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DEPARTAMENT DE FILOLOGIA ANGLESA I DE GERMANÍSTICA

The Impact of Task Modality on Collaborative Tasks in English Foreign Language Contexts: Language-Related Episodes

Treball de Fi de Grau/ BA dissertation
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

INDEX OF TABLES (AND FIGURES)

Abstract

The present study explores the impact of task modality on a peer-interaction collaborative task performed by 22 matching-proficiency dyads of 1ˢᵗ of-ESO students in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context. Based on the transcripts of their pair talk, data has been coded in order to identify language learning opportunities in the form of language-related episodes (LREs). More specifically, this study examines the potential task modality effects on the incidence, nature and outcome of LREs that students produced while performing a spot-the-differences task consisting of an oral and a written part.

Results point to a substantial impact of task modality on the incidence, nature and outcome of LREs. The findings reveal that a greater number of LREs are produced in the oral part of the task than in the written one, which might appear to contradict previous research. However, a closer analysis of the published literature indicates that the label *incidence* does not tend to include lexical LREs and applies exclusively to grammatical LREs. The results of the present study also indicate that grammatical LREs outnumber lexical LREs in the written part of the task and that an overwhelming majority of the LREs found in the oral part are lexical. Furthermore, almost three-quarters of the total amount of LREs are target-like. Regarding outcome, correctly resolved LREs have been observed to predominate. This project concludes that collaborative tasks which combine oral and written elements might be the most beneficial strategy to foster language learning opportunities given that learners are able to focus both on meaning and form.

Keywords: task modality, collaborative tasks, EFL, LREs, peer interaction.

1. Introduction

Traditional approaches to foreign language learning (FLL) have conceptualised classrooms as teacher-fronted environments where teachers were the only source of knowledge and students were passive receivers of information. Consequently, peer interaction was mainly neglected and learners were not given enough opportunities to use the target language (TL). However, research has shown that peer interaction is extremely beneficial for learning purposes and current trends in FLL and teaching consider that interaction is indispensable in order to acquire a language (Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; Pekarek, 2002; Mondada & Pekarek, 2004; Fernández Dobao, 2010; Reichert & Liebscher, 2012; Li, 2013).

As Vygotsky (1978) and Storch (1999) suggested, language learning opportunities are more likely to arise when students work together rather than alone. Therefore, contrary to previous learning and teaching approaches, the use of peer-interaction activities in FLL classrooms allows students to be both receivers and providers of new knowledge and information. In particular, peer interaction tends to take place in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts through the implementation of tasks, which provide learners with the possibility of achieving a "non-linguistic outcome while meeting a linguistic challenge" (Philp et al., 2014, p. 123).

Within the field of peer interaction, task modality and language-related episodes (LREs) are two domains that have frequently been studied in relation to each other. Most of the research devoted to analysing the impact of task modality on LREs has traditionally been conducted in English as a Second Language (ESL) settings (Adams, 2006; Ross-Feldman, 2007; Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008). Nevertheless, during the last decade, this field of research has received scholarly attention in EFL contexts and several studies

have been conducted (Niu, 2009; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2012; García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016; García Mayo & Imaz Agirre, 2019).

Partially mirroring García Mayo and Azkarai's (2016) design, the present study aims at exploring the potential impact of task modality on the incidence, nature and outcome of LREs by means of analysing students' pair talk while performing a spot-the-differences task consisting of an oral and a written part. In particular, the following research questions have been formulated:

RQ1: Is there a task modality (written vs. oral) effect on the incidence of language-related episodes (LREs)?

RQ2: Is there a task modality (written vs. oral) effect on the nature of language-related episodes (LREs)?

RQ3: Is there a task modality (written vs. oral) effect on the outcome of language-related episodes (LREs)?

The first research question has been proposed with the purpose of determining which of the two parts of the task (written or oral) is more productive in terms of LREs. Predictions are that, as some scholars have postulated (Adams, 2006; Ross-Feldman, 2007; Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; Niu, 2009; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2012; García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016; Payant & Kim, 2017; García Mayo & Imaz Agirre, 2019; Azkarai & Kopinska, 2020), a greater number of LREs will be found in the written part of the task than in the oral one given that the fact of producing a collaborative written text encourages students to reach an agreement as to which grammatical structures to employ.

The second research question analyses and compares the nature of LREs both in the oral and written parts of the task. More specifically, the label *nature* encompasses

three types of LREs, namely lexical vs. grammatical, implicit vs. explicit, and target-like vs. non-target-like.

In line with previous research (Adams, 2006; Ross-Feldman, 2007; Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; Niu, 2009; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2012; García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016; García Mayo & Zeitler, 2017; Payant & Kim, 2017; García Mayo & Imaz Agirre, 2019; Azkarai & Kopinska, 2020), this study predicts that more lexical LREs will be produced in the oral part of the task and more grammatical LREs in the written one. Although the impact of task modality in relation to implicit and explicit LREs seems not to have been widely researched, this study hypothesizes that implicit LREs will prevail in both modalities forasmuch as students do not tend to justify their linguistic or grammatical choices nor explicitly highlight that an error has been made by their partners. Concerning target-like and non-target-like LREs, predictions are that the amount of target-like LREs will surpass the non-target-like one in both parts of the task in light of the fact that the participants of the present study are high-proficiency students, hence they are believed to try to use their second language (L2) as much as possible (Dwyer & Heller-Murphy, 1996).

The third and last research question intends to determine the distribution of the LREs' outcome according to task modality. That is, whether LREs are correctly resolved (with two subtypes being auto-resolved and pronunciation errors), unresolved or incorrectly resolved. This study predicts that correctly resolved LREs will prevail over incorrectly resolved and unresolved LREs in both task modalities considering that the participants of the present study are high-proficiency students. Furthermore, as some authors have posited (Ross-Feldman, 2007; Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2012; García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016), more LREs are expected to be solved in written tasks than in oral ones, which might be due to the fact that in this task modality

students need to reach an agreement regarding what to write, which motivates them to resolve the grammatical or lexical issues they may encounter. In addition, this study anticipates that fewer unresolved LREs will occur in the written part of the task compared to the oral one given that written tasks prompt students to mutually decide what to write. Therefore, written tasks drive students to resolve the LREs they may encounter (Ross-Feldman, 2007; Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2012; García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016). Although previous studies do not seem to have delved into the relationship between task modality and auto-resolved LREs, this study hypothesizes that this will not be a widespread phenomenon among the dyads' speech since this process requires a high degree of metacognitive thinking which not all the participants of this study might have been able to develop due to their age (Duchesne et al., 2013). Finally, predictions are that the students selected to participate in this study will not be likely to produce great amounts of pronunciation errors.

The present dissertation is organised as follows. The theoretical framework and a review of some studies dealing with the present field of research are provided in section 2. The methodology employed in this study is described in section 3. The results are presented in section 4 and accordingly discussed in section 5. Some concluding remarks are made in section 6. Finally, this dissertation closes with the corresponding appendices.

2. Theoretical Framework

The following section presents the field of research in which the topic of this dissertation is embedded. Additionally, the main objective is to review a selection of studies whose topics are similar to the one of the present dissertation.

2.1 Peer Interaction

Peer interaction has been defined as "any communicative activity carried out between learners, where there is minimal or no participation from the teacher" (Philp et al., 2014, p. 3). In this context, students actively experiment with language in a way they are not usually able to when teachers interact with the class as a whole. While in teacher-fronted classes students are not usually given many opportunities to produce language on an individual basis, when they are arranged into pairs their chances of using the language are significantly expanded (Long & Porter, 1985; Harmer, 2001; Storch & Aldosari, 2013). Furthermore, students tend to feel less worried about making mistakes and hence they are more willing to test their intuitions about the TL (Richard, 2006; Philp et al., 2014).

Peer interaction allows students to move from declarative to procedural knowledge of the language. In other words, when students interact with each other they need to apply the knowledge they have been acquiring during their language lessons in order to produce language in a creative and fluent way (DeKeyser, 2007; Philp et al., 2014). Consequently, peer interaction has been observed to contribute towards language learning (Mackey, 2007, 2012; García Mayo & Alcón Soler, 2013; Pica, 2013; Philp et al., 2014). In fact, peer interaction is in line with Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1996), which states that conversational interaction promotes L2 learning since learners receive comprehensible input and feedback from their interlocutors as well as they have the chance to produce modified output.

The extent to which peer interaction might contribute towards learners' development of the TL depends on a series of factors, such as age (Philp et al., 2014; Sato & Ballinger, 2016). It has been noted that adolescence is one of the periods in which peer interaction is most beneficial for L2 learning due to the "learners' advanced cognitive,

social, and linguistic abilities at this age" (Philp et al., 2014, p. 118). However, other mediating factors, such as personality traits (Basterrechea & Leeser, 2019), task modality, pair dynamics, type of instruction and proficiency level, should also be taken into consideration (Philp et al., 2014; Sato & Ballinger, 2016). In the following subsection, the role of proficiency in peer interaction will be discussed.

2.1.1 Language Proficiency and its Impact on Peer Interaction

Although communication among peers seems to be more symmetrical in nature than teacher-student interaction, learners' varying proficiency levels may have an impact on their language learning opportunities (Philp et al., 2014). Regarding types of interaction, students might be assembled into "matching-proficiency dyads" or "mixed-proficiency dyads" (Philp et al., 2014, p. 71). Both groupings have their own advantages and disadvantages, hence there is a huge scholarly debate as to which of the two types of interaction is more beneficial for FLL (Gass & Varonis, 1985; Yule & Macdonald, 1990; Kowal & Swain, 1994; Ohta, 2000; Iwashita, 2001; Philp et al., 2014).

Mixed-proficiency dyads have frequently been shown to present more difficulties in solving miscommunication instances and communicating ideas successfully than matching-proficiency pairs (Gass & Varonis, 1985). Nonetheless, they usually negotiate for meaning more often and produce more modified output (Gass & Varonis, 1985; Iwashita, 2001; Storch, 2001; Philp et al., 2014). In most cases, the speaker whose proficiency level is higher is bound to adopt a leading role throughout the interaction (Yule & Macdonald, 1990), which may also lead to the exclusion of the speaker with a lower proficiency (Kowal & Swain, 1994). Additionally, lower proficiency learners might not benefit from being grouped with higher proficiency learners since they may not be developmentally ready to deal with certain language issues (Leeser, 2004, p. 73). By

contrast, higher proficiency learners might profit from putting their declarative knowledge into practice by helping their less-proficient peers overcome the linguistic difficulties they might encounter (van Lier, 1996). Nevertheless, higher proficiency students may also feel superior and lead the way of the task without taking into consideration their classmates' interventions (Yule & Macdonald, 1990; Hedge, 2000).

On the other hand, matching-proficiency dyads are likely to leave linguistic issues unresolved given that none of them might be able to solve their doubts due to their fairly similar proficiency levels (Iwashita, 2001). Furthermore, they seem not to have as many communicative breakdowns as mixed-proficiency dyads and are able to interact more effectively (Gass & Varonis, 1985; Iwashita, 2001). They are also less likely to adopt a leading role over their partners since they do not feel superior in relation to one another and thus they frequently contribute equally to the interaction (Yule & Macdonald, 1990; Kowal & Swain, 1994). Nonetheless, they do not produce as much modified output as mixed-proficiency dyads do (Iwashita, 2001).

2.2 Language-Related Episodes (LREs)

Language-related episodes (LREs) have been defined as "any part of the dialogue in which students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or other-or self-correct their language production" (Swain & Lapkin, 2001, p. 104). Moreover, these episodes are regarded as representing language learning in progress (Donato, 1994; Tse, 1996; Swain, 1998, Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Gass & Mackey, 2007).

