CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the collected and analyzed results as described in Chapter 3, in order to answer the research questions concerning the IDF and overall amounts of talk elicited by an information- gap task.

To address the first research question: "what is the number and distribution of interactional discourse functions generated in the task?" The data was coded and counted. The data revealed differences among the IDF produced by student-pairs. Therefore, this chapter will begin with the information exchange and how the IDF perform in the task, followed by the present results of the IDF and discussion of the results then continued with the results of the overall amount of talks as well as explanations for those results based on data retrospections. The results of the IDF were collected and presented in Table 2 to 5 below.

Research on discourse analysis provides evidence that everyday conversation involves attention to more than just information. Other aspects of discourse such as the interpersonal, the context of the conversations and the discourse come into place during interaction. Therefore, a qualitative analysis which takes numbers of discourse produced by the student-pairs into consideration may show differences in the quality of interaction generated. Before we move on to see the results and the discussions of the IDF, there are some important points that need to be addressed.

4.1 Information Exchange

In order to better understand differences in the discourse elicited by the task, the frequencies of the IDF produced by the task were measured (quantitative analysis). A qualitative analysis of the data shows how those functions were produced in L2 exchanges.

An analysis of the data shows that the IDF contribute, not only to language learning, but also, to creating interpersonal involvement. In terms of interpersonal aspects, the results demonstrate the role of collaborative dialog or what can be described as 'the co-construction of classroom life'. When the students realized that they were being monitored they acted as if they were in a real classroom. Role taking was happening at all times during the lesson. The students then continuously communicating, sometimes when they shifted from the lesson, they can eventually tuned back to their previous conversation and the learning was interesting and enjoyable. They continued to communicate even when they had finished the lesson.

The student-pairs were cooperating to co-construct meaning as they go along in the conversation. This important element in interaction needs mentioning, because the dialogs were real and differ from language in the textbooks. By creating support for what each conversation partner is saying, demonstrating demonstrates that the other partner is listening and is interested. These are language learning strategies found in L1 conversation (Duranti and Goodwin, 1992). In fact, many of the L2 discourses produced by the student-pairs make use of repetitive strategies discussed in Tannen (1989) for L1 conversation, which were: (1) requesting clarification, (2) setting paradigms, (3) highlighting similarities and differences, (4) expressing

humor, (5) stalling or gearing up to speak, (6) ratifying another's contribution, (7) repeating another's contribution, (8) persuading, (9) providing redundancy, (10) showing listenership, (11) linking, and (12) bounding episodes. These functions of repetition are useful not only to NSs but also to NNSs.

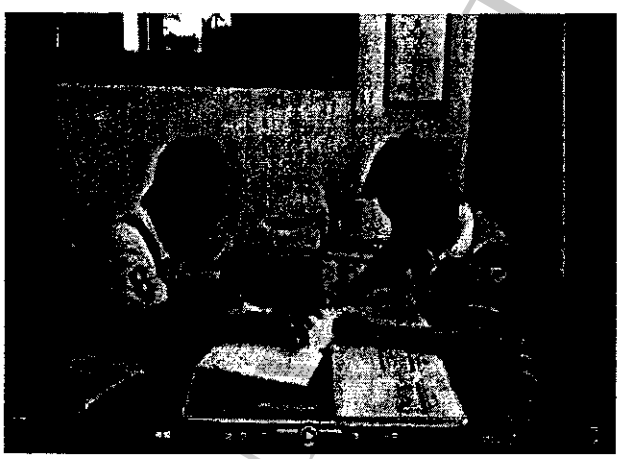

Figure 3: Student-pair 3 performing the information gap task.

Further more, the study shows that there are functions of repetition which can Run on and on be characterized as 'repair' functions defined here as processes which allow beginner NNSs to maximize the utility of their limited vocabulary and restricted command of syntax when engaged in dyadic exchanges. These repair functions allow them to slow down the pace of interjection of new information into the conversation, allowing them to catch up with their partners and are especially useful to learners in negotiating for new information.

