

"In mine or in yours?" Task-based information distribution and its effect on oral interaction: An EFL classroom study.

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Author's note

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate the effect of information distribution on interaction in an EFL classroom. The study first discusses the interaction hypothesis and theories of comprehensible input and output, then moves on to a discussion of task and presents an overview of studies that have examined one-way and two-way tasks. In this experiment, the dialogues of eleven dyads of adolescent learners of an intermediate level were recorded completing two tasks, in which they had to narrate cartoon stories. In a counter-balanced design, two stories were manipulated to create one and two-way versions of the task. Audio recordings were transcribed and coded for measures of negotiation of meaning (confirmation checks, comprehension checks, clarification requests), LREs, recasts, repairs and other repetitions. The categories were taken from the literature and are seen as being beneficial for language acquisition. Non-parametric Wilcoxon tests were used to compare performance in the two tasks, for both pairs and individuals. Data revealed significant differences between the two tasks in terms of length of production, which was also affected by the participant's role and proficiency. Individual measures are examined in light of results from previous studies; the two-way task is seen to encourage collaboration between participants, whereas the one-way task encourages participants to accurately convey the message, as shown by results for recasts, morphosyntactical, appropriacy and different repairs.

Introduction

Since Long first proposed the Interaction Hypothesis in 1980, a body of research has been conducted on interaction. This discussion will begin with a broad overview of input and interactionist theories, beginning with the basic tenets of the interaction hypothesis itself. Swain's theory of comprehensible output (1985, 1993, 1995), which is an extension of Krashen's theory of comprehensible input (1982, 1985), can also be seen as a part of what has come to be known as the interactionist model. Negotiation of meaning, to obtain comprehensible input and output is also a vital theory to provide background to this current study, as is the theory of hypotheses testing and feedback leading to modified output and restructuring in the second language. These models will serve as a theoretical rationale for this study. Following this, I will provide a more detailed review of the literature firstly regarding task, and more specifically the one-way two-way distinction (Long 1990) and studies which have investigated information distribution, which is the focus of this paper.

According to Gass (2003, p224):

'the input and interaction approach takes as its starting point the assumption that language learning is stimulated by communicative pressure, and examines the relationship between communication and acquisition, and the mechanisms (e.g. noticing, attention) that mediate between them'.

Long (1996, p449) sees an "indirect causal relationship between interaction and acquisition'. Mackey and Gass's review (2006, p3) puts it succinctly when they state that 'the interaction approach considers exposure to language (input), production of language (output), and feedback on production (through interaction)'. We will consider output and feedback after we have looked first at the theories concerning interaction and input, beginning with the idea of comprehensible input.

Interaction and comprehensible input

It is argued that it is through interaction and by negotiating meaning learners are provided with the opportunity to obtain comprehensible input. The input hypothesis was first proposed by Krashen in 1982; its four parts are as follows:

(1) The input hypothesis relates to acquisition not learning (referencing Hatch 1978a, Krashen points out that the input hypothesis turns assumptions on their head –

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learners do not first 'learn' a structure and then practice it, but rather 'acquire' the structure after using it in communication)

(2) We acquire by understanding language that contains a structure a bit beyond our current level of competence ($i+1$). This is done with the help of context or extra linguistic information.

(3) When communication is successful, when the input is understood and there is enough of it, $i+1$ will be provided automatically (i.e. a deliberate attempt to provide $i+1$ is not necessary.)

(4) Production ability emerges. It is not taught directly.

(Krashen 1987, pp21-22)

Negotiation is one way in which learners can obtain comprehensible input; it provides learners with opportunities to gain clarification from more experienced L2 users, enabling input to be broken down into more manageable or understandable chunks, and learners to process language that may otherwise be too complex for them. Long (1996) defines negotiation as:

The process in which, in an effort to communicate, learners and competent speakers provide and interpret signals of their own and their interlocutor's perceived comprehension, thus provoking adjustments to linguistic form, conversational structure, message content, or all three, until an acceptable level of understanding is achieved (p. 418).

In operationalising negotiation of meaning, he includes comprehension and confirmation checks, and clarification requests. These concepts are defined in the coding section of the methods. There are a number of studies which have looked specifically at negotiation of meaning, the findings of which have provided evidence of negotiation facilitating understanding on the part of L2 learners. (Long, 1983, 1985; Doughty and Pica, 1986; Gass and Varonis 1985; Pica and Doughty, 1985; Pica, 1988).

Interaction and Comprehensible output

So if it is argued that interaction and negotiation of meaning can provide comprehensible input, can it also facilitate comprehensible output? While some studies take the perspective of interaction as being fluency practice of the target language, others see interaction as a chance for noticing and modified output. Schmidt first proposed the noticing hypothesis in 1990; the theory of noticing has also been

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examined in detail by Swain in relation to output (Swain, 1993, 1995; Swain and Lapkin, 1995). The noticing hypothesis holds as a central tenet that learning takes place when learners notice a gap in their L2 linguistic knowledge, that is to say, differences between the input they receive from a more competent L2 speaker and the language they themselves are producing. Noticing 'may trigger cognitive processes which might generate new linguistic knowledge or consolidate existing knowledge' (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Closely related to the noticing hypothesis is the comprehensible output hypothesis (Swain 1995, Swain and Lapkin 1995), in which it is stated that after noticing such a gap learners are pushed to modify their own output to make it more 'target like' or comprehensible to their interlocutor. (Pica, Holliday, Lewis & Morgenthaler 1989; Swain 1985, 1995).

Output, hypotheses testing and restructuring of interlanguage.

Thus output can function not only as an opportunity for noticing and for triggering cognitive processes, but can also be a chance for learners to test out their hypotheses about the language; this is the third function of output proposed by Swain. Learners try out their hypotheses about the language by interacting, and consequent feedback on productions pushes learners to modify their output to produce more comprehensible, or 'native like' utterances, which may ultimately lead to a modification of their interlanguage. Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) provide a psycholinguistic rationale for information gap tasks (to be discussed in more detail later), drawing on the work of McLaughlin (1987). They describe various steps which take place during the interaction, the first being distinguishing between referents in the input using contextual references. After this:

'the learner will very likely want to clarify or confirm her understanding. [...] In such a case, she can use these contextual features to negotiate for meaning with her partner [...] either through interaction, or less communicatively at the end of the task, the learner must be allowed to get feedback as to the accuracy of the choice.

After progressing through the above steps the learner may have had the opportunity to begin restructuring her interlanguage hypotheses. [...] Through this process, she may be able to move from initially noticing that there is a problem, to locating the source of the error, to restructuring her interlanguage

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hypotheses regarding the structure, to automatization of the revised language hypotheses.' (pp153-154)

This idea of restructuring and automaticity has its basis in cognitive theory. For McLaughlin (1987), learning a language is

'a complex cognitive skill [which] involves the use of various information handling techniques to overcome capacity limitations...through practice component skills become automatized and controlled processes are freed for other functions, and there is a constant restructuring of internalized representations as the learner achieves increasing degrees of mastery' (p151)

Thus it could be argued that through interaction, the learner is able to test hypotheses, to practice and automatize and finally to restructure their L2. This restructuring could be seen to be a sign of acquisition and leads us back to the quotation by Long (1996), that interaction and acquisition have an indirect causal relationship.

The definition of task

Moving on from the theoretical constructs that motivate this study, we now turn to the idea of 'task', and how tasks can facilitate acquisition according to the interactionist theories just discussed. There has been much criticism in the field of SLA about the definition of a task, and of how, for some, the meaning of such has come to be synonymous with a classroom activity. Nunan (1989, p10) considers a communicative task as 'a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focussed on meaning rather than form.' In addition, Nunan states that a task will also contain input, be it verbal or not, and a goal. Pica et al. (1993, p12) also believe that in addition to having a goal, participants must have an active role. A number of studies have looked at tasks and how different tasks can change the quantity and quality of interaction; there has been a body of research built up by Mackey, Gass, Pica and colleagues, among others. We will shortly discuss some of these studies in more detail.

Pica et al's (1993) study provides a theoretical rationale for the use of tasks. We can turn to this paper to see the characteristics of five types of tasks (jigsaw, information-gap, problem solving, decision-making, opinion exchange), based on the

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categories of interactant relationship, required or optional information exchange, goal orientation and outcome options. The analysis of these variables lead Pica et al. to conclude that:

'a task which promotes the greatest opportunities for learners to experience comprehension of input, feedback on production and interlanguage modification is one [...] in which the following four conditions are present:

1. Each interactant holds a different portion of the information which must be exchanged and manipulated in order to reach the task outcome.
2. Both interactants are required to request and supply this information to each other.
3. Interactants have the same or convergent goals
4. Only one acceptable outcome is possible from their attempts to meet this goal. ' (p17)

All tasks, except the opinion exchange, were classified as having convergent goals. However, of the five task types, the jigsaw task (two-way information flow), and the information gap (one-way information flow repeated with participants changing roles), are the only two task types that fulfil all the criteria regarding required information distribution, information exchange and goals. This is important as the manipulation of task according to information flow is the basis of this study; these types of tasks are commonly referred to in the literature as one-way and two-way tasks.

Task-based one-way and two-way studies.

