered to the students to measure their linguistic knowledge expected to be co-constructed through the metatalks of the dyads. The findings reached at the end of the study revealed that experimental group students produced two times more LREs than control group students, so modeling metatalk entailing explicit explanations of rules and using terminology succeeded in taking the learners' attention and focusing them reflecting language use. Furthermore, a relation was found between the LREs and the questions they answered correctly in post tests; therefore, it was concluded that LREs dictogloss task generated could be a source of learning for the students.

As distinct from other studies, Swain and Lapkin (2000) compared a dictogloss and a jigsaw task in terms of the students' use of L1 and its function during each task with 8th grade French immersion class students. As it is the case in other studies, the students,

firstly, were trained on two tasks, and then were assigned to two different groups. To analyze the transcriptions, all turns in English or containing English and functions of the turns were identified. Analysis showed that the students used L1 for three purposes; moving along the task, focusing attention and interpersonal interaction. The students were found out to use more L1 during the jigsaw task than they did during the dictogloss task even though the difference between two tasks was not significant. Besides, contrary to common belief, the students' use of L1 during the tasks was seen to serve important cognitive and social functions and support L2 learning and use.

In another study, Toshio (1996) examined the learners' interaction patterns in the interaction phase of the dictogloss task. The study was applied in an intensive English programme with four adult learners. After the students were trained on how to complete the dictogloss task, they worked in pairs during reconstruction phase and in groups of four during the analysis step. The talk of the students during reconstruction step was recorded and transcriptions were coded in the format of LREs categorized as grammar based episodes, meaning based episodes and, ortographic episodes. About half of the total episodes were grammar based while the number of meaning based episodes was 15. Thus, the study confirmed the hypothesis that dictogloss task promotes meaning and form negotiation and discussion. Grammar based episodes showed more variations and meaning based episodes were generally used for confirmation of the text's meaning.

Also, in some studies the effect of interaction with respect to individual construction was investigated through dictogloss task. One of these research was conducted by Kuiken and Vedder (2002), who compared the effect of interaction with individual construction on the outcome of the task. The participants were 34 Dutch high-school EFL students divided into groups as a control group and an experimental group. One week before the treatment, a pre-test was given to both groups to detect their existing knowledge of the passive. During the treatment, experimental group students performed two dictogloss tasks in groups of three or four to supply the condition of interaction among them. Contrarily, control group students performed the same texts individually

without any interaction. Immediately after the completion of the tasks, and two weeks later post tests were administered to measure the effect of treatments on the students' gain of passive knowledge. Quantitative analysis of the data demonstrated that the opportunity for interaction during the reconstruction phase of the task didn't result in a better post tests score or a more frequent use of passive in reconstructed texts. However, qualitative analysis of the data suggested that interaction stimulated noticing. Although the students didn't formulate explicit grammar rules about the structure, they became aware of the structure. Thus, it was concluded that noticing stimulated with the interaction gave way to new linguistic forms.

In another study, Malmquist (2005) explored the effect of small group task-based interaction involving a dictogloss technique on language output with L2 German learners. During the treatment, after a practice session aiming to familiarize the students with the technique, three experimental sessions were applied. In the first session, the students created the text red by the teacher three times individually. In the second session, the teacher red a different text for the pairs to construct it by using the notes they took while they were listening to the teacher. During this second session the interactions of the students were tape-recorded. In the last third session, they reconstructed another text individually. The aim of the last session was to see if previous collaborative work affected the outcome of this session positively. The data of the study came from the students' own texts and the audio recordings of the pairs. The comparisons of the individual texts versus collaborative texts pointed out that the number of words in individual texts showed greater variation in length while collaborative texts showed smaller variation, and peer-collaboration session had no direct effect on the complexity of the texts in the third session. At the end of analysis of the interactions coded for LREs, grammatical items were mostly focused during the construction phase of the task. In conclusion, group discussion was evidenced to affect the output positively. Though less proficient students focused on lexical issues more, if they were inspired from their group members, they could focus on grammatical features, as well. Additionally, except from proficiency, personality of the students and

interpersonal dynamics were other factors having an effect on performances of the students.

Moreover, the relationship between the learner proficiency and interaction occurring during construction phase of the dictogloss task was investigated in some studies conducted by Leeser (2004) and Kim and McDonough (2008). Leeser (2004) targeted to quest if grouping the learners regarding L2 proficiency affects the number, type and outcome of the language related episodes produced during the task. The study was conducted with 42 adult L2 learners of Spanish in a content-based course. The instructor of the course rated the students as low (L), or high (H) proficiency according to their overall proficiency, and then, they were delivered into one of three types of dyads; 1-H-H, 2-H-L or 3-L-L. After a one week training session, the dyads were required to complete a dictogloss task. While the pairs were reconstructing their own passages, they were audio-recorded. According to the analysis of the data coded for LREs, high proficiency learners focused on grammatical items mostly, on the contrary; lexical items were focused on by low proficiency learners more. Lastly, high proficiency learners were better in solving the linguistic problems they encountered while producing the text collaboratively than low proficient students.

The second study searching the relationship between the proficiency and LREs generated during the interaction was conducted by Kim and McDonough (2008). The researchers investigated the effect of interlocutors' proficiency (advanced or intermediate) on the occurrence, resolutions of LREs and pair dynamics. The participants included 8 Korean intermediate SL learners interacting with an intermediate interlocutor and with an advanced interlocutor. The collaborative dialogue of the pairs occurring during a dictogloss task was analyzed in terms of the occurrence and resolution of lexical and grammatical language-related episodes and the patterns of interaction with their interlocutors. The results showed that the students paired with an advanced learner produced mostly lexical based and correctly resolved language related episodes.

2.2.4.1.3 Text Reconstruction Task

Text reconstruction task was firstly introduced by Storch (1998 and 2008). Like dictogloss task, it aims to elicit the learners' attention to form in a meaningful context, yet in contrast to the dictogloss task, in text reconstruction, the students are given a written stimulus which is a coherent text containing the content words and form which most of grammatical features were removed. The stages followed during the application of the text reconstruction are similar to the ones in dictogloss task (Storch, 2008).

In two different studies, Storch (1998 and 2008) investigated the nature of the interaction the pairs produced while they were engaged in a text reconstruction task. In the study he conducted in 1998, he explored the grammatical features the students concerned during text reconstruction task and how they solved these concerns. Total 30 ESL students whose proficiency level changed from intermediate to advance worked in pairs or small groups to achieve a text reconstruction task given and their interactions were audio recorded. The analysis of the data coded for LREs revealed that the most common grammatical features focused by the students were verb/tense aspects and prepositions, respectively. As ninety percent of advanced level students' intuitions and fifty percent of intermediate level students' intuitions were correct, correct intuitions were determined to reflect a developing competence of target language.

Also in his second study related to the text reconstruction, Storch (2008) investigated the types of the items the students attended, nature of the students' engagements and the effect of the students' engagement on their language development. The subjects of the study were 22 intermediate ESL students working firstly, in pairs and then individually. For two sessions, two similar texts were used and the subjects were instructed to insert the necessary function words, where necessary, to produce a grammatically accurate and semantically meaningful text. In the first session in which the students worked in pairs, all of pair talk was tape recorded and the transcriptions were coded for LREs. The analysis of the findings evidenced that the students focused a range of lexical and grammatical items and the nature of the interaction changed from limited to elaborate.

Lastly, elaborate engagement was more facilitative for the learners' language development.

The only study comparing the amount and the nature of language aspects the learners focused on during two different collaborative writing tasks (text-reconstruction and dictogloss tasks) was conducted by Mayo (2002a). A total 14 adult EFL learners divided into two groups were trained on how to complete the task they would receive and afterwards, one of the groups was required to complete the dictogloss task while other group received text reconstruction task. The interactions of all pairs while reconstructing the texts were tape recorded. Unit of analysis used to code data was LREs. As a result, text reconstruction task was seen to generate three times more LREs than the dictogloss task. Also, contrary to text-reconstruction group students who mostly focused n grammatical features, dictogloss group students discussed on lexical items or meaning. Also, related to the nature of the LREs, the knowledge of sources the students used when they encountered a problem were revealed to be "grammar, discourse, and intuition".

Shortly, the studies conducted proved that both types of tasks are successful in pushing the learners to produce a meaningful and accurate text, reflect on their language choices and use their own sources to complete the text.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Based on the current ESL theories and the findings of the collaborative writing task research, this study aimed to investigate the amount of attention to form two different tasks (dictogloss task and text reconstruction task) generated. Additionally, it explored the language aspects (meaning based, grammatical or orthographic) the students focused on while completing each task, and the amount of interaction each task engendered over the decisions reached at the end of LREs. While completing written collaborative tasks, the students working in pairs were expected to notice the errors or the gaps in their interlanguage and discuss on these weaknesses they noticed. Therefore, examining the interactions of the pairs would give the teachers a clue about what their students need in terms of language teaching and ensure them to design similar tasks allowing the students to compensate the weaknesses in their interlanguage. So as to achieve this aim, the interactions of 10 pairs (5 pairs for each task) working on to complete the given tasks were audio-recorded and all tapes were transcribed. The data obtained were coded for language related episodes.

3.2 Subjects and the Setting

The subjects of the study were 20 Turkish students (12 females and 8 males) learning English as a foreign language in Salih Zeki Anatolian High school in Eskişehir, Turkey in the spring term of the 2009 – 2010 academic year. They aged between 18 and 19, and their exposure length to the English language in a classroom setting was 9 years.

The subjects of the study were assumed to be high proficient language students because they were using an advance level text book (New Bridge to Success) assigned by the

Ministry of Education and preparing for central foreign language exam. Also, they were the 12th grade senior students of the language class. They had 12 hours of foreign language lessons per week as a part of the curriculum.

There are two main reasons for selecting a language class to conduct the study. First of all, the subjects of almost all of the previous studies conducted in EFL settings were intermediate to advance level students. (Fortune and Thorp, 2001; Fortune, 2005; Hanoka, 2007; Reindeers, 2009). The choice of high level students as the subjects of the study was expected to generate comparable data. Secondly, as Ellis (1993; in Williams, 2001) states, for the learners to perceive the gap between their interlanguage and the target language, differences between the target language and the students' interlanguage must be narrow. Whereas this gap is narrow for more proficient learners, it is not the case for beginner students. Less proficient students depend on the knowledge of their peers or teachers, but more proficient ones rely on their own knowledge of sources. Therefore, collaborative focus-on-form tasks are more appropriate for more proficient learners.

20 students formed 10 self-selected pairs, and a total 5 pairs were assigned to one of the two tasks (text-reconstruction task or dictogloss task) randomly. The class was taught by their classroom teacher in regular classroom hours, not by the researcher. However, the tasks were applied by the researcher in two training sessions and the treatment session. The classroom teacher helped the researcher to select the subjects to join the study. Out of 25 students attending the class where the study was carried out, 5 students were excluded since they were the poorest ones according to the exam results given by the teacher. Also, the texts to be used in training sessions and the treatment session were selected in cooperation with the classroom teacher.

3.3 Procedure

3.3.1 Design of the study

The study was classroom-based; that is, the data were collected within regular classroom hours of the students. 10 self-selected pairs were divided into two groups; dictogloss task group (group-1) and text reconstruction task group (group-2). Each group was trained on how to complete the task they were assigned to and use the audio recorders for two weeks. In the third week of the treatment, the interactions of the dyads working out to complete one of two tasks were audio-recorded. In training sessions, the students were allowed to ask the questions to the researcher and they were answered. However, during the treatment session, neither the first group nor the second group was provided teacher feedback while they were engaged in the task or no time constraints were imposed on the students to let them complete the tasks at their own speed. In case the students attempted to ask a question, they were instructed to solve the problem they encountered on their own and no answer was provided. Only the questions not directly related to linguistic problems were answered. For example, one of the students required to learn if Matsimoto who was expressed to be the inventor of Mario in the text used in treatment session is dead. Similarly, another student requested the researcher to repeat the name of the inventor. These questions were answered as they are not related to the linguistic problems. The same procedures were followed and the same texts were used for both groups receiving two different task types, the only difference between them was the nature of the input presented. While aural stimulus was supplied for the dictogloss task group, stimulus type given for the text reconstruction task group was written.