LREs can be classified in a myriad of ways (Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Swain, 1998; Williams, 1999; Leeser, 2004; Kim & McDonough, 2008; Storch, 2008; Niu, 2009; Niu, Jiang & Deng, 2018; Suzuki & Storch, 2020). In general, they tend to be classified according to their nature and outcome. As far as nature is concerned, LREs that deal with

meaning, spelling or pronunciation of lexical items are considered to be lexical (Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Storch, 2008; Fernández Dobao, 2014), those that focus on morphology and syntax are grammatical (Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Storch, 2008), and those that concentrate on aspects related to the discourse level of a text, such as paragraphing, sentence structures, text connection, sentence connection and sentence length, are discourse-focused (Niu, 2009; Niu, Jiang & Deng, 2018; Suzuki & Storch, 2020). Concerning outcome, they might be correctly resolved, incorrectly resolved or unresolved (Swain, 1998; Leeser, 2004; Kim & McDonough, 2008) depending on whether learners have managed to solve their doubts or not, or whether they have carried on with the task without providing a solution to their problems. In addition, LREs can be further classified as explicit when learners establish a debate in order to reach a consensus, or implicit when there is not an overt negotiation (Williams, 1999). LREs can also be auto-resolved when learners resolve LREs by themselves, that is, without the intervention of the other member of the pair (Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; Basterrechea & Leeser, 2019, quoted in Pladevall-Ballester, 2021, p. 8). Moreover, this is a process which requires a high degree of metacognitive thinking since students need to be able to analyse their speech and relate their declarative to their procedural knowledge (DeKeyser, 2007; Duchesne et al., 2013). Besides, whether LREs are resolved through the learners' first language (L1, non-target-like) or L2 (target-like) is a topic of research (Philp et al., 2014). In particular, the language in which LREs are resolved has received special interest in EFL contexts, where it has been observed that the use of the L1 is fairly common and has been claimed to be beneficial for task completion purposes (Philp et al., 2014; García Mayo & Lázaro Ibarrola, 2015; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2017; Lázaro Ibarrola & Hidalgo, 2017; Pladevall-Ballester & Vraciu, 2017; Vraciu & Pladevall-Ballester, 2020). The following

interactional episodes extracted from the literature illustrate the above-mentioned types

of LREs:

(1)   Grammatical, explicit, correctly resolved, target-like LRE

Learner 1: new bands
Learner 2: that don't appear
Learner 1: appeared
Learner 2: huh?
Learner 1: appeared
Learner 2: no that don't appear
<div align="right">(Basterrechea & García Mayo, 2013, p. 32)</div>

(2)   Lexical, explicit, incorrectly resolved, target-like LRE

Susana: I don't know how to say in English this word. The rubbish, uff…
Miguel: Take, taker!
Susana: Taker!
<div align="right">(Azkarai, 2013, p. 88)</div>

(3)   Lexical, explicit, unresolved, target-like LRE

Female learner: Oh! Ah, no? Mine's... I don't know if it's a ball or a racquet…
Male learner: No
Female learner: Eh .. like to round and round and round all the time.
Male learner: Yeah, no.
Female learner: No? So, I've one machine of that here in the park.
Male learner: Ok.
Female learner: I don't know the name.
<div align="right">(Azkarai & García Mayo, 2012, p. 263)</div>

(4)   Grammatical, implicit, correctly resolved, target-like LRE

Learner 1: Disappointed she is crying
Learner 2: She cried
Learner 1: She cried and on she call him, she calls him and decides to.
<div align="right">(Adams, Nuevo & Egi, 2011, p. 51)</div>

(5)   Discourse-focused, explicit, correctly resolved, auto-resolved, target-like LRE

Yu: Ok, but . . . er . . . we must make the first sentence and the second sentence er. . . make some linking.
Liu: It's pretty difficult for me.
Yu: The . . . er . . . predicting the future is always perilous, but it . . .
Liu: Perilous.
Yu: But it is safe . . . it is safe to say that . . . er . . .
Liu: Yeah, I agree with you.
<div align="right">(Niu, 2009, p. 391)</div>

(6)   Grammatical, implicit, correctly resolved, auto-resolved, target-like LRE

Learner 1: sorry . eh . and she works in a music industry and then eh she haves (eh) she has (eh) friends [two … friends]

(Basterrechea & Leeser, 2019, p. 104)

Both external and internal factors to learners, such as personality traits (Basterrechea & Leeser, 2019), age, task modality, proficiency level, pair dynamics, modality of interaction and type of instruction (Philp et al., 2014; Sato & Ballinger, 2016), might moderate the incidence, nature and outcome of LREs. For example, it has been claimed that the nature of LREs may vary depending on the proficiency level of the dyads' members. While high-proficiency pairs have been observed to produce more grammatical LREs than lexical ones, lower-proficiency dyads tend to focus more on meaning than on grammar and thus produce more lexical LREs (Leeser, 2004, p. 73). Additionally, it has been noted that mixed-proficiency pairs negotiate for meaning more often than matching-proficiency pairs, which is why they generally produce more lexical LREs (Philp et al., 2014). Besides, there is usually more focus on form, and subsequently more production of grammatical LREs, as the dyads' proficiency level increases (Philp et al., 2014, p. 80). In the following subsection, the effect of task modality on LREs will be explored.

2.2.1 Task Modality and its Impact on Language-Related Episodes (LREs)

Task modality has been shown to influence language learning opportunities. Consequently, whether a task is written or oral is considered to have consequences as far as LREs are concerned. Recent research on the effect of task modality with regard to the nature of LREs has proven that speaking tasks lead to more meaning-focused LREs, whereas writing tasks trigger more form-focused LREs (Adams, 2006; Ross-Feldman, 2007; Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; Niu, 2009; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2012; García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016; García Mayo & Zeitler, 2017; Payant & Kim, 2017; García Mayo & Imaz Agirre, 2019; Azkarai & Kopinska, 2020).

As for the incidence of LREs, written tasks seem to foster the production of a greater number of LREs than oral tasks (Adams & Ross-Feldam, 2008; García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016; Payant & Kim, 2017; García Mayo & Imaz Agirre, 2019; Azkarai & Kopinska, 2020). This could be caused by the fact that learners tend to reflect more on language when they need to produce some written material given that they need to agree on which grammatical structures and lexical items to use (Wolff, 2000). However, due to the inherent time pressure that speaking tasks involve, learners are not able to devote the same degree of attention to grammar and vocabulary as they do in writing tasks (Skehan, 1998). Therefore, collaborative writing tasks are claimed to provide learners with a wider range of language learning opportunities (Ross-Feldman, 2007; Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; Williams, 2008; Niu, 2009; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2012; Philp et al., 2014; García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016; García Mayo & Imaz Agirre, 2019).

2.3 Studies on LREs and Task Modality

Only a few studies have been conducted regarding the impact of task modality on LREs in the field of EFL (Niu, 2009; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2012; García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016; García Mayo & Imaz Agirre, 2019). One of the most influential studies dealing with this topic is the one carried out by García Mayo and Azkarai (2016). These authors claim that task modality provides students with different language learning opportunities. In order to identify these opportunities, they took into consideration the LREs that their subjects produced during the tasks they performed. In particular, they classified LREs according to nature (form and meaning-focused) and outcome (resolved and not resolved). In addition, they considered the incidence of LREs in both task modalities (written and oral). In particular, this study explored the extent to which task modality might influence the participants' level of engagement by analysing whether both, only one, or none of them were interested in solving the LREs they were faced with.

A total number of 44 Spanish EFL learners aged between 20 and 31 participated in García Mayo and Azkarai's study, which was based on two collaborative written tasks (a dictogloss and a text editing task) and two oral tasks (a picture placement and a picture differences task). The participants' proficiency levels ranged from elementary to upper-intermediate and they were paired up on the basis of their score in the Quick Oxford Placement Test (OPT).

The results of their study were in line with previous research in EFL and ESL (Ross-Feldman, 2007; Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; Niu, 2009; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2012). Their findings indicated that the oral tasks made learners pay more attention to meaning, whereas the written tasks made learners focus their attention more on form. Concerning the outcome of LREs, although there were "no major task-related differences" (García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016, p. 258), participants were able to resolve more LREs in the written tasks than in the oral ones. As for the incidence of LREs, their study revealed that tasks which incorporate a writing element provide learners with more language learning opportunities than speaking tasks. In other words, students produced more LREs in the written tasks than in the oral ones. Regarding the level of engagement in LREs, the findings showed that, in general, all the members of the pairs were interested in solving the LREs they encountered throughout the four tasks, hence task modality did not play a significant role.

Another relevant study on LREs and task modality is the one conducted by Niu (2009), who examined which kind of collaborative task (written or oral) made learners focus more their attention on language forms and which of these two task types might be more beneficial for language learning. This author holds that written tasks provide learners with more opportunities for language learning because writing is a much more complex and cognitively demanding process than speaking, which requires less mental

effort. Niu (2009) identified language learning opportunities by analysing the speech of her participants in terms of LREs, which were classified according to nature (lexis, grammar and discourse-focused).

The participants of this study were 16 Chinese EFL upper-intermediate students aged between 18 and 20. They were paired up according to their gender, level of intimacy and their score on a core course called CECL so as to avoid the potential effects that these variables might have. The study was based on a text reconstruction task which contained both a written and an oral part. In the oral one, students had to collaboratively reconstruct the content of a passage that they had previously read, whereas in the written one they had to reconstruct that passage by means of jointly producing a text.

The results of this study were along the same lines as García Mayo and Azkarai's (2016) conclusions. That is, the written task drew learners' attention to grammar more than to meaning and the oral task made students primarily focus on meaning. Additionally, the written task generated a greater number of LREs than the oral one, which suggests that, as some other authors have postulated (Kowal & Swain, 1994; Swain, 1998; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Storch, 2001), written tasks provide more language learning opportunities for students than oral ones. Niu (2009) also emphasised the fact that collaborative writing tasks involve the presence of both oral and written production since learners need to orally communicate in order to perform a written task. For this reason, the author claims that "compared with oral output tasks, written output tasks can raise learners' language awareness better" (Niu, 2009, p. 397). Therefore, as the results of this study evince, written tasks might be the most efficient language learning strategy to draw learners' attention to language forms.

As the previously discussed studies reveal, learners' attention to meaning seems to be drawn by oral tasks, and attention to form by written ones. Furthermore, written

tasks appear to trigger more language learning opportunities for students than oral ones, hence a larger number of LREs are produced in this task modality. Similarly to García Mayo and Azkarai's (2016) and Niu's (2009) studies, the present dissertation is based on a collaborative task involving both an oral and a written part. Moreover, it establishes LREs as the measure of analysis to identify language learning opportunities in the dyads' speech. However, this dissertation follows a classification of LREs which slightly differs from the ones provided in previous studies. As will be detailed in section 3, some of the items have been modified and others have been included in order to be able to analyse all the variables that this dissertation aimed at exploring. In the following section, the methodology employed in this study will be discussed.

3. Methodology

The following section is devoted to describing the subjects who participated in the present study as well as the tasks, procedures and measures of analysis employed. Additionally, a series of interactional episodes extracted from the data are presented in order to illustrate the measures of analysis.

This study is framed within the research group English as a Foreign Language in Instruction Contexts (EFLIC –2017SGR752) at Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona. The data presented in the present dissertation was collected by Dr. Elisabet Pladevall, Dr. Montserrat Capdevila and Maria Grifoll between 2016 and 2019 in Institut Banús from Cerdanyola del Vallès (Barcelona). The aim of this longitudinal study was to analyse the evolution of some pairs of students when performing the same task at two different levels of their education. In the first part of the study, they were in 1st of ESO, i.e. they were between 12 and 13 years old, whereas in the second part they were in 4th of ESO, i.e. they were between 15 and 16 years old. One half of the students were paired up according to

their English proficiency level[1] and were correspondingly assigned colours red, yellow or green. Red corresponded to high-proficiency students, yellow to mid-proficiency and green to low-proficiency. The other half of the students constituted mixed-proficiency pairs.

3.1 Subjects

The present study is based on data from 22 proficiency-matched dyads of 1st-of-ESO students. This kind of level-pairing was selected in order to control the subjects' proficiency and hence avoid the potential effects of this variable. To be more specific, this dissertation focuses on red-red dyads and red-yellow ones, which were considered to have very similar proficiency levels, and thus be comparable for the purposes of the present study. These pairs were chosen since high-level students are usually regarded as actively interacting with each other. Consequently, they were expected to produce a substantial amount of LREs.

Spanish was the L1 of most of the participants, although some of them had Catalan, Chinese and Polish as their L1. Furthermore, almost half of the students who took part in the study had recently enrolled in English extracurricular lessons. In fact, most of these students had some interests related to the English language, such as listening to music or watching videos and films.

3.2 Task and Procedures

The task on which the present study is based is a spot-the-differences task which was divided into two parts: an oral and a written one. The first part of this task, which

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[1] Students were assigned into dyads with classmates with whom they had obtained similar results in the "Competències Bàsiques" English test that they took in sixth grade.

lasted for 10 minutes, was an oral, unfocused, two-way information-gap collaborative activity with an open outcome. To be more specific, it was further subdivided into two sub-tasks. In the first sub-task, which lasted between 6 and 7 minutes, the members of the dyads were given two different versions of the same picture (see Appendix A) and were required to spot as many differences as possible between them by means of talking to each other so as to know what their pictures looked like. The pictures were covered during this part of the task, which means that they could only see their own images. However, during the second sub-task, which lasted between 3 and 4 minutes, the pictures were uncovered and they were eventually able to spot all the differences. The second part of this task was written and it also lasted for 10 minutes. This was an unfocused, two-way information-gap collaborative writing activity in which students had to produce a text commenting on the differences that they had found between the pictures.