Examining the literature which has discussed one-way / two-way tasks, we find studies with slightly differing focusses and findings. These studies have been conducted in the laboratory and have also focussed on the classroom (Pica and Doughty 1985a, 1988; Pica 1994, 2005; Foster 1998), have compared both settings (Gass Mackey and Feldman 2005), native and non-native speakers (Gass and Varonis 1985, Pica et al. 1995), types of task (Pica et al. 1993), groupings (Foster 1998; Yule & McDonald 1990) and how different characteristics in tasks can affect interaction (Gilabert et al. 2009) and the trade off between fluency, accuracy and complexity (Lambert & Engler 2007).

One of the earliest of these studies was Gass & Varonis (1985). The goal of this study was to determine if there were differences in interaction between native and non-

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native speakers performing a one-way and a two-way task. The dyads (and one triad) had different L1s. In the one-way task one participant was given a picture to describe without letting the interlocutor see it; information therefore flowed primarily in one direction. In the two-way task participants were required to 'solve the mystery' by exchanging information they had heard about different robbery suspects to determine which of them was guilty. There were several findings from this study, firstly that the one-way task generated more indicators of 'unaccepted input' than the two way task; that there were more indirect than direct indicators (e.g. more repetitions of the previous utterances than direct Wh- questions) and that there were interaction effects between the role of the participant and the form (direct or indirect) that they used to negotiate meaning further. Gass and Varonis also found that familiarity with task decreases, but does not compensate for the need to negotiate for meaning, and that gender was also important – female participants in this study used fewer indicators of unacceptable input than males. The fact that more indicators were found in the one-way task seems contrary to Pica et al.'s pronouncement that tasks with split information would produce the most instances of feedback and negotiation. However, perhaps it is also logical, they also found a strong role for the interlocutor, with the recipient producing more indications of 'unaccepted input' than the provider of the information. It seems natural that in a one way task, the participant who did not have access to any of the information would be the one who needed clarification most. They conclude by giving two arguments for the necessity of negotiation, one being for the conversation to proceed smoothly, and the second for the non-native speaker to actively work on the input. They also note the difficulty of comparing tasks, stating that 'the amount of information exchange required by a given task is a continuous rather than a dichotomous variable'. (p159).

Similarly to the present study, Pica et al. (1995) focussed on interaction between L2 learners. Pica et al. (1995) asked whether interaction between L2 learners can provide modified input and feedback focussed on form and support modified output, as interaction with NS has been shown to do. Two different jigsaw tasks were used in this study ('the house sequence' and 'The Uninvited visitor'), both involved dyads working together to sequence the story from individually held pictures. The production of five pairs of native speaker-learner dyads were compared with five

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learner-learner dyads. Similarities were found between not only the types of modified input and feedback received, but also in terms of the amount and type of modified output observed. They did however find less modified input and feedback from other L2 learners compared to native speakers overall, suggesting that interaction between NNS can address some, but not all of their needs for L2 learning. Segmentation of prior utterances was the most predominant form of modified input on morphosyntax, e.g.

Learner A: It's wall is completely white yeah completely white it looks like wood not concrete.

Learner B: *Completely white?* (p26).

Similarly to Pica & Doughty (1985) they also observe a phenomena they call 'completion', which consists of learners finishing each others' utterances, and which were more prevalent in the data between learners than in learner-NS dyads (3.9% of the total data as opposed to 0.53%). They say this serves the function of 'scaffolding', i.e. of learners helping each other to construct dialogue in the L2. This relates to Vygotsky's theory of Zones of Proximal Development, which is the idea that an L2 learner can accomplish more in collaboration with a native speaker 'expert' or a more competent peer, and that this aids development. Similarly to Gass and Varonis (1985) and Pica and Doughty (1985), Pica et al. also find many instances of learners drawing attention to errors, and without miscorrection. This study therefore shows negotiation of meaning between L2 learners providing many instances of feedback and of modified output, although, as previously stated, perhaps in different ways to interaction with native speakers.

Other researchers who have examined other combinations of interlocutor (as opposed to NS/ NNS) are Pica and Doughty, who compared negotiation of meaning in teacher fronted action and learner-learner interaction (1985; 1988). In the 1985 study, a decision making task was used which did not completely fulfil the definition of two-way, as the tasks encouraged, not obligated participants to contribute to the discussion. It was found that comprehension and confirmation checks and clarification requests were more numerous in the teacher-fronted condition but were relatively few in number in both this and the group work situation, a finding supported by Foster (1998) and Gass, Mackey and Feldman (2005). The 1988 study used a two-way information gap task ('Garden planting task'). Results partially confirmed those of the 1985 study:

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there were also a small number of comprehension and confirmation checks and clarification requests, but significantly more of them during required rather than optional information exchange in the group condition. Self and other repetitions are noteworthy in the 1988 study. Therefore, in summary, in the 1988 study the two-way task produced more negotiation of meaning than other tasks, and learner-learner interaction triggered more interactional moves than teacher-fronted interaction.

In their discussion of negotiation of meaning and two-way tasks Pica and Doughty go a step further and hypothesise that two-way tasks could be most effective when only two participants are involved (1985). This appears to be borne out by the findings of Foster (1998), who examined task type and grouping. Four tasks were used, two optional and two required information exchanges; one of each type of task was carried out by participants organised into dyads (grammar based task = optional information exchange, and picture differences = required information exchange) and small groups (consensus = optional, map = required). This study was carried out in the classroom. Foster found that task type was significant, with required information exchange producing more negotiation of meaning. This result seems to concur with Pica and Doughty (1988) and Long (1983, 1985), yet not with Gass and Varonis (1985). Foster's results also show the pair / group condition to have an effect, dyads talked more overall than groups and that 'there was a discernible trend for dyads doing the two way task to produce more negotiated interaction' (p1) Yule and Macdonald (1990) analysed solutions adopted by two different pairings of participants (based on proficiency and the role of sender or receiver of information) in response to a map task developed to include referential conflicts. Yule and Macdonald found more negotiation when the less proficient member of the dyad was providing the information, and the more proficient member was receiving it. When the higher proficiency member was in the dominant sender role, it had two main negative effects: the sender acted as if the receiver had very little to contribute, and the sender in turn assumed a very passive role. The findings of these two studies show that it is not only task, but the grouping of participants which has an effect on interaction.

More recent studies, conducted by Pica et al. (2006) Lambert and Engler (2007) and Gilabert et al. (2009) have tried to manipulate different variables in the actual tasks used. Pica et al used three types of information gap tasks (jigsaw, spot the difference

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and grammar communication) which all shared a similar organisational structure and goal requirement to examine how they create opportunities for modified interaction and attention, operationalised as noticing. The grammar communication produced a slightly higher percentage of evidence of awareness than the spot the difference task, and both more than the jigsaw task. The jigsaw task produced most modified interaction and the spot the difference more recasts. Distribution according to at what stage noticing, modified interaction and corrections / recasts occurred differed according to task. Pica et al. conclude that these tasks could be used as instructional treatments which would help learners acquire and use low-salience L2 forms. Lambert and Engler, manipulated the variables of both information distribution (one-way, two-way, shared information) and goal orientation (open and closed task) and looked at effects on fluency, accuracy and complexity. Like Pica et al. they used three task types, (1) sequencing pictures into stories; (2) determining who is responsible (3) arranging times to meet and created six versions of each task. Results showed that sharing information resulted in more complex speech, whereas dividing it to make information flow one-way resulted in more fluent and accurate production. Lambert and Engler conclude from this that results 'provide support for information distribution as a potentially useful design factor for promoting dual-mode processing in task based L2 instruction' (p40). Gilabert et al. (2009) is the final study we will look at in this review. This study also manipulated task, this time along the variable of task complexity in a narrative reconstruction task, an instruction-giving map task, and a decision-making task. There were two versions of each of these tasks, one simple and one more complex along the lines of displaced past time reference, the number of elements, and reasoning demands. The results show that complex tasks produced more repairs and more interactional moves on most measures of negotiation (except for recasts, but this was also related to the type of task). The impact of task complexity was shown to differ slightly across task types, with the map task generating the highest number of clarification checks and comprehension checks. These three studies taken together show that manipulating the same task along different variables can also have an effect on interaction.

Therefore, in summary, the results regarding information distribution and tasks are mixed. Gass and Varonis (1985) found more measures of negotiated meaning in a one-way task, whereas Pica and Doughty (1988) and Foster (1988) find more instances

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in two-way required information exchanges. Two-way tasks have been shown to provide learners with scaffolding and help them to co-construct dialogue (Pica et al. 1993); one-way tasks have been shown to produce more fluent and accurate speech (Lambert and Engler 2007); complex tasks have been shown to produce more negotiation than simple ones (Gilbert et al. 2009). Also having an effect is who the participants are interacting with (Gass and Varonis 1985; Pica and Doughty, 1985, 1988; Pica et al. 1995,) and how participants are organised into groups (Foster 1988; Yule and McDonald 1990). Even the type of information-gap task used can change the focus of the interaction (Pica et al. 2006)

2. Research questions and hypotheses

Based on theories and findings from the literature on interaction and on one-way and two-way tasks, the goal of this paper is to find out:

- (1) Does task type and information distribution affect the amount of interaction among dyads of L2 learners?
- (2) What measures of negotiation, interaction and modified output are affected by task type?
- (3) Does the difference in proficiency between the members of the pair influence the interaction?