Treatment span for each group was 3 hours in 3 successive weeks, so the total treatment span of the study was 6 hours. Figure-3.1 illustrates the design of the study.

Weeks	sessions	groups	tasks
1. 1st week	Training session-1	Group-1	Dictogloss,
		Group-2	Textreconstruction
2. 2nd week ,	Training session-2	Group-1	Dictogloss,
		Group-2	Textreconstruction
3. 3rd week,	Experimental session	Group-1	Dictogloss,
		Group-2	Text reconstruction

Figure 3.1: design of the study

3.3.2 Treatment Packages

Two different treatment packages were prepared for the two groups; the dictogloss task group and the text reconstruction task group.

3.3.2.1 Treatment package for the dictogloss task

3.3.2.1.1 Texts

For the dictogloss treatment, three different texts were selected, two of which were used for training sessions and the other for the treatment session. These texts were selected in cooperation with the classroom teacher and according to the criteria presented in previous studies. The first criterion set out by Kowal and Swain (1994) is its understandability for the students. The first criterion suggested is that the demands of the text should be neither too high nor too low, so it won't be beyond the students' ability to understand the content. In the study of Kowal and Swain (1994), classroom teacher developed the text himself to be completely sure that it could be understood by the students. In the current study, to meet this criterion, the texts used for the tasks were selected from the students' text book used last year, and it was done in cooperation with the teacher.

The other two criteria brought forward by Malmqvist (2005) were related to the saliency of structure and semantic unity. The text should have a clear structure which occurs frequently and stands out saliently in the input. The current study investigated incidental focus on form in which no target structure is predetermined in advance to make the students focus on during the lesson. Due to this reason, a target structure dense in the texts was not determined for the study and the students were not expected or explicitly directed to focus on any salient structure in the texts. They were allowed to attend any linguistic aspect deficient or incorrect in their interlanguage.

Thirdly, the text should have a semantic unity to ensure the students to follow it without difficulty during dictation stage of the dictogloss task. To meet this criterion, instead of descriptive passages, narrative texts telling about an event were selected.

3.3.2.1.1.1 Piloting the texts

In order to make sure that the texts were not beyond the proficiency level of the subjects and they could achieve the text requirements, a 4th grade language class in Gazi Mustafa Kemal Anatolian High School participated in piloting the texts. The dictogloss task was piloted with 6 students, or 3 pairs in this class. These students had the same conditions with the ones taking part in the study. The students joining the piloting sessions were using the same text book and preparing for the central language exam. Also, like the subjects in the study, they were being instructed 12 hours of English in a week.

At the end of the piloting session, the texts produced by the pairs were examined by the researchers and the mentor teacher, and it was concluded that the level of the texts selected for the study was suitable for this group of the students. It was also seen that they could achieve the task requirements successfully. The same texts were used to implement the study in training sessions and the treatment session (see appendix: D for examples of completed student activities in pilot study).

3.3.2.1.2 Training sessions

Discussion with the classroom teacher revealed that the students were not familiar with the dictogloss procedure, so the whole group was given a two-week training session in which the reconstruction stage was emphasized over other three; preparation, dictation and analysis and correction. They were trained on how to achieve the task requirements

and use the audio recorders for two weeks before the experimental session. During the two training sessions, the researcher emphasized the need to reproduce the text the teacher had read as accurately and faithfully as possible.

Although the student talks during the two training sessions were recorded, they were not analysed as data because the aim of these sessions was to make the students familiar with the task procedures and how to use the audio-recorders.

3.3.2.1.3 Application procedure of the dictogloss task

While applying the dictogloss task, the stages suggested by Wajnryb (1990) were followed. Firstly, in preparation stage, the students were grouped into pairs, the aims and requirements of each following session were explained, the topic of the text were discussed with the whole class, and the keywords they didn't know were taught.

During dictation stage, the researcher read the text in semantic units at a normal speed twice. At the first instance, the students only listened to the text, and at the second instance, they were allowed to jot down the key words they felt would help to reproduce the original text.

Afterwards, during reconstruction stage, the students were encouraged to work with their partners to pool their resources to produce their own versions of the text collaboratively. During this stage, the students were instructed to discuss and justify their language choices, and their discussions were tape-recorded. Lastly, in the matching stage, the original text was reflected on OHP and the students were allowed to compare their own language choices with the language used in the original text. At the end of the stage, completed student activities were collected. While the students were

producing their own versions of the text, the teacher feedback related to linguistic problems was not provided, and the students had to benefit from peer feedback or their own knowledge sources.

3.3.2.2 Treatment package for the text-reconstruction task

3.3.2.2.1 Texts

The same three texts used for the dictogloss task were used to apply the text-reconstruction task. However, they were adapted by the researcher according to the criterion and example given in Storch (1998). As he suggested function words (e.g. articles, prepositions), linking words, inflectional morphemes (e.g. tense and aspect markers, singular/plural markers) were excluded from the text. Thus, the students received texts containing only content words and were instructed to make necessary changes or add function words, linking words or inflectional morphemes to obtain a meaningful and correct text.

3.3.2.2.1.1 Piloting the texts

Similar to the case in dictogloss task, the texts used for the text re-construction task were piloted with other 6 language class students in Gazi Mustafa Kemal Anatolian high school so as to be sure the students in pairs could construct a coherent, meaningful and grammatically correct passage by using the content words given.

The texts produced by the pairs were examined by the same researcher, and the mentor teacher. As the piloting session revealed that the students could produce an accurate, meaningful and appropriate text by using only the content words provided (see appendix: D for examples of completed student activities in piloting), the same content

words were given to the text reconstruction students in the study. Although the texts used for the dictogloss task and the text reconstruction task were the same, text reconstruction students received a version of each text from which function words (e.g. articles, prepositions), linking words; inflectional morphemes (e.g. tense and aspect markers, singular/plural markers) were excluded.

3.3.2.2.2 Training Session

Similar to the case in dictogloss tasks, the students were offered two training sessions before the experimental session with the aim of familiarizing the students with the text reconstruction procedure and the use of audio recorders. Also, the reconstruction stage was emphasized and the students were required to produce a text as accurate, meaningful and appropriate as possible. Although the interactions of the pairs were recorded during the training sessions, the tapes were not analyzed.

3.3.2.2.3 Application procedure of the text-reconstruction task

The same stages with the dictogloss task were followed during the application of text reconstruction task. However, instead of the dictation stage in dictogloss task, text-reconstruction students were given a written version of the text which was adapted according to instructions of Storch (1998, 2008) and included only content words.

Likely to the reconstruction stage of dictogloss task, the students were instructed to work with their partners to create an accurate, meaningful and appropriate text by inserting necessary function words (e.g. articles, prepositions), linking words, inflectional morphemes (e.g. tense and aspect markers, singular/plural markers), and/or changing word-order. Also, they were instructed to discuss and justify their choices.

The discussions of the pairs while reconstructing their own text were recorded. These texts were analyzed and corrected as in the matching stage of the dictogloss task.

Moreover, similar to the students receiving dictogloss task, this group of students were trained on how to complete the task and use the tape-recorders for two weeks although their interactions were not analyzed. Only the recordings obtained in treatment sessions were used as data. Briefly, only difference between two tasks was the nature of the stimulus they provided for the students.

3.4 Data Analysis

The main sources of data for this study were the audio-recorded pair talks as the students were working on to complete the tasks. The audio-taped interactions of 5 pairs in the two tasks were transcribed.

As the first purpose of this study was to investigate the amount of attention to form the two tasks generated, unit of analysis used to code the data was language related episodes; LREs. The number of LREs each task generated was calculated to detect the amount of attention each task generated. A language related episode is defined as "any part of dialogue in which the students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or other– or self- correct" (Swain, 1998 p.70). It begins with the identification of a language issue or item needing attention and ends when a correct or incorrect resolution is reached or the learners move on to consider another issue.

In a second stage of the coding, the LREs were classified according to what learners seemed to be drawing attention to in order to answer the second question of the study. The categories used to determine the types of language related episode were not data-driven but pre-established by Kowal and Swain (1994). According to them, three major

categories of LREs are grammar-based episodes, meaning-based episodes and orthographic episodes.

Grammar based LREs dealt with the implicit or explicit discussions on the accuracy at the morphological and the syntax level. The subcategories of grammar based episodes were pronouns, verb/tense aspects/form, word forms, articles, linking ideas, passive and determiners. Meaning based episodes were those to which the students' attentions were directed at the semantic components of the language so the subcategories of this type were reconstruction of the sentences using their own words, considering lexical choices, confirming the meaning of the original text, asking for meaning of a word (Mayo, 2002a). Lastly, orthographic episodes were related to writing styles and its subcategories were spelling and punctuation. Figure-3.2 below demonstrates the 3 major types and the subcategories used to classify the LREs to answer the second research question.

Major types	Grammar-based episodes	Meaning based episodes	Orthographic episodes
Sub categories	1-pronouns 2-verb/tense 3-aspects/form 4-word forms 5-articles 6-linking ideas 7-passive 8-determiners.	1-reconstruction of the sentences using their own words 2-considering lexical choices 3-confirming the meaning of the original text 4-asking for meaning of a word	1-spelling 2-punctuation

Figure 3.2: major types and the subcategories used to classify the LREs.

In the third stage of the coding, interactions or the negotiations that led to resolutions were examined, noting how decisions were made. Firstly, LREs were identified as interactive (IN) or noninteractive (NIN). These categories of the episodes were taken from the research of Storch (2001b) who examined the outcome of the LREs to decide

which task type (editing, text reconstruction and composition writing) engendered more interaction or explanation over the decisions reached at the end of LREs. He defined interactive LREs as "LREs in which learners considered suggestions or offered counter suggestions" and noninteractive LREs as "the instances where suggestions or requests for assistance were ignored, or where a decision was made with little or no engagement by the other partner" (p.112).

Additionally, interactive LREs were classified as correctly resolved or incorrectly resolved so as to examine the students working in pairs could reach correct or incorrect decisions at the end of the discussions. As suggested by Storch (2001b) the completed exercises of the students were benefitted alongside the transcriptions. Figure-3.3 illustrates the categorization of the LREs for the third research question

Major categories	Interactive LREs (IN)		Non interactive LREs (NIN)
Sub categories	Correctly resolved LREs	Incorrectly resolved LREs	

Figure 3.3: categorization of the LREs for the third research question

3.4.1 Inter-rater Reliability

In each stage of the coding, two raters, the researcher and an M.A. student in ELT programme of Anadolu University rated the items. For the first research question, two raters identified the LREs in collaboration and in case of a discrepancy occurring, the raters reached consensus by discussing on each problematic item. After the LREs were identified, the raters coded the type of each episode separately. The degree of agreement between the two raters was measured through Cohen's kappa test.

Similarly, in the third stage, the raters coded the episodes identified as interactive (IN) or non-interactive (NIN) separately. Via Cohen's kappa test, inter-rater reliability between the two raters was measured. Additionally, the LREs identified as interactive

were coded as "correctly resolved" or "incorrectly resolved". In this stage, the raters worked collaboratively and alongside the transcriptions, the completed exercises of the students were used to decide if the pairs reached correct or incorrect solutions at the end of the discussion.

In Kappa test the values obtained lie on a scale of 1 to -1 where the value of 1 would equal to perfect agreement and the value of -1 would adequate to chance agreement. In order to decide the agreement degree of a value obtained in a kappa test the scale presented by Landis and Koch (1997) is used.

