

# Migrant Students' Emotions and Perceptions of collaborative writing: The role of educational setting, educational level and (non-)migrant background

Anastasia Paspali , Despina Papadopoulou 

LingLab, Department of Linguistics, School of Philology, Faculty of Philosophy, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Thessaloniki, Central Macedonia, Greece

Received: April 15, 2025 / Accepted: June 1, 2025 / Published Online: June 6, 2025

© Pioneer Publications LTD 2025

## Abstract

Within a socio-cultural framework of language teaching and a mixed methods design, the present study explores the emotional impact of collaborative writing activities on (non-) migrant students in formal education as well as their perceptions towards collaboration. The study examined whether emotions and perceptions about collaboration are differentially affected by educational level (primary vs. junior high school), educational setting (reception vs. mainstream class) as well as students' background (migrant, non-migrant). The data were obtained by means of questionnaires and were analyzed both quantitatively by means of linear mixed-effects models and qualitatively by means of thematic analysis. The results revealed that students overall exhibited more positive than negative emotions. Even more, primary school students in the mainstream class exhibited weaker negative emotions compared to students in the reception class, and marginally stronger positive emotions and weaker negative emotions compared to junior high school students in the mainstream class. Primary school students in the mainstream class were the only group who did not exhibit negative emotions towards collaboration. Furthermore, junior high school students exhibited more negative emotions and reported more collaboration difficulties compared to primary school students, which could be associated with different conceptualization of group work among different ages as well as with different social group dynamics between the mainstream class of primary school and the mainstream class of junior high school along with different orientation of the school curricula.

**Keywords** migrant education, collaborative writing, dictogloss, language learning in migrant contexts, school setting, school level, migrant background, grammar teaching intervention, group work in formal education settings

## 1. Introduction

As the child population from migrant backgrounds grows, so too does the need for language teaching interventions to promote their development in the language of the host country and the language of schooling, which is critical for their integration. Crucially, the interventions need to be appealing to students since the emotional impact of a teaching intervention on students is associated with their learning process (see Franck & Papadopoulou, 2024 for discussion). Furthermore, recent studies embrace interventions and methods promoting cooperative learning in migrant students since it has been argued to facilitate language learning, socialization, conflict management, sense of belonging, and thus, emotional development and well-being (Ferguson-Patrick, 2020). Consequently, knowing how migrant students feel during the learning process when certain teaching intervention methods are employed, as well as how they collaborate with each other in various learning

environments, is of utmost importance.

To date, studies on the emotional impact of language teaching interventions on migrant students as well as on their perceptions towards collaborative tasks in formal education are limited (Busse et al., 2020, 2021). This area of research is highly critical given that migrant students form a highly vulnerable population, often experiencing trauma and anxiety (Ferguson-Patrick, 2020). In addition, migrant students do not form a uniform population, and their educational needs may differ and/or dynamically change across the various learning environments. For this reason, it is highly important to study which factors may differentially affect their emotions and perceptions towards the learning process. This can, in turn, reveal new insights into good teaching practices and more tailored educational materials that promote migrant students' educational growth as well as their well-being.

The present study is the first one, to our knowledge, which explores (a) the emotional impact of a collaborative language teaching intervention with migrant students, (b) students' perceptions towards collaboration in classroom

while also exploring (c) the role of educational level (primary vs. junior high school), educational setting (reception vs. mainstream class), and student background (migrant vs. non-migrant).

## 2. Language teaching in migrant students: focusing on students' emotions and collaboration in formal education

Migrant students have been reported to exhibit lower school satisfaction and social belonging, along with lower school performance compared to non-migrant students (Göbel & Frankemölle, 2020; Henschel et al., 2019). Crucially, their school performance has been found to be higher when they experience more happiness at school and a high sense of belonging (OECD, 2015). Thus, designing appealing teaching interventions which promote (all) students' well-being, and stimulating positive emotions and attitudes is of paramount importance for integration and for lowering the risk of school failure and school dropout in the migrant population.

However, research on measuring the emotional outcomes of language teaching on the migrant child population is limited. To our knowledge, the existing studies focus on EFL classes in formal school settings (Busse et al., 2020; 2021). Given the limited studies on the topic, more attention needs to be paid to this line of research (Busse et al., 2020; Philp and Duchesne 2016; Swain, 2013), and specifically to language teaching interventions which target the language of the host country (both in reception as well as in mainstream classes). Busse et al. (2020; 2021) applied two language teaching intervention studies targeting vocabulary in EFL primary school learners of English from diverse backgrounds in Germany. Overall, they found that learners had significantly higher post-test performance in vocabulary as well as higher positive emotions when the intervention included either plurilingual practices and/or other affective-experiential activities, and less negative emotions when the intervention included stimulated appreciation of plurilingualism and positive language attitudes. Frank & Papadopoulou (2024) studied adult L2 migrant learners learning the language of their host country, i.e., Greek and French. They found a higher degree of positive and a lower degree of negative emotions, as well as more positive attitudes towards a multilingual language teaching intervention targeting derivational morphology compared to a traditional intervention on the same topic.

Meanwhile, despite the extensive line of research on cooperative learning, limited research has been carried out in school settings. When it is done, it mostly focuses on the FL classroom and highlights that learners have positive attitudes towards collaboration (Calzada & García Mayo, 2020). Studies in school settings have found that group work is of great help for children from diverse backgrounds, promoting their relationships, social inclusion, and team incorporation (Baines et al., 2017; Borůvková & Emanovský, 2016). However, recent meta-analyses reveal (a) that collaborative interactions between students from

different backgrounds were highly effective among younger children and less effective in adolescents (Ülger et al., 2018), and (b) that collaborative learning activities targeting migrant, low-income, and Roma children in eight European countries accounted for only 6% of all interventions conducted (Aguilar et al., 2019).

## 3. Collaborative writing

Drawing from the notion of collaborative learning and the socio-cultural theory of learning (Vygotsky, 1978), collaborative writing is a communicative activity between two or more students who compose an entire written text together from the beginning until the end (Storch, 2018; Howard, 2001, p. 54). All students of the group participate and collaborate throughout all stages, and they are all responsible for making decisions and producing the text (Storch, 2005; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2007; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009). In this way, students develop their critical thinking, argumentation, and negotiation since they analyze and produce their own texts while learning from each other and expanding their perspectives (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2009).

Moreover, many studies found that collaborative writing helps learners in their language acquisition as well as writing skills (Donato, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 2001). Specifically, learners seem to attend to the form more cautiously, which enhances more accurate language production (Philp, Adams, & Iwashita, 2013). Students also improve their vocabulary and text coherence (Talib & Cheung, 2017) and establish clarity in writing (Fong, 2012). It has also been found that pairs produced more accurate texts compared to individuals in FL classrooms (Basterrechea & García Mayo, 2013; Dobao & Blum, 2013; Nassaji & Tian, 2010; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009 but see also Kuikken & Vedder, 2012).

Additionally, collaborative writing has been argued to work as scaffolding (Wood, Bruner, and Ross, 1976) among peers (Cazden, 1988). Hence, it can provide a social context for students to offer and receive support and feedback (Berkenkotter, 1984; Donato, 1994). Studies on the topic (i.e., Cho et al., 2006; Daiute & Dalton, 1993; Stanley, 1992; Storch, 2005; Zhu, 2001) revealed several types of peer scaffolds (i.e., collaborating, seeking information, using repetition, providing compliments or praises etc.).

Furthermore, the role of social group dynamics as well as of affect (i.e., emotions that are generated in collaborative learning), can greatly affect the successful outcome of the activity (Swain and Miccoli, 1994). Group activity towards a common goal has been argued to promote acceptance of differences (Johnson & Johnson, 1999), enjoyment, self-esteem, and confidence in speaking (Shehadeh, 2011). It has also been argued that it develops opportunities for peer support even among students from diverse/different backgrounds (Kagan, 1992). Crucially, heterogenous groups seem to show more benefits than homogenous groups (Dishon & O'Leary, 1984). This is attributed to the fact that individuals from different backgrounds tend to focus on different information in the discourse and exhibit different perspectives (Gardner,

1999). Thus, they can benefit from each other, embrace diversity, and reflect positive interdependence (Slavin, 1995). However, collaborative work may also entail conflict and disagreement among group members and particular patterns of behavior and/or relations which are not always conducive to learning (Storch, 2002) such as slacking or free-riding (Brooks & Ammons, 2003; Pieterse & Thompson, 2010), especially when students lack the necessary collaboration skills to contribute to the team (Oakley et al., 2007).

Importantly, from a socio-cultural perspective, interaction between peers during group work and emotions are tightly linked. Many scholars argue that learners are likely to be more successful in language learning when they are socially engaged, i.e., listening and providing feedback to each other, and drawing from one another's expertise and ideas (Moranski & Toth, 2016; Sato & Ballinger, 2016; Philp & Duchesne, 2016).