Despite more findings for two-way tasks producing more negotiation of meaning, some studies have found the opposite to be true (e.g. Gass and Varonis 1985), or have found there to be very few instances in the data. The small sample in this study may also give inconclusive results. As more negotiation is expected in the two-way task, it seems logical to expect longer productions overall, yet with shorter turns because the participants will interrupt each other. Considering Lambert and Engler's evidence for one-way tasks producing more accurate speech, we might therefore expect more repairs in this condition. As stated, findings by Yule and Macdonald (1990) suggest that proficiency and the role of the participant may be a factor, but as this study does not specifically investigate high-low proficiency pairs, the null hypothesis applies here. Bearing these considerations in mind, the hypotheses are the following:

Hypothesis one: The two-way task will produce more interaction overall (total number of words) but the one-way task will produce longer turns.

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Hypothesis two: There will be a trend towards a higher number of instances of negotiation of meaning, recasts and LREs in the two-way task. There will be too few instances of negotiation of meaning to see significant differences for task type. There will be more repairs in the one-way condition.

Hypothesis three: Proficiency of the members of the dyad will have no effect on interaction.

Methods

Participants

Twenty-two learners of English, or 11 pairs participated in this study. There were 16 males and 8 females, with a mean age of 13 years 7 months. Participants were two intact classes at the British Council Young Learner centre in Bonanova, Barcelona; both classes were of a Junior 5 level according to the internal level system, which would be equivalent to an intermediate or CEF level B1. Participants study once a week for 2.5 hours. X and Y-Lex tests (v.2.0, © 2006 University of Wales Swansea) were administered to participants as an independent measure of vocabulary size to check both classes were of comparable proficiency. Overall participants were found to have a mean combined X and Y-lex score of 3268, there were large individual differences with scores ranging from 1600 – 5300. The standard deviation was 955.45

A questionnaire was adapted from the GRAL questionnaire of the University of Barcelona¹. Information about participants language learning profiles is included in Appendix A.

Materials

It was decided to use cartoon stories as materials for this study. Sequencing pictures into a story has been used as a task in several of the studies reviewed in this paper (e.g. Pica et al. 1993, 2006; Lambert & Engler 2007; Gilabert et al. 2009), and it was thought the stories could be easily manipulated to create a one-way and two-way task based on the same narrative. Therefore, the tasks selected were two stories used by Gilabert (2005). Gilabert found that there were no significant differences between

¹ Thanks go to the GRAL group at the University of Barcelona

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the tasks. Of the four stories used in his study, two were selected for use in this study: 'Gone with the music' and 'Paid for listening' (Appendix B and C). These two were chosen because they were the two which were most comparable in terms of number of elements (characters, events) and vignettes.

Operationalisation: one-way / two-way

The complete story served as the one way task. Both stories were then modified (dividing the and mixing up the pictures between participant a and b) to create a two-way version of each story. In the two way task, the pictures were given a letter and students were given a table to complete with what they believed to be the correct order of the story. This was done so that participants would have a goal and an exercise to complete as they would in a classroom activity. It was thought that this would motivate them more to complete the task. Written instructions were produced to give to participants, alongside the same instructions on an Activ studio flipchart, to project at the front of the class.

Procedures

The X and Y-Lex tests were administered in the computer room at the British Council in classes previous to data collection.

Before the data collection participants were briefly told about the study and that their voices would be recorded completing two tasks. Participants were told that participation was optional and that it would not affect their course grade in any way, none decided not to participate. Students were randomly assigned to pairs before the data collection. The data collection was carried out in the normal classroom of the participants. Tables were separated as much as space permitted in an attempt to minimise background noise. Participants were given a voice recorder between pairs; the instructions (Appendix D) were given to the participants and they were encouraged to ask for any unfamiliar vocabulary, and for any clarifications they needed. In a counter-balanced design, group A were given "Paid for listening first as a one-way task. Participant A was asked to tell the story to their partner, who was told to take notes. They were then given 'Gone with the music' as a two-way task, and were asked to reconstruct the story together and to decide on the correct order for the pictures. Group

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B were first given 'Paid for listening as a two way task', and secondly 'Gone with the music' as a one-way task.

Measures

Clarification requests, confirmation checks, and comprehension checks were used as three measures of negotiation of meaning (Originally operationalised by Long (1983), definitions below cited in Mackey and Gass (2006), English L2 examples taken from Pica and Doughty (1988)).

1. Clarification request (CR): Any expression...designed to elicit clarification of the interlocutor's preceding utterance (Long 1983, p137) (e.g. Wh-, yes-no, uninverted intonation, tag questions, expressions such as *I don't know* and *try again*)

2. Confirmation checks (CFC): any expressions...immediately following an utterance by the interlocutor which are designed to elicit confirmation that the utterance has been understood or heard correctly by the speaker (Long 1983, p137) (e.g. repetition of all or part of the utterance, often with rising intonation)

3. Comprehension checks (CPC): attempts 'to anticipate and prevent a breakdown in communication' (Long 1893, p136) (e.g. *Do you understand?* and *Do you want me to repeat?*)

From Doughty and Pica the category of other repetitions was also adopted, they divide this into two groups but in the present study we consider only one of these groups:

4. Other repetitions (OREP): Exact or partial repetition of lexical items within five speaking turns (not with rising intonation as this would constitute a clarification request)

We also consider

5. Recasts (R): reformulation of an error or errors, either partially or fully, which may or may not be taken as a correction by the learner.

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6. Language-related episodes (LRE): Any discussion on the part of the learners about language e.g. vocabulary search / discussion of a grammatical rule

Problem solving mechanisms, or repairs are divided into six categories (taken from Kormos and Dörnyei (1998) and Kormos (1999) and merged – see table 1):

7. D-Repair (DR): Different repair
8. A-Repair (AR): Appropriacy repair
9. Lexical repair (LEXR)
10. Morphosyntactical repair (MSR)
1. Phonological repair (PR)
12. Other repair (OTR): which is neither a lexical or morphosyntactical repair

D-Repairs, A-repairs and other repairs constitute non-error repairs. Lexical, morphosyntactical and phonological repairs constitute error-repairs.

Statistical instruments, analyses, transcription and coding

The adjusted X-Lex and Y-Lex scores were added together and transferred to an excel document, which was subsequently transferred to SPSS. Descriptive statistics were calculated. The data was not found to be normally distributed so non-parametric tests (Wilcoxon test) were used to compare the two groups. No significant differences were found ($z = -1.680$, $p = 0.093$).

The recordings of the participants doing the task were transcribed into word, using the f4 programme when possible (only possible to use with the MP3 format). It was decided to cut some of the transcriptions at the point where interaction stopped being meaningful – namely when certain of the participants stopped discussing the story and were just repeating the letters of the pictures, without discussing the reason for their choice. All transcriptions where this occurred were cut at this point. Further comments on this decision are made in the discussion part of the paper. All transcriptions were finally transferred to CLAN and were coded using the categories given in the measures section above. After this, frequencies for each of the categories, the total number of words and mean length of turn (for individuals and for pairs in both the one and two-way condition) were calculated in CLAN and entered into an excel

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spreadsheet, along with the scores of the Lex tests. The difference between the Lex scores of each member of the dyad was also calculated.

Descriptive statistics were calculated in SPSS. Stem and leaf diagrams, histograms and tests of normality showed that the data was not normally distributed, as could be expected from a small sample such as this one. Non-parametric tests (Wilcoxon tests) were used to compare means of related samples for each of the measures, plus total words and mean length of turn in the one-way and the two-way condition. The Spearman test of non-parametric correlations was used to determine relationships between certain of the variables, in particular to see if the proficiency of the participants (using Lex scores as a measure) has an effect on any of the variables.

Table 1

Summary of problem-solving mechanisms (PSM) related to deficient own output based on Dörnyei and Kormos (1998) and Kormos (1999).

PSM related to deficient own output	Description	Example and source
D-repair: different information repair	They imply the reconceptualization of the speech plan.	"We go straight on or...we come in via red, go then straight to green." Levelt (1983, p. 51), supplied by Kormos (1999, p. 318): the speakers changes the original speech plan by encoding different information.
D-repair: inappropriate information repair	The speaker detects a problem with the information content and repairs it.	"then the man ay the <i>man</i> the woman leaves the room". Own corpus: leamer detects wrong information in message and repairs it
D-repair: different order repair	The speakers changes the order of the different parts of the message.	"well we it's it's about a thousand forints..." Levelt (1983), provided by Kormos (1999) reported that leamer began by answering the second of two questions he or she was asked but changed his or her mind and answered the first question first.
D-repair: message abandonment repair	Leamer replaces the originally intended message by a new one.	"we have some ere r v- maybe you have vegetarians in your group." Kormos (1999, p. 380): the speaker reported that a new idea 'popped up' and abandoned the original one.
Error repair: lexical	The detection of a lexical error causes the speaker to self-correct.	"and a man and a other man enter to the to the room who after wa bueno before was Guelda" Own corpus: learner replaces the wrong adverb by correct one.
Error repair: syntactic	Speaker self-corrects after detecting a syntactic error.	"a woman <i>that she lives</i> in the no <i>that lives</i> in the house". Own corpus: speaker eliminates extra subject.
Error repair: phonological repair	Speaker finds a problem with speech vehicle problem error and repairs it.	"the man go go went went into the room." we wait... a... go... into the room... wait ([weit]) room." Own corpus: learners detects an error with a diphthong and replaces it by a different one.