K	Interpretation
< 0	No agreement
0.0 — 0.20	Slight agreement
0.21 — 0.40	Fair agreement
0.41 — 0.60	Moderate agreement
0.61 — 0.80	Substantial agreement
0.81 — 1.00	Almost perfect agreement

Figure 3.4: the scale used to interpret the inter-rater reliability

In current study, the inter rater reliability degree for categorizing and sub-categorizing the LREs for the two tasks were high, equal to almost perfect agreement according to the scale. Similarly, the agreement degree for classifying the episodes as interactive or non interactive was found out to be high for two tasks. The inter rater reliability values obtained are presented in related tables (table 3.1, table 3.2, table 3.3 and table 3.4).

3.4.1.1. Inter-rater reliability for categorizing and sub-categorizing the LREs two tasks generated

Following the identification of the LREs, they were independently classified into the sub- categories by two raters. So as to test the degree of agreement between the raters,

the results were submitted to Kappa test. Table 3.1 demonstrates the symmetric measures for the dictogloss task and table 3.2 illustrates the symmetric measures for the text reconstruction task.

Table 3.1 Inter-rater reliability for the sub-categorization of the dictogloss task

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement Kappa	.865	.041	21.760	.000
N of Valid Cases	70			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

The result of the inter-rater reliability analysis for the dictogloss task is Kappa=0, 865. According to the scale presented by Landis and Koch (1997), this measure of agreement is highly convincing as the thumb values of Kappa from 0, 81 and 1 equal to almost perfect agreement. Differences between the two raters were discussed and resolved.

Table 3.2 Inter-rater reliability for the sub-categorization of the text-reconstruction task

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement Kappa	.904	.037	22.853	.000
N of Valid Cases	68			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Similarly, the result of the inter-rater analysis for the text reconstruction (kappa=0,904) proved that the categorization of two raters was highly consistent with each other because according to the same scale, the value obtained equal to almost perfect agreement. In case of the differences, the raters reached a consensus by discussing on the item.

3.4.1.2 Inter-rater reliability for classifying the LREs as interactive or non-interactive

For each task, the LREs identified were classified as interactive or non-interactive by two raters independently. The consistency degree between the raters was measured via Cohen's Kappa test. The results of the tests for the dictogloss task and the text reconstruction task
are presented in the following tables 3.3 and 3.4 respectively.

Table 3.3 Inter-rater reliability test results for the nature of LREs dictogloss task generated

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Kappa Agreement	.893	.060	7.775	.000
N of Valid Cases	70			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

According to the table, the kappa agreement between the ratings of the appraisers is 0,893 which is a value close to perfect agreement. The inter-rater reliability is high for

the dictogloss task as Kappa= 0, 89 equal to almost perfect agreement in the scale presented by Landis and Koch (1997).

Table 3.4 Inter-rater reliability test results for the nature of LREs text reconstruction task generated

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.916	.059	7.742	.000
N of Valid Cases		68			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Similar to the case in the dictogloss task, the inter-rater reliability for classification of the LREs generated by the text reconstruction task is high as the Kappa=916 corresponds to the almost perfect agreement. Additionally, in two tasks, the differences between the raters were resolved by discussing on the item.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

The study aimed to investigate foreign language learners' rate of attention to form on the basis of two different tasks in general, the type of attention, and the size of interaction over the decisions in particular. In accordance with this aim, the following research questions are posed;

- What is the amount of attention to form two different tasks (dictogloss versus text-reconstruction) generated measured on the base of Language Related Episodes (LREs)?
- What types of language related episodes do the students primarily focus on while completing two different tasks (dictogloss versus text-reconstruction): grammar based episodes, meaning-based episodes or orthographic episodes?
- Which task engenders more interaction over the decisions reached at the end of LREs?

In order to answer these questions, the data obtained was coded and analyzed by two raters. The results are presented in this section.

4.2 Data Presentation and Analysis

In the analysis stage of the data, firstly the audio-taped interaction of 5 dyads in the text-reconstruction and the dictogloss tasks were transcribed. It took the learners an average 12, 29 minutes to complete the dictogloss task, and the average time to complete the text reconstruction task was 16, 49 minutes.

To answer the first research question, the discussions during which the students focused on different aspects of the language were coded as language related episodes and the number of LREs each task generated was calculated. The total number of LREs the pairs produced while completing the dictogloss task was 70 and the text reconstruction task was 68. The results are featured in the following table.

Table 4.1: comparison of the tasks in terms of the number of LREs

	Dictogloss	**Text reconstruction**
Number of LREs	70	68

As indicated in the table, the number of the items the students focused while completing the dictogloss task was 70 and text reconstruction task was 68. That is, the amount of attention two tasks generated seems to be almost equal as the dictogloss task students produced only two more LREs while completing the task compared to the results of the text reconstruction task students.

4.2.1 Comparison between the tasks in terms of the types of LREs

After the identification of the LREs, they were segmented in 3 categories (grammar-based, meaning based or orthographic episodes) and the proportions of 3 different types of LREs were calculated for each task. Table 4.2 illustrates the results related to the types of LERs each task generated.

	Dictogloss	Text reconstruction
Total number of LREs	70	68
Grammar based episodes	31	42
As % of total LREs	*44, 28*	*61, 76*
Meaning-based episodes	25	21
As % of total LREs	*35,71*	*30, 88*
Orthographic episodes	14	5
As % of total LREs	*20*	7,36

The table 4.2 shows that both the text reconstruction task and the dictogloss task generated more grammar-based LREs but the text-reconstruction task produced a larger proportion of grammar based LREs than the dictogloss task (44, 28 % in the dictogloss task and 61, 76 % in the text reconstruction task). On the other hand, the proportion of meaning based language related episodes was higher in the dictogloss task compared to the text reconstruction task. (35, 71 % versus 30, 88 %). Similarly, there is a striking difference between the numbers of the orthographic LREs two tasks generated. The dictogloss task revealed almost three times more orthographic LREs than the text reconstruction task (20 % in the dictogloss task and 7, 36 % in the text reconstruction task). There seems a more or less balanced distribution between the proportions of three categories (MB episodes; 35, 71%, GB episodes; 44, 28 % and orthographic episodes; 20 %) in the dictogloss task, yet there is a striking difference between the percentages of three categories (MB episodes; 30, 88 %, GB episodes; 61, 76 % and orthographic episodes 7, 36 %) in the text reconstruction task. After categorizing the LREs the tasks generated, the episodes were classified into 15 subcategories and the number of the subcategories produced while completing the tasks was calculated and presented in the table 4.3

Table 4.3 number of sub-categories for each task

	Dictogloss	Text reconstruction
Grammar based episodes	*31*	*42*
⬇ Pronouns/possessives	2	4
⬇ Verb tense/form	<u>15</u>	<u>17</u>
⬇ Articles	<u>7</u>	<u>6</u>
⬇ Prepositions	3	3
⬇ Conjunctions	0	2
⬇ Demonstratives	1	4
⬇ Linking ideas	1	4
⬇ Word form	2	2
⬇ passive	0	0
Meaning-based episodes	*25*	*21*
⬇ Reconstruction of sentences using their own words	8	8
⬇ Confirming the meaning of the original text	4	4
⬇ Asking for meaning of word	10	5
⬇ Considering lexical choices	3	4
Orthographic episodes	*14*	*5*
⬇ Spelling	10	1
⬇ punctuation	4	4

As the table 4.3 reveals that when the grammar based episodes were examined the pairs in both groups seem to have mostly focused on verb tense/form and articles respectively. The number of attention two tasks generated to the articles was equal and apart from these two categories the students focused on a variety of items. Additionally, the dictogloss task generated more balanced distribution among the types of LREs in comparison to the text reconstruction task. Also, the examination of the meaning based items reveals that "asking for the meaning of word" stands out in the dictogloss task although the number of this subcategory isn't so striking in the text reconstruction (10

in dictogloss task and 5 in text-reconstruction task). Asking for either Turkish or English equivalent of a word was included to this sub-category. The dictogloss task students were not given the words in written form; which may have led them to ask the English equivalent of a word they needed to make a sentence more compared to the text-reconstruction task students who received the content words of the text. Moreover, "reconstruction of sentences using their own words" was another sub-category the students mostly focused. Lastly, regarding the orthographic episodes, the difference between the numbers of LREs focusing on spelling is salient (10 in dictogloss task and 1 in text reconstruction task). This finding may have resulted from the difference between the types of stimulus two tasks provided (aural in dictogloss task and written in text-reconstruction task).

4.2.2 Comparison between the tasks in terms of the nature of LREs

In order to investigate if the tasks engendered deliberations or interactions over the decisions reached at the end of the episodes, the nature of the LREs were examined and the episodes each task generated were coded as interactive or non interactive by two raters separately. Afterwards, interactive LREs were classified as "correctly or incorrectly resolved" according to the solutions the pairs reached at the end of the discussions. Meanwhile, the raters worked collaboratively and the completed exercises of the pairs were utilized. The Table-4.4 summarizes the findings for the analysis of LRE resolutions. The figures were expressed as raw frequencies and the percentages of interactive and non-interactive LREs compared to total number of episodes in each task.

Table 4.4 comparison between the tasks in terms of the nature of language related episodes.

	[IN]		[NIN]
Dictogloss	59 (84, 28 %)		11 (15, 71 %)
	Correctly-resolved LREs 45 (76, 27 %)	*Incorrectly resolved LREs 14 (23, 72 %)*	
Text reconstruction	61 (89, 70 %)		7 (10, 30 %)
	Correctly-resolved LREs 52 (85, 24 %)	*Incorrectly resolved LREs 9 (14, 75 %)*	

The table 4.4 shows that the rate of interactive LREs was **84, 28 %** in the dictogloss task and **89, 70 %** in the text reconstruction task, which means that the students participated in the majority of the decisions concerning the linguistic choices in the two tasks. However, the proportion of interactive LREs was higher in the text-reconstruction task in comparison to the dictogloss task (89, 70 % in the text reconstruction and 84, 28 % in the dictogloss task). Although the accuracy was fairly high (more than 75 %) for each task, the text-reconstruction task students produced more correctly resolved LREs than the dictogloss task students did. The proportion of correctly resolved LREs in the text reconstruction task was found to be 85, 24 % but, it was 76, 27% in the dictogloss task. Lastly, the text reconstruction task students resolved 14, 75 % of the episodes incorrectly while the percentage of incorrectly resolved LREs was 23, 72 % in the dictogloss task.

4.3 Evaluation of the Findings

The first research question in this study addressed the amount of attention each task generated. The amount of attention was measured on the basis of the number of LREs

each task generated. The findings presented in the table 4.1 displaying the total number of LREs produced by 10 dyads working out to complete one of two tasks suggest that both tasks generated almost equal number of LREs; 70 for the dictogloss task and 68 for the text reconstruction test. Thus, the descriptive account of the learners' interaction when engaged in the two focus on form tasks shows that there is not much difference between the amount of the attention to form the two tasks generated. Shortly, both tasks seem to be equally effective in promoting the students' attention to form.

The second research question asked whether the students would primarily focus on grammar-based, meaning-based or orthographic items. Table 4.2 indicates that in two tasks the students primarily focused on grammar based episodes so it seems that both tasks drew greater attention to grammatical problems more than other two types; meaning based and orthographic episodes.

