

Task-modality and L1 use in EFL oral interaction

Agurtzane Azkarai, María del Pilar García Mayo

Abstract

This study examines whether task-modality (speaking vs. speaking+writing) influences first language (L1) use in task-based English as a foreign language (EFL) learner–learner interaction. Research on the topic has shown that different task-modality triggers different learning opportunities with collaborative speaking tasks drawing learners’ attention to meaning and tasks that also incorporate a written component drawing attention more to formal linguistic aspects. Research has also shown that a balanced L1 use might be positive in learner–learner interaction, as it helps learners maintain their interest in the task and acts as a strategy to make difficult tasks more manageable. This article analyses L1 use and the functions it served during the oral interaction of 44 EFL Spanish learners while they completed four collaborative tasks: two speaking tasks (picture placement and picture differences) and two speaking+writing tasks (dictogloss and text editing). Findings point to a clear impact of task-modality on L1 use, as speaking+writing tasks made learners fall back on their L1 more frequently. L1 functions were also task dependent with grammar deliberations more frequent in speaking+writing tasks and vocabulary searches in speaking tasks.

Keywords

EFL, L1 use, task-based interaction, task-modality

1. Introduction

Research on second language (L2) dyadic task-based interaction has shown that task modality triggers different types of learning opportunities (Adams, 2006; Adams & Ross-Feldman, 2008). For example, information-gap tasks (Pica, Kanagy, & Falodun, 1993; Pica, Kang, & Sauro, 2006) have been shown to focus learners’ attention on lexis while tasks such as dictogloss (Wajnryb, 1990), text reconstruction or text editing, which include a writing component, have been claimed to draw learners’ attention more frequently to formal aspects of language (Storch, 2007). Pair work seems to be beneficial for L2 learners (Storch, 2007) but some teachers are reluctant to allow their students to work in pairs or groups, particularly in foreign language settings, because they consider that students may make an excessive use of their first language (L1) in these situations (Brooks & Donato, 1994; Carless, 2008). Although it is highly likely that students resort to their shared L1 when working in different communicative tasks (Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Tognini & Oliver, 2012), a balanced L1 use has been claimed to have positive cognitive and social functions in learner interaction (Alegria de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Antón & DiCamilla, 1998; Brooks & Donato, 1994; DiCamilla & Antón, 2012; Storch & Aldosari, 2010; among others).

To this date, little attention has been paid to the interface between task-modality and L1 use, as most studies examining the impact of L1 use on L2 use have mainly focused on the role of L2 proficiency rather than tasks. In addition, among these studies not many have been carried out in EFL (English as a foreign language) settings, where the hours of exposure to the target language differ considerably from other settings such as English as a second language (ESL) or EFL settings (García Mayo & García Lecumberri, 2003; Munoz, 2006). Therefore, the goal of the present study is to explore L1 use and the functions it may serve during EFL task-based interaction. Specifically, the study investigates the extent to which EFL learners employ their L1 and for which purpose(s) in different communicative tasks and if differences can be found between tasks requiring different types of output (speaking vs. speaking+writing).

This article is structured as follows: the first section introduces the concept ‘collaborative work’, briefly reviews some of the studies that have shown its benefits in L2 interaction and the role of L1 use in learner–learner interaction. The following section features the study itself, the research

questions and the methodology. The findings, commented on in the discussion section, follow. The article concludes with the summary of the main findings and suggestions of lines for further research.

2. L2 interaction and task-modality

Tasks have been widely used in second language acquisition (SLA) research to explore the language learning opportunities available to students (García Mayo, 2007). They facilitate language use with the goal of communicating and provide L2 learners with a variety of opportunities to give and receive feedback (García Mayo, 2007; Mackey, 2007; Samuda & Bygate, 2008).

From an interactionist perspective (Long, 1996) when L2 learners carry out tasks they are provided with opportunities to (1) receive input and feedback, (2) produce oral and written output, and (3) notice the gap between their language and the target language (Schmidt & Frota, 1986). From a sociocultural perspective interaction is seen as an opportunity for learners to collaborate in upcoming linguistic problems and co-construct meaning (Ganem Gutierrez, 2013; Swain, 2000). Collaborative tasks encourage learners to work together and, in that way, they create knowledge by means of collaborative dialogue defined by Swain (2000, p. 102) as ‘dialogue in which speakers are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building’. The benefits of collaborative work have been widely shown through studies carried out in L2 settings, especially when L2 learners carry out collaborative writing tasks (DiCamilla & Antón, 1997; Donato, 1988; Fernández Dobao, 2012; García Mayo, 2002a, 2002b; Long, 1996; Storch, 2002; Swain & Lapkin, 1998).