Results

Question one

Total number of words produced and mean length of turn were considered with regard to hypothesis one. Considering first total words for the one way task, there are very large deviations and the scatter and box plots show a cluster of scores around 0 for the one-way task. The histogram for the one-way task² shows a lot of scores between 0 and 50 in the one way task, which could represent participant A, who was not telling the story. The scatter plots seems to show two trends: of participants who produced no or very few words (the note-takers) and of participants who produce a higher number of words (the story-tellers)

Mean length of turn for the one-way task seems to confirm this, we can again see two trends again if we look at the Q-Q plot³: clusters of scores around zero, and a few very long turns. This mimics the pattern for total words. The two values over 100 represent participants whose partners did not say anything in the one-way task, it was a monologue rather than an interactive task.

As a result of these two trends, it was decided to split the data according to the role the participant played in the one-way task, and to report results for individuals rather than pairs. Descriptive statistics are given in tables 2 and 3. The summary shows that for the participant telling the story, the one-way task produced a mean of 125.90, and the two-way task a mean of 131.30, with a variation of 49.40 and 49.68 respectively. The two-way task produced a very slightly higher mean total number of words for the participant telling the story. Mean length of turn was higher in the one-way task for these participants, 40.36 compared to 31.73. For the participant taking notes however, we see a massive difference between total words on the two tasks, 18.70 compared to 147.80; mean length of turn also increases from 4.09 to 30.28 in the two-way condition.

² Please refer to Appendix I for normality plots

³ As above

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Table 2 *Total words and mean length of turn, one-way task. (1= storyteller 2= listener)*

Descriptive Statistics						
role		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.00	TOTAL WORDS 1-WAY OUTLIERS REMOVED	10	75.00	232.00	125.9000	49.40187
	MEAN LENGTH OF TURN 1-WAY OUTLIERS REMOVED	10	.00	86.00	40.3603	32.01825
	Valid N (listwise)	9				
2.00	TOTAL WORDS 1-WAY OUTLIERS REMOVED	10	.00	87.00	18.7000	30.77174
	MEAN LENGTH OF TURN 1-WAY OUTLIERS REMOVED	10	.00	10.17	4.0936	4.26206
	Valid N (listwise)	9				

Table 3 *(total words and mean length of turn, two-way task. 1= storyteller 2= listener)*

role		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.00	TOTAL WORDS 2-WAY OUTLIERS REMOVED	10	48.00	175.00	131.3000	49.68132
	MEAN LENGTH OF TURN 2-WAY OUTLIERS REMOVED	11	9.21	82.00	31.7297	20.27856
	Valid N (listwise)	10				
2.00	TOTAL WORDS 2-WAY OUTLIERS REMOVED	10	78.00	243.00	147.8000	64.95434
	MEAN LENGTH OF TURN 2-WAY OUTLIERS REMOVED	10	8.86	78.00	30.2817	20.65265
	Valid N (listwise)	9				

listener)

As the total words was not normally distributed in the one-way task for the note-taking participant (Shapiro-Wilk $p=0.13$), and for neither participant in the two-way task (Shapiro-Wilk $p=0.13$ and $p=0.38$), and in addition, because our sample size is so small, the Wilcoxon test is the best to tell us if the difference between the one-way and two-way condition is significant. Table 4 shows us that for the participant who told the story in the one-way task, there was a higher number of total words in the two-way task, but that this difference is not significant ($z= -0.153$, $p= 0.922$). For this role, mean length of turn was higher in the one-way condition, this result is closer to

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obtaining significance but still does not reach this level ($z = -1.376$, $p = 0.193$). For those participants taking notes in the one-way task, the two-way task produced both a significantly higher number of total words ($z = -2.701$, $p = 0.007$) and significantly longer turns ($z = -2.701$, $p = 0.004$). The effect size for both of these measures is very large (Total words: $d = -2.540$, $r = 0.786$; Mean length of turn: $d = -1.757$, $r = 0.660$)

These results therefore partially prove hypothesis one, we see that the two-way task produces more words overall (a significant amount for the role of the note-taker) and that the one-way task produces longer turns, but only in the role of story-teller and that this difference is not significant.

Table 4 *Result of the Wilcoxon test, total words and mean length of turn (1 = storyteller, 2 = listener)*

Test Statistics^c

role		TOTAL WORDS 2-WAY OUTLIERS REMOVED - TOTAL WORDS 1-WAY OUTLIERS REMOVED	MEAN LENGTH OF TURN 2-WAY - MEAN LENGTH OF TURN 1-WAY OUTLIERS REMOVED
1.00	Z	-.153 ^a	-1.376 ^b
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.878	.169
	Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	.922	.193
	Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	.461	.097
	Point Probability	.038	.017
2.00	Z	-2.701 ^a	-2.701 ^a
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.007
	Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.004
	Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	.002	.002
	Point Probability	.001	.001

- a. Based on negative ranks.
- b. Based on positive ranks.
- c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Question two

Normality tests calculated for individuals found the data for none of the measures of negotiation of meaning, recasts, repetitions, LRES or repairs to be

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normally distributed. In the case of pairs, only morphosyntactical repairs (for both one and two-way task) were normally distributed according to both the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests. Other repetitions (two-way task) were only normally distributed according to the Shapiro-Wilk test. This was unsurprising because of the small sample in this study.

Descriptive statistics are given for pairs (Tables 5 and 6)⁴. Maximum numbers show that there were very few instances of some of the measures found in the data, with no other repetitions and only two phonological repairs. The mean number for the measures of negotiation of meaning was actually higher than expected, with clarification requests having the highest mean for any of the measures (Table 5). The mean number of confirmation checks was highest in the one way task (1.18), as one would expect from Gass and Varonis' 1985 study, yet for comprehension checks (1.18) and clarification requests (2.36) the mean was higher in the two-way condition. For all three of these measures, the standard deviation was very high compared to the mean (S.D = 2.228, 3.311; and 4.864 respectively). There were strong individual differences; only four of the pairs produced any instances of these measures of negotiation of meaning, with one pair producing around twice as many as the others. This is shown in the individual condition also, in fact for one category (Comprehension checks in the two-way task) eleven out of fourteen instances were produced by one individual.

Other repetitions (two-way = 2.09, and then morphosyntactical repairs (one-way = 1.45, two-way = 1.36) have means that are the next highest after clarification requests, yet there is also high standard deviation in these measures. Considering all non-error repairs (D-repairs, A-repairs and other repairs) together, we see a higher mean in the one-way condition (1.91 compared to 1.64 in the two-way). Error-repairs viewed together (Lexical, morphosyntactical and phonological repairs) show a higher mean in the two-way condition (3.00 compared to 2.09). The mean of total repairs is also higher in the two-way condition. We see similar patterns for individuals⁵.

⁴ Please see Appendix for the equivalent tables calculated for individuals.

⁵ Again, see the appendix.

Table 5 Measures of negotiation of meaning, recasts, LREs and other repetitions for pairs in one and two way tasks

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
CONFIRMATION CHECK 1-WAY	11	0	6	1.18	2.228
CONFIRMATION CHECK 2-WAY	11	0	6	.73	1.849
COMPREHENSION CHECK 1-WAY	11	0	1	.09	.302
COMPREHENSION CHECK 2-WAY	11	0	11	1.18	3.311
CLARIFICATION REQUEST 1-WAY	11	0	5	.91	1.814
CLARIFICATION REQUEST 2-WAY	11	0	16	2.36	4.864
RECAST 1-WAY	11	0	3	.45	.934
RECAST 2-WAY	11	0	1	.09	.302
LANGUAGE RELATED EPISODE 1-WAY	11	0	3	.27	.905
LANGUAGE RELATED EPISODE 2-WAY	11	0	2	.36	.809
OTHER REPETITION 1-WAY	11	0	2	.27	.647
OTHER REPETITION 2-WAY	11	0	7	2.09	2.300
Valid N (listwise)	11				

Relationships between the one-way and the two-way task for all measures are shown in tables seven to nine. Calculated using frequencies for pairs, for comprehension checks, clarification requests, language related episodes, other repetitions, lexical repairs, phonological repairs and other repetitions there is a z- score based on negative ranks, which signifies greater means in the two-way condition. Other repetitions ($p=0.017$) are the only category that reach significance. Calculating Cohen's d , we find that the effect size is small ($d = -0.375$, $r = -0.184$). Scores based on positive ranks (greater means in the one-way condition) were obtained for confirmation checks, recasts, D-repairs, A-repairs and morphosyntactical repairs.