The analysis of the grammar based items revealed that both tasks drew the students' attention to a number of structures such as verb tense/form, pronouns/possesives, conjunctions, etc (see table 4.3). In a number of previous studies (Kowal and Swain, 1994 and Mayo, 2002a) it was found out that the teacher or researcher cannot always control the structures the students pay attention to while completing the task although they design the texts aiming to make the students focus upon a pre-selected structure during the lesson because the results of these studies revealed that the students paid attention to a variety of structures. In both tasks, most attention was directed to verb tense/form and articles respectively. This finding is consistent with the results having revealed in a number of previous studies (Storch, 2001a; Leeser, 2004 etc.). Storch (2001a) bases this case on two reasons. Firstly, as these structures are accepted as common sources of error for the students, they are frequently focused on in classroom discussions. Secondly, the attention to especially verb/tense choice and articles (also the prepositions) may result from the fact that these are known as consistent areas of concern even for advance language learners. Additionally, the classroom teacher had stated that although "articles and tenses" were explicitly taught to the students the

previous year, they were still having difficulty while using these structures and due to this reason, she was focusing on these structures during the lessons regularly. Therefore, this case may have caused the students to attend to the tenses and articles mostly and it confirms the Swain's (1998) Hypothesis claiming that the students notice the gaps in their interlanguage while outputting. The following are examples of LREs focusing on verb tense/aspect/feature/form and articles.

Example-1 A LRE dealing with GB verb tense/aspect/feature/form:

A: let's begin with **there is a plumber**

B: **was,** I think, it is better

A: but, this what

B: that is a story; its name is Donkey Kong. It became a video game afterwards

A: I think we should write it in simple present tense

B: Is Matsimoto a dead man?

A: yes, I think he is dead

B: ok, then. past tense is correct option.

 (Text-reconstruction task students)

In the example above, the pair engaged in a discussion to decide the tense they would use while reconstructing the text. Student-B thought that past tense should be used while writing a story and tried to justify his choice but his partner was not convinced that past tense was the correct answer and insisted on using the simple present tense. At the end, the student-B reminded his partner that this story was written by a dead man so they could use the past tense to tell it. The episode in the example was coded as grammar-based, interactive (IN) and correctly resolved (CR) episode.

Example-2 A LRE dealing with GB articles:

A: one day**… the ape or one ape**, which is correct?

B: don't use both of them. Tell only ape.

A: **ape fall**

 (Dictogloss task students)

As can be seen in the example above, the student-A couldn't decide which article to use; "the" or "one" and he took his partner's answer. On the other hand, his partner avoided using an article before the word. As the student-A didn't question his partner's answer; he didn't notice that the answer of the student-B was incorrect so the pair couldn't solve the linguistic problem correctly. Hence, the episode above was coded as grammar based, interactive (IN) and incorrectly resolved (INCR) LRE.

Following the GB episodes, both tasks drew more attention to meaning based episodes than the orthographic episodes (see Table 4.2). However, the proportion of meaning based episodes the two tasks generated was different from each other. As can be seen in the table 4.2, the text reconstruction task generated two times more grammar based episodes than the meaning based episodes (MB episodes; 30, 88 % and GB episodes; 61, 76 %). On the other hand, in the dictogloss task, the percentages of the grammar based and meaning based LREs were more or less balanced (MB episodes; 35, 71 % and GB episodes; 44, 28 %) so there was an almost equal distribution between proportions of the first two categories in dictogloss task. The text reconstruction seems to have drawn larger attention to grammatical items compared to the dictogloss task. This case may be explained with different stimulus types provided for each task. In the dictogloss task, while the students were reconstructing the original text they had listened to twice, they needed to understand the text firstly and then reconstruct it by using the limited number of words or phrases they noted. This may have led the dictogloss students to focus on both meaning and grammar related issues. On the other hand, the text reconstruction students had been already provided the content words of the text (written stimulus) and they needed to insert necessary function words (e.g. articles,

prepositions), linking words, inflectional morphemes (e.g. tense and aspect markers, singular/plural markers), and/or change word-order in order to produce an accurate, meaningful and appropriate text. Thus, the students may have needed to focus on grammatical aspects more than meaning related aspects (Mayo, 2002a).

In both tasks, the mostly focused MB subcategories were "reconstruction of sentences by using their own words" and "asking for meaning of word" (see table 4.4). The followings are examples of MB LREs focusing on mentioned subcategories.

Example-3 A LRE dealing with MB "reconstruction of sentences using their own words":

A: hmm, let's extend it. Because of the big success of the game … **the success of video game** how can we express it?

B: that is, the game became so successful that.

A: ok make the sentence in English

B: **thanks to the success of Matsimoto**

(Text reconstruction task students)

In the above example, the pair struggled to make their own sentences to express a part of the text in collaboration. (Story was an immediate success; Motsimoto followed it with "The Mario Brothers"). At the end, they reached a consensus on "thanks to" to express their intended meaning. The episode was analyzed as meaning based, interactive (IN) and correctly resolved (CR) LRE.

Example-4 A LRE dealing with MB "asking for meaning of word":

B: what is **chase,** what does it mean?

A: I don't know, don't care it. **The plumber chased the ape to rescue his girlfriend. Simple tale became**

(Dictogloss task students)

In the fifth example, student-B asked for the meaning of the word "chase". However, his partner refused to help him although he knew the meaning of the word. That is, he avoids negotiating on the linguistic problem available in his partner's interlanguage. Therefore, the episode above was analyzed as meaning-based and noninteractive (NIN) LRE.

Lastly, as the table 4.2 indicates both tasks generated little attention to orthographic LREs (20 % in dictogloss task and 8, 82 % in text reconstruction task) compared to meaning or grammar based episodes LREs. However, the rate of orthographic episodes the dictogloss task generated is much higher than the percentage of orthographic episodes generated by the text reconstruction task. As the table 4.3 indicates, this difference results from the number of LREs focusing on spelling in two tasks. The number of spelling focused LREs dictogloss task generated is 10 while the text reconstruction task generated only 1 spelling focused LREs. It is probable that discrete stimulus types two tasks provided may have affected the rate of spelling focused LREs produced during the two tasks. As the students assigned to text reconstruction task group were provided the content words in written form, they didn't need to focus on spelling as much as the dictogloss students did. The most frequently focused subcategory in dictogloss task was "spelling". The example-5 below exemplifies an orthographic LRE focusing on spelling:

The example-5 LRE focusing on spelling:

A: to tell "fall in love", is its past form **fell or felt?**

B: fell

A: double "l"?

B. yes

(Text-reconstruction task students)

In the example, the pair negotiated on how to spell the past form of the verb "fall". Firstly, they engaged in a discussion to find the past form of the verb and then the student-A confirmed its spelling so they could achieve to solve the problem they encountered correctly. The episode above was coded as orthographic, interactive (IN) and correctly resolved (CR) LRE.

The third research question asked whether the tasks promote interaction over the decisions reached at the end of LREs. Analysis of the nature of the LREs took into consideration the nature of student interaction that is, if the students justified their decisions by providing explanations in the process of resolution. Also, the resolutions were coded as correct or incorrect. Table-4.4 shows that the percentages of IN LRES in two tasks were high compared to the proportion of NIN LRES (84, 28 % in the dictogloss task and 89, 70 % in the text reconstruction task). That is the students participated in most of the decisions taken in the resolution process. As one of the central theories of language learning is taken into consideration this is an important finding. According to noticing hypothesis of Schmidt (1990; in Kuiken and Vedder, 2002), the learners have to notice or consciously attend to the characteristics of target language in order to acquire them. No attention (noninteractive LREs) implies that one of the learners is not consciously attending to the language item being discussed.

However, a closer analysis revealed that the text reconstruction task students engaged in more negotiations or explanations than the ones in the dictogloss task (89, 70 % versus

84, and 28 %). That is, the text reconstruction task students were more eager and willing to offer explanations or justify their choices even though the difference between the percentages of the interactive LREs two tasks generated was so little. This difference between the two tasks could relate to the fact that dictogloss task students had the chance to hear the complete text twice before reconstructing it; however, TR task students had to reconstruct their own versions of text without hearing the complete passage beforehand. This may have led them to more negotiations or discussions. In the first, second, third and fifth examples presented above; the pairs negotiate on the problems they have encountered while reconstructing the text and provide explanations regarding their choices so these episodes exemplify the interactive LREs. However, in the 4th example, one of the partners doesn't want to collaborate with the other one so they don't negotiate on the problem. The fourth example illustrates a noninteractive LRE.

The rate of correctly resolved LREs indicates that the accuracy rate was considerably high (more than 75 %; table 4.6) in the two tasks. That is, the pairs could resolve most of the linguistic problems or the questions they encountered by using their own sources or benefitting from peer feedback. Examples -2 above is an incorrectly resolved LRE as the pair couldn't decide on the correct article to be used with "ape". Instead, they chose not to use an article with the noun. On the other hand, in the first example above, the pair discussed to determine to use simple past tense or simple present tense to make the sentence and at the end of their discussion they could achieve to choose the correct option, simple past tense after one of the partners reminded his friend that the human they were talking about was a dead man.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSIONS and CONCLUSION

5.1 Summary of the Study

This study intended to investigate whether two different types of collaborative output tasks (text reconstruction and dictogloss tasks) lead EFL students to focus on form. It also aimed to investigate the types of the items the students focus on while completing these tasks. The third point considered in the study was the rate of the reflection encouraged. To this end, two groups of students were assigned one of two tasks and required to work in pairs. the dictogloss task students were instructed to listen to the text the teacher read and take notes. While they were reconstructing the text by using the words or phrases they noted, the talk of the pairs was audio-recorded. The text reconstruction task students were provided with written version of the same text including only content words. Similarly, text reconstruction task students worked in dyads to reconstruct the text by using the words they were provided and their talks were audio-recorded. Recorded talks were transcribed and analyzed as LREs. To answer the research questions, the number, types and the nature (interactive or noninteractive) of LREs the two tasks generated were examined. The results of the analysis indicated three findings below;

1- Both tasks were equally effective in focusing learners' attention on form.

2- Both tasks resulted in students' focusing on a range of grammar-based, meaning-based or orthographic items; however, in both tasks, the structures that elicited the most attention tended to be the grammatical items.

3- Both tasks were effective in encouraging the students to justify their choices of language by providing explanations in the process of decision. However, in the text reconstruction task, the proportion of LREs in which the students negotiated their decisions was higher.

5.2 Discussion of the Findings

The use of collaborative output tasks in language classes is based on two SLA hypotheses. These are noticing hypothesis by Schmidt (1990 in Storch, 2008) and Swain's output hypothesis (1998). Schmidt claims that the students have to notice the form in input to acquire it, so according to him, noticing is a prerequisite to acquire the form. Secondly, according to output hypothesis, while the students are trying to produce language orally or in the written form, they notice the deficiencies and differences between their own language and target language. To express their intended meaning they try to solve these problems. In this way, they fill in the gaps or correct their errors. Swain (1998) proposes collaborative output tasks as a way to make the students to notice the holes in their interlanguage. Bearing this in mind, this study aimed to investigate the effectiveness of two types of collaborative output tasks in encouraging the students to notice a number of language items incorrect or unavailable in their interlanguage. The findings of the study supported the hypothesis as the two tasks were seen to be effective in providing the students with the opportunities which foster their conscious recognition of linguistic difficulties concerning grammar, meaning or orthography.

The findings of the study seem consistent with the results of a number of studies (Kowal and Swain, 1994; Swain, 1998, 1999, 2000; Swain and Lapkin, 1998, 2002) asserting the facilitative effect of collaborative dialogue occurring while the students are working in pairs or small groups to complete a dictogloss task; a type of collaborative output task. Collaborative dialogue is extended from the output hypothesis and defined as "the dialogue in which the learners engage in problem solving and knowledge building" (Swain, 2000, pp: 102). In other words, collaborative learning helps the second language learning by motivating the students to solve their linguistic problems and co-construct language or knowledge about the language. Consequently, collaborative dialogue leads the learners to activate and develop their mental resources and focus on form to express what they want as accurately and coherently as possible. The results of this study supported the facilitative effect of collaborative dialogue as the students

attended and discussed on a range of items by using their own sources of knowledge while working in pairs to reconstruct the text. In the same vein, Storch (1998, 2008) reached the findings supporting the facilitative effect of the text reconstruction task in encouraging the students to produce language and reflect on its form. The results of these previous studies revealed that text reconstruction task was successful in pushing the learners to produce a meaningful and accurate text and to reflect on their language choice. In line with his claim, in the current study, the text reconstruction task was seen to lead the students to produce a meaningful and accurate text by using their own sources of knowledge and reflect on their language by justifying their linguistic choices. Lastly, parallel to the results of the current study, Storch (2008) found that the students attended mostly grammatical items, then lexical items and then mechanical items while completing a text reconstruction task. Mechanical items (spelling and punctuation) in this previous study are equal to the orthographic episodes in the current study.