Another important factor that can influence group dynamics is language proficiency, which can, in turn, influence individuals' willingness to participate (Storch, 1998). Low proficiency learners may benefit more when paired with higher-level proficiency partners (Kim and McDonough, 2008; Leeser, 2004 but see Storch, 1998 for opposite results). On the other hand, other studies have found that proficiency is not always the determining factor in participants' post-test performance, and that other factors may play a crucial role, such as pair interactions (Watanabe & Swain, 2007; Storch, 2002).

## 4. Dictogloss

Dictogloss (Swain et al., 1985) can be considered a form of collaborative writing intervention. It draws from the Output hypothesis (Swain, 2000), which argues that grammar is learnt via comprehensible output and the systematic effort of students to produce it promotes acquisition and the automation of the grammatical forms. Dictogloss includes a sequence of main stages (Kuiken & Vedder, 2002; Wajnryb, 1990): students read or listen to a text while they also keep notes, then they reconstruct the text individually or in pairs/groups, and finally they compare their version with the original one. Dictogloss aims to provide students with opportunities to practice all language skills (Qin, 2008) and to teach grammar (Jacobs & Small, 2003; Nurdianingsih & Rahmawati, 2018; Olioumtsevits et al., 2023; Yolanda, 2019). The reconstruction stage of a dictogloss encourages negotiation and thus languaging (Swain, 2006), i.e., opportunity for noticing and resolving language problems that the learners may not have been able to resolve on their own (Pica, 1994). Significant grammar gains have been observed in both comprehension and production, with the gains remaining for long after instruction (e.g., Gorman & Ellis, 2019; Qin, 2008). In addition, as a group task, dictogloss can be influenced by group dynamics. Thus, students with strong personalities may prevent other students from participating, especially during the reconstruction stage, while more reserved students may be reluctant to discuss or correct the text with team members (Deveci & Ayish, 2018, p. 7).

Importantly, students' attitudes towards dictogloss as well as their interactions during text reconstruction and collaboration have also been explored. Gallego (2014) and Steward et al. (2014) found that adult foreign learners, who were university students, exhibited positive attitudes towards dictogloss. Deveci and Ayish (2018) also found that adult EFL students found dictogloss appealing, motivating, and empowering when employed as a group activity. Crucially, the main challenge that students exhibited was conflict and disagreement along with time management, which in turn caused more tension. Other challenges were recalling the details and anxiety about writing the correct form. Limited engagement in writing and/or lack of involvement were also reported as a source of dissatisfaction. Kanazawa (2017) and Ahmadian et al. (2015) also found that dictogloss increased adult EFL students' motivation and reduced anxiety, respectively. Importantly, EFL children and adolescents also exhibited a positive attitude towards dictogloss (Calzada & García Mayo, 2020; Shak, 2006) despite their (initial) unfamiliarity with the activity (Shak, 2006).

## 5. The present study

### 5.1. Research questions

In the present study, we explore learners' emotions and attitudes towards dictogloss, and more particularly, its collaborative aspect by focusing on the role of migrant background, educational level, and school setting.

RQ1: To what extent does dictogloss influence migrant students' positive and negative emotions? And is this influence modulated by the students' educational level and educational setting?

We expect higher positive and lower negative emotions if the intervention is appealing.

RQ2: To what extent does dictogloss influence students' positive and negative emotions within the mainstream classroom? And is this influence modulated by the students' educational level and background?

We expect higher positive and lower negative emotions if the intervention is appealing.

RQ3: How did students experience their collaboration in class? Is this experience mediated by the students' educational level, educational setting, and background?

We expect that if students have a positive collaboration experience, they will exhibit more positive emotions towards collaborating with each other and fewer collaboration difficulties.

Given the lack of prior research in these populations, no hypothesis was formed regarding the role of educational level, educational setting, and students' background.

### 5.2. Participants

One hundred and sixteen students participated in the present study (Table 1). The data were collected from 6 primary and junior high schools in the western part of Thessaloniki (Greece), including the outskirts. To explore the role of educational level, educational setting, and (non-)migrant background, there were six groups of

students presented in Table 1 along with their age range, school grade, and mean years of stay in Greece.

**Table 1.** Number and groups of participants by students' Background, Educational level, and Educational setting, along with age range, school grade, and mean years of stay in Greece (standard deviation (SD) in parentheses).

N of participants	Background	Educational level	Educational setting	Age range	School grade	Mean years of stay in Greece
18	migrant	primary school	mainstream class	11-12	6 <sup>th</sup> grade	9.3 (SD=2.9)
19	non-migrant	primary school	mainstream class	11-12	6 <sup>th</sup> grade	-
17	migrant	primary school	reception class	10-12	5 <sup>th</sup> & 6 <sup>th</sup> grade	5.1 (SD=0.8)
27	migrant	junior high school	mainstream class	13-17	2 <sup>nd</sup> & 3 <sup>rd</sup> grade	9.3 (SD=5)
17	non-migrant	junior high school	mainstream class	13-15	2 <sup>nd</sup> & 3 <sup>rd</sup> grade	-
18	migrant	junior high school	reception class	12-18	1 <sup>st</sup> -3 <sup>rd</sup> grade	5.1 (SD=2.8)

Migrant students' languages were: Albanian, Arabic, Armenian, Chinese, Georgian, English, Polish, Russian, Ukrainian, and Kurdish. Five migrant students in junior high school were older than the typical age for these grades. Students in the reception classes had approximately 5 years of mean stay in Greece and had a proficiency level between advanced A2 and intermediate B1. This information was reported by their teachers based on their placement tests at the beginning of the school year. In the mainstream classes, 85% of the students had a proficiency level between advanced B1 and C1 level, and approximately 9 years of mean stay. All non-migrant students were native speakers of Greek (L1) and were all born and raised in Greece.

### 5.3. Methods

#### 5.3.1. Dictogloss: teaching intervention protocols and procedure.

Two teaching protocols were implemented. In the first one, the (non-)migrant groups in the mainstream classes of junior high school conducted two dictogloss activities about the life and action of Nelson Mandela. The first text targeted vocabulary and the second one indirect speech and the formation of indirect questions. The second protocol was conducted by the rest of the groups and included two dictogloss activities about two friends exchanging voice messages about a theater performance and a funny day in the park. These texts targeted the formation and meaning of verbal aspect in Greek, which is a vulnerable phenomenon in L2 Greek (Karpava et al., 2012; Tsimpli & Papadopoulou, 2009). Both teaching protocols were applied after discussion with the teachers regarding the needs of their class. The students first listened to the pre-recorded text presented at a natural pace and were asked to listen for comprehension. Then, they listened to the text two more times at a slower pace and were asked to note down key words/notes that would later help them reconstruct the missing parts of the text. Then, they had to complete these parts in groups of two to four members. Finally, they had to compare their version with the original text and make amendments, using a pen with a different colour<sup>1</sup>.

#### 5.3.2. Emotions questionnaire

<sup>1</sup> Since we do not focus on the language learning gains of the teaching protocols but on their emotional impact on students and the collaboration among them, we do not present the protocols into more

To explore RQ1 and RQ2, students conducted an emotion questionnaire. The questionnaire was an adapted version of the emotion questionnaire in Franck and Papadopoulou (2024). Students were asked to rate the strength of the emotions they had experienced during the intervention. Thirteen emotions were tested, including both positive and negative ones. Furthermore, epistemic emotions (confusion, curiosity, excitement, frustration, and surprise) and a subgroup of achievement emotions (anger, enjoyment, despair, hope, shame, and pride) from the Achievement Emotions Questionnaire AEQ-S (Frenzel et al., 2009) were employed. Emotions that are considered both epistemic and achievement emotions (boredom and anxiety) were also included. Answers were given on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = "Hardly at all"; 5 = "Very strong"). The meaning of each emotion was orally explained by the researcher, and examples were given to make sure that the students understood each one of them. Detailed instructions were also given by the researcher for the completion of the questionnaire. Students chose between the Greek version of the questionnaire and the version in their own first language.

#### 5.3.3. Open-ended questionnaire

To explore RQ3, an open-ended questionnaire was conducted, including three questions (Q1-3). Q1 asked students how they felt while collaborating with their team members. Q2 asked students what difficulties they faced as a team (at group level) during collaborating with each other, and what would have mitigated these difficulties. Q3 asked students what difficulties they faced personally (as individuals) during collaborating with each other, and what would have mitigated these difficulties.

### 5.4. Data analysis

For RQs 1-2, linear mixed effects models were conducted in R (Version 4.4.1; R Core Team, 2023) on the emotional ratings of students predicted by the fixed effects of Emotion type, Educational level, and Educational setting as well as their interaction (RQ1) and Emotion type, Educational level, and Background as well as their interaction (RQ2). The random part included a random effect for students and a random slope for Emotion type.

In RQ3, responses were analyzed qualitatively by

detail in terms of their language structures in the present study.