Other functions of repetition served other communicative purposes such as accomplishing social goals and can be described as 'non-repair' functions. Research on discourse analysis in the LI provides substantial evidence that everyday conversation involves attention to more than just the informational plane. Several other levels of discourse, such as the interpersonal plane (e.g., Gumperz, 1982; Duranti and Goodwin, 1992; Goodwin and Goodwin, 1992), the textual plane (e.g., Brown and Yule. 1983a; Tyler, 1992; Tyler and Johnson, 1998), and the discourse plane (e.g., Ellis and Roberts, 1987; Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1990), come into play during interaction.

Apart from how those IDF performed in the task, forms of repetition in L2 dyadic exchanges can be identified according to several criteria. First, one may distinguish between self-repetition (e.g., self-repetitions, paraphrases) and other-repetition (e.g., echoes, confirmation-checks). Second, instances of repetition may be placed along a scale, ranging from exact repetition (i.e., the same words uttered in the same way) to paraphrase (i.e., similar ideas in different words). Midway on the scale, and most common, is repetition with variation, such as repetition with a single word or phrase changed, statements transformed into questions, repetition with change of person, and so forth.

4.2 Interactional Discourse Functions

Table 2: Distribution of IDF Produced by Student-pairs.

Interactional functions	Student-pair										Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Confirmation checks	22	19	21	22	20	18	19	21	18	20	200
Backchannel cues	21	17	19	17	13	13	14	13	9	7	143
Echoes	10	9	13	7	9	8	6	6	6	7	81
Clarification requests	5	6	9	8	7	5	4	4	5	4	59
Comprehension checks	8	7	5	6	8	7	6	4	3	4	58
Paraphrases	3	2	3	4	2	1	2	1	3	1	22
Lexical-uncertainties	1	1	2	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	8
Self repetitions	2	1	1	0	0	2	1	0	1	0	8
Sentences completions	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	4
Referential questions	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2

The results regarding task-based learning, and the most illuminating regarding task related theoretical constructs, are presented in the discussion of the results. Table 2 above suggests that an information-gap task provides: high-interactional functions which were discussed below why they were called 'high-interactional functions'.

What does this high frequency of repair-type repetition IDF imply regarding discourse produced by the high interactional functions task type? The discourses on this task were unlike the discourses engaged in by NSs. These discourses were not complicated for the participants to produce which allows NNSs to compensate for their limited vocabulary and restricted command of syntax. Since little of the content in an information-gap task called for negotiation, repetition within the task mainly served as the function of showing participation in the conversation.

There were also reasons why those functions were divided into two and why they were called (1) high-interactional functions, (2) and 'high words-per-turn'. The language produced by the student-pairs showed nearly the same patterns and produced many interactional functions, compared to a normal conversation. However, it does not mean that all language produced was in the perfect grammatical structure like native speaker discourse. The language produced was enough for the pair to understand each other, and when communication was taking place they could accomplish their aims, which were asking and giving the directions to the tourist attractions.

In addition, it was a surprise to see the outcome that the student actually produced the same language patterns. As for why they used the confirmation-checks or other functions more frequently were dependent on individual learning style as well as the learning experience. Some students retrieved their previous language input that they had learnt before and brought those experiences to real world usage. This helped the learners to have more confidence in using and producing language since they had background knowledge about the content they were using.

Moreover, after the counting of the frequencies, there was another surprise when there are a large number of words found from the transcriptions 1 to 10. There were lots of IDF produced by the student-pairs, which was not expected. This may be because of the student's experience in learning a language through an information-gap task; their teachers normally taught them by using all types of task in every lesson. Even though some of the language produced by the students were not in a perfect structure, there was enough to communicate to their partner and they maximized the utility of their limited vocabulary and restricted syntax when engaged in the exchanges.

To look closely, an information-gap task in this study and the theoretical construct of task-types is especially effective in eliciting differing types of language production, which would be beneficial for the student in terms of communicating. An information-gap task helped students in producing high interactional functions which provided different linguistic structures for the student to learn. This suggests a possible way to resolve the supporting of the task-typology of Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993), which was discussed in Chapter II above.