On the other hand, the study revealed contradictory results to some previous studies conducted by Mayo (2002a) and Patricia Salazar (2009). Garcia Mayo (2002a) compared the text reconstruction task and the dictogloss task in terms of the number, types and nature of LREs they generated. His findings indicated that text reconstruction generated three times more attention to form than the dictogloss task did. Furthermore, the text reconstruction task students seemed to be interested in grammar related issues more while the dictogloss task students engaged in meaning making. Contrarily, in the current study, both tasks were found out to have generated almost equal amount of attention to the form and primarily to grammar based episodes. In the previous study, the amount of attention two tasks generated was measured via different tools, which may have affected the findings. The amount of attention the tasks generated was measured with the number of turns allocated to LREs compared to total number of turns yet in the current study amount of attention was measured through the number of LREs the tasks generated. In addition, in Mayo's study, the text-reconstruction task students were required to use an almost complete text from which not all function words but only the targeted structures (clausal connectors, defining relative clauses, articles and adverbs) were excluded to reconstruct their own texts. However, the dictogloss task students listened to the text the teacher read twice and used the notes they took to

construct their own versions of the text. Therefore, the text reconstruction students may have mandatorily focused on grammatical items.

Similarly Patricia Salazar (2006) compared five different tasks which the students were required to complete collaboratively; multiple choice, text reconstruction, cloze test, text editing and dictogloss tasks. Among all of these collaborative tasks, the dictogloss task was found to have generated the least number of LREs. However, similar to the case in Mayo's (2002a) study, the students in other groups were not required to produce a text which includes only content words. They received a version of the text from which only the targeted structures were removed so they were obligatorily focused on grammatical items targeted. Only in the dictogloss task group, the students had to reconstruct the text they listened collaboratively. Therefore, it is not so surprising that dictogloss task students were more interested in creating a coherent and meaningful text and focused on grammatical features less compared to other students taking the other four tasks.

The findings of the study revealed that although the students attended a range of grammatical, lexical or orthographic items while reconstructing the texts, grammar based episodes were primary, and they took the students' attention mostly in both tasks. The grammatical features the students mostly paid attention to were verb form/tense and articles. These findings are in line with the results of some previous studies (Mayo, 2002a, 2002b; Storch, 1998, 2001a). Also, in these studies, articles and verb form/tense were discovered to be the items taking the students' attention mostly. According to Storch (2001b), this result can be explained with two reasons. Initially, these structures are accepted as common sources of error for the students, so they are frequently focused on by the teacher in foreign language lessons. Secondly, the attention to especially verb/tense choice and articles (also the prepositions) may result from the fact that these are known as consistent areas of concern even for advance language learners. Also, the teacher had reported before conducting the study that as these structures were problematic for the students, she was regularly focusing upon them during the lessons, which may have caused the students to mostly attend to the articles and the verb tense/form while completing the two tasks.

Additionally, in a number of previous studies it was concluded that (Kowal and Swain, 1994; Mayo, 2002a; Storch, 1999, 2001a), apart from the targeted structure selected by the teacher in advance to lead the students to attend to a particular structure during the lesson, the students focused on a variety of items. Swain (1999) evaluates this result as an advantage, not a disadvantage of collaborative tasks. He states that consequences of collaborative tasks are arbitrary as the students work according to their own needs or goals. However, their most important advantage is that the students learn eventually and accomplish what they can't alone by working in pairs. In consistent with his claim, in the current study, the students were seen to have focused on the items they needed to express their intended meaning and complete the tasks assigned. In other words, they focused on what they needed to achieve the goal of the task; creating their own versions of the task. They attended a range of grammar-based, meaning-based or orthographic items, and they could resolve a high proportion of the linguistic problems by discussing with their partner.

A surprising finding of the study was that the dictogloss task generated a larger percentage of meaning based and orthographic language related episodes than the text reconstruction task did. This case may have stemmed from the different stimulus types presented in the two tasks. In the text reconstruction task, all of the words the students would use to reconstruct the text had already been given; however, the dictogloss task students had to use the notes they could take before the reconstruction stage. As they couldn't note all of the words or phrases they heard, they might have to focus on issues concerning lexis and meaning more. However, according to Raimes (1987; in Storch, 2008) debates and negotiations over word choice or alternative ways of expressing meaning is a characteristic of the second language writing process. Also, this finding is parallel with the results of two previous studies (Toshio, 1996 and Campillo, 2006) which revealed that the dictogloss task was effective in making the students focus on a wider range of language features; that is, not only grammatical but also discoursal and lexical features.

Another important result the study revealed is that the students negotiated their decisions in a high percentage of LREs. However, the proportion of interactive LREs

was much higher in text reconstruction task than it was in dictogloss task. The only study which compared the nature of LREs three different collaborative tasks generated was conducted by Storch (1998). The collaborative tasks used in this study were text-reconstruction task, editing task and composition writing task. The analysis of the LREs the tasks generated indicated that all tasks were effective in encouraging the students to negotiate on the items they attended. The dictogloss task was not included into his study. However, Storch (1998) found that more grammar focused tasks; text-reconstruction and editing task generated a higher proportion of interactive LREs compared to a more meaning focused task; composition writing task. In line with what he claimed, in the current study, too, more grammar focused task, text reconstruction task, produced larger amount of interactive LREs compared to a more meaning focused task; dictogloss task did.

The last result concluded form the study is that negotiations over linguistic choices offered the opportunities for the students to give and receive peer feedback on their decisions or language hypotheses. In a high proportion of instances, the feedback provided was correct in both of the tasks. This result is particularly of interest because in a number of previous studies (Swain and Lapkin, 1998; Lapierre, 1994 in Swain, 1998; Swain, 1998; Williams, 2001) a correlation was found between the incorrectly or correctly resolved episodes the students produced while reconstructing the text and their answers in post tests prepared parallel to the content and the number of the episodes. As Swain (1998) expressed, the students stick to their resolutions. If the students reached correct decisions at the end of LREs, they answered the questions correctly, but if they resolved the problems incorrectly, they gave incorrect answers to related questions in the post tests.

5.3 Pedagogical Implications

This study intended to reveal whether two different types of collaborative writing tasks are effective in leading the students to focus on problematic aspects of language in their interlanguage and correctly solve the linguistic problems they encounter. Considering the findings several pedagogical implications can be suggested.

The most important pedagogical implication is that the collaborative output tasks provide opportunities for language learning so their insertion into the curriculum may support the language learning process of Turkish EFL learners by increasing their output opportunities. While the students are trying to express their intended meaning, they notice the gaps in their interlanguage and search for solutions. Swain (1998) defines this process as "formulating and testing hypothesis". The students reflect on these solutions, revise and apply them. Meanwhile, they firstly, externalize and then, internalize the language knowledge. Moreover, the students actively participate to the process of finding solutions and reconstructing their own texts by negotiating on their decisions and giving or receiving feedback. Resulting output in collaboration with a partner allows the language learners to increase the use and knowledge of target language (Swain, 1999). Additionally, collaborative output tasks let the students carry out the tasks according to their own deficiencies or needs. They may not learn what the teacher intends but they learn what they are able to learn. Shortly, insertion of focus on form tasks into the curriculum may bring about positive pedagogical results in EFL teaching.

Another implication of the study is that analysis of pair talk let both the students themselves and the teachers gain insights into the students' interlanguage and support their language learning. Firstly, the teachers gain insights into the hypotheses the students formulate related to the language. By designing appropriate activities, the teachers may help the students to confirm and consolidate their correctly hold hypotheses or orient their instructions towards erroneously held hypotheses. In addition, although the students work in pairs during the reconstruction stage of the activities, after they created their own versions of the text, they have the chance to benefit from teacher feedback concerning the accuracy of the final product. Lastly, the students themselves gain insights into their own shortcomings or needs related to the language and develop strategies to compensate them in collaboration with a partner. All three points mentioned are critical aspects for students' language learning.

Lastly, most of research investigating the utility of collaborative output tasks that lead the learners to reflect on their own language production were conducted with immersion classes, so their results are attributable to the issue of language teaching in ESL setting. However, as Swain (1999) stated, these research were just a beginning in a program of research aimed at examining pedagogical strategies that will support the second language learning. More research conducted in different settings is needed to accumulate evidence suggesting the usefulness of collaborative tasks in these settings. Similarly, according to Doughty and Williams (1998) the profile of the foreign language learners is rather different from the ESL students. They have more limited opportunities of output and expose to more metalinguistic instruction. Focus on form tasks designed according to the conditions of these students are expected to facilitate two functions of output: noticing and output hypothesis. In line with their call, this study was conducted with Turkish students in Salih Zeki Anatolian High school where the students are learning English as foreign language. Thus, the pedagogical implications of this research contribute to the studies evidencing the usefulness of collaborative tasks in EFL setting, as well.

5.4 Implications for Further Research

The current study has proved that two types of focus on form tasks (text reconstruction and dictogloss) are effective in leading high proficient Turkish EFL students (4th grade foreign language department students) to focus on form. Therefore, the findings of the study are limited to the proficiency level and the age of the students. It is apparent that there is a need to investigate effectiveness of focus-on-form tasks with the learners at different levels (beginner, intermediate, advance …) in order to see their facilitative effects on different proficiency level students. In this way, the types of items the students from different proficiency levels; beginner to advance pay attention to while completing focus-on-form tasks can be discovered. In addition, there is a need for further investigation to employ the students from different age groups and grades in primary or high schools. Shortly, further studies should be carried out for the populations with different levels and age groups.

In addition, effectiveness of only two types of focus on form tasks on students' noticing has been examined in the current study. Therefore, it is clear that further research is needed to examine the effect of other types of focus-on-form tasks (text-editing, composition writing, cloze-test etc.) on noticing of Turkish EFL learners. The pair talk occurring during these tasks should be analyzed in order to find out how other types of focus-on-form tasks effect the number, types and nature of the LREs the students produce.

Lastly, in the present study, the number and the types of the items the students noticed and focused upon while constructing a text were examined. Also, the interaction rate two tasks generated was investigated. According to Schmidt (1990 in Storch, 2008), noticing is the prerequisite for acquisition. In consistent with his claim, dyad specific post tests prepared parallel to the number and the content of the language related episodes the pairs produce may be administered to find out if they remember and acquire the items they focus on while completing the tasks. The relationship between the students' noticing and acquisition may be investigated if the relationship between the content and the number of LREs produced and the students' answers in dyad specific post tests are compared(Swain and Lapkin, 1998; Lapierre, 1994 in Swain, 1998; Swain, 1998 and Williams, 2001).

5.5 Conclusion

The study has intended to reveal the effect of two different focus-on-form tasks on the noticing of Turkish EFL students from the 4th grade foreign language learner department in Eskişehir Salih Zeki Anatolian High School. In the light of the findings, it has been found that the two tasks are effective in encouraging the students to focus on form. Also, the students pay attention to a range of items meaning-based, grammar-based or orthographic. Lastly, both tasks have revealed a large proportion of interaction over the decisions related to the language, but the text reconstruction task has endengered more interaction compared to the dictogloss task, yet in the two tasks, the students could resolve most of the problems they have encountered correctly.