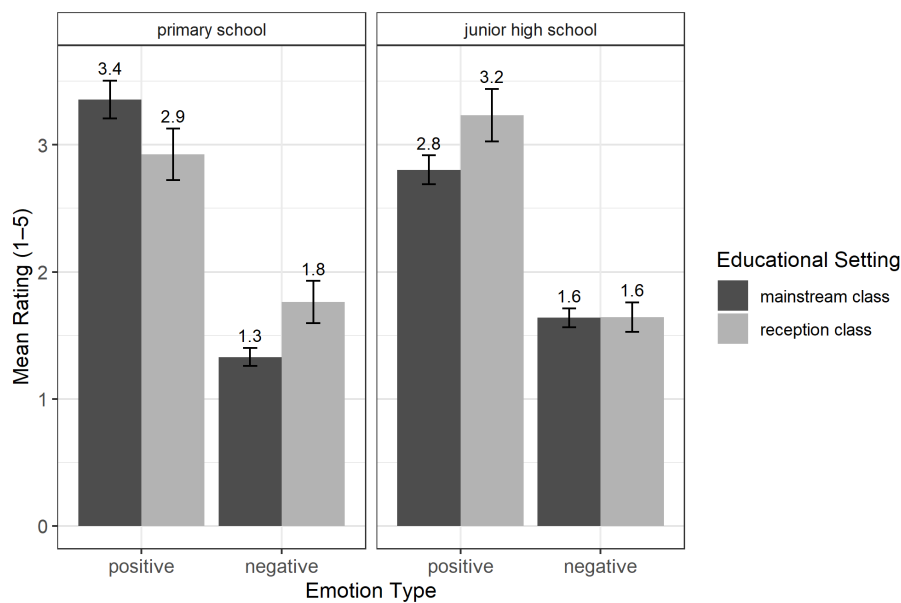
means of thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In this way, recurring themes and insights related to the students' emotions and perceptions towards collaboration in the dictogloss task were identified. Both authors collaboratively analyzed the responses on several occasions. Similar responses were grouped and manually identified to generate common themes. The research team refined the themes, and after reaching a consensus on their relevance, the main themes were identified:

- (a) emotions towards collaboration (Q1): positive, negative, and neuter responses,
- (b) group level (Q2) and individual level difficulties (Q3) towards collaboration: internal difficulties (i.e., due to language proficiency, due to memory demands, due to note taking), collaboration difficulties (i.e.,

disagreeing, not sharing the notes, covering the text with their body, not participating in the discussion), no difficulties, and difficulties related to the materials.

## 6. Results

In terms of RQ1, the results are illustrated in Figure 1. Model results (Table 2) revealed a main effect of Emotion type, indicating that students assigned significantly higher ratings to positive emotions compared to negative ones. The three-way interaction was also significant, reflecting that the significant effect of Emotion type depends on both educational level and educational setting.



**Figure 1.** Emotional ratings by school level and educational setting.

**Table 2.** Model results for emotional ratings predicted by Emotion type, Educational level, and Educational setting

	<b>b</b>	<b>se</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
Emotion type	1.501	0.152	9.86	< .001
Educational level	0.025	0.154	0.16	.872
Educational setting	-0.103	0.144	-0.72	.476
Emotion type * Educational level	0.247	0.305	0.81	.421
Emotion type * Educational setting	0.238	0.285	0.84	.406
Educational level * Educational setting	0.230	0.289	0.80	.427
Emotion type * Educational level * Educational setting	1.326	0.570	2.33	.002

Between-group pairwise comparisons (via emmeans package (Lenth, 2000) and adjusted p-values with Tukey correction) revealed that all groups assigned higher ratings to positive compared to negative emotions (all  $p$ -values < .05). Furthermore, when contrasting Educational setting (mainstream vs. reception class), there was a significant difference between the mainstream and reception class in primary school for the negative emotions ( $b = -0.439$ ;  $se = 0.214$ ;  $t = 2.05$ ;  $p = .044$ ), indicating that migrant students in the mainstream class of primary school assigned lower ratings to the negative emotions compared to migrant students in the reception class of

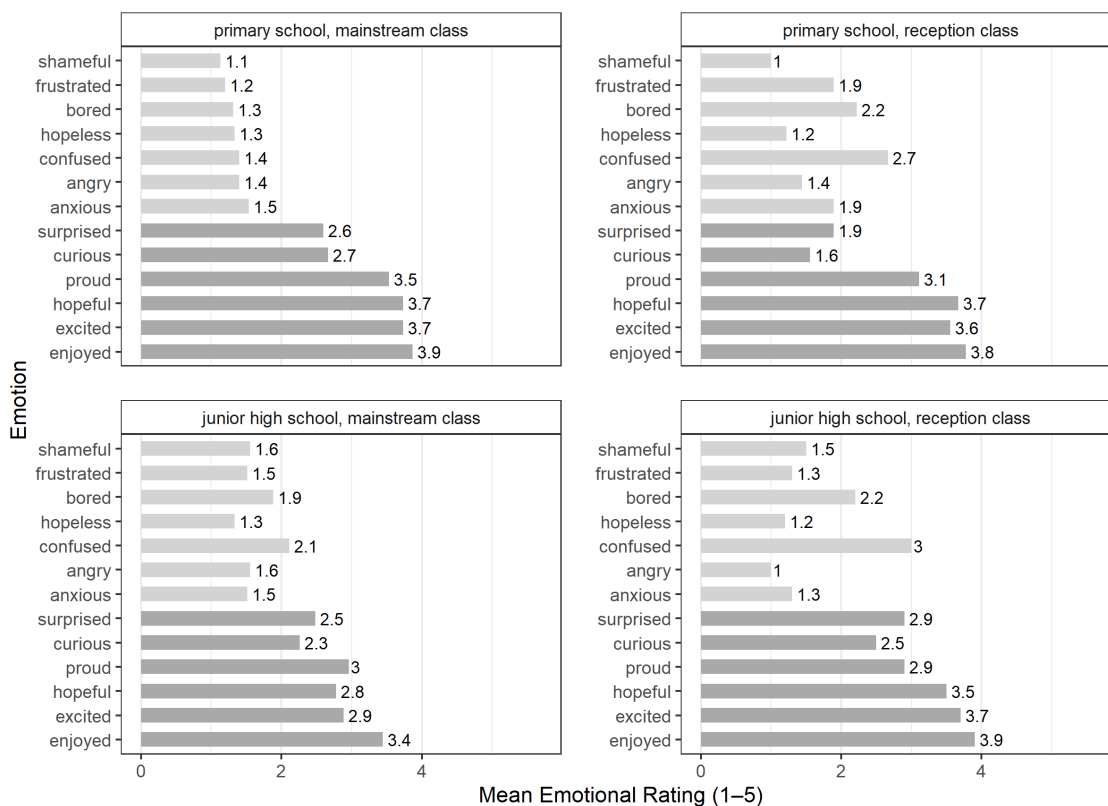
primary school. The rest of the three comparisons were not significant (positive emotions of primary school students in the mainstream class vs. positive emotions of primary school students in the reception class:  $b = 0.462$ ;  $se = 0.356$ ;  $t = 1.30$ ;  $p = .197$ , positive emotions of junior high school students in the mainstream class vs. positive emotions of junior high school students in the reception class:  $b = -0.431$ ;  $se = 0.351$ ;  $t = -1.23$ ;  $p = .225$ , negative emotions of junior high school students in the mainstream class vs. negative emotions of junior high school students in the reception class:  $b = -0.006$ ;  $se = 0.190$ ;  $t = -0.030$ ;  $p = .976$ ).

When contrasting Educational level (primary vs.

junior high school), there were two marginally significant differences: migrant students in the mainstream class of primary school assigned marginally higher ratings for positive emotions compared to the migrant students in the mainstream class of junior high school ( $b= 0.595$ ;  $se= 0.304$ ;  $t= 1.95$ ;  $p= .055$ ) and marginally lower ratings for negative emotions compared to the migrant students in the mainstream class of junior high school ( $b= -0.315$ ;  $se= 0.167$ ;  $t= -1.89$ ;  $p= .064$ ). The rest of the two comparisons were not significant (positive emotions of primary school students in the reception class vs. positive emotions of junior high school students in the reception class:  $b= -0.298$ ;  $se= 0.422$ ;  $t= -0.707$ ;  $p= .482$ , negative emotions of primary school students in the reception class vs. negative emotions of junior high school students in the reception class:  $b= 0.118$ ;  $se= 0.236$ ;  $t= 0.502$ ;  $p= .618$ ).