4.2.1 Analysis of Interactional Discourse Functions

When analyzing the data, it was observed that all ten of the IDF in the study involved the use of repetition. Besides the obvious confirmation-checks, other categories which involved the direct use of repetition included clarification-requests, echoes, backchannel clues and paraphrases. Other IDF which occurred can be

classified under the general label of repetition. In other words, the information-gap task produced a numbers of direct repetitions (in the form of confirmation-checks, backchannel clues, echoes, clarification-requests and paraphrases) when compared to the other IDF of indirect repetitions. The focus of the next section is on IDF which involved the direct use of the repetition and the example of all interactional functions produced by student-pairs in an information-gap task. The IDF are defined in Chapter III and exemplified in Excerpts 1 to 10 below.

One of the most common functions of repetition is "confirmation- check'. This function is amplified in the following excerpt, where speaker A3 responds to speaker B's request for confirmation-checks with a repetition. Pica et al (1989) explained that the larger proportion of confirmation-checks in information-gap tasks assumed that "the degree of precision required for replication of the limited amount of guessing the NS could do, and the NS was restrained from knowing enough about the directions to guess the unclear utterance. In this study, the way in which student-pairs tried to obtain enough information to reach the directions to destinations of tourist attractions was to confirm their understanding by repeating a word or phrase with rising intonation, as a comprehension check, instead of asking for clarification which often takes longer to produce. Example of these types of confirmation-checks is shown below in Excerpt 1, and for more examples of other IDF by student-pairs, see Appendix 4.

Excerpt 1

Illustration of Confirmation checks Produced by Student-pairs.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
20	B3: And… go to the West Street	
21	A3: West Street?	
22	B3: Yeah, West Street Until you see the... Museum Street.	

(From Video Transcription Pair 3, Appendix 4)

Many of the functions of backchannel-cues observed in the transcript of the study can be useful in negotiation and it also functions to accomplish social goals. To make this clearer, the functions 'Yeah', 'Yes', Uh huh' and more, reveal the speaker's intention to build rapport by taking their interlocutor's thought into consideration. This means that backchannel-cues not only serve to let your partner know you are listening, they also serve to ratify an interlocutors' contribution. The backchannel-cues "yeah", "Yes", "Ur huh" and others can be seen in Appendix 4.

Excerpt 2

Illustration of Backchannel Cue Produced by Student-pairs.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
32	A1: On the North Street. Do you see…?	
33	B1:	Mmm OK
76	A1: Castle, Do you see? On the park road	
77	B1: OK.. I see… Ur-huh	

(From Video Transcription Pair 1, Appendix 4)

There were numerous echoes produced by the student-pairs. The occurrences of echoes produced by the student-pairs were mainly to check for unclear words. Sometimes there is a doubt whether it is an echo or paraphrase produced. But after discussion with the two teachers we came to the same conclusion.

Excerpt 3

Illustration of Echoes Produced by Student-pairs.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
100	B3:	Art Gallery is on huh.. London Road.
101	A3:	London Road, OK.

(From Video Transcription Pair 3, Appendix 4)

Typically, clarification-requests occur when one interactant does not entirely comprehend the meaning and asks for clarification, which in turn, often leads to repetition, as in the following excerpt. Speaker B's clarification-request behavior in turn 43 interpreted misunderstood speaker A, turn 42 "right your hand". This repair function of repetition helps B in comprehend the meaning.

Excerpt 4

Illustration of Clarification requests Produced by Student-pairs.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
42	B1:	Art Gallery right your hand.
43	A1:	What?
44	B1:	Art Gallery is on your right hand.
45	A1:	Yep, from the Shopping Center.

(From Video Transcription Pair 1, Appendix 4)

With regards to the feature of paraphrasing, it was found that there were a lot of requests for meaning and in most cases, the students was able to satisfy his or her lack of lexical items with the use of a paraphrase. However, in Excerpt 5, the student did not have a lack of knowledge of the lexical items, but was checking for the right information.

Excerpt 5

Illustration of Paraphrases Produced by Student-pairs.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
44	B4:	Art Gallery
45	A4:	Yep, from the Shopping Center
46	B4:	Go down, walk down to the West Street
47	A4:	Go down, walk down, Ur.. hah

(From Video Transcription Pair 4, Appendix 4)

The student partners often checked their interlocutor, to see if they comprehended what was being said. The student-pairs were cooperating in class in order to help others in understanding the directions. Therefore, there are a number of comprehension checks in the transcriptions of all student-pairs.