APPENDIX-A

1 Treatment Package for the Dictogloss Task Group

1.1 Dictogloss text for the first training session

Instruction

You will hear a text being read at normal speed. The text will be read twice. Your task will be to reproduce this text as faithfully as possible and in a grammatically accurate form. The first time you hear the text, just listen. Do not write anything. The second time your partner and you are allowed to write down any key words that you feel will help you to reproduce the original text.

Today was my first day back in the class after holiday. I got ups a bit late and didn't have time for breakfast. It wasn't matter because I was eating at school. However, when I got to the bus stop, the bus had just left. That meant I was going to miss the breakfast At school, I met our new teacher. By then I was very hungry. I remembered I had put a candy bar in my bag, so I started to look for it. Just then, the teacher asked me a question, but I wasn't paying attention, so he asked my partner, Clara, my name. Clara had forgotten my last name. she said " he is …. hmm superman". Suddenly, all eyes were on me. I quickly corrected Clara "not Superman, Zuckerman.", but it was too late. Since that time, everyone has been calling me Superman. At first I was embarrassed, but now I am beginning to like my new name.

1.2 Dictogloss text for the second training session

Instruction

You will hear a text being read at normal speed. The text will be read twice. Your task will be to reproduce this text as faithfully as possible and in a grammatically accurate form. The first time you hear the text, just listen. Do not write anything. The second time your partner and you are allowed to write down any key words that you feel will help you to reproduce the original text.

I was walking along the street the other day, and I came across the strangest sight. This guy was standing on the corner tearing up ten-dollar bills. I couldn't help asking him if he knew what he was doing. He was tearing up ten-dollar bills and was throwing them on the ground. So I asked him why he was tearing up the bills, and he replied that it kept the ghosts away. I told him that there were no ghosts, and he said that was because he was tearing up ten-dollar bills.

1.3 Dictogloss text for the treatment session

Instruction

You will hear a text being read at normal speed. The text will be read twice. Your task will be to reproduce this text as faithfully as possible and in a grammatically accurate form. The first time you hear the text, just listen. Do not write anything. The second time your partner and you are allowed to write down any key words that you feel will help you to reproduce the original text.

Once there was a plumber named Mario. The plumber had a beautiful girl friend. One day, an ape fell in love with the girl friend and kidnapped her. The plumber chased the ape to rescue his girl friend. This simple tale became "Donkey Kong", the first video game with a story. It was invented by Sigeru Matsimoto, an artist. Motsimoto loved the video games, but he wanted to make them more interesting. He liked fairy tales, so he

invented a story similar to a famous fairy tale. Story was an immediate success; Motsimoto followed it with "The Mario Brothers". The rest is the video history.

2 Treatment Package for the Text-reconstruction Task Group

2.1 Text reconstruction text for the first training session

Work with your partner to insert the words missing in this text and make whatever other changes may be necessary to produce a meaningful and grammatically correct paragraph. Explain why you make each change:

Today day class holiday. get late have time breakfast. matter eat school. get bus stop, bus leave. mean miss breakfast.

 School, meet new teacher. Hungry. remember   put   candy-bar   bag start   look for. teacher ask question, pay attention. ask partner, Clara, name. Clara forget last name. say " …. hmm superman". Sudden, eye. quick correct Clara "Superman, Zuckerman.", everyone call Superman. embarrass. begin like new name.

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2.2 Text reconstruction text for the second training session

Work with your partner to insert the words missing in this text and make whatever other changes may be necessary to produce a meaningful and grammatically correct paragraph. Explain why you make each change:

walk street day, come across strange sight. guy stand corner tear up ten-dollar bill. help ask know do. tear up ten-dollar bill throw ground. ask tear up bill, reply keep ghost. tell there ghost. say tear up ten-dollar bill.

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2.3- Text reconstruction text for the treatment session

Work with your partner to insert the words missing in this text and make whatever other changes may be necessary to produce a meaningful and grammatically correct paragraph. Explain why you make each change:

there plumber name Mario. plumber have beautiful girl friend. ape fall love girl friend kidnap. plumber chase ape rescue girl friend. simple tale become "Donkey Kong", video game story. invent Sigeru Matsimoto, artist. Motsimoto love video game, want make   interesting. like fairy tale, invent story similar famous fairy tale. Story immediate success; Motsimoto follow "Mario Brothers". Rest video history.

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APPENDIX-B

* The words in bold were used by the students in English but other words were used in Turkish and translated into English by the researcher.

1- Samples of the transcriptions of the Dictogloss Task Group

PAIR-1

A: I couldn't catch many words.

B: that is not so important. We will pool our notes.

A: we will make story by using these words, right?

B: no, the story is the same. We will write the story we have listened to.

A: can we use different words?

B: I don't know. Let's begin. **One day there was a plumber.**

 he is … he was

1-verb form/tense/aspect

Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A: yes **he was**

B: he

A: we should describe the character.

B: ok, **hardworking … very hardworking, his name is Mario and** likes something.

A: his darling, what is its English equivalent?

2-asking for meaning of a word.

Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: **girlfriend.**

A: no there is another word.

B**: darling**

3-lexical choices

Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A: yes **Mario has a darling.**

B: **yes has a great darling.**

A: **ok. has a great darling.**

B: I think we can use … enemy instead of ape.

A: what is it "düşman" in English?

B: I don't know, couldn't remember. Don't mind it. We can use ape.

> 4-asking for meaning of a word.
>
> noninteractive

A: ok shall I write one day again?

B: ok, write it. We can extend it a bit.

A: one day**… the ape or one ape**, which is correct?

B: don't use both of them. Tell only ape.

> 5-articles
>
> İnteractive/incorrectly resolved

A: **ape fall**

B: … we shouldn't use **fall.**

A: ok, where is the rubber?... but what else can we use, Eren. We have to write "**fall".**

B: ok, then use it.

A: **darling, the darling, a** …

B: write **only darling**

> 6-articles
>
> İnteractive/incorrectly resolved

A: **darling**

B: or **his darling** is better

A: ok .. kaçırdı, what is "kaçırdı" in English

> 7- asking for meaning of a word
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: sth like **kindap**

 A: no, no **kidnap,** it is **kidnap**

> 8- spelling
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: no, ok, suffix ayyyyy, eee

A: what, it will be added to the end of the word.

B: ok what is chase ?

9- asking for meaning of a word

NIN

A: … to save her …

B: we can write Mario for example, **Mario … to save her.** how?

A: let's make sentence telling Matsimoto had to save her.

B: yes, then. **Mario must**

10-reconstructing the sentences by using their own words

Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A: rescue

B: **rescue his girl friend.** What else do we have?

A: [SILENCE]

B: Maybe, we shouldn't write it we can use **video game story,** escape plan.

A: as we know the game, he should save a woman. We have explained the aim of the game and now, we have to explain its inventor.

11- asking for meaning of a word

NIN

B: or we can say, he invented a story for this **so** because of this.

A: but , it is nonsense

B: no, look, for example **he invented a game story.**

A: what is "işe koyuldu" **work,** maybe**. he worked**, eeee we have written he had to save her.

B: because of this

A: if we say he struggles to save her, there will be a conflict of meaning. firstly, we have to write the inventor of the game.

B: but, before it we have to write the game invented, or the story of a game.

A:ok, let's write it.

B: ok

A: but, I want to add sth else.

B:but we are trying to do something collaboratively and should hurry up. Matsimoto

A: shall I write?

B: yes

A: yes, **Matsimoto invented**

B: **invented video game story.**

A: **this video game story**

B: **this video game story, right.** So, we have written what the inventor did and can add an artist.

> 12- demonstratives
>
> Interactive/
> Correctly resolved

A: Add it to the end of **video game story.**

B: who … put a comma who **he is artist**

A: ok, **who he is artist**

> 13- punctuation
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: Matsimoto, ee we have to write this again.

A: let's tell **like video game … like ok… like.**

B: write **but, but he want make.**

A: he want make

B: have mentioned it ?

A: ayyyy

B: **fairy tale ..** sth different

A: ok

B: **fairy tale so a,** right?

A: yes, **a fairy tale.**

> 14- articles
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: add **so so invented … to invent**

A: **so he invented**

B: should we say **fairy tell or famous fairy tale?**

A: it doesn't matter, add **famous.**

B: ok **famous fairy tale** .. and we should express that **the story** became successful.

A: what would you write?

B: **story … success** but it will be unrelated.

A: but the teacher said so.

B: what was this part about? Did they invent the Mario's brother after Mario?

A: They added **Mario Brothers**, I think. Wait a minute.

B: they became successful, as well right? We should write the same things.

A: ok, let's do it.

B: Sigeru Matsimoto

A: it doesn't matter, in fact, but go on, **follow.**

B: in fact, we can use another word.

A: but the teacher used it.

B: ok.

A: **follow with**

B: **Matsimoto follow with**

A: yes

B: **the rest video history.**

A: yes, that is ok.

PAIR-2

A: ok let's begin

B- shall we start with there was a plumber?

A: no, it is so ordinary.

B: then, how should we start?

A:How is his story?

B:That is, there is someone, a plumber. we will tell his name is Mario.

A: She has said (the teacher) in this story … in this story

B: you are telling **once upon a time?**

A: no, we have passed it, told the story. Then, Matsimoto came. after that, how does it continue?

B: but, firstly let's write , then we can make up.

A: no we will change the story. what is the relationship between these two… Is it related with Matsimoto?

B: you mean when we make up the story?

A: no normally. How is this man related to Mario?

B: this man invented the game.

A: not the game.

B: what?

A: he wrote?

B: üfff we can make up. we don't need it.

A: **OK. .. Once upon a time**

B: **Once upon a time**

1-confirming the meaning of original text

noninteractive

A: **there was a plumber named Mario**

B: **plumber.**

A: **named Mario.**

B: or, make a separate sentence, **his name is…**

A: no **named Mario** is ok She said so.

B: Mario….. had a beautiful girlfriend

> 2-reconstruction of the text by using their own words.
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A: He fell in love with a girlfriend in facebook. let's incorporate facebook, too.

B: shall I tell **he fell** or **fall**. Which one is true?

> 3-verb form /tense
>
> noninteractive

A: h11 **with a girl in facebook.**

B: **in facebook**

A: **an ape**

B: **an ape**

A: **saw the girl, girl's photo, girl's profile**

B: …

> 4-spelling
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A: no, no **"p-r-o-f-i-l-e" and as the** …… why did you put this point?

B: **and he liked her**

A: **like or liked**

B: **liked**

A: **ok. liked**

> 5-verb tense
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B**: her hair**

A: we can **say her photos**

B: liked

A: but, he didn't like the girl

B: then, he will look at the girl and surprised as she is so ugly. how can we combine this with the story?

A: in her photos

B: wait a minute…. look at our notes what else do we have? For example Matsimoto ?

A: hmm but firstly, we can say looked so beautiful in her photos.

B: **she**

A: **was like a stone ?**

B: shall I write it?

A: write.

B: no, nonsense

A: write, write

B: **was like**… no. it so nonsense.

A: write, why not write

B**: ok like stone.** We should combine it with Donkey Kong. Hmm **rescue**

A: hmm Donkey Kong

B: Donkey Kong will rescue her

A: but we will write, now he falls in love with the girl, likes her, then, resques her and opens her face

B: you mean iyy sees the girl is ugly

A: ok (laughing)

B: ok how can we combine now

A: **ape decides to kidnap her**.

B: wait a minute. **ape becides ?**

A: no, no **decides**

B**: no, no, decided**

A**: ok decided to kidnap her.**

> 6-verb form /tense
>
> noninteractive

B: **kidnap?**

A: **kidnap, kidnap**

B: this one? **her**

A: **almost …. ok ….. ugly ape**

B: **her and**

A: I put a point again. **and**

B: **did it**

A: **When she** the girl…

B: **when he**

A: when he brought the girl to his house. is it brot ? the past form of the verb "**bring"?**

B: **brought her**

A: **the girl** or **her** is ok, as well

B: **to her** evine

A: **to his house** or to **his home** is ok, too.