Table 6 *Descriptive statistics for repairs, one and two-way tasks*

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
D-REPAIR 1-WAY	11	0	2	.82	.751
D-REPAIR 2-WAY	11	0	2	.64	.809
A-REPAIR 1-WAY	11	0	5	1.18	1.601
A-REPAIR 2-WAY	11	0	3	.91	1.300
NON-ERROR REPAIRS 1-WAY	11	.00	6.00	1.9091	2.02260
NON ERROR-REPAIRS 2-WAY	11	.00	5.00	1.6364	1.74773
LEXICAL REPAIR 1-WAY	11	0	2	.55	.820
LEXICAL REPAIR 2-WAY	11	0	3	1.09	1.136
MORPHOSYNTACTICAL REPAIR 1-WAY	11	0	4	1.45	1.293
MORPHOSYNTACTICAL REPAIR 2-WAY	11	0	4	1.36	1.362
OTHER REPAIR 1-WAY	11	0	0	.00	.000
OTHER REPAIR 2-WAY	11	0	0	.00	.000
PHONOLOGICAL ERPAIR 1-WAY	11	0	1	.09	.302
PHONOLOGICAL REPAIR 2-WAY	11	0	2	.55	.688
ERROR REPAIRS 1-WAY	11	.00	5.00	2.0909	1.70027
ERROR REPAIRS 2-WAY	11	.00	6.00	3.0000	1.94936
TOTAL REPAIRS ONE-WAY	11	1.00	9.00	4.0000	2.64575
TOTAL REPAIRS TWO-WAY	11	1.00	11.00	4.6364	3.29462
Valid N (listwise)	11				

If we consider total non-error repairs, total error-repairs, and all repairs in the two conditions, we find more non-error repairs in the one-way condition, yet more error repairs and total repairs in the two-way condition. The results for repairs are not significant however. If we compare these correlations with the Wilcoxon tests conducted for individuals rather than we see differences in some of the figures, yet no difference in the direction. It is worth noting that recasts do obtain significance in the individual condition ($z = -2.000$, $p=0.046$); we find a small effect size ($d = 0.45$, $r = 0.22$). Hypothesis two is therefore partly confirmed (contrary to expectations we find more repairs in the two-way task; two out of three measures of negotiation of meaning

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have higher means in the two-way condition as predicted). The only measures which reach significance is other-repetitions calculated for pairs and individuals, and recasts calculated for individuals, the mean is significantly larger in the one-way condition.

Table 7 *Result of Wilcoxon test comparing means for the two tasks for measures of negotiation of meaning, recasts, LREs and other repetitions*

Test Statistics^c

	CONFIRMATION CHECK 2-WAY - CONFIRMATION CHECK 1-WAY	COMPREHENSION CHECK 2-WAY - COMPREHENSION CHECK 1-WAY	CLARIFICATION REQUEST 2-WAY - CLARIFICATION REQUEST 1-WAY	RECAST 2-WAY - RECAST 1-WAY	LANGUAGE RELATED EPISODE 2-WAY - LANGUAGE RELATED EPISODE 1-WAY	OTHER REPETITION 2-WAY - OTHER REPETITION 1-WAY
Z	-.816 ^a	-1.069 ^b	-1.192 ^b	-1.633 ^a	-.447 ^b	-2.395 ^b
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.414	.285	.233	.102	.655	.017

a. Based on positive ranks.

b. Based on negative ranks.

c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 8 *Result of Wilcoxon tests for repairs, measures both tasks*

Test Statistics^d

	D-REPAIR 2-WAY - D-REPAIR 1-WAY	A-REPAIR 2-WAY - A-REPAIR 1-WAY	LEXICAL REPAIR 2-WAY - LEXICAL REPAIR 1-WAY	MORPHOSYN TACTICAL REPAIR 2-WAY - MORPHOSYN TACTICAL REPAIR 1-WAY	OTHER REPAIR 2-WAY - OTHER REPAIR 1-WAY	PHONOLOGICAL REPAIR 2-WAY - PHONOLOGICAL REPAIR 1-WAY
Z	-.707 ^a	-.141 ^a	-1.387 ^b	-.284 ^a	.000 ^c	-1.667 ^b
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.480	.888	.165	.776	1.000	.096

a. Based on positive ranks.

b. Based on negative ranks.

c. The sum of negative ranks equals the sum of positive ranks.

d. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 9 *Result of Wilcoxon tests for totals of repairs for both tasks*

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Test Statistics^c

	NON ERROR-REPAIRS 2-WAY - NON-ERROR REPAIRS 1-WAY	ERROR REPAIRS 2-WAY - ERROR REPAIRS 1-WAY	TOTAL REPAIRS TWO-WAY - TOTAL REPAIRS ONE-WAY
Z	-.211 ^a	-1.235 ^b	-.307 ^b
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.833	.217	.759

- a. Based on positive ranks.
- b. Based on negative ranks.
- c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Calculating Spearman's Rho (tables 10 & 11) we can also find relationships between some of the measures. We find there is a significant correlation at the 0.05 level between the total words and the mean length of turn in the one-way task ($r=0.488$, $p=0.021$), and the same correlation between total words and mean length of turn in the two-way (significant at the 0.01 level) $r= -0.661$, $p=0.001$. There is also quite a powerful correlation between confirmation checks and clarification checks in the one-way condition ($r = 0.836$, $p=0.000$), and more moderate correlations between all three measures of negotiation of meaning in the two way task (confirmation check / comprehension check: $r=0.670$, $p= 0.01$; comprehension check/ clarification request: $r=0.544$, $p=0.09$; confirmation check / clarification request: $r=0.803$, $p=0.000$).

Table 10 Correlations between measures of negotiation and proficiency levels for pairs

Correlations

			LEX TOTAL	CONFIRMATION CHECK 1-WAY	CONFIRMATION CHECK 2-WAY	COMPREHENSION CHECK 1-WAY	COMPREHENSION CHECK 2-WAY	CLARIFICATION ON REQUEST 1-WAY	CLARIFICATION ON REQUEST 2-WAY
Spearman's rho	LEX TOTAL	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.357	.453 [*]	.299	.345	.237	.438
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.123	.045	.201	.136	.314	.053
		N	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
	CONFIRMATION CHECK 1-WAY	Correlation Coefficient	.357	1.000	.317	-.069	-.100	.836 ^{**}	.230
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.123		.151	.761	.659	.000	.303
		N	20	22	22	22	22	22	22
	CONFIRMATION CHECK 2-WAY	Correlation Coefficient	.453 [*]	.317	1.000	-.102	.670 ^{**}	.220	.803 ^{**}
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.045	.151		.650	.001	.326	.000
		N	20	22	22	22	22	22	22
	COMPREHENSION CHECK 1-WAY	Correlation Coefficient	.299	-.069	-.102	1.000	-.069	-.086	-.146
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.201	.761	.650		.761	.702	.518
		N	20	22	22	22	22	22	22
	COMPREHENSION CHECK 2-WAY	Correlation Coefficient	.345	-.100	.670 ^{**}	-.069	1.000	-.125	.544 ^{**}
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.136	.659	.001	.761		.579	.009
		N	20	22	22	22	22	22	22
	CLARIFICATION REQUEST 1-WAY	Correlation Coefficient	.237	.836 ^{**}	.220	-.086	-.125	1.000	.120
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.314	.000	.326	.702	.579		.594
		N	20	22	22	22	22	22	22
	CLARIFICATION REQUEST 2-WAY	Correlation Coefficient	.438	.230	.803 ^{**}	-.146	.544 ^{**}	.120	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.053	.303	.000	.518	.009	.594	
		N	20	22	22	22	22	22	22

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We also find weak correlations between recasts in the one and two way conditions, and also LREs one-way / two-way . More powerful correlations are found between recasts in the one-way and LREs in the two-way task; lexical repairs and appropriacy repairs in the two way task; morphosyntactical repairs in the one-way and D-repairs in the two-way.

Question three

We can see that there is a relationship between the proficiency of individuals and the total number of words they produced in the one-way task (Table 11). The bigger the vocabulary of the participant (operationalised by a combined X-Lex and Y-Lex score), the more words they produced in total in the one-way task. This is significant ($p=0.36$), yet it's a moderate correlation ($r = 0.471$). We find a weak correlation between the Lex scores and confirmation checks in the two-way tasks ($r=0.453$, $p=0.45$). We also find a strong correlation between the difference in vocabulary size between the members of the dyad and phonological repairs ($r= 0.842$, $p =0.004$) and a less powerful one between difference in Lex scores and other repetitions ($r = 0.676$, $p = 0.046$) in the two way task. No correlations were found between proficiency and recasts, or total error repairs or non-error repairs. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected, we see an effect for proficiency on total words and on the number of confirmation checks in the two-way task; and for difference in proficiency between members of the dyad on phonological repairs and other repetitions.

Table 11 *Correlations between Lex scores, total words and mean length of turn (both tasks)*

			Correlations				
			LEX TOTAL	TOTAL WORDS 1-WAY	TOTAL WORDS 2-WAY	MEAN LENGTH OF TURN 1-WAY	MEAN LENGTH OF TURN 2-WAY
Spearman's rho	LEX TOTAL	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.471*	.274	.177	-.378
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.036	.243	.454	.100
		N	20	20	20	20	20
	TOTAL WORDS 1-WAY	Correlation Coefficient	.471*	1.000	.152	.488*	-.233
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.036	.	.500	.021	.296
		N	20	22	22	22	22
	TOTAL WORDS 2-WAY	Correlation Coefficient	.274	.152	1.000	.051	-.661**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.243	.500	.	.821	.001
		N	20	22	22	22	22
	MEAN LENGTH OF TURN 1-WAY	Correlation Coefficient	.177	.488*	.051	1.000	.066
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.454	.021	.821	.	.769
		N	20	22	22	22	22
	MEAN LENGTH OF TURN 2-WAY	Correlation Coefficient	-.378	-.233	-.661**	.066	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.100	.296	.001	.769	.
		N	20	22	22	22	22

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
 **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Discussion

The results of the study provide some evidence for a connection between information distribution and interaction in one population of ESL learners; the two-way task appears to produce more interaction overall and affects some, but not all, of our measures of interaction. Given the very small sample size and the large variation between individuals, these results must be interpreted with caution, however.