Excerpt 6

Illustration of Comprehension checks Produced by Student-pairs.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
4	B2:	OK, I can I can tell you. From here from here, you can walk down on the High Street, left your hand go to Church Street.
5	A2:	Ur-huh
6	B2:	Ur..huh, Do you know?
7	A2:	Yeah..

(From Video Transcription Pair 2, Appendix 4)

Another instance of difficulty caused by the students' lack of the lexical item is seen in excerpt 7 below. Identifying the lexical items "turn live", in turn 58 and "Opposide" in turn 80. Student A repeats and expands on the words. In some cases, lexical-uncertainly can trigger the use of repetition in a humorous way. When Student B realized his mistakes twice he laughed and felt shy. His perception showed that he should not make the mistakes twice in the same conversation.

Excerpt 7

Illustration of Lexical-uncertainties Produced by Student-pairs.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
58	B3:	And you turn live
59	A3:	Ar-ha turn left
60	B3:	Turn left to King Street
Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
78	B3:	First, ur.. Did you remember the Abbey Shop?
79	A3:	Abbey Shop ur-ha
80	B3:	Yes, the Museum opposide
81	A3:	The Museum opposite
82	B3:	Opposite the Abbey Shop

(For more examples of Lexical-uncertainties, see Appendix 4: turns 24 25

(From Video Transcription Pair 3, Appendix 4)

In Excerpt 8, an example of how student A9 reminded herself of the places she should visit so self-repetition is an attempt to resolve the comprehension problems.

Excerpt 8

Illustration of Self repetitions Produced by Student-pairs.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
6	B9:	There are interesting places like uh like Museum and the Castle, yes museum and castle as well.
7	A9:	Museum and Castle, museum and castle there

(From Video Transcription Pair 9, Appendix 4)

Sentence-completion can be interpreted as a signal for active involvement or to indicate that he or she knows and understands. In fact, in the study there were only 4 sentence-completions produced during the task.

Excerpt 9

Illustration of Sentence completions Produced by Student-pairs.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
11	B8:	The underwater species is at the Aquarium on the Marine Drive
12	A8:	Where ...Where
13	B8:	If you look at map from Tourist Office you turn left past East Street, and it on your left hand.
14	A8:	It on my left hand, I see…

(From Video Transcription Pair 8, Appendix 4)

With regard to the feature of referential-question, it was found that there were very few requests for definitions from the study, and in most cases, the speaker was able to satisfy his or her lack of the lexical items with the use of a paraphrase. In the following excerpt, Student A's referential-question, indicating lexical-uncertainty, is an attempt to obtain the lexical item "renovation", which for her then substitutes with

the paraphrase " Renovation, what is renovation? Just build or built more" see Excerpt 10 below.

Excerpt 10

Illustration of Referential questions Produced by Student-pairs.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
7	B7:	There are two places, the zoo and the aquarium. If you want to see the underwater animal I think the aquarium is the best, it just renovation.
8	A7:	Renovation, what is renovation? Just build or built more?
9	B7:	Oh. I meant, it just been repaint, reconstruct and new water and more animals

(From Video Transcription Pair 7, Appendix 4)

Of further concern is that in identifying repetitions in L2 discourse, some cases are clear cut (such as most of those presented here), but in other instances, one must make an arbitrary decision about which function to attribute to a given repetition. At times, what at first appear to be echo, but then it does not have a perfect fit. In the following example, the two participants may have been saying the same thing, yet independently of each other, as evidenced by the overlapping behavior in the transcript below.

Excerpt 11

Illustration of an overlapping behavior produced by student-pair.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
2	B2:	It's..cathedral is on London road..to..Go straight on London Road
3	A2:	Yes, Cathedral, … turn left or right?
4	B2:	OK, I can I can tell you. From here your're turn **right**
5	A2:	**right..** straight on.

(From Video Transcription Pair 2, Appendix 4)

In the next excerpt there is no overlapping behavior, so we have no way of telling the extent to which the 'Uh huh' meant, and the extent to which it is a result of echo. Tannen (1989) refers to this type of repetition as "shadowing', a phenomenon which occurs frequently in the transcripts of L1 conversation she has studied. In her words, shadowing is "repeating what is being heard with a split-second delay". Thus, it may be that speaker B was shadowing speaker A, repeating what he heard with a delay.