In addition, researchers made sure that participants were familiar with the vocabulary that they would need to employ in order to conduct the task. They asked students to use English while interacting with each other, although they could resort to their L1 whenever they did not know a given word or structure in English. The original task instructions are included in Appendix B.

Students were recorded while performing the tasks and their interactions were transcribed using Computerized Language Analysis (CLAN) and following the CHAT conventions within the Child Language Data Exchange System (CHILDES) Project (MacWhinney, 2000). The CHAT conventions are included in Appendix C and a sample of a transcription of a pair in Appendix D.

3.3 Measures of Analysis

LREs have been established as the measure of analysis of the dyads' speech in the present dissertation. Although there are a myriad of ways of classifying LREs (Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Swain, 1998; Williams, 1999; Leeser, 2004; Kim & McDonough, 2008; Storch, 2008; Niu, 2009; Niu, Jiang & Deng, 2018; Suzuki & Storch, 2020), this dissertation follows a classification which has been created on the basis of the classifications on the literature. Given that no discourse-focused LREs were found in the data, this study only distinguishes between lexical and grammatical LREs. Nevertheless, the three possible outcomes (correctly resolved, incorrectly resolved and unresolved) as well as auto-resolved LREs have been maintained. Furthermore, a category has been added in order to account for pronunciation errors. In addition, whether lexical LREs are target-like (resolved through the learners' L2) or non-target-like (resolved through their L1) has been considered. Grammatical LREs have been further classified as explicit or implicit, although Williams' (1999) descriptions of this type of LREs have been adapted. While Williams (1999) defined implicit LREs as episodes in which learners do not negotiate in order to reach a consensus, this study has regarded implicit LREs as instances in which one of the members of the dyad directly provides a solution to a doubt without giving a formal explanation. As for explicit LREs, Williams (1999) observed that these were episodes in which learners negotiate and try to agree on language issues, whereas this dissertation analyses explicit LREs as instances in which learners provide explanations for their choices. Finally, whether explicit LREs are target-like or non-target-like has been taken into account. The following figure presents the detailed classification of LREs which has been followed in the present dissertation:
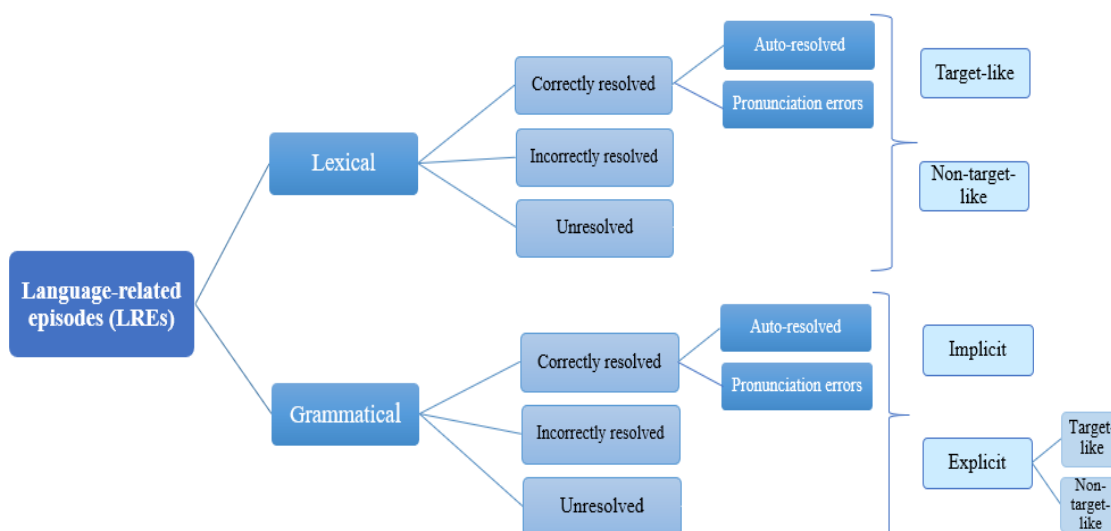
Figure 1. Classification of Language-Related Episodes (LREs)

3.3.1 Lexical LREs

Lexical LREs are those instances in which learners discuss the meaning (7), spelling (8) or pronunciation (9) of lexical items.

(7)   *CHB: <qué es kyte [pho:kit]>@s:spa?
         *CHA: <la cometa>@s:spa.

(1D4A_1D4B)

(8)   *CHA: &eh in, in my picture &ah one, one boy runner and your picture one boy pescar@s:spa.
         *CHB: xxx?
         *CHA: <con dos enes>@s:spa.

(1A11A_1A11B)

(9)   *CHA: no, a [/] a girl, a children with a kyte [pho:kit]?
         *CHA: kyte [pho: keit] or kyte [pho:kit], I don't know the pronunciation.

(1D4A_1D4B)

Lexical LREs can be classified as correctly resolved (with two subtypes being auto-resolved and pronunciation errors[2]), incorrectly resolved or unresolved. Moreover, they can be target-like (10) or non-target-like (11):

---

[2] Pronunciation errors and auto-resolved LREs could have also been classified as subtypes of incorrectly resolved LREs since students might mispronounce some words while they wrongly

(10)   *CHB: here there's a, how do you say a +...
         *CHA: &eh.
         *CHB: tiburón@s:spa.
         *CHA: I don't know.

                                                          (1A2A_1A2B)

(11)   *CHA: how do you say arena?
         *CHB: ni idea.

                                                          (1D13A_1D13B)

Students might also combine both their L1 and L2 to resolve LREs, as (12)

illustrates. In this case, an L1 word (*bandera*) is used together with the English structure

adjective + noun:

(12)   *CHB: bandera green.
         *CHA: +, a green bandera@s:spa.

                                                          (1D6A_1D6B)

Lexical LREs will be considered to be correctly resolved when learners are able

to solve the lexical doubts that they encounter, as illustrated in (13):

(13)   *CHA: how do you say avió@s:cat.
         *CHB: &eh plane.

                                                          (1C2A_1C2B)

Auto-resolved LREs are those instances of self-repair in which one of the

members of the dyad solves a LRE by himself or herself, that is, without the intervention

of the other member of the pair (Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; Basterrechea & Leeser,

2019; quoted in Pladevall-Ballester, 2021, p. 8). This phenomenon is exemplified in (14):

(14)   *CHA: &mm no, there are, there aren't.

                                                          (1C11A_1C11B)

---

correct themselves. However, in this dissertation these two phenomena have been classified as
subtypes of correctly resolved LREs since all the instances of these processes that were found in
the data were correctly resolved.

Pronunciation errors have been classified as a subtype of lexical correctly resolved LREs in which students provide the correct (although mispronounced) solution for their lexical doubts. For example:

(15)   *CHB: and the, the, the, the shop also have a clientes@s:spa?
        *CHA: client [PHO: client].
        *CHB: client [PHO: client].

                                                          (1B2A_1B2B)

Incorrectly resolved LREs are those instances in which learners provide a wrong solution to their lexical questions, as shown in (16):

(16)   *CHA: but &em fora@s:cat how do you say?
        *CHB: &eh inside.

                                                            (1C2A_1C2B)

Finally, LREs are left unresolved or abandoned when learners do not know how to solve their lexical doubts and instead decide to carry on with the task without having provided a solution to their lexical problems, as can be observed in (17):

(17)   *CHB: how do you say <chico tomando el sol>@s:spa?
        *CHA: &em boy or man &eh I don't know.
        *CHB: <pues un chico tomando el sol>@s:spa.

                                                    (1B12A_1B12B)

Lexical LREs in which students provide paraphrases have been classified as unresolved, since they do not provide the exact word(s) that is/are being required. For instance, in (18) speaker A does not know the English word for *tiburón*, i.e. *shark*, and she paraphrases its meaning by saying *big fish*.

(18)   *CHA: how do you say tiburón@s:spa?
        *CHA: &ah bueno@s:spa, a big fish, tiburón@s:spa, and in your picture &em has got a tiburón@s:spa, a big fish.

                                                            (1B6A_1B6B)

3.3.2 Grammatical LREs

Grammatical LREs are those instances in which learners discuss aspects related to morphology (19) or syntax (20).

(19)   *CHA. and (.) in (.) xxx [while writing] there is a boy +...
        *CHB: talked.
        *CHA: talking.
        *CHB: talking.

                                                            (1A11A_1A11B)

(20)   *CHA: in two pictures [/] pictures +...
        *CHB: &eh there is +/.
        *CHA: +, there is two +/.
        *CHB: there are two men.

                                                            (1D2A_1D2B)

They can be classified as correctly resolved (with two subtypes being auto-resolved and pronunciation errors), incorrectly resolved or unresolved. In addition, they can be further subdivided as either implicit or explicit (the latter being either target-like or non-target-like).

Grammatical LREs are considered to be correctly resolved when learners successfully manage to solve the grammatical problems that they encounter, as (21) shows:

(21)   *CHB: &eh in picture b@l there are one girl +/.
        *CHA: <o sea>@s:spa there is.

                                                            (1D6A_1D6B)

Auto-resolved grammatical LREs are those instances in which a member of the pair corrects himself or herself without the intervention of the other learner. For instance:

(22)   *CHB: are there, <o sea>@s:spa, is there a boy?

                                                            (1C7A_1C7B)

Pronunciation errors in the students' speech have not interfered in the solution of grammatical LREs and have been considered as correctly resolved (although

mispronounced). Nonetheless, no examples of this phenomenon have been observed in the data.

Grammatical LREs are incorrectly resolved when learners provide a wrong solution to their grammatical doubts, as (23) illustrates:

(23)   *CHB: two children +...
        *CHA: two childrens play with the ball.

                                                                    (1D4A_1D4B)

On the other hand, unresolved LREs are those grammatical LREs that students do not know how to solve and thus abandon without having provided a solution to them. For example:

(24)   *CHA: there is (.) in the same.
        *CHB: there is or there's?
        *CHA: write in the same part, in the same part are.

                                                                    (1A2A_1A2B)

Grammatical LREs are considered to be implicit when one of the members of the dyad directly provides an answer without giving a formal explanation, as (25) shows:

(25)   *CHB: in the picture a@l have in the sea is there a boy and the picture is
        there a shark.
        *CHA: yes, there is a shark.

                                                                    (1B11A_1B11B)

Grammatical LREs are explicit when learners provide explanations for their choices, as speaker B does in (26):

(26)   *CHB: boy eating a ice-cream.
        *CHB: <no se dice así, en todo caso sería>@s:spa an.
        *CHA: a ice-cream.
        *CHB: <no, porque son dos vocales>@s:spa.
        *CHA: a is one and &eh +/.
        *CHB: an, an.
        *CHA: &ah!
        *CHB: xxx why?
        *CHB: there's a vocabul [vowel].
        *CHA: eating ice-cream is more +/.
        *CHB: eating a ice-cream, no!

23

```
*CHA:+, more of one ice-cream.
*CHB:an ice-cream es@s:spa.
*CHA:a!
*CHB:<eh, pero>@s:spa what?
*CHB:an, es@s:spa an, because there's a vocal@s:spa.
*CHA:an.
```
                                                                    (1A2A_1A2B)

Finally, explicit grammatical LREs can be target-like (27) or non-target-like (28):

```
(27)    *CHB:in one picture there are a three parrots +/.
        *CHA: there are three parrots because if we put a it means that it's singular.
```
                                                                    (1D5A_1D5B)

```
(28)    *CHA:in the picture a@l are a, there is a people +/.
        *CHB:no, no, no, in the picture b@l there's +/.
        *CHA:in the picture b@l +/.
        *CHB:there's a people +/.
        *CHA:there's +/.
        *CHB:<es cuando quieres decir gente>@s:spa.
```
                                                                    (1A2A_1A2B)

Taking the above-mentioned classification as the measure of analysis for the
present dissertation, the LREs identified in the participants' speech of this study have
been correspondingly categorized. In the following section, the results obtained will be
presented.

4. Results

With the aim of analysing the potential task modality effects on the incidence,
nature and outcome of LREs, the following section presents the results of each of these
three variables as well as their relation to task modality. In order to do so, a total number
of 261 LREs have been considered and analysed according to the classification of LREs
presented in section 3.