The first hypothesis was that the two-way task would produce more interaction overall in terms of total number of words. If we consider the results found, there appears to be a trend for participants to produce a higher number of total words in the two-way task, yet we see a strong effect for participant role. For the participant listening to the story in the one-way task we see an enormous difference and a large effect size between the total number of words produced in both tasks: the mean in the one-way task was a fraction of that of the two-way task. Differences were smaller between tasks for the participant telling the story, but mean number of total words was still higher in the two-way task. We can say that the two-way task produced a much more balanced amount of production between the participants. The second part of the first hypothesis was that the one-way task would produce longer turns. For both tasks, total words was also found to correlate with mean length of turn. Again though, we must consider the different roles of the participant. We find that for the story-teller, mean length of turn was longer in the one-way condition; the listener however, had a very low mean length of turn. Some turns of over 100 words also give further evidence that in some cases it turned into a monologic task for the story teller, with the other participant taking a very passive, listening role. In terms of using one-way or two-way tasks as a classroom activity, it thus seems that the two-way task would be more beneficial if our goal as teachers was simply to get all students talking, it does not allow for shy students to 'take a back seat' and listen passively. Perhaps the one-way task could also be beneficial, if we were to repeat it getting learners to change role. Longer turns evidenced in this condition could also provide opportunities for more elaborate narrations, as the speaker has time in this condition to consider and expand their story and perhaps even use more complex language. In addition we must consider whether the fact that the note-taking participant did not take an active role was also in some degree down to the fact that we are dealing with a population of young learners,

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who may just want to 'complete' a task as fast as possible (also depending on the individual). Perhaps adult learners would take a more active listening role, or perhaps we could change the task slightly to ensure learners had to understand the story to then complete a post-task comprehension exercise. This might also make them listen more actively, to ask more questions and to clarify their understanding.

Results therefore can be seen to show that dividing the information equally between two participants affects the amount of interaction. Examining specific measures in more detail, we can see what features of interaction in particular are affected. Looking back at hypothesis two, it was thought that there would be a trend towards a higher number of instances of negotiation of meaning and LREs in the two-way task. While more comprehension checks and clarification requests were indeed found in the two-way task, so confirming this hypothesis, this was not the case for the third measure of negotiation of meaning; confirmation checks were higher in the one-way condition. As hypothesised, none of these differences reached a level of statistical significance, however. The literature typically finds a very low occurrence of these measures too. In this study some outliers were removed (one pair produced many more instances of negotiation of meaning than any other of the pairs); perhaps in a larger scale study these would not have been extreme values, thus the small scale of this study may have affected significance. In general the results for negotiation of meaning show that dialogue in the two-way task tended to be co-constructed, and participants were focussed on understanding the message and the story in general, shown by the number of comprehension checks and clarification requests. Correlations also show that the measures of negotiation of meaning are related (we can imagine sequences of asking for clarification, then checking the message again by confirming understanding). Collaborative work can also be seen from language-related episodes, which were few in number but in all cases could be classed as 'vocabulary searches', in which the participants drew on each others knowledge of the L2 to find the vocabulary item that they were looking for. Correlations show a relationship between recasts in the one-way task and LREs in the two-way task. Perhaps the nature of the two-way task encouraged more LREs (i.e. discussion, negotiation of language) whereas in the one-way vocabulary or morphosyntax was not discussed, merely corrected. Other-repetitions are the measure which is most noteworthy in this study, since it was were

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the only measure that attained statistical significance in the study. Pica and Doughty (1988) also found evidence of repetitions. This repetition of the other participant is a very interesting phenomenon. Schmidt (1990) states that 'the subjective experience of "noticing" is the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input to intake.' (p209). We can therefore see other-repetitions as evidence not only of participants listening to their partner and obtaining input (which is vital for acquisition) but actually of intake and even uptake, evidenced by them reusing the lexical items or structures they have heard. Often in an EFL classroom it is the teacher who provides input, in this case it is other learners; participants draw on their partners' knowledge of the L2 and incorporate their partner's lexis into their own speech. Repetition could have various functions, perhaps participants believed their partner had expressed something better than the way in which they could, and is therefore related to the theory of input + 1 that we discussed earlier. Perhaps it is also a way to clarify or recap what has been said in the participants own mind, and thus is an organisational strategy, or maybe the participant is repeating because he or she wants to remember the new term or word that they have just heard. In summary then, the two-way task seems to have a scaffolding effect: constructing the dialogue was a joint effort and participants helped each other, and even noticed and 'learned' new lexis from their partner. The two-way task therefore seems valuable in relation to the theory proposed by Vygotsky, of learning taking place through interaction with a more competent peer.

Hypothesis two also considers repairs or problem-solving mechanisms, and it was expected that there would be more of these in the one-way condition. This was only partially confirmed by results, more non-error repairs and morphosyntactical repairs were found in the one-way condition, yet if we take all error repairs and all repairs (error-and non-error) together as two categories, there were more of both found in the two-way condition. Repairs do not display a statistically significant difference between the one-way and two-way performance however. Interestingly, in contrast to the hypothesis, recasts were also higher in the one-way condition, and obtained significance when calculated for individuals. This must obviously be interpreted with caution given that overall only five recasts in the one-way task and one in the two-way task were produced and that results for error repairs as a general category was actually higher in the two way condition. However, we could surmise from these results that, in

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general, both participants in the one-way task were more focussed on accurate speech, in terms of morphosyntax and recasts. Monologic tasks (and the one-way task could be interpreted as monologic in a sense), typically trigger more self-repairs since the speaker is left to his or her own resources (as opposed to a two-way task in which a solution can be negotiated), and is also listening to their own production. The results for appropriacy repairs and different repairs provide evidence of this; they show participants recoding their message, or changing what they were saying to use more appropriate or consistent terms. This also shows consideration for the listener on the part of the speaker, and that they were conscious of how their message would be interpreted. The one-way task seems to increase this awareness. It is also interesting that confirmation checks were higher in the one-way condition, this could perhaps also be seen as a focus on accuracy: participants wanted to check that they had understood the intended message accurately. A focus on accuracy of the message in the one-way task is in accordance with the findings of Lambert and Engler that were discussed in the literature review, and results provide some, if limited evidence of this.

The third hypothesis related to proficiency, and whether this had an effect on interaction. Before even considering the correlations found between the measures of proficiency and the other measures, one thing worth noting is outliers. While conducting the analysis it was noted that one pair seemed to behave very differently to the others; their overall productions were much longer than the other pairs (for both tasks). This is supported by the correlation found between proficiency and total words produced. In addition, this pair produced over half of all confirmation checks, eleven out of thirteen comprehension checks and twenty-one out of thirty-five clarification requests. This is, in part, but not only related to the length of their productions. Analysis of their Lex scores showed that they were a very strong pair, having the highest combined score. The fact that this high proficiency pair were also responsible for many instances of negotiation of meaning also explains the correlation found between proficiency and clarification requests. It would be interesting to repeat this study with participants of a higher level of proficiency to see if this was an anomaly or a result of higher proficiency. The correlation found between the difference in proficiency between the pairs and phonological repairs and other-repetitions is also interesting. We would have to look in more detail at this with a larger sample to

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determine whether this showed the lower-proficiency participant adjusting their lexis and pronunciation as the result of the input of a higher proficiency peer.

Therefore in summary this study seems to provide some evidence to support the literature which sees two-way tasks as superior in terms of negotiation of meaning. Two-way tasks also produced longer productions overall. However, we saw a strong influence for the role of the participant in the one-way task, with those participants telling the story producing longer turns. It did not appear to be very beneficial for the speaking skills of the participant taking notes, they mostly assumed a passive listening role. Changing the task or repeating it with the roles reversed could be beneficial, especially for accurate production, which the one-way task seemed to encourage. We also see evidence of modified output in the one-way task. The two-way task had a different focus however, participants' contributions were much more equal and we see evidence of them working together, of providing scaffolding to co-construct the dialogue. Negotiation of meaning appears to be higher in, yet not limited to the two-way task. The results must obviously be interpreted with caution due to the small sample and the fact that inter-rater reliability was not conducted due to time constraints. The decision to cut the transcriptions when negotiation stopped being meaningful also affected the length of some of the productions.

The limitations of this study are the small sample and the enormous variability between participants. A larger sample would confirm or reject the results found in this study, and might show more statistical differences. The lack of a post-task goal may also have affected performance especially on the part of the listener in the one-way task, who did not assume an active role. If the study were repeated the tasks should be adapted to take this into consideration. The two-way task could also be changed, eliminating the letters on the vignettes, to avoid having to cut the dialogues. The results found in this study must obviously be viewed with caution, yet the tentative results do also have pedagogical implications regarding the use of one and two-way tasks in the classroom. There are implications for focus on form, through recasts in the one-way task and through negotiation in the two-way task. Both types of task are valid, yet more research is needed to discover in which way their different properties and focusses could best be exploited in the classroom. There are also implications for

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testing; can one type of task be shown to be better at promoting more fluent, more accurate or more complex speech, and in a two way task, whose language are we assessing, the individual's or the pair's? More research is obviously needed in this field to be able to answer these questions. We could find interesting results if we looked at other measures, such as completions for example, which were found in the data and which could be seen as further evidence of co-constructed dialogue. We also have to ask if age or proficiency has a bearing on the interaction we observed. Studies comparing different proficiencies, or interaction between pairs of adult learners and pairs of young learners could also be interesting future research.