Information-gap tasks (Pica et al., 1993, 2006) have been claimed to draw learners’ attention more to meaning and collaborative writing tasks, such as dictogloss (Wajnryb, 1990) or text editing, provide learners with more opportunities to focus on form (García Mayo, 2002a, 2002b). During information-gap tasks learners engage in oral communication and give and receive information about the task they carry out. When working in collaborative writing tasks, participants not only have to pool their ideas together but also submit a final product. They engage not only in oral communication, but also pay attention to the form of the language they are using.

For example, Adams (2006) examined the impact of task-modality when ESL learners from different L1 backgrounds worked on different information-gap tasks that required oral or written output. Her findings suggested that the tasks requiring written output drew learners’ attention more to formal aspects of language. Ross-Feldman (2007) analysed the Language Related Episodes (LREs) that ESL learners produced when they carried out three information-gap tasks: a picture placement, a picture differences and a picture story task. LREs include ‘all interaction in which learners draw attention to form, that is, those that focus on form in the context of meaningful communication as well as those that are set apart from such communication and simply revolve around questions of form itself’ (Williams, 1999, p. 595). Ross-Feldman suggested that these ESL learners produced more LREs in the picture story task and, in line with Williams (1999), that tasks that incorporated a writing component might create more language learning opportunities than oral communicative tasks. More recently, Adams and Ross-Feldman (2008) examined the production of LREs in collaborative writing tasks and speaking tasks. They reported that the majority of LREs in both tasks focused on form and that their participants produced more LREs when they had to write than when they only engaged in speaking.

In an EFL context, Niu (2009) also compared the production of LREs in collaborative writing tasks and oral communicative tasks and reported similar findings: L1 Chinese learners focused more on form and produced more LREs in the collaborative writing tasks than in the oral communicative tasks. She concluded that collaborative writing tasks might promote more language learning than oral communicative tasks.

Azkarai and García Mayo (2012) explored the language learning opportunities, operationalized as LREs, available to 12 Spanish EFL learners when they worked in pairs on 4 collaborative tasks, namely, a picture placement, a picture differences, a picture story and a dictogloss. They found that these learners produced more LREs in the picture story and the dictogloss

tasks, which required them to submit a final written text, than in the other two tasks, which only required them to reach a solution by interacting orally.

Overall, these studies have shown that collaborative writing tasks provide learners with more language learning opportunities and with more opportunities to draw their attention to form. As is well known, attention to form occurring in contexts where the emphasis is on communication has been claimed to enhance ‘the cognitive mapping among forms, meaning, and use’, which is crucial for the language learning process (Doughty, 2001, p. 211). The studies briefly reviewed above support the idea that writing encourages learners to attend to formal and lexical aspects of language (Cumming, 1989) and that writing is a more powerful task than speaking, since it requires more conscious efforts, it helps to raise language awareness, and learners are pushed to process language in depth (Wolff, 2000).

Although research on interaction has shown the benefits of collaborative writing tasks, these tasks have been barely employed in L2 classroom settings. In addition, most studies that have considered collaborative writing tasks have been carried out in ESL settings, and little research has focused on EFL settings, whose main characteristic is being low-input settings (García Mayo & García Lecumberri, 2003; Munoz, 2006). As already mentioned above, some teachers in this context are reluctant to let their students work in pairs or small groups since they feel learners will use their shared L1 (Brookes & Donato, 1994). The following section will briefly review some studies that have considered the role of the L1 during interaction in an L2.

3. L1 use in L2 interaction

When students share an L1 it is likely that they use it during L2 interaction (Carless, 2008; Tognini & Oliver, 2012). Some researchers consider that teachers should not ban L1 use, since it has been shown that participants do not make an excessive use of it and that it might help L2 learners in their language learning process (Alegria de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; DiCamilla & Antón, 2012; Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Tognini & Oliver, 2012).