4.1 Incidence

Figure 2 presents the results obtained from the data concerning the incidence of LREs according to task modality. That is, the figure below illustrates the percentages of LREs which were found both in the oral and written parts of the task.
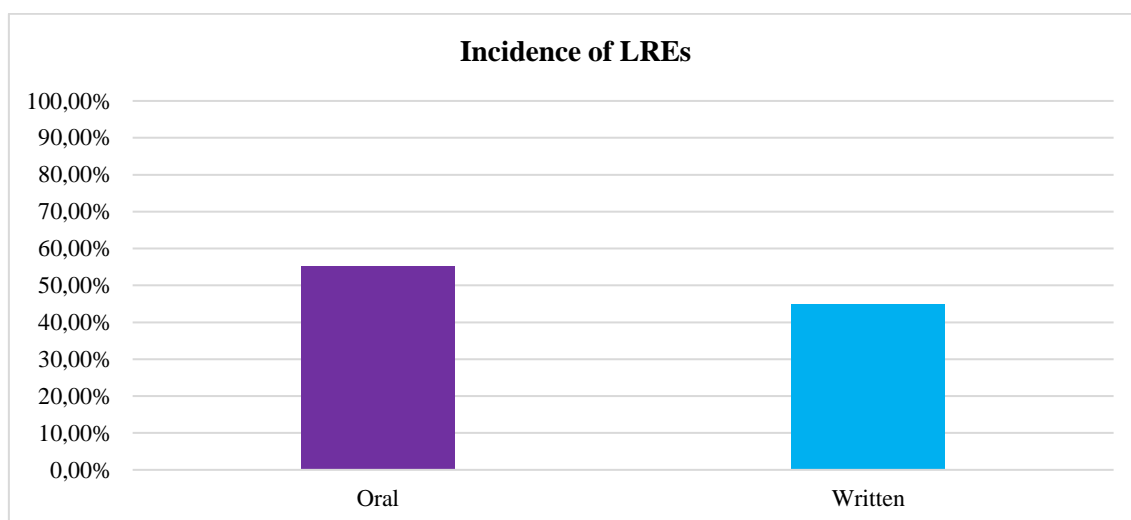

Figure 2. Incidence of LREs

As it can be observed, there is a quantitative difference of 10,34% which posits the oral part of the task as the one in which more LREs were produced. To be more specific, 55,17% of LREs took place in the oral part, whereas 44,83% occurred in the written one.

4.2 Nature

This subsection presents the results obtained on the nature of LREs, that is, whether LREs are lexical or grammatical, implicit or explicit, and target-like or non-target-like.

4.2.1 Lexical vs. Grammatical LREs

The following graph illustrates the broadest distinction in qualitative terms between LREs that the present study has considered: lexical vs. grammatical LREs.

Figure 3 provides the percentages of lexical and grammatical LREs that students produced both in the oral and written parts of the task.
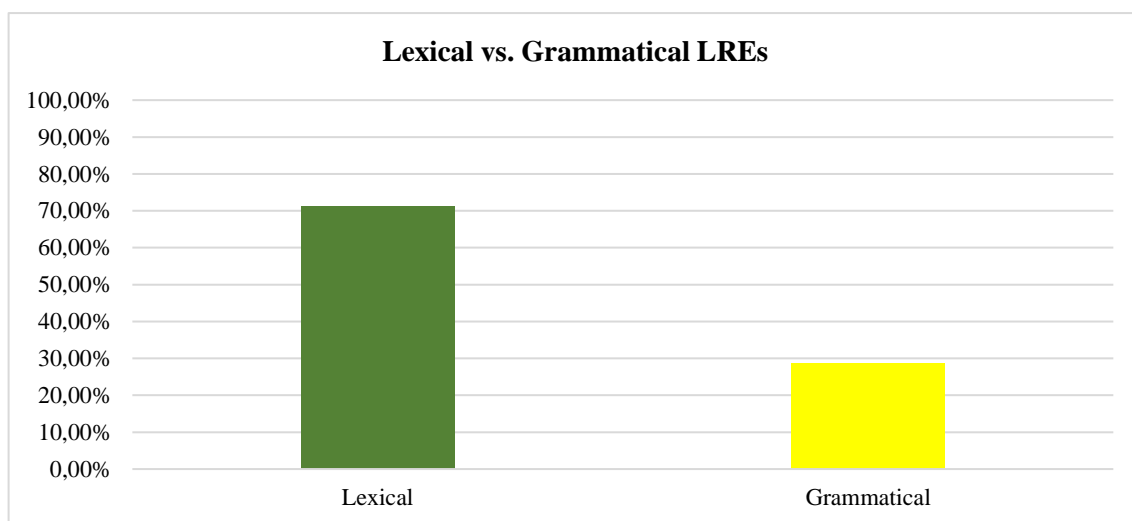

Figure 3. Lexical vs. Grammatical LREs

As this graph illustrates, lexical LREs prevail over grammatical ones. In particular, 71,26% of these episodes were lexical while 28,74% were grammatical. The distribution of lexical and grammatical LREs with respect to the oral and written parts of the task is detailed in the figure below.
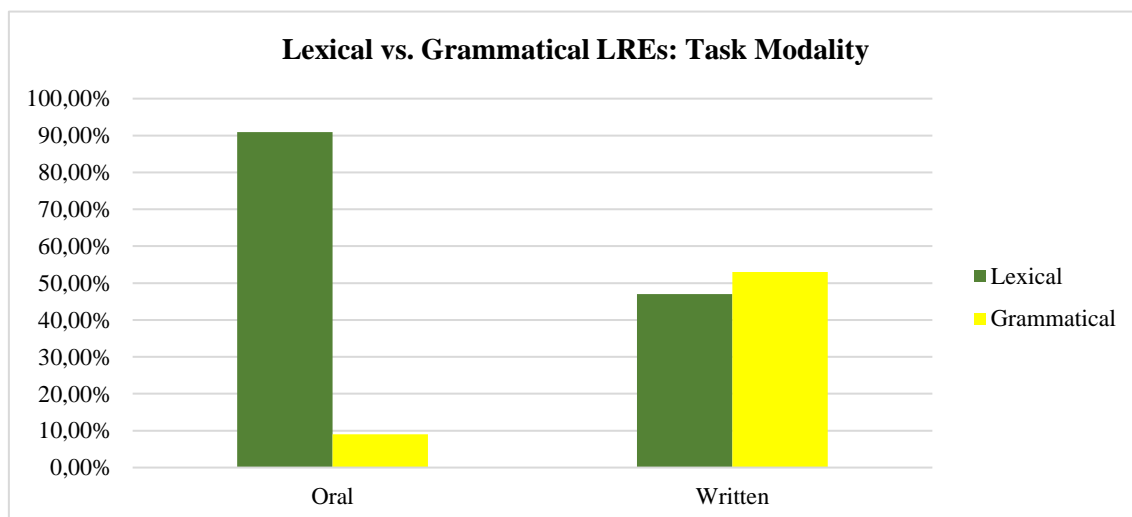

Figure 4. Lexical vs. Grammatical LREs: Task Modality

In the oral part, the overwhelming majority of LREs were lexical (90,97%), while only 9,03% were grammatical. However, in the written part the percentages were more balanced, given that 47,01% of LREs were lexical and 52,99% were grammatical.

4.2.2 Implicit vs. Explicit LREs

In the present study, grammatical LREs have been further subdivided as implicit or explicit depending on whether learners directly provided solutions to their doubts without giving a formal explanation or whether they provided reasons for their choices. The following graph illustrates the percentages of implicit and explicit grammatical LREs considering the oral and written parts of the task altogether.
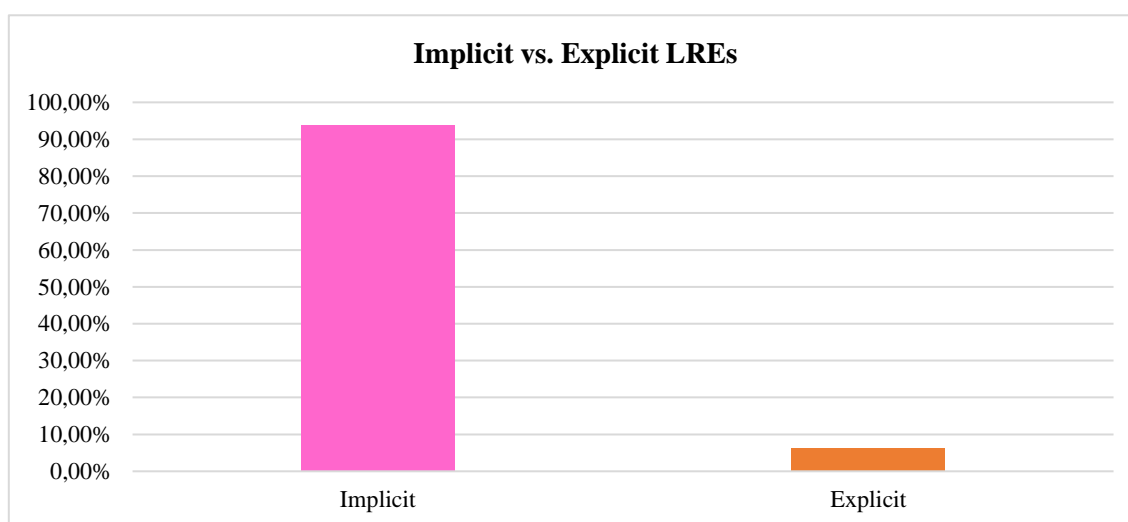

Figure 5. Implicit vs. Explicit LREs

As Figure 5 clearly shows, a vast majority of grammatical LREs were implicit (93,65%), whereas a mere 6,35% were explicit. The following graph illustrates the distribution of implicit and explicit LREs according to task modality.
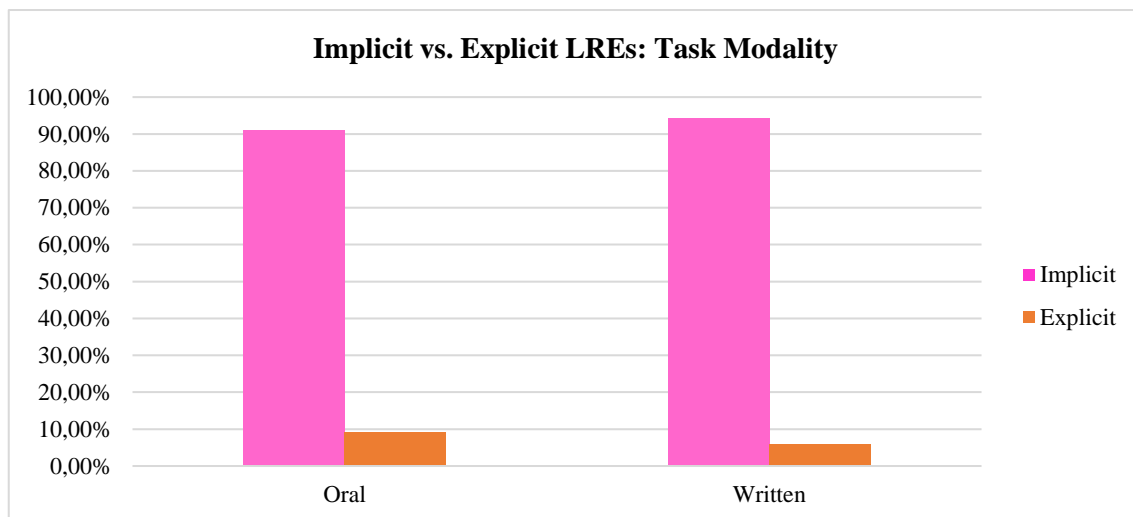
Figure 6. Implicit vs. Explicit LREs: Task Modality

Most of the LREs produced both in the oral and written parts of the task were implicit (90,91% and 94%, respectively). As for explicit LREs, 9,09% of them occurred in the oral part and 5,77% in the written one.