> 7-verb form /tense
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: **to his home**, now.

A: **he opened his face**

B: **opened her face and**

A: **yes her face and**

> 8-pronoun /possessives
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: he schoks **and she schoked**

A: **schoked ok**

B: **schoked, point**

A: ok. now Mario should recue her.

B: no **her face was disgusting**

A: **was disgusting**

B**: he closed.** no, no

A: now Mario should rescue now

B: **and the lets the Mario to rescue**

A: repeat it slowly.

B: the ape lets the Mario rescue, for example.

A: you made me laugh. ok.

B: **then, the ape, a-p-e lets or let?**

A: **lets**

9-verb form/tense
Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: **Mario to rescue** " to " is it right ?

A: **"sb to" yes**

B: **rescue her.**

10-preposition
İnteractive/incorrectly resolved

A: **that the story of Donkey Kong**

B: I can't believe it. We have used none of the words, video games, Matsimoto …

A: now will combine this with Matsimoto.

B: ok let's do, then

A: **That is the story of Donkey Kong**.

B: **that was or is, which one?**

A: **is the story**

11-verb form/tense
Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: **of Donkey Kong**. How is it spelled? Is this right?

A: yes, yes

B: kog

A: no, why that is kong … that is

B: I don't know. what can I do?

12-spelling
Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A: that is Kong, what is the first name of this man?

B: üfff you don't need it.

A: we can use abbreviation. **S. M.**

B: then, we will use.

A: in parenthesis.

B: Matsimoto, is this spelled like that?

13-spelling
noninteractive

A: **He made up the story**

B: why? what is that?

A: **made up** means *uydurdu*

B: is it used like that ?

A: yes it is. **to help**

14-asking for meaning of a word
Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: **to**

A: **to help his to sleep**. We can say to help him to sleep, for example.

B: we can say **brother, Mario's Borther**

A: Mario Brother

B: Did we write "Mario?

A: **made Mario.**

B: yes we did. He had rescued the girl. **Story to** what, **sleep**

A: **make**

B: **make?**

A: **his sister sleeps**

B: we can say **his brother**

A: why

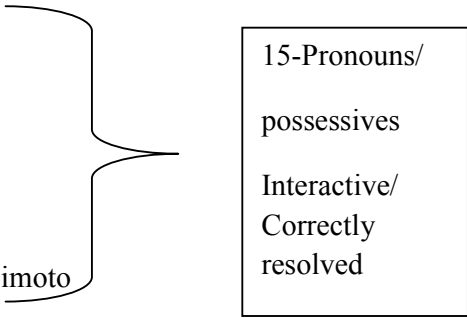B: because we should use **Brother,** we noted it. **make his …**

A: no, no **sister** is better, use it.

B: **his sister**

A: **her**

B: **not her**

A: right, yes. Matsimoto also şeyy, Matsimoto

15-Pronouns/

possessives

Interactive/
Correctly
resolved

B: tell what you want to say.

A: şey, we should tell he likes both video games and fairy tales.

B: Matsimoto

A: şeyy did he die, according to it.

B: no, no, he didn't

A: teacher, Did Matsimoto die?

T: yes, I think he died

B: He died, then, **liked.**

A: **liked both fairy tales and games.**

B**: fairy tales**. that is all?

A: **she made the**. wait a minute.

B: what do you want to say?

A: şeyy, he made something to the storyline of this Donkey Kong, made video game. its story line was similar to the story line of Donkey Kong.

B: ok but, how can we express it?

A: **He made a video game whose story line was similar to Donkey Kong's,** that is.

B: ok it has finished.

A: not yet, **this story game had an immediate success**

B: this video game has?

 A: **had** what?

16-reconstruction of the text by using their own words.

Interactive/ Correctly resolved

17-verb form/tense

Interactive/ Correctly resolved

18-verb form/tense

Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: **an immediate**

A: **an?**

19-articles
Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: **an immediate success** point **and this is the** it continues with **"with".** put a point.

A: and

B: we will write "**the name of this game is Mario Brothers**"

A: then can we say this video game …

B: how can we express it?

A: let's finish it here.

B: no, no. we should use Mario Brothers, too.

A: **and**

B: **this video game**

A: **and Mario's Brothers**

B: **is the name of this video game.**

20-reconstruction of the text by using their own words.
Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A: and **Mario's Brothers**

B: not **Mario's Brothers** Mario Brothers

21-punctuation
Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A: hmm, ok. Is it what the story tells?

B: what

A: is it what the story tells? **Brothers.**

B: **is the name of the this video game. the end.**

A: it has finished. that's enough, Metin.

B: yes, **the end**

2- Samples of the transcriptions of the Text-Reconstruction Task Group

PAIR-1

A: let's begin. There was a plumber named Mario.

B: we can begin with once upon a time.

A: we can add it to its beginning, afterwards.

B: ok, **there a plumber.**

A: **named Mario.**

B: no, **whose name is Mario**

A: Also, **named Mario** is ok.

> 1- Reconstruction of the text by using their own words.
>
> Interactive/ Correctly

B**: The plumber has, has** is correct, isn't it?

A: yes

B: **has a beautiful girlfriend.**

> 2- Verb tense/form/aspect
>
> İnteractive/incorrectly resolved

A: it can be but we should think its time.

B: **ape fall in love girl kidnap** … do you know the meaning of **ape?**

A: it's sth like goril or maymun.

B: what is told about here?

A: some time later, the ape falls in love with the girl.

> 3- Asking for meaning of a word.
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: can we use **then? … then**

A: no, **then** is not appropriate

B: meaning after

A: **one day** is better

B: is it appropriate

> 4- considering lexical choices
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A: yes, it is.

B: **one day an ape fall**

A: yes, there is only one …

B: **falls in love**

A**: falls in love**

B: is it "**love with", with** I think, isn't it?

A: no, that is a phrase **fall in love his girl friend.**

5- prepositions

İnteractive/incorrectly resolved

B: and kidnaps

A: no, there is sth else here.

B: he falls in love and kidnaps.

A: the ape falling in love

B: no, the ape falls in love and kidnaps. There is nothing like the ape falling in love.

A: but we can write, the ape falling in love with the girl kidnaps her.

B: We can express all of them in separate sentence.

 A: We will have made sentences like primary school children … **which**

B: **which?**

A: could you get what I am trying to do?

B: yes

A: good then

B: let's tell **in love the girl … his**

A: **plumber, the plumber**

B: **girl friend**

A: **and**

B: we can't use "**and"** here. I have finished the sentence

A: ok, kidnaps her.

> 6- conjunctions
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: **kidnaps her. The plumber chases**

A: what does it mean?

B: which one?

A: **chases**

> 7-asking for meaning of a word
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: kovalamak, **chses the ape to rescue his girlfriend**

A: **in order to rescue**

> 8-conjunctions
>
> Interactive/ Correctly

B: why? Use only **"to".** You don't have to use **"in order to"** to rescue his girl frie**nd.**

Shall I tell "**this simple tale",** is it correct?

A: yes

> 9-demonstratives
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: yes, **this simple tale become**

A: no, **became,** it is past tense

B: yes, you are right. We have given up writing the story

> 10-demonstratives
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A: **became Donkey Kong.** In fact there is nothing to add here. After putting the comma we can use this in that way, can we?

B: or do we have to write "**which is the video game story**" is it obligatory?

A: I think "**which"** is better. Don't use comma, **which is a video game.**

B: let:'s write the inventor of this story; **the inventor of this story.**

A: or **this game.**

B: **this game story** … or **this game** is better.

> 11- punctuation
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A: **who is an artist**

B: or we can put it after the name "Sigeru Matsimoto"

A: no, cannot use **"is"** there, clear it.

B: no no we are talking about the inventor of the story is Sigeru Matsimoto, an artist. We will combine them.

A: there is also, Sigeru Matsimoto

12- linking the ideas

Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: yes you will combine them ok?

A: yes

B: Sigeru Matsimoto, an artist.

A: **loves video game**

B: **Matsimoto loves video games, games** is better.

A: yes, it is more general. **And wants make**

B: no, **wants make** is not correct.

13- reconstructing the snetences by using their own words.

İnteractive/incorrectly resolved

A: how can we express it better?

B: **and wants make them interesting.**

A: does it mean he likes the video game and tries to make them interesting.

B: no, he wants to make them interesting. He likes them and wants to make them so.

A: ok, write then. How can we express it?

B: we will combine them with **"and". Wants make them interesting**

A: yes, ok.

B: point.

A**: like fairy tales, invent story similar fairy tales.**

B: **like fairy tales inventing story**

A: then, can we say like that "**he also likes fairy tales and invent story, a story."**

B: **invented,** past tense.

A: skip it. Now, we firstly …

14- verb tense.
NIN

B: **he also likes fairy tales**

A: so he likes

B: so he invented

A: a story similar to a famous fairy tale.

B: **a story**

A: no "**which is"** is not correct. You are confusing it.

B: how, what do you mean?

A: write only "**similar to"**

B. it is told here that he invented a story similar to famous fairy tale

15- linking ideas
Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A: but, you don't need to use "which is", only "similar to" is enough.

B: I think we should use, that is better. Even, we have always used "**which".**

We can use "**that",** now.

A:hoooo, look at this. Is it **have** or **story have succeed?**

B: **story immediately.**

A: **gain,** can it be?

B: we can write "**it succeeded",** as well. No need to tell gained success

16- considering lexical choices
Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A:**it succeeded**

B**: the story**

A: **had a immediate success**

B: no, why **had? Immediately succeeded**

A: oooo, you have written "**had succeeded**"

B: yes, I have written "**had succeeded**", I would use **simple past tense.**

A: **immediate succeeded.** This is correct.

B: but to have, **had**

A: but we cannot use **have** with **success.** We can use **success** alone.

B: Is it a noun. Use it as a noun.

A: but, it can also be used as a verb. That will be shorter. I want to use it as a verb.

B: ok.

A: ok, now we can use **afterwards.**

B: …

A: ok , but. I want to ask sth to the teacher.

B: No, we have to do it ourselves.

A: look, we have used past in some sentences and present in others.

We should have used one of them.

B: here there is sth like news. We should use past tense.

However, at the beginning, it is telling about the story. Did Matsimoto die?

A: I don't know.

B: let's imagine he died.

A: why

B: he will die eventually.

> 20- verb tense/ form/ aspect
>
> İnteractive/incorrectly resolved

A: look at here. We have written firstly he likes video games and tries to make them interesting. Because of this, he invented. That is illogical.

B: **liked**

A: why?

B: ok, **like**

A**: have in a.** it is still available. **"In a was"** is better, isn't it?

> 21- verb tense/ form/ aspect
>
> noninteractive

B: I don't know. Let's add the last sentence

A**: the rest is video history.**

B: no, not correct.

A: how can we express it ?

B: he succeeded and then invented Mario Brothers.

A: I have skipped it. I mean the latest sentence.

> 22- confirming the meaning of the origial text.
>
> noninteractive

B: OK, OK

A. we are at the end.

B: ok, do it as you want. Story gained success.. then …

A: skip it, too. What should we do? Have you got an idea?
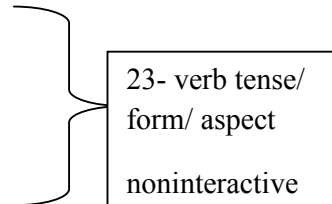
B: no.

A: shall I write **was.** Give an idea, Metin.

B: I don't know Merve.

A: so I won't add this.

23- verb tense/ form/ aspect

noninteractive

B: ok, don't add.

A: there is nothing to do. Let's finish it.

B: ok.