Furthermore, the role of Educational setting and

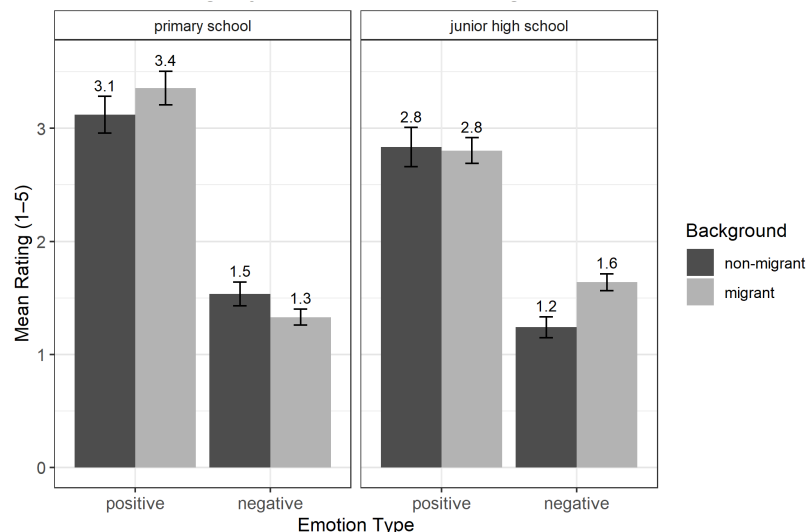
Educational level was further explored for each emotion separately, following Franck & Papadopoulou (2024). The means are presented in Figure 2. The analysis revealed that there was an interaction between the two factors for the emotion of curiosity ( $b= -0.386$ ;  $se= 0.165$ ;  $t= -2.34$ ;  $p= .023$ ), reflecting that primary school students in reception classes were less curious than students in the mainstream class and the students at junior high school ( $p$ -values < .05). There was also a main effect of Educational setting for the emotion of confusion ( $b= -0.559$ ;  $se= 0.171$ ;  $t= -3.27$ ;  $p= .002$ ), reflecting that migrant students in reception classes felt more confused compared to migrant students in mainstream classes ( $p < .05$ ). There was also a main effect of Educational level ( $b= 0.231$ ;  $se= 0.110$ ;  $t= 2.10$ ;  $p= .004$ ) such that junior high school students felt more shame than primary school students ( $p < .05$ ).



**Figure 2.** Mean emotional ratings per emotion by educational setting. Positive emotions are visualized with dark grey colour and negative emotions with light grey colour.

In terms of RQ2, the effects of Background, Educational level, and Emotion type were analyzed. The results are illustrated in Figure 3. The model results (Table 3) revealed a main effect of Emotion type, indicating that students assigned significantly higher ratings to positive

emotions compared to negative emotions. The three-way interaction was also significant, reflecting that the significant effect of Emotion type depends on both Educational level and Background.



**Figure 3.** Mean emotional ratings by school level and background.

**Table 3.** Model results for emotional ratings predicted by Emotion type, students' Background, and Educational level.

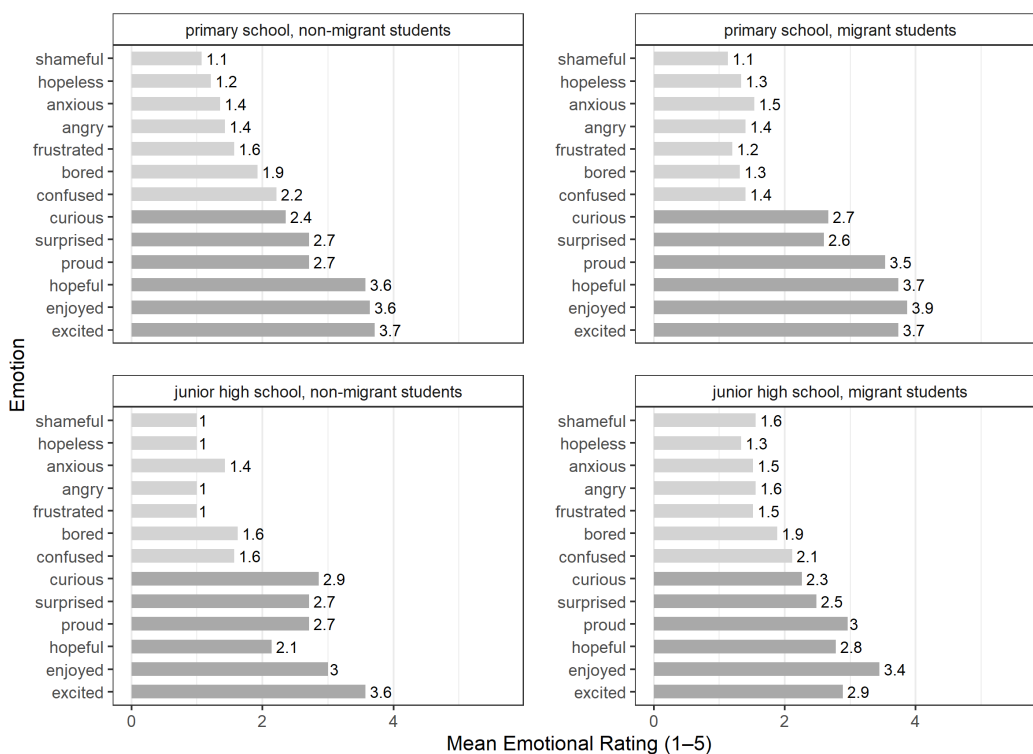
	<b>b</b>	<b>se</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>p</b>
Emotion type	-0.795	0.044	-17.9	< .001
Educational level	-0.118	0.065	-1.82	.074
Background	-0.045	0.065	-0.69	.491
Emotion type * Educational level	0.107	0.044	2.407	.016
Emotion type * Background	0.002	0.044	0.06	.957
Educational level * Background	-0.040	0.066	-0.60	.549
Emotion type * Educational level * Background	-0.108	0.044	-2.44	.015

Pairwise comparisons revealed that all groups assigned higher ratings to positive emotions compared to negative emotions (all  $p$ -values < .05). Furthermore, when contrasting Background (migrant vs. non-migrant students), no significant differences were found (all  $p$ -values > .05), indicating that migrant students and non-migrant students within the same educational level (i.e., migrant vs. non-migrant students in primary school, migrant vs. non-migrant students in junior high school) assigned similar emotional ratings.

However, when contrasting Educational level (primary vs. junior high school), it was found that migrant students in primary school exhibited significantly stronger positive emotions compared to migrant students in junior high school (positive emotions of migrant students in primary school vs. positive emotions of migrant students in junior high school:  $b = 0.587$ ;  $se = 0.187$ ;  $t = 3.14$ ;  $p = .002$ ), while non-migrant students did not (positive emotions of non-migrant students in primary school vs. positive emotions of non-migrant students in junior high school:  $b = 0.313$ ;  $se = 0.266$ ;  $t = 1.18$ ;  $p = .241$ ). The rest of

the comparisons were not significant (negative emotions of migrant students in primary school vs. negative emotions of migrant students in junior high school:  $b = -0.272$ ;  $se = 0.178$ ;  $t = -1.53$ ;  $p = .128$ ; negative emotions of non-migrant students in primary school vs. negative emotions of non-migrant students in junior high school:  $b = 0.318$ ;  $se = 0.251$ ;  $t = 1.27$ ;  $p = .207$ ).

Furthermore, the role of Background and Educational level in the mainstream class was further explored for each emotion separately. The means are presented in Figure 4. The analysis revealed that there was a main effect of Educational level for the emotion of hope ( $b = 0.596$ ;  $se = 0.206$ ;  $t = 2.89$ ;  $p = .005$ ), reflecting that primary school students felt more hopeful than junior high school students. There was also a significant interaction between Background and Educational level ( $b = 0.350$ ;  $se = 0.158$ ;  $t = 2.22$ ;  $p = .031$ ) reflecting that non-migrant students in primary school felt more confused compared to non-migrant students in junior high school and compared to migrant students in primary and junior high school (all  $p$ -values < .05).



**Figure 4.** Mean emotional rating per emotion by Educational level and students' Background. Positive emotions are visualized with dark grey colour and negative emotions with light grey colour.

In terms of RQ3, the students' questionnaire responses (Q1-Q3) are presented. Below, we report students' responses by educational level, educational setting, and educational background. We first report the percentages of students' responses in each Question (Table 4) based on the thematic analysis. Then, we report the most representative responses of each group.

Table 4 reflects that there is a clear distinction between primary and junior high school students, with primary school students experiencing more positive emotions compared to junior high school students (primary school: migrant students in mainstream class 100%, non-migrant students in mainstream class 86%, migrant students in reception classes 88%; junior high school: migrant students in mainstream class 70%, non-migrant students in mainstream class 60%, migrant students in reception classes 65%) as well as more limited collaboration difficulties at group level (primary school: migrant students in mainstream class 5%, non-migrant students in mainstream class 27%, migrant students in reception classes 23%; junior high school: migrant students in mainstream class 38%, non-migrant students in mainstream class 55%, migrant students in reception classes 50%) and individually (primary school: migrant students in mainstream class 5%, non-migrant students in mainstream class 13%, migrant students in reception classes 0%; junior high school: migrant students in mainstream class 37%, non-migrant students in mainstream class 0%, migrant students in reception classes 10%).

Furthermore, primary school students experienced more internal difficulties compared to junior high school students at group level (primary school: migrant students in mainstream class 50%, non-migrant students in mainstream class 32%, migrant students in reception classes 30%; junior high school: migrant students in mainstream class 22%, non-migrant students in mainstream class 0%, migrant students in reception classes 20%) and individually (primary school: migrant students in mainstream class 45%, non-migrant students in mainstream class 60%, migrant students in reception classes 60%; junior high school: migrant students in mainstream class 22%, non-migrant students in mainstream class 0%, migrant students in reception classes 20%).