Excerpt 12

Illustration of "shadowing" a repeating what is being heard with a delay.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
18	B3:	Yes, along this way
19	A3:	Uh huh
20	B3:	Uh huh

(From Video Transcription Pair 3, Appendix 4)

Furthermore, analysis of the data led to the conclusion that, when asked to clarify or confirm their output, learners more often repeated what they had said, rather than modifying their interlanguage utterance. Although in some cases the learners were indeed capable of modifying their interlanguage in order to make it more target-like.

The observations showed two important results: (1) the frequency of repetition is task variable and (2) differences in the function served by an information

gap-task. However, repetition can be considered as functional in the direct and indirect of Interactional functions. The different functions they perform are task-dependent in terms of the frequency with which they occurred see Table 2 above. Some functions discussed above are very useful for beginning NNSs working their way to more problematic discourse, or repair function in the future. Other functions allow student to utilize their limited vocabulary and restrict syntax when engaged in exchanges, and slow themselves down for new information to catch up with their partners.

There are factors from the study that valuable for researcher in the field second language acquisition. The factors in which the learner used and coped with while they are communicating are as follows. First was linguistic factor, this was to make sure that the language used in this classroom is appropriate for the student level. And as can be seen from the context and the lesson, it can be seen that the language used was appropriate for the student-pairs. The verbal scaffold the student-pair used includes repetition, explanation, and simplifying syntax structures. For example, the student corrected their partner's mistake.

Second, interactional factors (contribution of classroom interaction), in this study showed the discourse patterns of the student-pairs were jointly constructed. In class, the student used few learning strategies but provide enough non-verbal and verbal scaffolds to help each other in comprehend the language and get them involved in the task, which was to take turn asking questions and replies. Through self-initiating, the student (Tourist) came up with a question and their pair (Tourist Officer) has to responded, according to what is being asked.

Third, pedagogical factors: a variety of learning strategies. In the lesson the student-pairs used some learning strategies, for example the role of the Tourist Officer would say ok.., you know.., to get their partner attention, reformulation, elaboration, etc.). It provides opportunities for them to focus and pay more attention to their friends and also motivates them to become more active and participate while their partner is talking. It can also be noticed that some student-pairs were trying to signal by raising his or her voice to recruit their partners' attention at all time. In the institutional factors, it could say that by paired up the student in an information gap task was appropriate. So these give the opportunity for students to negotiate more.

Another important factor is the social factor (relationship building and negotiation). In this study, the student relationship is closer. The students construct the classroom discourse together. Students were able to express anything they wanted to. They also sometimes express their personal interpretation. Another factor is cultural factors that affect the differences of the participant. The students were accustomed to the classroom norm, that they can be corrected by peers, and when they were corrected by their partner, they seemed to be happy and wanted to be told when they made mistakes. In this case the students seemed to share the same cultural value. They understood each other's jokes and conversational flow allow them to get on very well

These observations also have important implications for the quality of language being produced elicited by an information-gap task, which showed a high Interactional functions task. Student-pairs make use of these functions more frequent on the task to extend the usefulness of their limited vocabularies, to fix errors, or to make sure that comprehension had taken place.

The assumption might therefore be made that information-gap task is good to encourage learners to negotiate, but this also depends on the difficulty of the task, therefore, when deciding which task is to be used in class, the teacher should choose the task that matches the student ability and proficiency. If the task is too easy for subjects, there would not be much need for them to negotiate, they would not receive much negative input or have many opportunities to modify their original output. On the other hand, if the task is too difficult, so difficult that learner do not even know the vocabulary which may be used in the task, they may abandon the task or use their first language. Also, in some pairs the interlocutor's proficiency was high and so there might not have been much need for negotiation of meaning.

In general then, the results showed that information-gap task generated speech production and negotiation. However, in cases where the participant who does not hold information does not seek clarification, confirmation or others function, students only understand what his or her interlocutor had explained; an information-gap task may not be of any use to encourage such learner to negotiate the meaning or to modify output in their communication.

4.3 Overall Amount of Talk

Additionally, the present study compared the amount of overall talk generated in an-information-gap task. Overall amount of talk was measured by calculating the number of turns, and number of words, from which the measure of words-per-turn is obtained. To address the second research question (i.e.., How much variation is there

between student pairs in the total amount of interactional functions generated in an Information Gap Task?), the data revealed the amount of the overall amount of talk produced by each student pair.