Research has shown that the L1 helps maintaining interest in the task and developing new strategies to make a difficult task more manageable (Antón & DiCamilla, 1998). It also clarifies some aspects of task procedure, such as supplying key vocabulary items (Alley, 2005). Villamil and De Guerrero (1996, p. 60) showed that the participants in their study considered the L1 ‘an essential tool for making meaning of the text, retrieving language from memory, exploring and expanding content, guiding their action through the task, and maintaining dialogue’. Brooks and Donato (1994) argued that the L1 served to comment on participants’ L2 use, establish a joint understanding of the task and formulate the learners’ goal. Antón and DiCamilla (1998) found that their learners employed their L1 (Spanish) to scaffold assistance, establish and maintain intersubjectivity (Rommetveit, 1985) – the co-creation of a shared perspective on the task – and externalize inner speech during difficult activities. Other functions of the L1 include: off-task talk, moving the task along, focusing attention on vocabulary and grammatical items, enhancing students’ interpersonal interaction, metatalk, task management or metacognitive talk (Alegria de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Alley, 2005; DiCamilla & Antón, 2012; Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

However, several studies conducted in foreign language contexts have claimed that the benefits of L1 use depend on factors such as the learners’ L2 proficiency or task-type (Qi, 1998; Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Tognini & Oliver, 2012; among others). For example, regarding L2 proficiency, researchers have shown that low proficient learners make more use of their shared L1 than high proficient learners (DiCamilla & Antón, 2012; Lazaro & García Mayo, 2012; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Tognini & Oliver, 2012). Specifically, low proficient learners use their L1 mainly for task management and high-proficient learners to discuss vocabulary searches (DiCamilla & Antón, 2012).

The studies that have explored the relationship between task type and L1 use and functions have mainly shown that the use and functions of L1 differ from task to task (Alegria de la Colina &

García Mayo, 2009; Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003) and that tasks that engage learners in writing make students fall back on their L1 more often than speaking tasks. Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) explored the use and functions of the L1 in an ESL setting when participants worked in pairs on two different tasks: a joint composition and a text reconstruction. Twelve pairs took part in their study and six of the pairs shared their L1 (Indonesian and Mandarin Chinese); the other six pairs had different L1s. Their findings showed that, even when the participants were encouraged to use their L1, the majority of pairs did not overuse it since they felt that it could slow down the activity and that in an ESL setting they had to employ their L2 to improve their speaking skills. They also showed that the functions the L1 served varied in the two tasks: in the joint composition task, participants employed their L1 for task management and task clarification and in the text reconstruction for meaning/vocabulary deliberations.

Alegria de la Colina and García Mayo (2007) considered the oral interaction of 24 elementary level EFL learners (false beginners) in three collaborative tasks: a jigsaw, considered a speaking task, a dictogloss and a text reconstruction, both considered as speaking+writing tasks. They found that the learners' L1 (Spanish) helped them to focus on form and collaborate in the tasks. In a subsequent study with the same participants, Alegria de la Colina and García Mayo (2009) explored the functions of the L1 in more detail. They identified three main functions: (1) metacognitive talk, which involved planning, organizing or monitoring the activity, setting goals and checking comprehension; (2) metatalk, where learners discussed form; and (3) off-task talk, when learners talked about issues unrelated to the task. The main findings indicated that participants employed their L1 significantly more for metacognitive talk in the dictogloss than in the text reconstruction and for metatalk in the text reconstruction than in the other two tasks. They also found that these participants focused more on vocabulary searches in the jigsaw task than in the text reconstruction. Off-task talk was not very frequent. The study concluded that the participants employed their L1 as a cognitive tool that enabled them to access the L2 when they did not have enough resources while performing the tasks.

Storch and Aldosari (2010) analysed the impact of L2 proficiency and task type on L1 use. The participants in their study were 36 Arabic EFL learners, who were paired up in low–low, high–low and high–high proficiency dyads and completed a jigsaw (speaking task), a text editing and a composition (speaking+writing tasks). Storch and Aldosari (2010) identified five functions that the L1 served: task management, discussing and generating ideas, grammar, vocabulary and mechanics deliberations. The study showed that the functions that the L1 served differed among the three tasks: task management was more frequent in the jigsaw, generating ideas and vocabulary deliberations in the composition task and grammar and mechanics deliberations in the text editing. The novelty in their study is that they also categorized the learners' L1 turns on the basis of the amount of L1 produced: total/predominant L1 turns were those in which there was more L1 than L2 or the same amount of L1 and L2 words. Minor L1 turns were those turns in which there was more L2 than L1 (examples will be provided below).

The studies reviewed above report task differences in L1 use and its functions. However they did not compare L1 use and functions in speaking vs. speaking+writing tasks, that is, considering task-modality differences, which is precisely the gap this study tries to fill.