Thus, the present findings reflect that the increased positive emotions of primary school students are associated with having better collaboration experiences compared to junior high school students, even though the former faced more internal difficulties (i.e., difficulties in note taking, in remembering parts of the text, in time management etc.). The above finding is further reflected in the group of migrant students in the mainstream class, given that all students experienced positive emotions (100%) for their collaboration and exhibited scarce collaboration difficulties (5%). On the other hand, non-migrant students in mainstream class were the group who experienced the weakest positive emotions (60%) and the most frequent collaboration difficulties (55%). Difficulties with materials were reported less than 15% across groups.



**Table 4.** Percentage of responses per question and theme by students' Background, Educational level and Educational setting

	Primary school			Junior high school		
	Migrant students in mainstream class	Non-migrant students in mainstream class	Migrant students in reception class	Migrant students in mainstream class	Non-migrant students in mainstream class	Migrant students in reception class
<b>Q1 Emotions towards collaboration</b>						
Positive	100	86	88	70	60	65
Neutral	0	14	12	10	20	15
Negative	0	0	0	20	20	20
<b>Q2 Difficulties as a group</b>						
Collaboration	5	27	23	38	55	50
Internal	50	32	30	22	0	20
Materials	0	14	0	3	0	0
No difficulties	45	27	47	37	45	30
<b>Q3 Individual difficulties</b>						
Collaboration	5	13	0	37	0	10
Internal	45	60	60	22	0	20
Materials	0	0	13	3	0	20
No difficulties	55	27	27	38	100	50

All migrant students in the primary classroom reported positive emotions (see (1) and (2) below) for collaborating with their classmates and they mainly expressed joy and happiness (Q1). Crucially, no student reported negative emotions. Most of the difficulties they faced with their teams (Q2) were attributed to internal reasons, as noted in (3) (i.e., spelling errors/orthography, taking notes, and remembering words when filling out the gaps). However, there were two students who reported collaboration difficulties (4). At an individual level (Q3), half of the students reported that they experienced difficulties related to internal reasons see for example (5). The students reported that (a) paying attention to the pictures of the story, and (b) guessing the missing word/phrase based on the preceding/following part of the text were helpful strategies.

(1) "I felt happy because we did the activity together with my friend."

(2) "I liked it a lot. We worked in teams in nice and smart ways."

(3) "Our team needed a bit more time for the notes."

(4) "My classmate wrote fast, and I could not see where she was when writing. Thus, I could not do much."

(5) "I had some difficulties when I had to listen and write at the same time."

Non-migrant students in the mainstream classroom of primary school mainly reported positive emotions (Q1) for collaborating with their classmates (6) except for three students who gave neutral answers (7). Nobody gave a negative response. In Q2, the students reported some internal difficulties (8), difficulties due to collaboration (9), and no difficulties with their team (10). At an individual level (Q3), half of the students reported internal difficulties (11). There were few difficulties due to collaboration (12) and materials (13). In terms of their recommendations (i.e.,

what would have mitigated their individual or group difficulties), most students reported that they would like to learn how to collaborate more effectively, and to practice their skills in relation to dictogloss (note taking while listening, guessing what is missing based on the pictures etc.).

(6) "I felt very nice because I had a very helpful partner, and we collaborated nicely."

(7) "It was ok."

(8) "We had difficulties in finding/remembering the missing word because we did not take notes, but the pictures were very helpful."

(9) "My classmate wasn't listening to what I was saying at all. I wish he was!"

(10) "Nothing was difficult for us because we were really good and worked together."

(11) "The main difficulty I had was to fill out the gaps fast and accurately. Practicing this further would help me."

(12) "The partner I had."

(13) "The first text was difficult. The second one was easier."

Most of the migrant students in the reception class of primary school reported positive emotions (Q1) for collaborating with their classmates (14) and they mainly expressed joy and happiness. Three students gave more neutral responses (15). Nobody gave a negative response. Overall, half of the students reported no collaboration difficulties (Q2). Most of the difficulties were internal (16). However, there were also some difficulties due to collaboration (17). At an individual level (Q3), half of the students reported that they experienced some internal difficulties, which were mostly resolved via collaboration (18). Two students reported difficulties with materials (19).

(14) "Perfect! I really enjoyed that I was in the same

team together with my friends and I want to do that more often.”

(15) “It was ok, but I wanted to do this by myself too.”

(16) “We did not have any. When I did not remember something, my friend helped me, and I also helped him.”

(17) “My partner wanted to complete some gaps herself, but she couldn’t. I helped her and from that point all went well.”

(18) “I forgot some words, but my team knew them and helped me a lot.

(19) “It was difficult, the text was fast.”

Most of the migrant students in the mainstream class of junior high school reported positive emotions, feeling joy and closeness due to their collaboration (20). However, neutral and negative responses about collaboration were also present (21-23). The negative emotions were anger, dissatisfaction, and anxiety. In Q2, approximately half of the students reported that they had difficulties in collaboration (24, 25). Six students also reported internal difficulties and difficulties with the materials (26). At an individual level (Q3), half of the students reported that they experienced difficulties because of inefficient/insufficient collaboration (28-29). There were also some internal difficulties (30). In terms of recommendations, practicing their collaboration skills was reported by one student. For internal difficulties, collaboration with friends, translation, and listening to the text one more time were recommended.

(20) “I felt that I came closer to my classmates since we worked together, and we made it.”

(21) “Not good, not bad. If I was in another team, it would have been better.”

(22) “I got angry because of the other members of the team. They believe that I was the problem. I did not enjoy it at all.”

(23) “In the beginning I was feeling comfortable and nice full of hope for the win. Then, everything changed, and this is why we did not win the first time.”

(24) “We were shouting at each other and disagreed. Nothing helped. I did everything myself.”

(25) “We could not collaborate well because two members of the team did not know Greek well.”

(26) “The listening was fast; it should have been slower.”

(27) “Personally, I had difficulties working with these members.”

(28) “I could not think and concentrate because of my team. It would have been better if I was in another team.”

(29) “I got stressed because of the members of my team.”

(30) “I did not know some words. I needed translation from the phone or my friends.”

Most of the non-migrant students in the mainstream class of junior high school reported positive emotions (31), feeling joy and satisfaction due to their collaboration (Q1). However, neutral and negative responses (32, 33) were also present. The negative emotion was dissatisfaction. Half of the students reported that the difficulties they experienced with their team (Q2) were attributed to

collaboration (34). No individual difficulties were reported (Q3). With respect to their recommendations, they would like to have collaborated more effectively.

(31) “It was nice that we worked in teams, much better than if we had to work individually.”

(32) “It was ok, but I prefer to work alone.”

(33) “The team was not very responsive and active, and this is why did not performed well.”

(34) “Difficulties in understanding each other. It would have been better if we had collaborated more effectively.”

Most of the migrant students in the reception class of junior high school reported positive emotions (Q1), feeling joy and satisfaction due to their collaboration (35). However, neutral and negative responses about collaboration were also present (36). The negative emotions were disappointment and dissatisfaction. Half of the students reported difficulties due to collaboration (Q2) (37-38). Some limited internal difficulties were also reported (39). At an individual level (Q3), half of the students reported no difficulties. When difficulties were reported, they were attributed to internal reasons (40) or to materials (41). In terms of recommendations, one student reported that more time would have been beneficial due to communication issues, and another student reported that working individually would have been a solution. Finally, only one student reported that practicing their collaboration skills would be important.

(35) “Great! I really enjoyed it! My partner was very helpful.”

(36) “Not so good. My partner could not help, and he was very slow.”

(37) “My partner did everything herself so I could not do much.”

(38) “I did not trust my partner and I did everything by myself.”

(39) “My team needed more time to fill out the gaps.”

(40) “I had to think a bit more about putting the verb in the correct form”.

(41) “It was difficult to listen and write notes”.

## 7. Discussion

The present study explored students’ emotions and collaboration experience when performing collaborative writing by means of dictogloss activities. The study tested the role of educational level, educational setting, and student background on the emotional impact of dictogloss as well as students’ perceptions about their collaboration.

Three RQs were addressed. RQ1 and RQ2 focused on the emotional impact of dictogloss on students. RQ1 asked whether educational level (primary school vs. junior high school), educational setting (mainstream class vs. reception class), and type of emotion (positive vs. negative emotions) influenced students’ emotional ratings during dictogloss. RQ2 asked whether educational level (primary school vs. junior high school), type of emotion (positive vs. negative), and background (non-migrant vs. migrant

students) influenced students' emotional ratings in the mainstream class. RQ3 explored students' perceptions about their collaboration during the task.

The results for RQ1 showed that migrant students experienced more positive than negative emotions during dictogloss, and that educational level and educational setting differentially affected their emotions. Specifically, migrant students in primary school experienced weaker negative emotions in the mainstream class compared to the reception class, while migrant students in junior high school exhibited similar strength of negative emotions in the mainstream and the reception class. Furthermore, migrant students in the mainstream class of primary school experienced marginally stronger positive emotions and weaker negative emotions compared to the migrant students in the mainstream class of junior high school.