PAIR-2

A: now, once upon a time

B: **there was a plumber.**

A: no, we can say **there is a plumber**, can't we? **plumber** or can we continue

B: ok, ok

> 1- verb tense/ form/
>
> İnteractive/ incorrectly resolved

A: **whose name is Mario.**

B: **the plumber have a beautiful girlfriend.**

A: should we use **"the"**

B: yes,

> 2- articles
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A: but it will be **the plumber has**, won't it?

B: yes

A: the plumber has a beautiful girlfriend.

> 3- verb tense/ form/ aspect
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: **kidnap?**

A: kaçırmak, in Turkish.

B: how can we use it?

A: we can say the ape fell in love with his girlfriend and kidnapped her.

> 4- asking for meaning of a word
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B**: and kidnapped her.**

A: ok, let's do this firstly**, ape**

B: no, **an ape. an ape** is correct.

A: **an ape falls in love with**

> 5- articles
>
> Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: should we use **with**

A: eee **his girlfriend,** to his girlfriend

B: no, I mean should we use **with** after **love**

A: **in love with his girlfriend**

6-prepositions

Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: kidnap, let's express this like that "**there was**"

A: **Mario was, "was"** is correct, isn't it?

B: why did you use past tense?

A: We are telling Mario fell in love with her and kidnapped her.

B: **and,** why?

7-- verb tense/ form/ aspect

Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A: and kidnapped her.

B: **plumber,** there is sth here like fighting or combating.

A: yes, is it used with **"to",** meaning "against to" **for rescue her girlfriend.**

B: it is used with "to"I isn't it? to, I think.

A: yes, to rescue her girlfriend.

8-prepositions

Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: **chased ape**, then **to rescue her girlfriend.**

A: no, **his girlfriend**

B: ok, right. **this simple tale became**

9-pronouns/possessives

Interactive/ Correctly resolved

A: **This simple tale became Donky Kong.**

B: **which is a**

A: **which is a**

B: **video game story**

A: **video game story**.

B: ok we can say it was invented by … what

A: but, do we have to use a **passive sentence** there, we can write Sigeru Matsimoto invented it.

B: ok that is also correct, he invented

A: **invent to**

B: no**, invented**

A: ok, ok

10- verb tense/ form/ aspect

Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: we can say this at the end. This was invented by …. hmm **loves video games.** He invented **video game,** right?

A: hı hı, after that there is **game story,** its story.

B: it was invented, then

A: can we say **"this"?**

B: no, no, not this, that. In **passive** structures, **this** turns to **that.**

A:ok, use **"that"**

B**: that was invented by**

A: **Matsimoto who**

B: an artist

A: **who,** yes **who is an artist** but we can put sth else there.

B: **who was,** should we use a comma after that

A: yes

11- demonstratives

Interactive/ Correctly resolved

12- punctuation

Interactive/ Correctly resolved

B: **and loved**, put a comma and go on **loved video games and**

A: **and**, why?

B: **and wanted to make them interesting.**

A: we can say **"he"**

B**: he wanted to make them interesting**

A: or **make interesting film.**

| 13- pronoun |
| Interactive/ Correctly resolved |

B:interesting

A: interesting, what is intersting?

B: **things**

A: **which**

B: I am always putting a point but I think we cannot combine "**which"** so

A: are these still continuing?

B: let's read once more [silience] look at here. Those have finished here, then …

A: no, he wants to make interesting things. He likes fairy tales and şeyyy …

B: and he wants to create sth similar to them. We can write them in separate sentences, we don't have to combine them.

A: but we have already started. He likes and makes those, the end. We have to use "**who"** again

B: **who,** why?

A: because we are describing this man.

| 14- linking ideas |
| İnteractive/incorrectly resolved |

B: ok but how?

A: but **who,** I don't know how

[Silence]

A: ok skip it.

B**: and this invented**

[Silence]

A: **to** is not ok, here

B: **… the story**

A: **immediate was success**

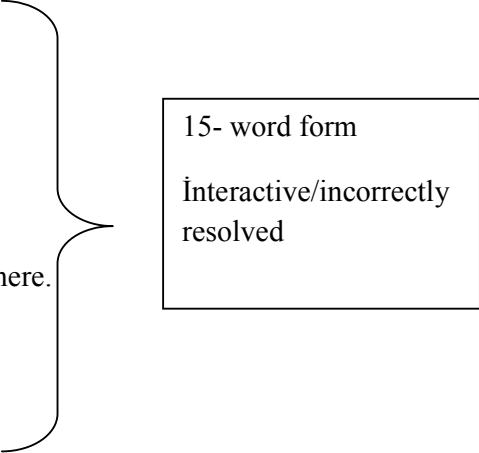B: **immediate**

A: I think we can use an adverb here.

B**: immediately**

A: **success** is ok as a noun

B: so, so … followed

A: followed Mario Brother, ok

B: yes, ok the end.

15- word form

İnteractive/incorrectly resolved

APPENDIX-C

Examples of the texts completed by the students in the study

1- An Example of a Dictogloss Activity Completed in the First Training Session

Today was my first day back in the class after my vocation. I got up late so I couldn't have time for breakfast. I wasn't matter to eat at school. When I got bus stop, bus had left. It means I was gonna miss the breakfast. At school, I met my new teacher. I was hungry. I remembered I put candy bar to my bag and I started to look for it. The teacher asked me a question. But, I wasn't paying attention. He asked my partner Clara my name. Clara had forgotten my last name. she said "hmmm … superman". Suddenly, eyes were on me. I quickly corrected Clara. " Not superman, Zuckerman. Everyone called me superman. First, I was embarrassed, I began to like my new name.

2- An Example of a Dictogloss Activity Completed in the Second Training Session

I was walking along the street in the other day. I came across from the corner of the street. I saw a man who standed on the corner. He was tearing up bills and throwing them on the ground. I couldn't help asking him why he was tearing up them. And he replied "they kept the ghosts away." I said that there wasn't ghosts here." Then, he told "Because he teared up bills, there weren't ghosts."

3- An Example of a Dictogloss Activity Completed in the Treatment Session

Once upon a time, there was a plumber named Mario. This plumber had a beautiful girlfriend. One day, an ape fell in love with Mario's girlfriend. This simple tale became "Donkey Kong", the first video game story. The game was invented by Sigeru Matsimoto, an artist. Matsimoto loved video game and wanted to make it interesting. He liked fairy tales and wanted to invent a story similar to famous fairy tale. The story

was immediate success and everyone liked it; Matsimoto followed "The Mario Brothers." It was the rest video story.

4- An Example of a Text Reconstruction Activity Completed in the First Training Session

Today is first day back after vacation. I got up late. I didn't have time for breakfast. I didn't eat anything. When I came to the bus stop, bus was just going from here. It mean I missed the breakfast.

At the school I met with our new teacher I was hungry and I remember "I put candy bar in my bag". I started look. The teacher asked me question "what is your name". but I was busy. then teacher asked my partner. Her name is Clara. But she forgot my last name. she said that "hmm his name is superman" suddenly, eyes were on me. I said to Clara my correct name. I isn't superman, my last name Zuckerman. Everybody call me Superman. First, I embarrassed but now, I am beginning to like my new name.

5- An Example of a Text Reconstruction Activity Completed in the Second Training Session

I saw a man tearing up 10 dollars bills across the street when I was walking along the street. I asked him why he was tearing up ten dollors bills and throwing them on the ground. He replied " I am tearing up and throwing these 10 dolars bills on the ground because this keeps ghosts away". I said him that there were no ghosts. He replied "There is no ghosts because I have been tearing up and throwing these bills on the ground."

6- An Example of a Text Reconstruction Activity Completed in the Treatment Session

Once upon a time, an artist, Sigeru Matsimoto, invented a video game story. In this story, a plumber called Mario- has a beautiful girl friend. One day an ape falls in love with this girl and kidnaps her. So the story begins. The Mario chases the ape and rescues his girlfriend. Afterwards, Matsimoto created a video game came from this story called "Donkey Kong". This game is the combination of video game and fairy tale. Finally, the game became so successfull that Matsimoto made its following game "The Mario Brothers"

The rest is the video history.

APPENDIX-D

Examples of the texts completed by the students in the pilot study conducted in Gazi Mustafa Kemal Anatolian High School

1- An Example of a Completed Dictogloss Activity (Piloting the First Text Used in the First Training Session)

Today was my first day back in the class after summer holiday. I woke up late and didn't have time to eat something. But it wasn't matter. Because I was eating at school. Then I came out of the home. But I realized that I missed the bus. That meaned I was going to miss the breakfast. After that I arrived school. Then I met my new teacher. I thought I was so hungry. Suddenly I remembered that I put a candy bar. And I began to look for it in my bag. The teacher asked me a question but I wasn't listening to him. So he asked my name to my friend, Calara. She had forgotten my last name, so she said, he is superman. Then, all eyes were on me. It was too late. But I explained that wasn't superman, was Zukerman. In the first times, I was embarrassed. But After some times, I began to love my name.

2- An Example of a Completed Dictogloss Activity (Piloting the Second Text Used in the Second Training Session)

I was walking along the street the other day. I came across a strangeous sight. He was tearing up ten dollars bills. I couldn't help myself asking him why he was tearing up ten dollars bills. And he was throwing them on the ground. Then I asked. He said that there was a ghost. And I told him there was no ghosts so he didn't have to do it But he replied there was no ghost since he torn up the bills.

3- An Example of a Completed Dictogloss Activity (Piloting the third Text Used in the Treatment Session)

Once there was a plumber named Mario. When he was a child, he met a beautiful girl. He didn't know she was a princess. One day he came across that beautiful girl and he fell in love her. Mario thought interesting things. Then Mario went to an ape's house for broken tap and he saw a lot of photos on the walls. He surprised because these photos belonged beautiful princess.

One day an ape kidnapped her. Mario searched her everywhere. But he found nothing. Suddenly Mario remembered s story. In that story an ape take to casstle. Then he went to an casstle which was in a forest. Mario resqued beautiful princess easily.

This story was written by Sigeru Matsimoto. He liked fairy tales and video game so he united fairy tales and video games and he created his first video game named Donkey Kong It was more interesting than the other video games. So it had a world wide success.

4- An Example of a Completed Text Reconstruction Activity (Piloting the First Text Used in the First Training Session)

Today was my first day in class after holiday. I got late and didn't have time for breakfas. But it wasn't matter. I was eating at school. Then I got bus stop but bus leaved. It means I missed breakfast.

At school, I met our new teacher. I was hungry and I remembered to put candy-bar in my bag. So I started to look for it. Teacher asked a question for me but I didn't pay attention so she asked my partner, Clara my name. Clara had forgotten my last name. say " …. Hmmm I think so superman." Suddenly all of eyes were on me. Quickly I corrected Clara "not superman, Zuckerman". But it was so late everyone called be by Superman. First days at school I am embarrassed. But then I began to like my new name.

5- An Example of a Completed Text Reconstruction Activity (Piloting the Second Text Used in the Second Training Session)

I was walking along the street other day. I came across strange sight. While a guy was standing corer. He was tearing up ten-dollar bill. I asked "what are you doing"? he replied he kept ghosts away. I said "but there is no ghost" he said "yes there is no ghost. Because I teared up the bill"

6- An Example of a Completed Text Reconstruction Activity (Piloting the third Text Used in the Treatment Session)

There was a plumber whose name is Mario. The plumber had a beautiful girl friend and an ape kidnapped her. The plumber chased the ape to rescue his girlfriend. Thus, this simple tale became "Donkey Kong" which is a video game story. The story was invented by Sigeru Matsimoto who is an artist. Matsimoto loved the video game and wanted to make it more interesting. He liked fairy tales and invented a story which is similar to this famous fairy tale. The story immediately successed. Then Matsimoto Followed the Mario Brothers, The rest is a video story.

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