4. The study

The present study analyses the use and functions of the L1 in the oral interaction of 44 EFL Spanish learners working on different communicative tasks: two speaking tasks that only required oral output and two speaking+writing tasks that also required written production. Specifically, the present study considers potential across task differences in L1 use and functions in EFL task-based interaction and the amount of L1 in the L1 turns identified. Assuming that EFL learners will employ their L1 during task-based interaction for a variety of purposes, the following research questions are entertained:

1. What is the nature of the L1 turns?
2. Are there task-modality (speaking vs. speaking+writing) differences in L1 use and its functions?

On the basis of previous studies on these topics the following hypotheses were advanced:

- Hypothesis 1: There will be more total/predominant L1 turns than minor L1 turns.
- Hypothesis 2: The L2 learners will resort to their L1 more often in speaking+writing tasks than in speaking tasks.

4.1. Participants

Forty-four (44) EFL Spanish learners who were enrolled in different degree courses in a major Spanish university took part in this study. The participants completed a questionnaire with some biographical and sociolinguistic data, indicating their age (mean age: 24), the age of first exposure to English (mean age: 11) and the years that they had been studying the foreign language (mean age: 11). As this study was part of a larger one, the questionnaire was administered to gather relevant information about the participants necessary to analyse other variables. They also completed a Quick Oxford Placement Test (OPT) (Syndicate UCLE, 2001) to assess their English proficiency level. The scores indicated that 6 participants had an elementary level of English, 26 a lower intermediate level and 12 an upper intermediate level. The scores in the OPT were only considered to pair up the participants in same-proficiency dyads.

4.2. Procedure and materials

The participants completed four tasks randomly, namely dictogloss (Wajnryb, 1990), text editing, picture placement and picture differences tasks, in pairs in a laboratory setting at the university (see sample tasks in Appendix 1). All the oral interactions were audio-recorded, transcribed verbatim and the database obtained comprised approximately 17 hours.

All the tasks required participants to talk to each other during task completion but the dictogloss and the text editing also required the submission of a written output. Thus, these two tasks were considered speaking+writing tasks, whereas the picture placement and the picture differences tasks were considered speaking tasks. The rationale for the choice of these four tasks was that they have been widely used in SLA research and have been shown to be beneficial for collaborative work and interaction (García Mayo, 2007; Pica et al., 1993).

Dictogloss (Wajnryb, 1990) has been shown to favor collaborative work, draw learners' attention to form and encourage them to reflect on their own output (Kowal & Swain, 1994; Swain, 1998; Swain & Lapkin, 1994, 2001). During dictogloss both participants work together to reconstruct the original text and, doing so, they refine their understanding of the language being used (Basterrechea & García Mayo, 2013; García Mayo, 2002a, 2002b). In addition, students also notice their grammatical strengths and weaknesses, which they try to overcome when they attempt to co-produce the original text (Nassaji, 2000, p. 247).

During text editing students also work collaboratively and receive feedback from their interlocutors (Alegria de la Colina & García Mayo, 2007; García Mayo, 2002a, 2002b; Storch, 2007). Learners were presented with a text that had been previously manipulated: some subjects had been omitted and changes regarding subject-verb agreement, vocabulary items and propositions were made. Text editing has been shown to draw learners' attention not only to meaning, but also to form (Storch, 2007). Both the dictogloss and the text editing were taken from the New English File textbooks (Oxenden, Latham-Koenig & Seligson, 1997a, 1997b, 1997c), which are commercial ESL/EFL textbooks, and the activities were chosen considering the different proficiency levels of the participants.

The picture placement and picture differences tasks have also been widely used in studies carried out within the interactionist framework (Gass, Mackey & Ross-Feldman, 2005; Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Ross-Feldman, 2007). Both tasks are considered information-gap tasks in which students have to exchange information in order to complete the task, and their main focus is on meaning. During these tasks participants have many opportunities to interact and receive feedback, especially on their L2 lexicon (Pica et al., 1993, 2006).

4.3. Data analysis and codification

All L1 turns were codified according to L1 or L2 predominance and the functions that the L1 served. An independent rater coded 12 task-based interactions, which were about 28% of the whole dataset. Inter-rater reliability was 95%.

Regarding L1 functions, although one may find different categorizations in the literature, this study will adopt the ones in Alegria de la Colina and García Mayo (2009) and Storch and Aldosari (2010) because these two studies were also carried out in EFL settings and, besides, the present study has also identified similar functions. Thus, the L1 functions were classified into five categories listed below and illustrated with corresponding examples from our database. These examples also contain information about the language predominance of such turns:

- Off-task;
- Metacognitive talk;
- Grammar talk;
- Vocabulary;
- Phatics.

a. Off-task. The L1 was used by the students as casual talk that was not related to the task (Alegria de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009); see example (1):

- (1) 1. Antonio: [...] And can make sharing a house either, either, either a great experience or a nightmare. *¿Qué sabes de Paloma?* [Have you heard from Paloma recently?]
2. Julio: *Pues la vi hace poco.* [I saw her recently.]