The fact that all students overall exhibited higher positive and lower negative emotions, even though they were all unfamiliar with the task, is in line with the findings of RQ3 (see below the discussion for Q1). The positive emotional impact of dictogloss has also been found in previous studies with FL learners (Ahmadian et al., 2015; Deveci & Ayish, 2018; Gallego, 2014; Kanazawa, 2017).

In addition, the weaker negative emotions found for the primary school migrant students in the mainstream class compared to the reception class could be attributed to the high sense of belonging and happiness that the former group has developed within the mainstream class. This is also enhanced by the fact that this was the only group who reported only positive feelings for their collaboration and had almost no collaboration difficulties (see below, RQ3). The present findings are in line with findings demonstrating that migrant students are better supported long-term in the mainstream class where the appropriate scaffolding promotes better integration and peer interaction (Hunt, 2024).

However, this group of students also exhibited (marginally) higher positive and lower negative emotions compared to the junior high school migrant students in the mainstream class. This marginal difference is present even though junior high school students also attended schools where inclusivity, interculturalism and peer collaboration were highly valued and embraced. This finding reflects that the mainstream class may not have the same positive impact on migrant adolescents and migrant children. Migrant adolescents in the mainstream class have been reported to feel anxiety and discomfort when they cannot express themselves (Horgan et al., 2022). Furthermore, adolescents face greater academic and social challenges in the mainstream class related to language acquisition, curriculum complexity and social integration, in addition to the commonly observed academic gaps in their formal education (Ahad & Benton, 2018; Horgan et al., 2022; Wong and Schweitzer, 2017). On the other hand, the mainstream class in primary schools tend to be more inclusive, and students perform group activities more often, which was also confirmed by the teachers. Thus, migrant children are more familiar and feel more at ease with group work in the mainstream class compared to the adolescent migrant learners.

When looking at each individual emotion, we found that primary school students in the reception class

exhibited weaker curiosity compared to the rest of the groups. Curiosity is an epistemic emotion and for this reason, it may be less pronounced in migrant children with lower levels of proficiency. Perhaps due to the internal difficulties they faced (see discussion in RQ3), they were less likely to feel as curious as the other groups. Furthermore, students in the reception classes exhibited more confusion compared to students in the mainstream classes. This is not surprising given that dictogloss requires intensive cognitive processing and active listening skills, especially among L2 learners (Deveci & Ayish, 2018). Importantly, based on students' responses to the open-ended questions (see RQ3 below), this confusion seems to have stemmed from their unfamiliarity with the task and the cognitive demands of dictogloss rather than from not understanding the instructions. Even more, junior high school students felt more shame compared to primary school students, which relates to the fact that adolescents tend to exhibit more shyness when they are asked to do group work (see Bowker et al., 2023 for discussion on shyness in adolescence).

The results for RQ2 showed that both migrant and non-migrant students in the mainstream class experienced more positive than negative emotions during dictogloss, reflecting that the activity has positive emotional impact on all students of the mainstream class. However, migrant students experienced stronger positive emotions in primary school compared to migrant students in junior high school, as also found in RQ1 (see the discussion above). Furthermore, non-migrant students felt more confused than migrant students in primary school, and less confused than migrant students in junior high school. This interaction could be attributed to the fact that migrant students in primary schools, due to their flexibility to adapt into new contexts, follow new instructions and tasks more easily. On the other hand, in junior high school, migrant students in the mainstream class may find the content of the activity academically more challenging compared to the non-migrant students of the mainstream class. In addition, primary school students felt more hopeful compared to junior high school students, which also aligns with the characteristics of adolescents (i.e., they tend to be less optimistic) (Bowers & Powers, 2023; Long et al., 2024).

The results for RQ3 showed that students exhibited mainly positive emotions across the different groups, although not to the same extent. This is in line with the emotional ratings of the emotional questionnaire (RQ1-2). Furthermore, the group which exhibited only positive emotions when asked about their feelings towards collaboration (Q1) was the group of migrant students in the mainstream class of primary school. This is in line with the students' emotional ratings in the emotional questionnaire (see discussion in RQ1). Furthermore, primary school students overall did not report negative emotions as opposed to junior high school students, whose negative emotions mostly attributed to collaboration difficulties.

In Q2 of the open-ended questionnaire, junior high school students reported primarily difficulties in collaboration, while primary school students reported mostly internal difficulties. This also aligns with the responses in Q1. Thus, primary school students in the mainstream class who reported only positive emotions,

also reported the lowest extent of collaboration difficulties (5%). Furthermore, migrant students in mainstream classes seem to report better collaboration compared to migrant students in the reception classes and compared to non-migrant students in the mainstream classes. However, they mostly experience internal difficulties. Additionally, issues with materials were scarce, reflecting that they found them appropriate.

In Q3, migrant students in the mainstream class of junior high school exhibited an increased percentage of collaboration difficulties when reporting their difficulties at an individual level. Importantly, this is the group in which conflicts and intense disagreement occurred during collaboration.

With respect to the students' suggestions of mitigating the difficulties they experienced (either at group level or individually) throughout their collaboration, primary school students' responses reflected their wish and hope for better collaboration in the future and willingness to further practice this skill. Furthermore, in primary school, a series of internal difficulties were resolved via good collaboration since students reported that they helped each other when group and/or individual internal difficulties arose, reflecting solidarity, respect, and accountability. In junior high school, students mostly reported suggestions that are not constructive (i.e., change teams, stop collaborating, working individually). There was a limited number of students which acknowledged that further practice and knowledge is required to collaborate more efficiently.

The different collaboration patterns between the two educational levels can be explained from various perspectives. Primary school students may be more familiar with group work and practice their collaboration skills more often than junior high school students. On the other hand, the curriculum in Greek junior high schools is more oriented to individual written evaluation and less time, in turn, is devoted to group work, collaboration, negotiation. This is reflected in junior high school students' responses which were more focused on performance and successful completion of the dictogloss compared to primary school students. Furthermore, adolescents and children have been found to exhibit different perceptions about group work accompanied by different cognitive and social strategies (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987) employed to perform the group activity (Leman, 2015). Specifically, children have been found to view group work as a source of information, while adolescents as an opportunity to construct knowledge together. This could explain why adolescents emphasized on collaboration (difficulties) given the more "socialized" view of group collaboration (Leman et al., 2015, p. 819).

In terms of language proficiency and years of stay in the host-country, we observe no across-the-board difference between migrant and non-migrant students or between migrant students in mainstream classes and in reception classes. However, we found that migrant students in the reception classes experienced more confusion compared to migrant students in the mainstream class, which we attribute to their lower proficiency and years of stay in the host country along with the cognitive demands of the task.

## 7.1. Implications for teaching practice

The present study highlights the overall positive emotional impact of dictogloss on different groups of (non-)migrant students in formal educational settings and enhances its application within the mainstream and reception classroom.

However, the study shows that students also exhibited certain difficulties, mainly due to the cognitive and language demands of the activity as well as collaboration difficulties that arose mainly in junior high school. This is crucial for teaching practice given that these students were unfamiliar with this activity. Thus, the present study indicates that further practice is needed so that learners maximally benefit from dictogloss. The study also suggests that teachers should not assume that students already know how to work together efficiently (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Specifically, teachers may need to explicitly explain the value of collaborative learning (Nunan, 1988) to their students to increase their awareness about group work. Group work is not always efficient and productive, and teachers should help learners further develop their decision making, trust-building and conflict management skills (Deveci & Ayish, 2018; Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Finally, teachers need to consider age differences accompanied by different social and cognitive competencies and their impact on group work.

### Funding and ethics

This project has received funding from the European Union's AMIF program under the grant agreement No 101141078. The students' parents gave their written informed consent, and students gave their oral informed consent according to the Declaration of Helsinki. This study was approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki (91298/2025).

**Dr. Anastasia Paspali (Corresponding Author)** is a post-doctoral researcher at the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. She is a linguist focusing on Psycholinguistics, Language teaching and language acquisition, bilingualism, language processing, first and second language teaching as well as language disorders. She works on the EU-funded project ACTIN (Act and Connect for Integration: Language Learning and Cultural Awareness). Her PhD (2019, Summa cum Laude) from the Humboldt University of Berlin is on the acquisition and processing of gender agreement and agreement attraction in Greek monolinguals and heritage bilingual speakers. Her post-doctoral project "*Acquisition and Processing of Voice: is non-active morphology a clinical marker?*" received funding from the German research foundation (DFG 2021-2024, awarded to particularly qualified early-career postdoctoral researchers). She has worked as a lecturer and post-doctoral researcher at the Humboldt University of Berlin, the University of Konstanz, University of Crete, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, and New-York College Thessaloniki. She has published articles in international peer-reviewed journals (e.g., Language Acquisition, Applied Psycholinguistics, Frontiers in Psychology, Glossa etc.).