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Appendix

- Appendix A – Summary of Participants' Sociolinguistic information**
- Appendix B – Example of a one-way task**
- Appendix C – Example of a two-way task**
- Appendix D – Instructions for the tasks**
- Appendix E – Example transcript (one-way task)**
- Appendix F – Example of coding in CLAN (one-way task)**
- Appendix G – Example transcription (two-way task)**
- Appendix H – Example of CLAN output (two-way task)**
- Appendix I – Normality plots for total words and mean length of turn**
- Appendix J - Descriptive statistics for individuals**
- Appendix K - Wilcoxon tests for individuals**

Appendix A

Summary of sociolinguistic information collected from participants

All of the participants were born in the Barcelona metropolitan area, and there was a mix of participants who spoke Spanish or Catalan, or both at home. One participant had an English speaking parent. The majority said they spoke both Spanish and Catalan with friends. We can conclude that we are dealing with a bilingual sample. Participants on the whole attend schools in the Bonanova, San-Gervasi area of Barcelona, and have English as a school subject 3 or 4 times a week. Most participants stated that they had begun learning English at a young age (many at age 3 or 5), roughly a third of participants had studied a CLIL subject in primary school (art, science, I.T) and over half were currently studying a content subject in English (music, science art, I.T). None had spent a period of over a month in an English speaking country. In general participants watched films in English a few times a semester, and read a few books in English a year; A small number of participants said they communicated in English in chat rooms on a regular basis. The general opinion was that while English classes were communicative in primary school, in secondary school they tended to be quite grammar based. Extra-curricular English was seen to be more communicative. No participants said they felt uncomfortable speaking in English, and most felt very comfortable.

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Appendix B

Example of a one-way task

(STUDENT B)

GONE WITH THE MUSIC

LISTEN TO STUDENT A TELLING THE STORY. TAKE NOTES TO RETELL THE STORY LATER.

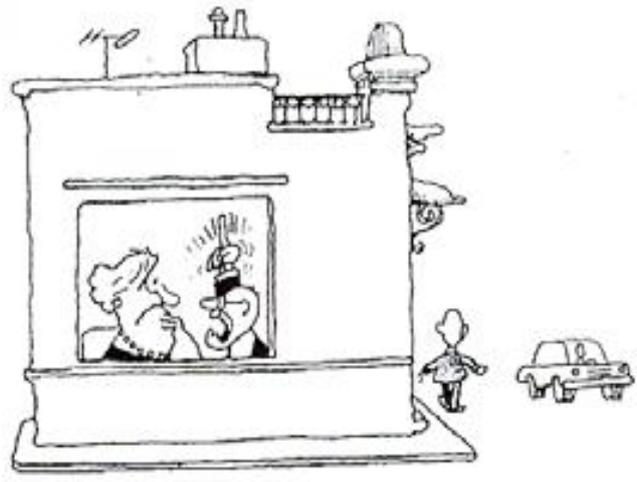
A large, empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for a student to take notes during a listening task. The box occupies the majority of the lower half of the page.

Appendix C

Example of a two-way task

(STUDENT A)

PAID FOR LISTENING

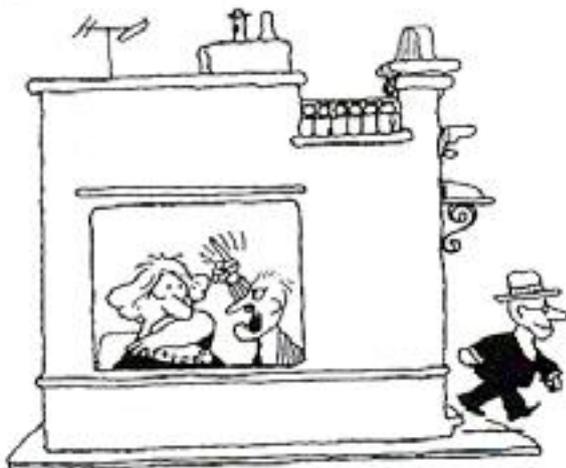
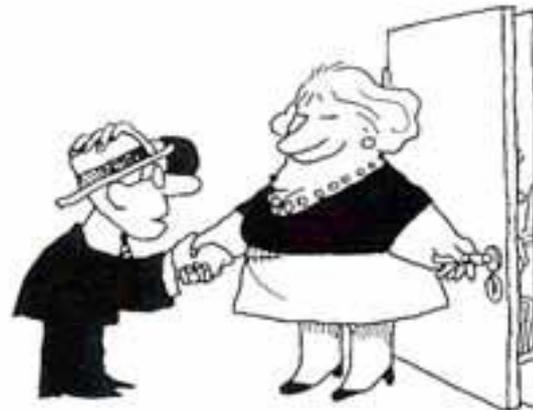


Appendix C

Example of a two-way task

(STUDENT B)

PAID FOR LISTENING



Appendix D

Set of instructions given to participants

INSTRUCTIONS - ONE WAY TASK

Student A, look at the pictures. You have 30 seconds to check you understand the story. Ask any questions, or for any vocabulary you need NOW. You will **not** be able to ask anything during the task.

Now Student A should describe the story to Student B.

Student B should take notes, you will have to retell the story later, to check that you have understood it correctly.

THANK YOU FOR DOING THIS TASK!

INSTRUCTIONS – TWO WAY TASK

(4) Students A and B. You have 30 seconds to check you understand the story. Ask any questions, or for any vocabulary you need NOW. You will **not** be able to ask anything during the task.

(5) You and your partner have different pictures, together they tell a story. Work together to reconstruct the story. First, describe your pictures. Then decide together on the best order for the story and write it below:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

Do not write anything else. **DO NOT** show your pictures to your partner.

THANK YOU FOR DOING THIS TASK!

Appendix E

Example transcription – one way task

@Begin

@Languages: en

@Participants: MAR&SAL

@ID: en|MAR&SAL|male&male|2B|Subjects

@Coder: Anna

@Date: 8-APR-2011

*MAR: in picture number one um there are one one man and her and his wife that they they are sleeping but they heard a noise a music a noise. ## yeah Then the man the man+

*SAL: [<]<a sound> [?]

*MAR: +, eh? uh goes upstairs and the wife the man goes upstairs to to+...

*SAL: ++to see what is happens

*MAR: +, eh to see what is the music and the and the noise. And then suddenly the the music stop and the wife are happy because he can he can sleep he can sleep. ## In the next picture

*SAL: one moment ## ya

*MAR: in the next picture the man comes in in the run ai in the run in the room in the bedroom and and take and take his clothes and go out to a pa to the party ## yeah and and the wife are is confuse and he goes to a party to the party

*SAL: to a to a [?]

*MAR: yeah finish the story and then read your

*SAL: one man and his wife are sleeping um they heard a sound the man goes upstairs to see what is happens. The music stops and the wife is happy the man comes into the room and takes clothes and and he goes to a party

*MAR: yeah to the party

*SAL: ok

***MAR: finish**

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Appendix F

Example of coding in CLAN one-way task

@Begin

@Languages: en

@Participants : MRC and ALE Subjects, ANN Anna_Blackmore Investigator

@ID: en|MRC&ALE|Male, Male|1A|Subjects

@coder: Anna

@Date: 8-APR-2011

*ALE: This story is about a listener that listens to other clients and this clients paid uh this woman so em uh uh angry and show from [?] DR uh client shout to the listener where he's shouting her problems and all the the clock dring so the the client stop shouting and gives some money gives money AR to the listener When when the client is going to go out the listener pant pants MSR the ha the hands and and the and this story uh em begins again another time with another client # another time AR

*MRC: vale ## y su casa [?] ha tocat un timbre o +... CR

*ALE: this story is about a listener that earn money um from her clients to listen her the problems of her clients AR ok? so+.. CPC

*MRC: ok, vale

*ALE: the clients are angry normally a ai are often angry MSR and shout to the listen er and the listener em get get get the scary of the of the shouts of the clients so when a client was shouting to the listener a clock ring This means that the hour that the the client hour AR finished so the client stopped shouting and gives some money to the listener and when the when this client AR is out um another client enters to the office and shouts again and the story is uh is about this listener that repeats again again and the clients shout to them to her MSR

*MRC: the end [?]

@End

Appendix G

Transcription of a two-way task

@Begin

@Languages: en

@Participants: MAT&GEO Subjects, ANN Anna_Blackmore Investigator

@ID: en|MAT&GEO|male&female|2A|Subjects

@Coder: Anna

@Date: 8-APR-2011

MAT: In picture A I see an old man doing giving some money to an old lady. After the old man is um is angry with the woman the rich woman and after there's a the old man is <living> [] [//] leaving opening a door and the rich the woman is uh <se>[*] [//] um talking to a guy and after the man is um arguing to the woman

*GEO: in picture E we see um a woman um looking to the a clock and a man panting the the hand up. Then we see a old woman and a old man shaking hands. Then we see a old woman and a and a old man arguing and a and another man going out of a of a house. And then we see the same old man and the old woman um arguing but the but the old woman is frightened.

*MAT: xxx _

*GEO: order order And we have to bueno in the the first picture picture could be could be the man the man giving giving money to the woman A

*MAT: oh ok

*GEO: second the second could be could be um could be the

*MAT: +/- xx no?

*GEO: no porque porque aquet com que son son parella ai there are there are partners a partner and that I think that here what's happening is that he um he is giving money and and and she gives money. I don't know what the story about SREP

*MAT: um I think A should be a first one. um um F the second one E the third one and C the answer the other one the fourth one and um after after um H after G after B and after D.