4.2.3 Target-like vs. Non-target-like LREs

As stated in section 3, lexical LREs have been further divided according to whether they were target-like or non-target-like. The percentages of non-target-like and target-like lexical LREs considering both the oral and written parts of the task as a whole are presented in the graph below.
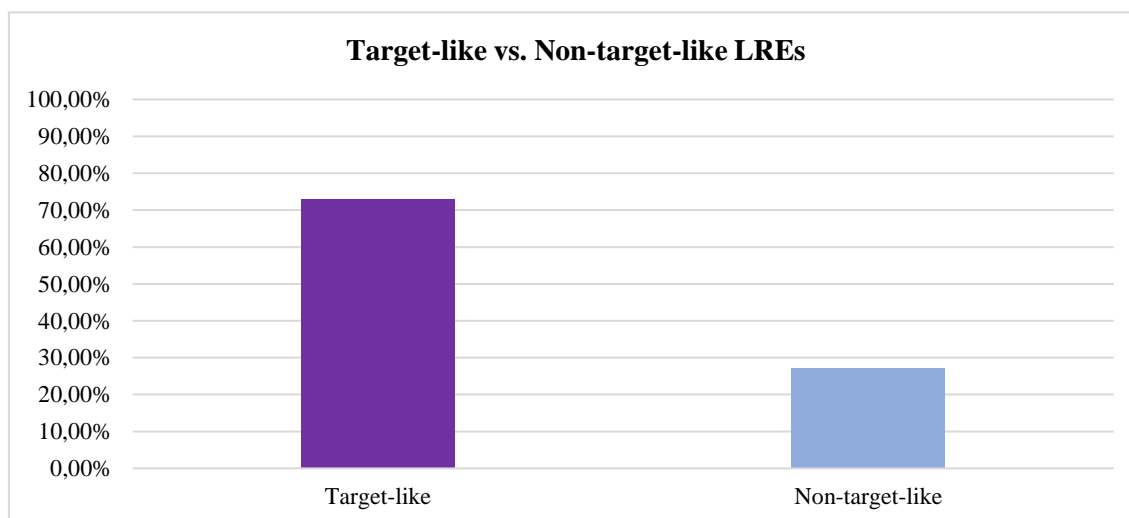

Figure 7. Target-like vs. Non-target-like LREs

28

The results display that there is a quantitative difference of 45,90% between these two typologies. More specifically, 72,95% of lexical LREs were target-like and 27,05% were non-target-like. The following figure illustrates the distribution of target-like and non-target-like LREs according to task modality.
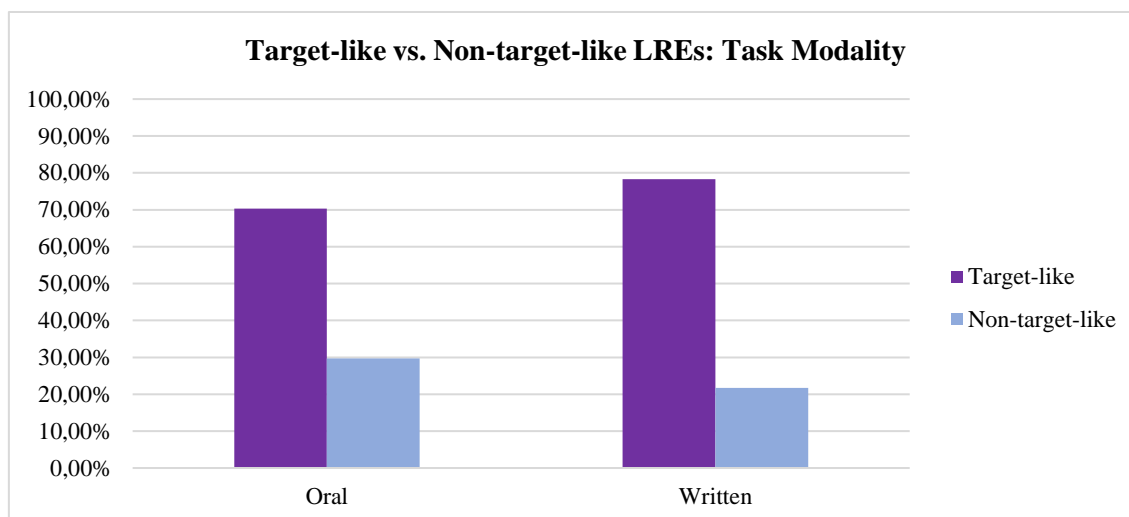
Figure 8. Target-like vs. Non-target-like LREs: Task Modality

Regarding the oral part of the task, 70,29% of lexical LREs were target-like, whereas 29,71% were non-target-like. The results did not significantly differ in the written part, in which 78,26% of lexical LREs were target-like and 21,74% were non-target-like.

4.3 Outcome

This section presents the outcome of LREs. As has been previously mentioned, LREs have been classified as correctly resolved, incorrectly resolved and unresolved. The graph below illustrates the percentages of each of these three types of outcomes considering the oral and written parts of the task altogether.
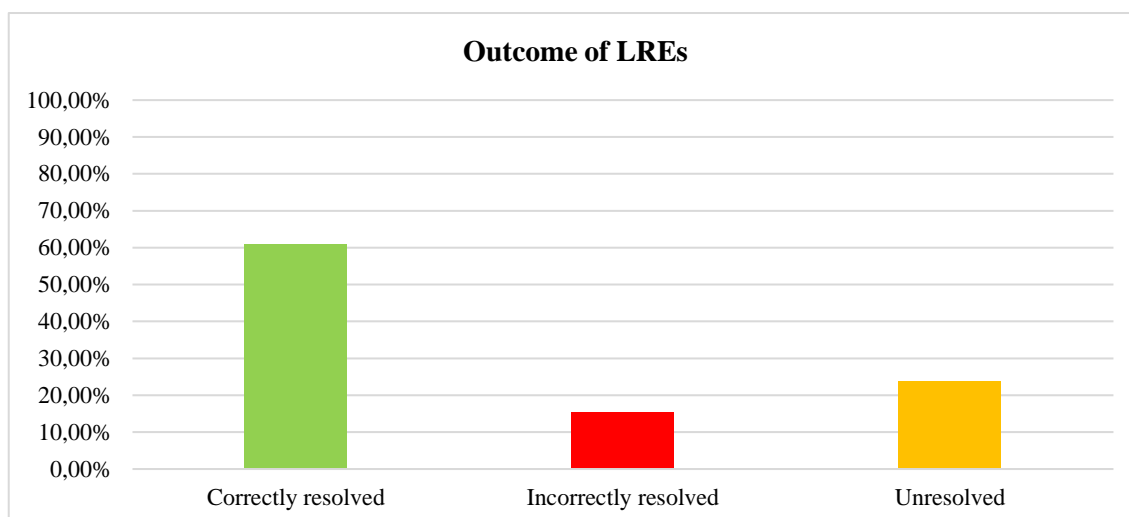
Figure 9. Outcome of LREs

As can be observed in Figure 9, more than half of the total number of LREs were correctly resolved (60,92%), 15,33% were incorrectly resolved and 23,75% were left unresolved. The results of this variable in relation to task modality are presented in the following graph.
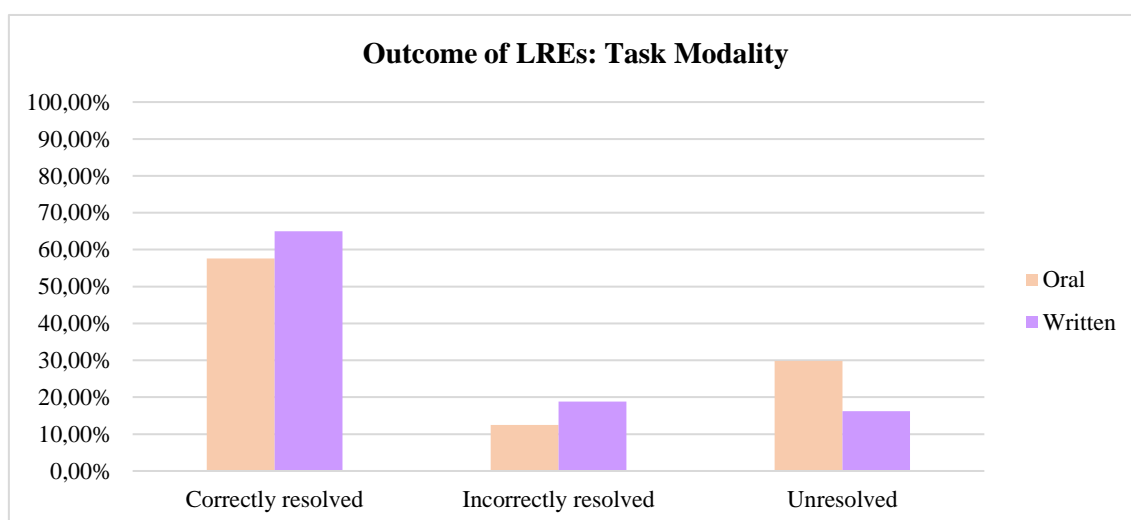
Figure 10. Outcome of LREs: Task Modality

Regarding correctly resolved LREs, the graph above shows that 57,64% of the overall LREs were correctly resolved in the oral part, whereas in the written one this percentage was slightly higher being 64,96%. As for incorrectly resolved LREs, 12,50% were produced in the oral part, while in the written one the percentage was also marginally

higher, namely 18,80%. Regarding unresolved LREs, 29,86% were left abandoned in the oral part and 16,24% in the written one.

4.3.1 Auto-resolved LREs

Auto-resolved LREs were a subtype of correctly resolved LREs illustrating instances of self-repair. The percentages of this type of LRE considering both the oral and written parts of the task as a whole are presented in the graph below.
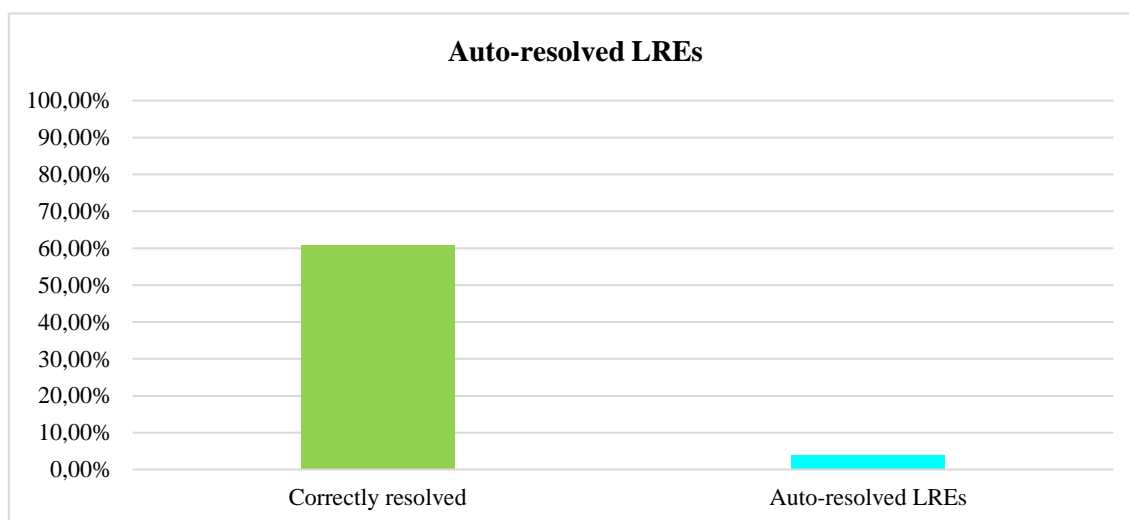
Figure 11. Auto-resolved LREs

As Figure 11 illustrates, out of the 60,92% of correctly resolved LREs, a mere 4,04% were auto-resolved. The distribution of auto-resolved LREs in relation to task modality is presented in Figure 12.
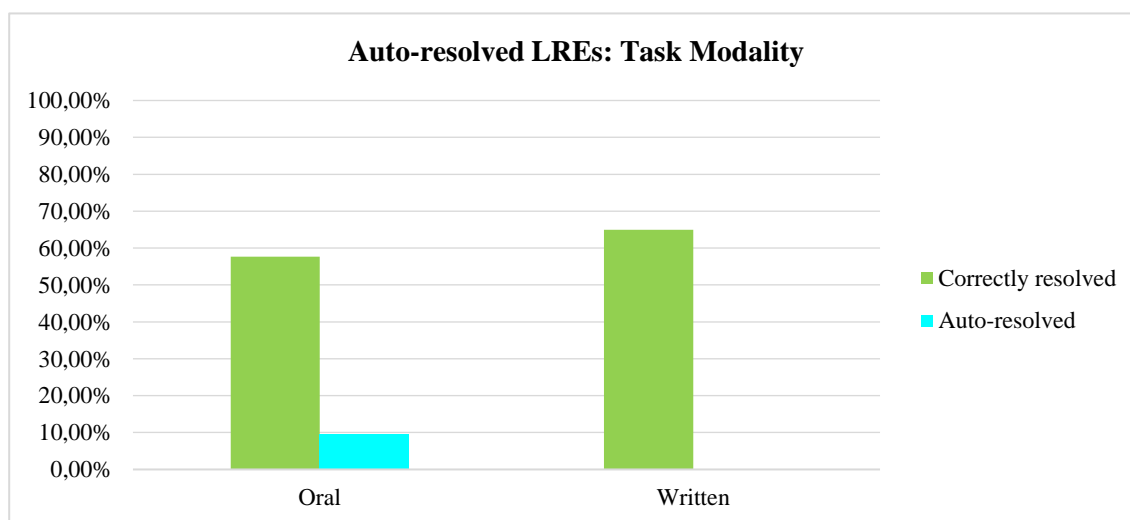
Figure 12. Auto-resolved LREs: Task Modality

Out of the 57,64% of correctly resolved LREs from the oral part of the task, 9,64% were auto-resolved. However, no auto-resolved LREs were found among the 64,96% of correctly resolved LREs produced in the written part.