4.3.1 Turns

The numbers of turns generated in an information-gap task serves as a broad indicator of the amount of overall interaction and number of opportunities each pair had to speak, to respond to one another, and to elicit information from the other (see Table 3 below).

Table 3: Distribution of Turns per Student pair

Pair	Number of Turns
1	129
2	91
3	170
4	129
5	26
6	17
7	15
8	17
9	11
10	16

As can be seen from Table 3 above, the selected transcript of ten student-pairs turns taken. In general, student participation in all sessions was very high, and the student-pairs willing to do the lesson and are actively involved. Especially student pair 3, their turns were counted the most (170), from the video they took turns naturally and enjoyably. On the other hand, student-pairs 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10, interacted very little, but they managed to complete the lesson perfectly. All students who were A as Tourist Officer, were able to cover all places that B (Tourist) asked for the directions.

The number of turns (Table 3) generated in the task, the student-pairs, who serves as main indicators of the amount of overall interactions and the number of opportunities each pairs, had to speak. From Table 3 above we see that the student-pairs number of turns was clearly influenced by student-pairs strategies. This is consistent with previous finding in that a convergent task lends itself to more frequent turn taking, wherein both participants are required to negotiate the information before arriving at an acceptable solution.

It is to note that the relatively high amount of turn taking in the information-gap task can be accounted for by a higher occurrence of turns without much content as exemplified in excerpts 13 and 14 below. Therefore, many of turns taken within the high interactional functions task may also involve the simpler and less complex functions.

Excerpt 13

Illustration of a Higher Occurrence of Turns Produced by Student-pairs.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
163	A3:	OK OK I see
164	B3:	Yeah, the Abbey Shop
165	A3:	Yeah
166	B3:	Ur-ha
167	A3:	OK thank you very much
168	B3:	Yeah
169	A3:	Good bye
170	B3:	Yeah

(From Video Transcription Pair 3, Appendix 4)

Excerpt 14

Illustration of a Higher Occurrence of Turns Produced by Student-pairs (Continued).

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
29	A4:	Oh, opposite of Tourist Office?
30	B4:	Yes
31	A4:	OK
32	B4:	Do you see?
33	A4:	Yes, I see.
34	B4:	OK

(From Video Transcription Pair 4, Appendix 4)

4.3.2 Words

There was a difference in the total number of words generated by the task, which means that the total volumes of words produced by dyads are not comparable. The values of the numbers of words elicited by the task are as below.

Table 4: Distribution of Words Produced per Student pair.

Pair	Number of Words
1	758
2	714
3	1,163
4	760
5	338
6	264
7	275
8	215
9	150
10	196

As see in table 3, the numbers of words produced by student-pairs are vary compared to the normal conversation people normally do. In spontaneous conversation in every day life of NS compared to NNS, NNS need to fix in the language or they follow the language patterns of NS. Also, in the study, the students are aware that this is a language classroom, so they must produce a correct language. These are reasons why the student-pairs produced a lot amount of words. Student pair 3 spoke the most (1,173), followed by pair 4, 1 and 2 produced over 700 words ,

student-pair 5 produced (338), student pair 6,7,and 8 produces over 200 words and student pair 9 and 10 produces less words that others pair at 150 and 196 words.

As we see in Table 4, there was difference in the total numbers of words generated by each pairs. The result indicates the total volumes of words produced by student-pairs are not comparable. With a closer examination of the data, it was found that a large portion of the words in the task happened to be due to the repetitions of lexical items describing the direction to be selected by the student-pairs as can be seen from the example below of student-pair 3 and 4 from Appendix 4.

Excerpt 15

Illustration of the Repetitions of Lexical items Produced by Student-pairs.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
35	A3:	OK, and then I want to go to the zoo. Ar.. for photographing the animal of this local town local animals of this town and where is the zoo?
36	B3:	The zoo, oh very easy, so you, you
37	A3:	Easy? From Abbey Shop
38	B3:	No no. "((Laugh))" It from here, it pretty close here, it close to Tourist Office
39	A3:	No, "((Laugh))" but in the morning I go to Abbey Shop.. you can you you must tell me

(From Video Transcription Pair 3, Appendix 4)

Below the student-pair 4 demonstrated the repetition of the same words, either within the same transcript, or within the same turn, account for high number of total words for the task and for more examples of large portion of words produced by student-pairs 5 to 10 in appendix 4.