Email: [paspalia@lit.auth.gr](mailto:paspalia@lit.auth.gr)

**Despina Papadopoulou** is Professor of Linguistics at the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki and the Director of the School of Modern Greek Language. She is the principal investigator of the EU-funded project ACTIN (Act and Connect for Integration: Language Learning and Cultural Awareness). Her research interests lie in the areas of bilingual/multilingual development, second/foreign language acquisition and processing, and second/foreign language teaching. Over the last ten years, a considerable amount of her research and teaching has been devoted to migrant and refugee education, with particular emphasis on L2 learning and teaching. She participated in several research programmes on bilingual acquisition, language processing and second language acquisition, while recently she has been involved in MultiMind, a large-scale EU funded project on multilingualism that investigates among others second language acquisition and teaching in migrant and refugee children. She has designed and implemented a series of training programmes for educators who work with migrant and refugee populations in Greece, which are funded by UNICEF (<https://www.teach4integration.gr>).  
E-mail: [depapa@lit.auth.gr](mailto:depapa@lit.auth.gr)

## References

- Aguiar, C., Silva, C. S., Guerra, R., Rodrigues, R. B., Ribeiro, L. A., ... Pastori, G. (2019). Early interventions tackling inequalities experienced by immigrant, low-income, and Roma children in 8 European countries: A critical overview. *European Early Childhood Education Research Journal*, 28(1), 58–76.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/1350293X.2020.1707363>
- Ahad, A. & Benton, M. (2018). *Mainstreaming 2.0: How Europe's education systems can boost migrant inclusion*. Migration Policy Institute Europe.
- Ahmadian, M., Amerian, M., & Lavasani, E. (2015). The effect of the dicto-gloss as a cooperative learning technique on EFL learners' self-efficacy in writing. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 6(6), 1357. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0606.25>
- Baines, E., Blatchford, P., & Kutnick, P. (2008). *Promoting effective group work in the primary classroom: A handbook for teachers and practitioners*. <http://ci.nii.ac.jp/ncid/BA9124816X>
- Basterrechea M., García Mayo M.P. (2013). Language-related episodes (LREs) during collaborative tasks: a comparison of CLIL and EFL learners. In McDonough K., Mackey A. (Eds.), *Second language interaction in diverse educational contexts* (pp. 25–43). John Benjamins.
- Bereiter, C., & Scardamalia, M. (1987). *The psychology of written composition*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Berkenkotter, C. (1984). Student writers and their sense of authority over texts. *College Composition and Communication*, 35(3), 312.  
<https://doi.org/10.2307/357459>
- Borůvková, R., & Emanovský, P. (2016). Small group learning methods and their effect on learners' relationships. *Problems of Education in the 21st Century*, 70(1), 45–58.  
<https://doi.org/10.33225/pec/16.70.45>
- Bowker, J. C., Richard, C. L., Stotsky, M. V., Weingarten, J. P., & Shafik, M. I. (2023). Understanding shyness and psychosocial difficulties during early adolescence: the role of friend shyness and self-silencing. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 209, 1–7.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2023.112209>
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77–101.  
<https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp0630a>
- Brooks, C. M., & Ammons, J. L. (2003). Free riding in group projects and the effects of timing, frequency, and specificity of criteria in peer assessments. *Journal of Education for Business*, 78(5), 268–272.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/08832320309598613>
- Busse, V., McLaren, L. M., & Dahm, A. (2021). Responding to migration-related diversity in the classroom: a comparison of diversity-sensitive approaches to stimulate word acquisition in early FL teaching. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 45(5), 1596–1615.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2021.2005611>
- Busse, V., Cenoz, J., Dalmann, N., & Rogge, F. (2020). Addressing linguistic diversity in the language classroom in a resource-oriented way: an intervention study with primary school children. *Language Learning*, 70(2), 382–419  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12382>
- Calzada, A., & García Mayo, M. del P. (2020). Child learners' reflections about EFL grammar in a collaborative writing task: When form is not at odds with communication. *Language Awareness*, 30(1), 1–16.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2020.1751178>
- Cazden, C. B. (1988). *Classroom discourse: The language of teaching and learning*. <http://ci.nii.ac.jp/ncid/BA12142720>
- Cho, K., Schunn, C. D., & Chamey, D. (2006). Commenting on writing typology and perceived helpfulness of comments from novice peer reviewers and subject matter experts. *Written Communication*, 23(3), 260–294.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088306289261>
- Daiute, C., & Dalton, B. (1993). Collaboration between children learning to write: Can novice be masters? *Cognition and Instruction*, 10(4), 281–333.
- Deveci, T. & Ayish, N. (2018). Effects of dictogloss as a collaborative writing activity on students' perceptions and language development. *The Journal of Limitless Education and Research*, 4–19.  
[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/328900786\\_Effects\\_of\\_dictogloss\\_as\\_a\\_collaborative\\_writing\\_activity\\_on\\_students\\_perceptions\\_and\\_language\\_development](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/328900786_Effects_of_dictogloss_as_a_collaborative_writing_activity_on_students_perceptions_and_language_development)
- Dishon, D. and O'Leary, P. W. (1984). *A guidebook for cooperative learning: A technique for creating more effective schools*. Learning Publications.
- Donato, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In J. P. Lantolf, & G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygostkian approaches to second language research*

- (pp. 33–56). Ablex.
- Dobao, A. F. and Blum, A. (2013). CW in pairs and small groups: Learners' attitudes and perceptions. *System*, 41(2), 365–378.
- Ferguson-Patrick, K. (2020). Cooperative learning in Swedish classrooms: Engagement and relationships as a focus for culturally diverse students. *Education Sciences*, 10(11), 312.  
<https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci10110312>
- Fong, L. S. (2012). Benefits of collaborative writing for ESL advanced diploma students in the production of reports. *US-China Education Review*, 4, 396–407.
- Franck, J., & Papadopoulou, D. (2024). Pedagogical translanguaging in L2 teaching for adult migrants: Assessing feasibility and emotional impact. *Education Sciences*, 14(12), 1308.  
<https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci14121308>
- Frenzel, A. C., Goetz, T., Lüdtke, O., Pekrun, R., & Sutton, R. E. (2009). Emotional transmission in the classroom: exploring the relationship between teacher and student enjoyment. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 101(3), 705–716.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0014695>
- Gallego, M. (2014). Second language learners' reflections on the effectiveness of dictogloss: A multi-sectional, multi-level analysis. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 4(1), 33–50.
- Gardner, H. (1999). *Intelligence reframed: Multiple intelligences for the 21st century*. Basic Books.
- Göbel, K., and Frankemölle, B. (2020). Interkulturalität und Wohlbefinden im Schulkontext [Interculturalism and well-being in the school context]. In T. Ringeisen, P. Genkova, and F. T. L. Leong (Eds.) *Handbuch Stress und Kultur: Interkulturelle und kulturvergleichende Perspektiven* (pp. 1–17). Wiesbaden: Springer.  
[https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-27825-0\\_30-1](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-27825-0_30-1).
- Gorman, M., & Ellis, R. (2019). The relative effects of metalinguistic explanation and direct written corrective feedback on children's grammatical accuracy in new writing. *Language Teaching for Young Learners*, 1, 57–81.  
<https://doi.org/10.1075/ltvl.00005.gor>
- Grief, S. (2007). *Collaborative writing*. The National Research and Development Centre for Adult Literacy and Numeracy.  
<https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000204476>
- Henschel, S., Heppt, B., Weirich, S., Edele, A., Schipolowski, S., & Stanat, P. (2019). Zuwanderungsbezogene Disparitäten. In P. Stanar, S. Schipolowski, N. Mahler, S. Weirich, & S. Henschel (Eds.), *IQB-Bildungstrend* (pp. 295–336). Waxmann.
- Horgan, D., Martin, S., O'Riordan, J., & Maier, R. (2022). Supporting languages: the socio-educational integration of migrant and refugee children and young people. *Children & Society*, 36, 369–385.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/chso.12525>
- Howard, R. M. (2001). Collaborative pedagogy. In G. Tate, A. Rupiper, & K. Schick (Eds.), *A guide to composition pedagogies* (pp. 54–70). Oxford University Press.
- Hunt, L. (2024). Young refugees' participation in post-compulsory education: mapping policies, challenges and ways forward in mainland Greece. In K. Sobczak-Szelc, M. Pachocka & J. Szałańska (Eds.), *The Integration of refugees in the education and labour markets: between inclusion and exclusion practices* (pp. 48–61). Routledge.
- Jacobs, G.M., & Small, J.J. (2003). Combining dictogloss and cooperative learning to promote language learning. *The Reading Matrix: an International Online Journal*, 3.
- Johnson, D.W. and Johnson, R. T. (1999). What makes cooperative learning work. In Kluge, D. McGuire, S., Johnson, D. and Johnson, R. (Eds.), *Cooperative Learning* (pp. 23–36). JALT Applied Materials.
- Kagan, D.M. (1992) Implications of research on teacher belief. *Educational Psychologist*, 27, 65–90.  
[http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep2701\\_6](http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep2701_6)
- Kanazawa, N. (2017). *A study of the effectiveness of dictogloss on English grammar and motivation for Japanese junior college students in English*. Retrieved from  
[https://komajo.repo.nii.ac.jp/?action=repository\\_ur&item\\_id=1242&file\\_id=22&file\\_no=1](https://komajo.repo.nii.ac.jp/?action=repository_ur&item_id=1242&file_id=22&file_no=1)
- Karpava, S., Grohmann, K. K., & Fokianos, K. (2012). Aspect in the L2 and L3 acquisition of Greek. In *Second language learning and teaching* (pp. 41–62).  
[https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-29557-7\\_3](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-29557-7_3)
- Kim, Y., & McDonough, K. (2008). The effect of interlocutor proficiency on the collaborative dialogue between Korean as a second language learners. *Language Teaching Research*, 12(2), 211–234.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168807086288>
- Kuiken, F., & Vedder, I. (2012). Speaking and writing tasks and their effects on second language performance. In S.M. Gass, & A. Mackey (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 364–377). Routledge.  
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203808184>
- Leeser, M. J. (2004). Learner proficiency and focus on form during collaborative dialogue. *Language Teaching Research*, 8(1), 55–81.  
<https://doi.org/10.1191/1362168804lr1340a>
- Leman P. J. (2015). How do groups work? Age differences in performance and the social outcomes of peer collaboration. *Cognitive science*, 39(4), 804–820.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/cogs.12172>
- Lenth, R.V. (2020). *Emmeans: estimated marginal means. Aka least-squares means R Package Version 1.5.3*.
- Long, K. N., Wilkinson, R., Cowden, R. G., Chen, Y., & VanderWeele, T. J. (2024). Hope in adolescence and subsequent health and well-being in adulthood: An outcome-wide longitudinal study. *Social Science & Medicine*, 347, 116704.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2024.116704>
- Moranski, K. & Kim, F. (2016). Flipping lessons in a multi-section Spanish course: implications for assigning explicit grammar instruction outside of the classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 100,