4.3.2 Pronunciation Errors

Pronunciation errors were the second subtype of correctly resolved LREs, which accounted for the students' correct (although mispronounced) solutions to their lexical doubts. The distribution of this type of LRE considering both the oral and written parts of the task altogether is detailed in the graph below.
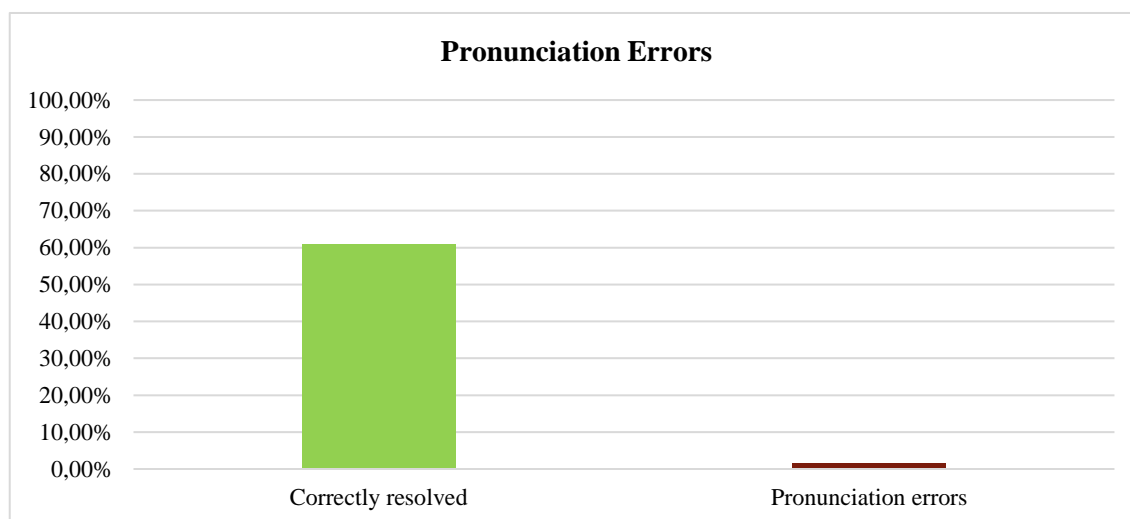
Figure 13. Pronunciation Errors

As can be observed in Figure 13, a very small amount of correctly resolved LREs constituted pronunciation errors, namely 1,51% out of 60,92%. The results of this item in relation to task modality are presented in the following graph.
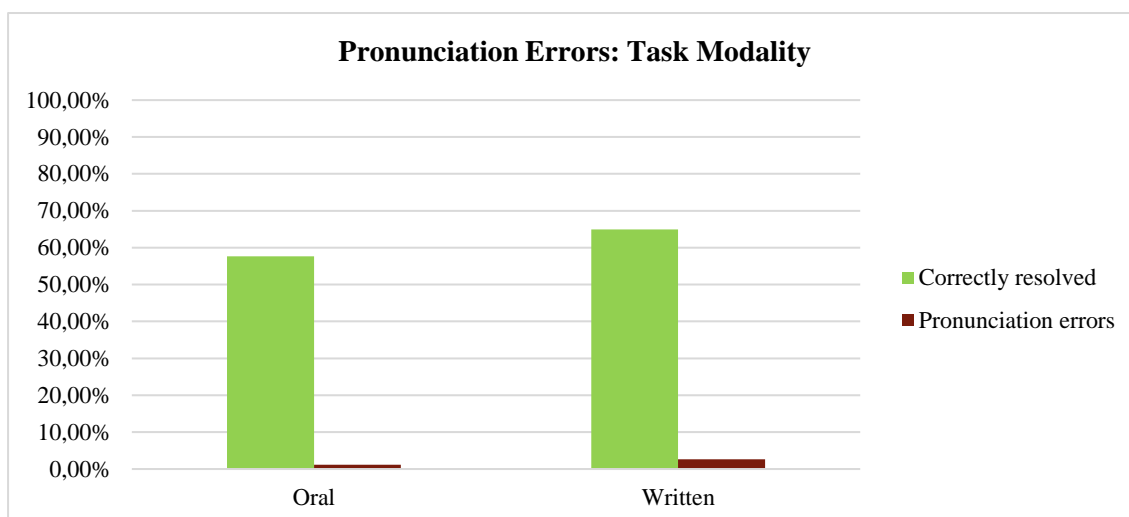
Figure 14. Pronunciation Errors: Task Modality

Out of the 57,64% of correctly resolved LREs that were produced in the oral part of the task, only 1,20% were pronunciation errors. Regarding the written part, 2,63% of the 64,96% of correctly resolved LREs were pronunciation errors.

4.4 General Results

In order to have a general overview of the results of the present study, three tables have been elaborated to illustrate the incidence, nature and outcome of LREs both in the oral and written parts of the task altogether as well as in the oral and written parts separately. The following three tables present the results mentioned in the previous sections for each variable in turn.

INCIDENCE	
Oral	Written
55,17%	**44,83%**

Table 1. General Results on the Incidence of LREs

NATURE																	
Lexical & Grammatical						Implicit & Explicit						L1 & L2					
Oral & Written		Oral		Written		Oral & Written		Oral		Written		Oral & Written		Oral		Written	
Lex.	Gra.	Lex.	Gra.	Lex.	Gra.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2
71,3%	28,7%	90,97%	9,03%	47,01%	52,99%	93,7%	6,3%	90,9%	9,1%	94,2%	5,8%	27,05%	72,95%	29,7%	70,3%	21,4%	78,3%

Table 2. General Results on the Nature of LREs

OUTCOME								
Correctly resolved	Incorrectly resolved	Unresolved	Correctly resolved		Incorrectly resolved	Unresolved	Correctly resolved	Incorrectly resolved	Unresolved
Oral & Written			Oral				Written		
60,92%	15,33%	23,75%	57,64%		12,50%	29,86%	64,96%	18,80%	16,24%
			Auto-resolved	Pronunciation errors			Auto-resolved	Pronunciation errors	
			9,64%	1,20%			0%	2,63%	

Table 3. General Results on the Outcome of LREs

As this section has shown, there is variability in the results concerning the incidence, nature and outcome of LREs in relation to task modality. For this reason, the following section will provide an in-depth examination and subsequent discussion of the results obtained in this study.

5. Discussion

The results of the present study are in general consistent with the published literature analysing the impact of task modality on LREs in EFL contexts (Niu, 2009; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2012; García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016; García Mayo & Imaz Agirre, 2019). Nevertheless, as will be argued throughout this section, there are some specific points with some degree of variability with respect to the incidence of LREs which need to be closely analysed. The discussion of the results is presented on the basis of the three research questions which guide this study.

RQ1: Is there a task modality (written vs. oral) effect on the incidence of language-related episodes (LREs)?

With regards to the first research question (RQ1), it was expected that task modality would have a strong effect on the incidence of LREs and that, as some authors have postulated (Adams, 2006; Ross-Feldman, 2007; Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; Niu, 2009; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2012; García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016; Payant & Kim, 2017; García Mayo & Imaz Agirre, 2019; Azkarai & Kopinska, 2020), more LREs would be produced in the written part of the task than in the oral one. According to the above-mentioned scholars, more LREs tend to be produced in written discourse given that the fact of jointly producing a piece of work encourages students to agree on which grammatical structures to employ. Consequently, written tasks are claimed to provide students with more opportunities for language learning and hence more LREs are likely to arise.

Apparently, the results of the present study seem to be inconsistent with the published literature in relation to the incidence of LREs. As shown in section 4, out of the total amount of 261 LREs that were produced by the participants, 55,17% of them took place in the oral part of the task, whereas 44,83% occurred in the written one. Therefore, these results would contradict previous research, which claimed that more LREs would be produced in written discourse than in oral one. Nevertheless, a closer analysis of the aforementioned studies reveals that the label *incidence* most frequently applies exclusively to grammatical LREs. For this reason, the results of this study may be claimed to be consistent with previous research since it was found that grammatical LREs outnumbered lexical LREs in the written part of the task. More specifically, 52,99% of the LREs produced in the written part were grammatical. As the previously mentioned scholars in the literature have found, collaboratively writing a text prompts students to

discuss the target structures they may want to use, which tends to lead to the production of grammatical LREs.

An exhaustive comparison between the present study and the published literature analysing the impact of task modality on LREs in the field of EFL may also provide several explanations for the inconsistency in the results regarding RQ1. Firstly, the number of participants of this study (i.e. 44) is not the same as in all previous studies. Although García Mayo and Azkarai's (2016) study also involved the participation of 44 learners, the number of participants in Niu's (2009) study was reduced to 16. In addition, the age of the participants of the present study does not match the one of those from previous studies. While the participants of this study were aged between 12 and 13 years old, the participants in García Mayo and Azkarai's (2016) and Niu's (2009) studies were aged between 20 and 31, and between 18 and 20, respectively. Furthermore, although the participants in these studies were paired up according to their proficiency level, the participants' proficiency level differed between studies. In this study, the participants' proficiency level ranged from elementary to pre-intermediate. However, García Mayo and Azkarai's (2016) ranged from elementary to upper-intermediate and Niu's (2009) was upper-intermediate. Finally, even though these studies are based on both oral and written collaborative tasks, the specific tasks employed were different. In this study, a spot-the-differences task divided into an oral and a written part was used. Nonetheless, García Mayo and Azkarai's (2016) study consisted of two collaborative written tasks (a dictogloss and a text editing task) and two oral tasks (a picture placement and a picture differences task). Regarding Niu's (2009) study, participants had to perform a text reconstruction task that contained both a written and an oral part.

RQ2: Is there a task modality (written vs. oral) effect on the nature of language-related episodes (LREs)?

The second research question (RQ2) deals with the potential task modality effect on the nature of LREs. As stated in section 4, the label *nature* in this study encompasses three types of LREs, namely lexical vs. grammatical, implicit vs. explicit, and target-like vs. non-target-like.

Previous research on L2 task-based interaction has proven that the language learning opportunities that certain collaborative tasks might provide for students are different depending on task modality. More specifically, previous studies have shown that oral tasks lead to more lexical LREs, whereas written tasks trigger more grammatical LREs (Adams, 2006; Ross-Feldman, 2007; Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; Niu, 2009; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2012; García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016; García Mayo & Zeitler, 2017; Payant & Kim, 2017; García Mayo & Imaz Agirre, 2019; Azkarai & Kopinska, 2020).

In line with previous publications, the data of the present study shows that the overwhelming majority of LREs produced in the oral part of the task (90,97%) were lexical. Although results were much more balanced in the written part, a majority of LREs (52,99%) were grammatical. Therefore, it may be claimed that task modality plays a significant role in the production of lexical and grammatical LREs. In addition, this study revealed that a large part of the LREs that students produced considering the oral and written parts altogether were lexical (71,26%), which provides evidence for a trend for students to focus more their attention on lexical than on grammatical LREs. Examples (29) and (30) respectively illustrate lexical and grammatical LREs.

(29)   *CHB: how do you say helicóptero@s:spa?
         *CHA: &eh helicopter.   (1D6A_1D6B)

(30)   *CHB: in picture b@l there are a one shark.
         *CHA: there are or there is?
         *CHB: there is.

                                                          (1C5A_1C5B)

This study further subcategorised grammatical LREs as either implicit or explicit. To the best of my knowledge, no studies have measured the impact of task modality in relation to this type of LREs. However, predictions were that implicit LREs would prevail in both task modalities given that students do not usually justify their linguistic or grammatical choices nor explicitly highlight that an error has been made by their partners. Indeed, a vast majority of the grammatical LREs produced in this study were implicit (93,65%) and no relevant task modality effects were found. In other words, most of the LREs produced in the oral and written parts of the task were implicit (90,91% and 94%, respectively). As has been previously suggested, this might be due to the fact that students tend to opt for providing their own solutions to grammatical or lexical issues without explicitly signalling that a mistake has been committed by their partners. The following examples illustrate the difference between implicit (31) and explicit (32) LREs.