*GEO: but why why why you think that's happening here? CR

*MAT: I think that the man the old man is giving money but after the girl is talking to another guy and the man thinks they're going out and he gets angry and they argue

*GEO: yes, but but why why then is he giving money to her? CR

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Appendix G

Transcription of a two-way task (continued)

*MAT: because they might be in a relationship and she's giving some money to the bi
[/-] the woman to go and buy something

*GEO: so espera so so I think that that I think that it could that be that also it could be
that um um um se she give gave gave some xxx give money to the other and she he
have buy buy bought something or xx

*MAT: ok, I agree

*GEO: yes, I'm agree

@End

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Appendix H

Example of part of CLAN output for the two-way task

freq (03-May-2011) is conducting analyses on:

ONLY speaker main tiers matching: *MAR;

From file <d:\CLAN FILES\MARSAL2Ctwoway.cha>

1 CFC

2 CPC

4 CR

freq (03-May-2011) is conducting analyses on:

ONLY speaker main tiers matching: *SAL;

From file <d:\CLAN FILES\MARSAL2Ctwoway.cha>

1 CFC

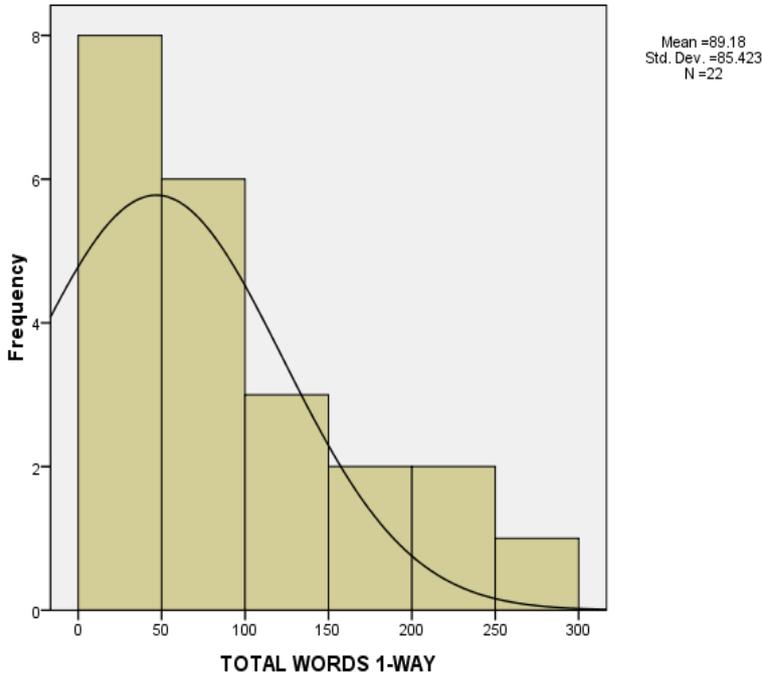
2 CR

2 LRE

1 OREP

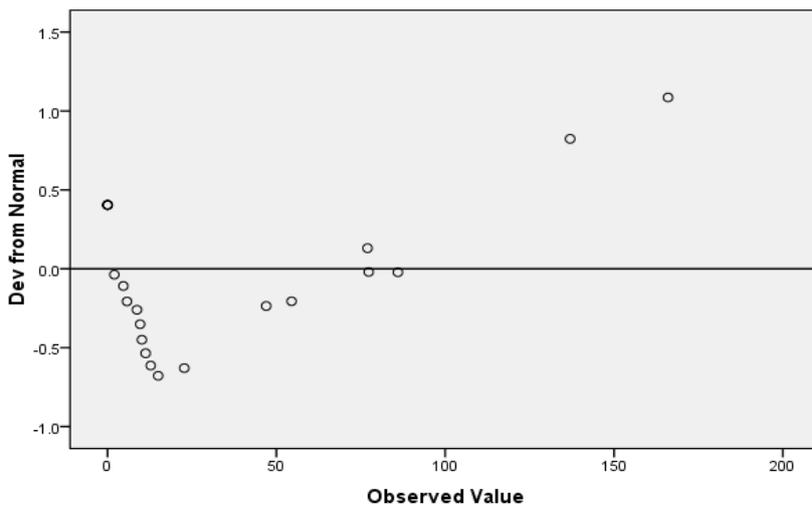
Appendix I

**Histogram for total words and mean length of turn
(one-way task)**



Histogram showing distribution of total words one-way task

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of MLT1



Q-Q plot showing distribution for mean length of turn (one-way)

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Appendix J :Descriptive statistics calculated for individuals.

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
CONFIRMATION CHECK 1-WAY	22	0	6	.50	1.626
CONFIRMATION CHECK 2-WAY	22	0	3	.36	.902
COMPREHENSION CHECK 1-WAY	22	0	1	.05	.213
COMPREHENSION CHECK 2-WAY	22	0	11	.59	2.364
CLARIFICATION REQUEST 1-WAY	22	0	5	.45	1.335
CLARIFICATION REQUEST 2-WAY	22	0	9	1.18	2.442
RECAST 1-WAY	22	0	2	.23	.528
RECAST 2-WAY	22	0	1	.05	.213
LANGUAGE RELATED EPISODE 1-WAY	22	0	2	.14	.468
LANGUAGE RELATED EPISODE 2-WAY	22	0	2	.18	.588
OTHER REPETITION 1-WAY	22	0	1	.14	.351
OTHER REPETITION 2-WAY	22	0	6	1.05	1.495
Valid N (listwise)	22				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
D-REPAIR 1-WAY	22	0	2	.41	.666
D-REPAIR 2-WAY	22	0	2	.32	.646
A-REPAIR 1-WAY	22	0	5	.59	1.182
A-REPAIR 2-WAY	22	0	3	.45	.858
NON-ERROR REPAIRS 1-WAY	22	.00	6.00	1.0000	1.60357
NON-ERROR REPAIRS 2-WAY	22	.00	4.00	.7727	1.23179
LEXICAL REPAIR 1-WAY	22	0	2	.27	.631
LEXICAL REPAIR 2-WAY	22	0	2	.55	.739
MORPHOSYNTACTICAL REPAIR 1-WAY	22	0	4	.73	1.162
MORPHOSYNTACTICAL REPAIR 2-WAY	22	0	3	.68	.945
OTHER REPAIR 1-WAY	22	0	0	.00	.000
OTHER REPAIR 2-WAY	22	0	0	.00	.000
PHONOLOGICAL REPAIR 1-WAY	22	0	1	.05	.213
PHONOLOGICAL REPAIR 2-WAY	22	0	1	.27	.456
ERROR-REPAIRS 1-WAY	22	.00	5.00	1.0455	1.58797
ERROR-REPAIRS 2-WAY	22	.00	4.00	1.4545	1.14340
TOTAL REPAIRS 1-WAY	22	.00	9.00	2.0455	2.75123
TOTAL REPAIRS 2-WAY	22	.00	7.00	2.2273	2.13657
Valid N (listwise)	22				

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Appendix K: Wilcoxon tests calculated for individuals

Test Statistics^c

	CONFIRMATION CHECK 2-WAY - CONFIRMATION CHECK 1-WAY	COMPREHENSION CHECK 2-WAY - COMPREHENSION CHECK 1-WAY	CLARIFICATION REQUEST 2-WAY - CLARIFICATION REQUEST 1-WAY	RECAST 2-WAY - RECAST 1-WAY	LANGUAGE RELATED EPISODE 2-WAY - LANGUAGE RELATED EPISODE 1-WAY	OTHER REPETITION 2-WAY - OTHER REPETITION 1-WAY
Z	-.272 ^a	-1.069 ^b	-1.612 ^b	-2.000 ^a	-.447 ^b	-2.701 ^b
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.785	.285	.107	.046	.655	.007
Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	.938	.500	.141	.125	1.000	.006
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	.469	.250	.070	.063	.500	.003
Point Probability	.125	.125	.021	.063	.250	.002

- a. Based on positive ranks.
- b. Based on negative ranks.
- c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Test Statistics^d

	D-REPAIR 2-WAY - D-REPAIR 1-WAY	A-REPAIR 2-WAY - A-REPAIR 1-WAY	LEXICAL REPAIR 2-WAY - LEXICAL REPAIR 1-WAY	MORPHOSYN TACTICAL REPAIR 2-WAY - MORPHOSYN TACTICAL REPAIR 1-WAY	OTHER REPAIR 2-WAY - OTHER REPAIR 1-WAY	PHONOLOGICAL REPAIR 2-WAY - PHONOLOGICAL REPAIR 1-WAY
Z	-.367 ^a	-.229 ^a	-1.350 ^b	-.107 ^a	.000 ^c	-1.890 ^b
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.714	.819	.177	.915	1.000	.059
Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	.827	.850	.246	.967	1.000	.125
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	.413	.425	.123	.484	1.000	.063
Point Probability	.082	.034	.035	.049	1.000	.055

- a. Based on positive ranks.
- b. Based on negative ranks.
- c. The sum of negative ranks equals the sum of positive ranks.
- d. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Test Statistics^c

	NON-ERROR REPAIRS 2-WAY - NON-ERROR REPAIRS 1-WAY	ERROR-REPAIRS 2-WAY - ERROR-REPAIRS 1-WAY	TOTAL REPAIRS 2-WAY - TOTAL REPAIRS 1-WAY
Z	-.373 ^a	-1.059 ^b	-.202 ^b
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.709	.290	.840
Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	.737	.311	.852
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	.368	.156	.426
Point Probability	.019	.011	.007

- a. Based on positive ranks.
- b. Based on negative ranks.
- c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test