- 830–852. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12366>
- Nassaji, H., & Tian, N. J. (2010). Collaborative and individual output tasks and their effects on learning English phrasal verbs. *Language Teaching Research*, 14(4), 397–419. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168810375364>
- Nunan, D. (1988). *The learner-centred Curriculum: A study in second language teaching*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/cbo9781139524506>
- Nurdianingsih, F., & Rahmawati, O.I. (2018). Running dictation as an effective technique on the teaching writing skill. *ELLiC Proceedings*, 2, 127–131.
- Oakley, B. A., Hanna, D. M., Kuzmyn, Z., & Felder, R. M. (2007). Best practices involving teamwork in the classroom: Results from a survey of 6435 engineering student respondents. *IEEE Transactions on Education*, 50(3), 266–272.
- OECD. (2015). *Immigrant students at school: easing the journey towards integration (OECD Reviews of Migrant Education)*. OECD Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264249509-en>
- Olioumtsevit, K., Papadopoulou, D., & Marinis, T. (2023). Second language grammar learning in refugee children. *Pedagogical Linguistics*, 4(1), 50–76. <https://doi.org/10.1075/pl.21012.oli>
- Pieterse, V., & Thompson, L. (2010). Academic alignment to reduce the presence of social loafers and 'diligent isolates' in student teams. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 15(4), 355–367. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2010.493346>
- Philp, J., & Duchesne, S. (2016). Exploring engagement in tasks in the language classroom. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 36, 50–72. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0267190515000094>
- Philp, J., Adams, R., & Iwashita, N. (2013). *Peer interaction and second language learning* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203551349>
- Pica, T. (1994). Research on negotiation: what does it reveal about second-language learning conditions, processes, and outcomes? *Language Learning*, 44(3), 493–527. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1994.tb01115.x>
- Qin, J. (2008). The effect of processing instruction and dictogloss tasks on acquisition of the English passive voice. *Language Teaching Research*, 12, 61–82. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1362168807084494>
- Sato, M., & Ballinger, S. (2016). *Peer interaction and second language learning: Pedagogical potential and research agenda*. John Benjamins Publishing Company. <https://doi.org/10.1075/llt.45>
- Shak, J. (2006). Children using dictogloss to focus on form. *Reflections on English Language Teaching*, 5(2), 47–62.
- Shehadeh, A. (2011). Effects and student perceptions of collaborative writing in L2. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 20(4), 286–305. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2011.05.010>
- Slavin, R. (1995). *Cooperative learning* (2nd ed.). Allyn & Bacon.
- Stanley, J. (1992). Coaching student writers to be effective peer evaluators. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 1(3), 217–233. [https://doi.org/10.1016/1060-3743\(92\)90004-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/1060-3743(92)90004-9)
- Steward, B. L., Silva, L. H. R., & Gonzalez, J. A. T. (2014). Integrating language skills through a dictogloss procedure. *English Teaching Forum*, 4(2), 12–19.
- Storch, N. (2018). Collaborative writing. *Language Teaching*, 52(1), 40–59. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0261444818000320>
- Storch, N. (2005). Collaborative writing: Product, process, and students' reflections. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14, 153–173.
- Storch, N. (2002). Patterns of interaction in ESL pair work. *Language Learning*, 52(1), 119–158. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922.00179>
- Storch, N., & Wigglesworth, G. (2007). *Writing tasks: comparing individual and collaborative writing*. In M. del Pilar Garcia-Mayo (Ed.), *Investigating tasks in formal language learning* (pp. 157–177). Multilingual Matters.
- Swain, M. (2013). The inseparability of cognition and emotion in second language learning. *Language Teaching*, 46(2), 195–207. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444811000486>
- Swain, M. (2006). Linguaging, agency and collaboration in advanced second language proficiency. In: Byrnes, H., (Ed.), *Advanced language learning: The contribution of Halliday and Vygotsky* (pp. 95–108). Continuum.
- Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning* (pp. 97–114). Oxford University Press.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2001). Focus on form through collaborative dialogue: Exploring task effects. In M. Bygate, P. Skehan & M. Swain (Eds.), *Researching pedagogic tasks: Second language learning, teaching and testing* (pp. 99–118). Pearson Education.
- Swain, M. & Miccolli, L.S. (1994): Learning in a content-based, collaboratively structured course: the experience of an adult ESL learner. *TESL Canada Journal*, 12, 15–28.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass, & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235–253). Newbury House.
- Talib, T., & Cheung, Y. L. (2017). Collaborative writing in classroom instruction: A synthesis of recent research. *The English Teacher*, 46(2), 43–57.
- Tsimpli I.-M., Papadopoulou, D. (2009). Aspect and the Interpretation of Motion Verbs in L2 Greek. In Snape N., Leung Y K-I & M. Sharwood Smith (Eds.), *Representational Deficits in SLA: Studies in honor of Roger Hawkins* (pp.187-227). John Benjamins.
- Ülger, Z., Dette-Hagenmeyer, D. E., Reichle, B., & Gaertner, S. L. (2017). Improving outgroup attitudes in schools: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of School Psychology*, 67, 88–103. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2017.10.002>
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: Development of*

- higher psychological processes. Harvard University Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctvjf9vz4>
- Wajnryb, R. (1990). *Grammar dictation*. Oxford University Press.
- Watanabe, Y., & Swain, M. (2007). Effects of proficiency differences and patterns of pair interaction on second language learning: collaborative dialogue between adult ESL learners. *Language Teaching Research*, 11(2), 121–142. <https://doi.org/10.1177/136216880607074599>
- Wigglesworth, G., & Storch, N. (2009). Pair versus individual writing: Effects on fluency, complexity and accuracy. *Language Testing*, 26(3), 445–466. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0265532209104670>
- Wong, C. W. S., & Schweitzer, R. D. (2017). Individual, premigration and postsettlement factors, and academic achievement in adolescents from refugee backgrounds: A systematic review and model. *Transcultural Psychiatry*, 54(5–6), 756–782. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1363461517737015>
- Wood, D., Bruner, J. S., & Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 17(2), 89–100. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.1976.tb00381.x>
- Yolanda, D. (2019). The effect of running dictation method on students' writing ability in procedure text (a study at the xith grade students of sma Negeri 6 padangsidempuan). *jurnal.ipts.ac.id*. <https://doi.org/10.37081/liner.v2i3.1208>
- Zhu, W. (2001). Interaction and feedback in mixed peer response groups. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10(4), 251–276. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1060-3743\(01\)00043-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1060-3743(01)00043-1)

#### Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

*Copyright © 2025 Paspali and Papadopoulou. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (CC BY). The use, distribution or reproduction in other forums is permitted, provided the original author(s) and the copyright owner(s) are credited and that the original publication in this journal is cited, in accordance with accepted academic practice. No use, distribution or reproduction is permitted which does not comply with these terms.*



## Call for Papers

### Submit via <https://jlt.ac/>

#### Areas of Interest:

Language teaching intervention and experiments; Curriculum development; Language teacher education; Bilingual education; New technologies in language teaching; Testing, assessment, and evaluation; Educational psychology, and more.

#### We accept the following types of submission:

1. Research article: (6,000 to 8,000 words)
2. Review: (3,000 to 8,000 words)
3. Book review: (up to 3,000 words)
4. Features: (3,000 to 8,000 words)

Scan to submit your articles\* & read more articles for free.

\*Article Processing Charges Apply.



Contact: [editor@jlt.ac](mailto:editor@jlt.ac)