(31)   *CHA: a flag green, no, a flag red.
         *CHB: a red flag.

                                                          (1B5A_1B5B)

(32)   *CHB: there is, there is +...
         *CHA: if it's plural, no, if it's plural, are, if not, is.

                                                          (1D5A_1D5B)

The last distinction that this study draws concerning nature is related to the language in which lexical LREs have been resolved. Taking into consideration that the participants selected in the present dissertation were high-proficiency students, predictions were that the amount of target-like LREs would surpass the non-target-like one in both task modalities. As the results of this study show, almost three-quarters of the total amount of LREs (72,95%) were target-like, hence predictions were met.

Furthermore, no significant task modality effects were observed and target-like LREs prevailed both in the oral and written parts (70,29% and 78,26%, respectively). Although non-target-like LREs have not been especially notable in this study (29,71% in the oral part and 21,74% in the written one), the use of the L1 in EFL contexts is fairly common and has been observed to be beneficial for task completion purposes (Philp et al., 2014; García Mayo & Lázaro Ibarrola, 2015; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2017; Lázaro Ibarrola & Hidalgo, 2017; Pladevall-Ballester & Vraciu, 2017; Vraciu & Pladevall-Ballester, 2020). Examples (33) and (34) capture the difference between target-like (33) and non-target-like (34) LREs.

(33)   *CHA: in the two pictures there, there is a shop.
        *CHB: there is a shoppings.
        *CHA: a shop.
        *CHB: a shop.

(1D5A_1D5B)

(34)   *CHB: &eh <bandera en inglés>@s:spa?
        *CHA: <no sé>@s:spa.

(1A11A_1A11B)

RQ3: Is there a task modality (written vs. oral) effect on the outcome of language-related episodes (LREs)?

The third and last research question (RQ3) addressed the outcome of LREs, that is, whether LREs were correctly resolved, incorrectly resolved or unresolved. Although the relationship between task modality and the outcome of LREs seems to have received little scholarly attention, predictions were that a significantly high amount of correctly resolved LREs would be produced in both task modalities considering that the participants of the present study were high-proficiency students. This hypothesis has proven to be verified due to the undeniable dominance of correctly resolved LREs (60,92%) in the oral and written parts of this study. Although there was not an excessively disproportionate quantitative difference between the percentage of correctly resolved

LREs in relation to task modality (57,64% in the oral part and 64,96% in the written one), these results go in line with previous studies in which participants were reported to have correctly resolved more LREs in written tasks than in oral ones (Ross-Feldman, 2007; Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2012; García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016). Moreover, fewer unresolved LREs have been observed in the written part compared to the oral one (16,24% and 29,86%, respectively). As some other authors have posited (Ross-Feldman, 2007; Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; Azkarai & García Mayo, 2012; García Mayo & Azkarai, 2016), this might be related to the fact that in written tasks students need to reach an agreement as to what to write, which forces them to try to resolve the grammatical or lexical issues they may encounter. The following examples illustrate correctly resolved (35), incorrectly resolved (36) and unresolved (37) LREs.

(35)   *CHA: how do you say paraigües?
         *CHB: umbrella.
                                                        (1C1A_1C1B)

(36)   *CHA: but &em fora@s:cat how do you say?
         *CHB: &eh inside.
                                                        (1C2A_1C2B)

(37)   *CHA: how do you say cometa@s:spa in English?
         *CHB: &eh no there isn't.
                                                        (1A9A_1A9B)

Auto-resolved LREs were one of the two possible subtypes of correctly resolved LREs that this study contemplated. Although some authors have accounted for this phenomenon (Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008; Basterrechea & Leeser, 2019; Pladevall-Ballester, 2021), the impact of task modality on instances of self-repair seems to have received little attention. However, predictions were that students would not produce large amounts of auto-resolved LREs since this process requires a high degree of metacognitive thinking which not all the participants of this study might have been able to develop due to their age (Duchesne et al., 2013). The results of the present study show that out of the

total amount of correctly resolved LREs (60,92%), only 4,04% of them were auto-resolved. As for task modality, it is remarkable to note that, although in a small percentage, instances of self-repair were only found among the correctly resolved LREs produced in the oral part (9,64% out of 57,64%). Consequently, this study provides evidence for the fact that auto-resolved LREs are not frequent among written tasks. The episode below exemplifies auto-resolved LREs.

(38)   *CHA: in your beach there are one boy sleeping?
        *CHB: yes, there are, there is.
                                                              (1C7A_1C7B)

Finally, pronunciation errors were the second subtype of correctly resolved LREs within this study. Although the relationship between task modality and pronunciation errors appears not to have been widely studied, the fact that students were high-proficient might lead them not to produce large amounts of pronunciation errors. The results of this study confirm that prediction since this phenomenon was hardly present among the students' interactions in the oral and written parts altogether (1,51%). Regarding task modality, a slightly higher percentage was observed in the written part than in the oral one (2,63% and 1,20%, respectively), although this might have been influenced by the fact that the percentage of correctly resolved LREs was higher in the written part compared to the oral one (64,96% and 57,64%, respectively). Example (39) illustrates this type of LRE.

(39)   *CHA: &eh &eh have a children with a kyte [pho: kit].
        *CHA: kyte [pho: kit] or kyte [pho: keit].
        *CHA: kyte [pho: keit], I think it's kyte [pho: keit] but xxx.
                                                              (1D4A_1D4B)

As has been discussed throughout this section, the results of the present study point to an impact of task modality on the incidence, nature and outcome of LREs. This study has revealed that task modality provides students with different language learning

opportunities. Furthermore, it has shown that, as Niu (2009) observed, collaborative written tasks might be the most beneficial strategy to foster language learning opportunities given that the fact of jointly producing a text provides students with the opportunity of employing both the written and oral discourse and hence they are able to focus on form and meaning. In the following section, some concluding remarks will be made in order to close this dissertation.

6. Conclusion

The present study aimed at exploring the impact of task modality on a peer-interaction collaborative task performed by 22 matching-proficiency dyads of 1st of-ESO students in an EFL context. More specifically, the objectives of this study were to examine the potential effect of task modality on the incidence, nature and outcome of LREs by means of analysing the students' pair talk while performing a spot-the-differences task consisting of both an oral and a written part. García Mayo and Azkarai's (2016) study has been the main reference so as to establish the aims of this dissertation. Additionally, a classification of LREs based on previous classifications on the literature was especially created in order to fulfil the objectives of the present study.

In line with previous research, the results obtained in this study revealed that task modality played a significant role in the incidence, nature and outcome of LREs. As presented and discussed in sections 4 and 5, the vast majority of the LREs found in the oral part of the task were lexical, whereas grammatical LREs predominated in the written part. Moreover, target-like LREs prevailed over non-target-like ones and more than half of the total number of LREs were correctly resolved. Finally, an observation that follows from the results of the present study is that, as Niu (2009) highlighted, collaborative written tasks in which learners need to orally communicate in order to produce a written

text might be the most beneficial strategy to foster language learning opportunities since students are able to focus on form and meaning.

This study was subject to a number of limitations. First of all, it should be noted that the sample upon which this study has been based is small-scale. Furthermore, as stated in section 2, the incidence, nature and outcome of LREs might be moderated by a series of factors such as personality traits, age, pair dynamics, modality of interaction and type of instruction. Nevertheless, the intrinsic constraints of this study regarding its dimensions and the time available to conduct it have only made it possible to focus on the potential effects of task modality and proficiency level.

In further research, a larger sample would be needed in order to obtain more considerable amounts of data, which might alter the results of the present study. In addition, the aforementioned factors could be considered. For instance, the interpersonal relationship between students might be studied so as to discover whether this variable has an effect on the incidence, nature and outcome of LREs in relation to task modality.

The present dissertation has aimed at contributing to the field of peer interaction and, more specifically, at shedding light on the impact that task modality has been shown to have on language learning opportunities. As this study has proven, written and oral tasks trigger different types of LREs. Therefore, this dissertation has methodological implications for EFL teachers, who might be able to make a conscious decision as to which type of task to employ in their classrooms depending on the learning objectives they may have.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Spot-the-differences task[3]

Version A

Version B

Appendix B: Task instructions

DATA COLLECTION – TASKS BANÚS

Oral task: Spot the differences (Information-gap activity, open outcome)

Tell students to find as many differences as they can between the two pictures. Tell them to ask questions to each other, to describe the pictures and to pretend the researchers are not there. If they do not know a word or a structure they can ask their partners or they can insert a word/structure in their L1.

6-7 minutes pictures covered

3-4 minutes pictures uncovered

Remind students they should not use gestures but speak as much as they can.

Written task: Describe differences and similarities (Pair activity, collaborative, open outcome)

Students will have **10 minutes** to write about the differences and similarities they have found. Remind them that they should speak out loud and agree on what to write and how to write it. Again, if they do not know a word or a structure they can ask their partners or they can insert a word/structure in their L1.

Appendix C: CHAT conventions

CHAT transcription

Headers

Headers contain relevant information concerning participants, languages and date of the recording, among others. The ones used in this project are:
@Languages:
@Participants:
@ID:
@ID:
@ID:
@ID:
@Media: .WMA audio
@Date:

Main tier lines (transcription itself) begin with asterisk (*). After that, there is a three-letter speaker ID, a colon and a tab:
*RES: you can start.   (Researcher)
*CHA: there is a boy in my picture. (Child with picture A)
*CHB: what?   (Child with picture B)

At the very beginning of transcription the header @Begin is introduced.
To indicate end of transcription @End is introduced.

Basic conventions
One utterance per tier line:
*CHB: yes.
*CHB: is there a big boat in your picture?
Unimportant speech (usually Researchers' instructions): www
Unintelligible speech: xxx
End of utterance: full stop (.), exclamation (!) or interrogation (?) mark
Capital letters: only for proper nouns or pronoun 'I'
Any comment/extra info between square brackets: [points at picture A]
Interjections: ah, eh, oh (no special marking needed, they are treated as words)
Filled pauses: &eh, &ah, &um, &er ('&' to indicate non-word status)
Pauses: (.) (..) (…) depending on duration
Repetition: [/] and the repeated word
Interruption: +/.
Trailing off: +…
Letters: @l attached to the letter
Paralinguistic material: in between [ ] or in an independent %act (action) tier line
Replacement real/non-real words: in between [ ]
Non-English word: @s:spa or @s:cat attached to the word depending on language
Non-English group of words: < >@s:spa or @s:cat with the string of words in between the < >
Best guess: [?]
Self-completion: +, and the words uttered
Overlap: < > [>] for the first overlapped tier line transcribed and < > [<] for the second one

Appendix D: Transcription sample

@Begin
@Languages: eng, spa
@Participants: CHA Victor Speaker_A, CHB Lina Speaker_B, RES Elisabet Researcher
@ID: eng, spa | Victor Gesiarz | CHA | 1r ESO A | 12 | 1A2A | Speaker_A
@ID: eng, spa | Lina Arras | CHB | 1r ESO A | 12 | 1A2B | Speaker_B
@ID: eng, spa | Elisabet Pladevall | RES | Researcher
@ID: eng, spa | Maria Grifoll | Researcher_2
@Media: .WMA audio
@Date: 18-JAN-2016
*RES: say your name a
*RES: say your name again.
*CHA: www.
*RES: and surname?
*CHA: www.
*CHB: www [says name and surname].
*RES: okay, you can start.
*CHB: &eh you are in a beach?
*CHA: yes.
*CHB: okay &em.
*CHA: &em
*CHB: it's a person in the fishing?
*CHA: &eh (..) no.
*CHB: no?
*CHA: fishing no.
*CHA: &em &eh +...
*CHB: there's a person swimming in the [/] <in the beach> [>]?
*CHA: <yes> [<], yes.
*CHB: okay.
*CHA: &eh +/...
*CHB: there's a person in the water [?] ?
*CHB: there's a xxx &eh there's a there's a boat in the water?
*CHA: yes.
*CHB: okay.
*CHA: &eh (.) &ah are, is a boy playing with a +/.
*CHB: another boy?
*CHA: +, volley?
*CHB: yes.
*CHB: &mm (..) <there> [>] +/.
*CHA: <is a boy> [>] +/.
*CHB: there is a person talking with the telephone?
*CHA: &eh no.
*CHB: no?
*CHB: vale@s:spa.
*CHB: it's a person swimming?
*CHA: yes!