Excerpt 16

Illustration of the Repetitions of Lexical items Produced by Student-pairs (Continued).

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
119	A4:	How can I get that?
120	B4:	Very easy, this here, Tourist Office
121	A4:	Tourist Office? yeah
122	B4:	Go, walk up on King Street
123	A4:	King Street
124	B4:	OK, Left your hand
125	A4:	On my left hand?
126	B4:	Yes, OK, Do you know?

(From Video Transcription Pair 4, Appendix 4)

Apart from the large portion of words produced to be due to the repetitions of lexical items, the student pairs 1 to 4 tried to complete the task by asking and giving the directions to the entire tourist attractions listed in the handouts (see Appendix 5). Whereas, student pairs 5 to 10, listed the attractions that are situated in the same road or street and communicated to their partners at the same time. In addition when looking closely at the transcriptions, it can be seen that Student-pairs 1 to 4 used confirmations-check, backchannel-clues, paraphrases, echoes and clarification-request more often than student-pairs 5 to 10. These may be because of the student confidence in giving the directions to their peer; they often checked whether their partner understood the information they are giving. Lastly, the amounts of words produced by the student-pairs 6 to 10 are found to be almost like native speaker discourse. According to *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*, native speakers are said to use a language grammatically, fluently and appropriately. Therefore, native speaker discourse that student-pairs 6-10 produced

meant that the language is to approximately as closely as possible to the standards of those spoken by native speakers.

4.3.3 Words per Turn (WPT)

The present study also compared the amount of WPT generated in the task. In transcribing the data, it was apparent that the length of turns was quite different across Interactional functions.

Table 5: Distribution of WPT per Student pair.

Pair No	Number of Words-per-Turn
1	5.87
2	7.93
3	6.68
4	5.89
5	13.00
6	15.52
7	18.33
8	12.64
9	13.63
10	12.25

The major differences in the overall amount of all generated by the task is the smallest numbers of turns (5.87) produced by student-pair 1, and in contrast, the highest numbers of WPT (18.33) produced by student-pair 7. In other words, the

number of turns taken is about a third when compared to any of the other student-pairs.

The differences were found between student-pair for the frequencies of turns, words, and WPT as shown from Table 3 to 5. The IDF reveal that an information-gap task gave opportunities for turn-taking. These then raised another consideration point for the research in conducting the research on oral production that, not only how much language is generated by a task, but also how much opportunity if there for sustained discourse and elaborate topic development. See more information in the discussion of the overall amount of talks section below.

Furthermore, the present study compared the words-per-turn generated in the task. From Table 5, we see the students' number of words-per-turn was clearly again influenced by the student-pair strategies themselves. In transcribing the data, it was apparent that the length of turns was quite different across each pairs. The researcher also found that the amount of words the student-pairs produced is differing from the number of WPT each student-pair produced. Student-pairs 1 to 5, for example produced more turns and words than student-pairs 6 to 10, however the result of WPT of student-pairs 6 to 10 is relatively higher than the student-pairs 1 to 5. This could mean that students are able to generate much language and it could depend on the students learning strategies.

Many of the turns taken within the task not only involved greater lexical variety and substantially longer utterances, but also involve much simple shorter phrases. The following excerpts, illustrate some of the essential differences in length of turns.

Due to the frequent need for clarification elicited by this task type, turn taking in an information-gap task is therefore frequent. In the task, shorter turns were observed more immediate feedback about the other speaker's preceding utterance. In effect, many of the turns produced by student-pairs contained more simple phrases. See Excerpt 17 below.

Excerpt 17

Illustration of the Shorter Turns which contained Simple Phrases Produced by Student-pairs.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
29	A4:	Oh, opposite of Tourist Office?
30	B4:	Yes
31	A4:	OK
32	B4:	Do you see?
33	A4:	Yes, I see.
34	B4:	OK

(From Video Transcription Pair 4, Appendix 4)

In the information-gap excerpts, turn-taking is also quite frequent, and turn which last more than a few lines are often followed by a request for clarification (e.g., "Huh?"). Indeed, if the discourse has been too long, the listener would have had to take in information at a much faster rate than he or she could possibly have handled. Instead, the discourse is usually broken down so that listener has time to absorb, and act upon, what is being said.