*CHB: ah.
*CHA: it's a person &eh eating a ice-cream?
*CHB: a (..) no.
*CHA: ok [pho: ok].
*CHA: it's a person sleeping?
*CHB: yes, with a (.) el(?) okay (.) yes.
*CHB: there's a person in xxx +...
*CHB: there's a (..) &em &uf +...
*CHA: there's a plane with [/] with +...39
*CHB: qué, qué dices xxx.
*CHA: &eh (..) cartel@s:spa?
*CHB: ah! it's a &mm +...
*CHA: plane [/] plane with +...
*CHB: it's a (.) uf!

LEXICAL, UNRESOLVED, TARGET-LIKE LRE

*CHB: xxx.
*CHA: &mm (...) in this write eat food.
*CHB: mhm mhm [negation] it's drink water [/] water.
*CHB: there are (.) buah +...
*CHA: there are a f [/] a red flag?
*CHB: &eh <es que no sé bien lo que es, me parece que es algo pero no>@s:spa.
*RES: www.
*CHB: it's a [laughs] +...
*CHB: there's a [/] there's a +...
*CHA: there's a two birds (.) in the sky?
*CHB: yes, &eh there's &eh [/] there's a &mm kebabs in the +...
*CHA: in the beach.
*CHB: +, in the house?
*CHA: no, no.
*CHB: ah.
*CHA: it's a fish and chips.
*CHB: there's a person &em with coco?
*CHA: no.
*CHB: there's a girl with a (..) xxx [flotador?] +...
*CHB: there's a girl &em (...) <como se decía>@s:spa?
*RES: www.
*CHB: &eh how do you say beber@s:spa in English?
*CHA: &eh drink.

LEXICAL, CORRECTLY RESOLVED, TARGET-LIKE LRE

*CHB: <ah, ya está>@s:spa.
*CHB: there's a girl drinking water?
*CHA: &eh no.
*CHB: &mm another.
*CHB: how do you say basura@s:spa in English?
*CHA: I don't know.

LEXICAL, UNRESOLVED, TARGET-LIKE LRE

*CHA: it's a boat [pho: boat] far, far away?
*CHB: far, far away?
*CHB: &eh what is this?
*CHA: far, far away is <muy, muy lejano>.

LEXICAL, CORRECTLY RESOLVED, NON-TARGET-LIKE LRE

*CHB: ah, (..) I (.) no.
*CHA: a big boat.
*CHB: big?
*CHB: big, big, big?
*CHA: yes, big, big, big.
*CHB: &mm yes.
*CHA: okay.
*CHB: I [/] I only see two [/] two [/] two [/] two boats.
*CHA: okay.
<u>*CHA: how do you say revista@s:spa in English?</u>
<u>*CHB: &mm (..) I don't know.</u>

LEXICAL, UNRESOLVED, TARGET-LIKE LRE

*CHA: [whispering] <es que>@s:spa +...
*RES: no more differences?
*RES: no?
*RES: www [second part of the task begins. uncovered pictures].
*CHA: <here xxx> [>].40
*CHB: <el cielo es gris>@s:spa [<].
*RES: okay, one at a turn.
*CHA: in [/] in English, no?
*RES: in English, of course.
*CHA: Lina, here write xxx and here no.
*CHB: yes.
*CHB: yes.
*CHB: aquí@s:spa there's &em +...
*CHA: yes, I understand.
*RES: www.
*CHB: &em <hay un, este, lo que te estaba diciendo, una chica hablando por teléfono y el helado>@s:spa.
*CHA: yes and here eat.
*CHB: sí@s:spa.
*RES: www.
*CHA: &ah!
*CHB: &ah, vale, vale, vale!
*CHB: &em the girl with the [/] the [/] the this one!
*CHA: ah, here &ah +...
*CHB: &ah.
*CHA: and here +/.
*CHB: look, mira@s:spa fishing, no fish, bueno@s:spa fishing, no fishing

[pointing at one picture first and then the other].
*RES: www.
*CHA: okay.
*CHB: okay.
*RES: www.
*CHB: okay, this sky is not blue.
*CHA: oh!
*RES: well done!
*CHB: here say eat food, here drink water.
*CHA: here &eh write train crash and here plane crash.
*CHB: mira@s:spa here fish and chips and <here> [>] kebabs.
*CHA: <kebabs> [<].
*CHB: here is +/.
*RES: www.
*CHA: +, here is a big boat and here no.
*CHB: i@s:spa here <la bandera>@s:spa +/.
*CHA: flag.

LEXICAL, CORRECTLY RESOLVED, TARGET-LIKE LRE

*CHB: +, the flat <o como se diga>@s:spa
*CHA: red flag.

LEXICAL, CORRECTLY RESOLVED, TARGET-LIKE LRE

*CHB: the red flat here is &mm green.
*CHB: mira@s:spa, here there isn't flat and here yes, it is.
*CHB: here there's a person &mm &ah (.) <aguantándose ahí al barco y haciendo eso y>@s:spa here no.
*CHA: &em +/.
*CHB: here there's a, how do you say a +...
*CHA: &eh.
*CHB: tiburón@s:spa.
*CHA: I don't know.

LEXICAL, UNRESOLVED, TARGET-LIKE LRE

*CHA: tiburón@s:spa here no, here is a person buceando@s:spa.
*CHB: look, person, here it's a person with a <fish> [>] and here is a person with the coco@s:spa.
*CHA: <fish> [<].
*CHB: here there are two birds and here there are three.41
*CHA: here is a sun and here no.
*CHB: here there's a person drinking water, here no.
*CHB: here there are people, here no.
*CHB: y@s:spa here <there's> [>] the [/] the [/] the [/] the [/] the +/.
*CHA: <here> [<] the boy [/] boy.
*CHB: yes, yes.
*CHB: it's on <dentro de eso y>@s:spa here <está fuera>@s:spa.
*CHA: &laughs.

*CHB: <www, cállate hombre>@s:spa.
*RES: okay, listen.
*CHA: xxx.
*RES: oh, okay, one more, yes.
*CHA: &em here are is [points repeatedly at the picture] +...
*CHB: there is a pl [/] a pala@s:spa (.) and here no.
*CHA: there is a pala@s:spa and here no.
*RES: www [written task begins].
*CHB: vale
*RES: www.
*CHA: okay.
*CHB: vale@s:spa.
*CHB: &mm in the [/] in the pic, pones@s:spa in the picture a@l +...
*CHA: okay.
*CHB: +, &eh the sky is +...
*CHA: blue.
*CHB: no, no <in the picture b@l> [>] the sky is <blue> [>], in b@l is xxx +/.
*CHA: <is [/] is> [<] <blue> [<] and the, in the pic xxx +/.
*CHB: how do you say gris@s:spa?
*CHA: &eh grey.

LEXICAL, CORRECTLY RESOLVED, TARGET-LIKE LRE

*CHB: grey, <es verdad>@s:spa, &jo, grey.
*CHA: in the [writes on the paper] +...
*CHB: <no, es b@l, ya te lo he dicho>@s:spa.
*CHB: <bueno, pues pon>@s:spa grey.
*CHB: is blue.
*CHA: blue.
*CHB: <pon bien ese>@s:spa is <que esa s@l se ha quedao cortita>@s:spa.
*CHA: in English!
*CHB: xxx.
*CHA: in (..) in the picture a@l +/.
*CHB: in the picture a@l +/.
*CHA: in the picture a@l y@s:spa +/.
*CHB: xxx the flo, &eh +/.
*CHA: is.
*CHB: how do you, <como se dice>@s:spa, how do you +/.
*CHA: flag.

LEXICAL, CORRECTLY RESOLVED, TARGET-LIKE LRE

*CHA: <vale, pon>@s:spa in the picture a@l the flat is red and in the b@l is green.
*CHA: &eh.
*CHB: okay?
*CHB: okay.
*CHA: how do you say garaje@s:spa?
*CHA: is for +/.
*CHB: I don't know.

LEXICAL, UNRESOLVED, TARGET-LIKE LRE

*CHA: +, for say &eh where is the flag because here is, are two flags.
*CHB: two flats.
*CHA: two flags.
*CHB: no, but I say it's red the &eh here there isn't any <flag red> [>].
*CHA: <yes but> [<] xxx.
*CHB: vale@s:spa, okay, &em xxx.
*CHA: in the right [pho: ri:xt] part.
*CHB: right [pho: ri:xt] <no, es>@s:spa right.
*CHA: right, right.
*CHB: right.
*CHA: right or right.
*CHB: <vale, ahora pones, (es)pérate, (es)pérate>@s:spa.
*CHA: &=whispers.
*CHB: <buah, se ve la diferencia xxx>@s:spa.
*CHA: in English, in English.
*CHB: because for the see everybody the difference +/.
*CHB: +, <qué, te parece bien así>@s:spa?
%act: CHA writes
*CHB: <qué escribes>@s:spa?
*CHB: comment, please.
*CHB: <qué es lo que está escribiendo>@s:spa?
*CHB: how do you are &eh writing?
*CHA: <how do you> [>].
*CHB: <how do you> [<] writing?
*CHB: how, how are you writing?
*CHA: in the picture b@l here is a sun but here no.
*CHB: in the sky.
*CHA: in the sky.
*CHB: [dictating] sky, there is (.) is +...
*CHA: there's.
*CHB: a sun (.) in the sky, <tienes que poner>@s:spa in the sky.
*CHB: xxx.
*CHB: <tio, porqué no tachas todo y lo sigues escribiendo aquí>@s:spa?
*CHA: <madre mía>@s:spa.
*CHB: <eso es una t@l>@s:spa?
*CHA: sí@s:spa.
*CHB: this is a [/] a [/] a t@l <o como se diga>@s:spa?
*CHA: [writing] sky, but in the +/.
*CHB: the.
*CHA: the picture a@l no.
*CHA: the [/] in the picture a@l there [/] there isn't any [/] anything.
*CHB: [^crosses what he's written] there isn't a sun.
*CHA: punto@s:spa.
*CHA: I don't complicate the le [/] the life.
*CHB: I don't compicate the life?
*CHB: &eh what the fuck?
*CHA: okay, &eh +...
*CHB: &mm in the, (es)pérate@s:spa +/.

*CHA: ah, in this +/.
*CHB: one moment, one moment!
*CHA: in +/.
*CHB: in the picture a@l, &eh no, in the picture b@l there's a person talking with the telephone and in the b@l [/] in the a@l no.
*CHB: can I write it?
*CHA: &eh write in the picture a@l +/.
*CHB: yes, yes.
*CHA: +, are +...
*CHA: a@l, no b@l.
*CHA: in the picture a@l are a, there is a people +/.
*CHB: no, no, no, in the picture b@l there's +/.
*CHA: in the picture b@l +/.
*CHB: there's a people +/.
*CHA: there's +/.
*CHB: \<es cuando quieres decir gente\>@s:spa.
*CHA: \<ya lo sé\>@s:spa.
*CHB: there's a boy.

GRAMMATICAL, CORRECTLY RESOLVED, EXPLICIT, TARGET-LIKE LRE

*CHA: &shht!
*CHB: \<que sí xxx\>@s:spa.
*CHA: there's a boy talking with the telephone and [/] and the picture a@l is a boy eating \<ice-cream\> [>].
*CHB: \<ice-cream\> [<].
*CHA: with, [^whispers] talking with a telephone.
*RES: one more, one more difference, one more sentence and you're finished.
*CHB: okay.
*CHA: okay, \<but in the picture\> [>] a@l.
*CHB: \<we write for\> [<].
*CHB: a@l.
*CHA: there is (.) in the same.
*CHB: there is or there's?

GRAMMATICAL, UNRESOLVED, TARGET-LIKE LRE

*CHA: write in the same part, in the same part are.
*CHB: [^writing] there's a boy (...) eating ice-cream.
*CHB: \<y ya está, no\>@s:spa?
*CHA: \<a@l, a@l, falta una a@l\>@s:spa.
*CHB: boy eating a ice-cream.
*CHB: \<no se dice así, en todo caso sería\>@s:spa an.
*CHA: a ice-cream.
*CHB: \<no, porque son dos vocales\>@s:spa.
*CHA: a is one and &eh +/.
*CHB: an, an.
*CHA: &ah!
*CHB: xxx why?
*CHB: there's a vocabul [vowel].

*CHA: eating ice-cream is more +/.
*CHB: eating a ice-cream, no!
*CHA: +, more of one ice-cream.
*CHB: an ice-cream es@s:spa.
*CHA: a!
*CHB: <eh, pero>@s:spa what?
*CHB: an, es@s:spa an, because there's a vocal@s:spa.
*CHA: an.

GRAMMATICAL, CORRECTLY RESOLVED, EXPLICIT, TARGET-LIKE LRE

*RES: okay, well done.
@End