Excerpt 18

Illustration of the Shorter Turns which Followed by a Request for Clarification Produced by Student-pairs

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
23	A4:	I have an appointment with my friends at Shopping Center
24	B4:	Shopping Center?
25	A4:	Huh?
26	B4:	Shopping Center..
27	A4:	Do you know where is the Shopping Center?
28	B4:	Yes, I know…

(From Video Transcription Pair 4, Appendix 4)

In the information-gap excerpts, turn taking is once again quite frequent. For example, in the following excerpt, we have very long phrases which reflect the large numbers of WPT in this study. For more examples of long phrases see student-pair 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 Appendix 4.

Excerpt 19

Illustration of a Long Phrase Produced by Student-pairs.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
15	A5:	Oh I know I know. And tomorrow I need to go to Aquarium
16	B5:	Aquarium is opposite here on is East Street, here do you see?
17	A5:	Oh I see I see. Uh.. How about Castle and Abbey Shop? Can you introduce for me?
18	B5:	Yes, I can I will show you. I would like to tell you the Castle first, it is very beautiful with ancient English style. There are many old thing such as ancient weapon, old picture and more. And next to the Castle is Abbey shop where you can buy some souvenirs to your friends or your family.
19	A5:	Uh-Humm

(From Video Transcription Pair 5, Appendix 4)

A major characteristic of the information-gap task is the amount of extended discourse that generated from the subjects. This tendency is perhaps most characteristically seen in the example given below, wherein the number of WPT is highest at 18.33 (66 words) for speaker A.

Excerpt 20

Illustration of the Highest Number of word-per-turns Produced by Student-pairs.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
3	A7:	Certainly, are you taking the taxi or walking?
4	B7:	Maybe, by walking, I just want to stop where I want.
5	A7:	Ok, then, from the Market street, which is opposite here. You will come to Station road turn left there, when you come to the intersection. You walk straight to Church Street. You will see Art Gallery on your left hand turn left at the Corner walk along queen street till you see corner to the second right turn, and abbey shop is on your left hand.

(From Video Transcription Pair 7, Appendix 4)

Due to the overriding goal of successful task completion, the interlocutors' attention in the information-gap task is primarily on the information exchange. Learners are more pushed to produce a task solution than they are to produce language (Halliday and Hasan, 1989). Consequently, interactions differ from naturally-occurring conversation. Exchange of information in the information-gap task is one-way, i.e., only one participant holds the information and the other must request it, resulting in a one-way flow of the information.

Similarly, highly fixed in form and associated with particular context of the task are expressed as well as the prior input student gained from their previous lesson. They memorized the discourse patterns and produced in the same way.

Excerpt 21

Illustration of Prior Language Patterns student gained from the Personal Experience.

Turn	Speaker	Transcribed Exchanges
3	A1:	Ar, I'm a tourist from Thailand, now am losing my ways, can you help me?
1	A2:	Excuse me sir, I'm a tourist from Japan, and now I'm lost my way, and I want to know how to get the Cathedral? Do you know there?
1	A3:	Good morning sir, Ar… I'm a tourist from Thailand, now am losing my ways, Can you help me?

(From Video Transcription Pair 1, 2 and 3, Appendix 4)

Although there are evidences of the production of confirmation-check, backchannel-cues, echoes, clarification-requests and other IDF which were different from each student-pair. When looked at the transcripts, they revealed that those differences can be linked to certain factors. One reason is that those IDF were more dependent in an individual's style rather than on the task. Differences in the various types of IDF reflect differences in the interlocutors' goals.

The most obvious and significant quantitative differences between student-pairs are the number of total turns taken and the number of WPT. The IDF observed reveal that an information-gap task promoted frequent turn-taking. Yet a practical consideration in conducting research on oral production is not only how much language a task generates, but also how many opportunities for discourse and topic the student can make use of. Before the closing this chapter, it is important to mention that, IDF may occur more frequently within some tasks than others: no IDF is exclusive to any given task.