During the text editing, António (turn 1) mentions a girl (Paloma) and asks Julio if he has news from her. Julio answers in Spanish. The turn initiated by António was further coded as a minor L1 turn and the L1 turn produced by Julio was coded as total/predominant L1 turn.

b Metacognitive talk. The L1 was used to talk about the task. This function involved planning, organizing and monitoring the activity, as well as setting goals or checking comprehension (Alegria de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009, p. 330). Consider example (2):

- (2) 1. Julio: Ok, the painting ... *¿Quieres escribir?* [Do you want to write?]
2. António: The painting we are looking at now or *no sé ... ¿Cómo lo... ?* [I don't know... How do you ...?]
3. Julio: ... is by a French painter ...
4. António: ... it's a French painter.

In the dictogloss, Julio asks António about who is going to write in Spanish (turn 1). António ignores him (turn 2) and Julio continues with the task. In this case, the two turns containing L1 were coded as minor L1 turns.

c Grammar talk. The L1 was used to discuss issues related to grammar. Consider example (3):

- (3) 1. Rosa: I think it's going.
2. Julian: Going, going! *Porque es su ... sujeto de la oración.* [Because it is ... the subject Of the sentence.]

In the text editing, Rosa is not sure about the correct use of the progressive (turn 1). In turn 2 Julian uses metalanguage in the answer he gives. The L1 turn was coded as a total/predominant L1 turn.

d Vocabulary. The L1 was used in deliberations over word/sentence meaning, word searches and word choice (Storch & Aldosari, 2010). See example (4):

- (4) 1. Gema: [...] The towel is eh ... ¿*Colgado?* [Hanging?]
2. Anita: Yes, *colgado*, [hanging] yes. Ah!

During the picture placement task the L1 helped Gema and Anita to move the task along. In turn 1, Gema does not know how to say ‘hanging’ in English and that’s why she uses Spanish. Anita does not know the correct English word either, as shown in turn 2. Both turns were coded as minor L1 turns.

e Phatics. Phatics are expressions to establish social contact and to express sociability rather than specific meaning. Some examples are expressions such as ‘ok’, ‘well’ or ‘right’. Consider example (5):

- (5) 1. Santiago: Ok. So, we have to write.
2. Virginia: To rewrite, yes. *Bueno* [Well], one. You?

Santiago and Virginia work on the text editing task. In this case the L1 turn produced by Virginia was coded as a minor L1 turn.

5. Results

This section presents the main findings of the study. Each analysis was carried out considering the proportions of the total number of turns containing L1 use by each participant in each task and the data were submitted to the corresponding statistical analysis: a two-sample binomial test for independent samples (significance level fixed at $\alpha = 0.05$).

The analysis of L1 use and its functions indicated that these participants employed their L1 to a limited extent: from the total number of turns produced (12,570) only 1,937 contained L1 words (15.41% of the database). Regarding L1 functions, the results indicated that the most common function was phatics, followed by vocabulary and grammar talk. These results are detailed in Table 1.

The first research question focused on the nature of L1 turns; in other words, it focused on the amount of L1 employed in turns that contained L1. The majority of turns were minor L1 turns ($p = 0.043$) and they were frequently used to deal with vocabulary searches or for phatic expressions. Predominant L1 turns were more frequent in the case of off-task talk, metacognitive talk and grammar talk. The details are presented in Table 2.

The second research question focused on the effect of task-modality on L1 use and L1 functions. In order to answer this question we compared the proportions of L1 turns produced in each task and the proportions of L1 turns between same-modality tasks. L1 turns were significantly more frequent in speaking+writing tasks than in speaking tasks ($p < 0.0001$). Specifically, the proportion of L1 turns was higher in the text editing, followed by the dictogloss and the picture placement task. The results also indicated different L1 use within same-modality tasks: participants made more use of their L1 in the text editing than the dictogloss and more L1 use in the picture placement than in the picture differences task. Table 3 features these results.

Regarding L1 functions in the different tasks, the differences between task modalities were all significant: off-task talk, metacognitive talk, grammar talk and phatics were significantly more frequent in speaking+writing tasks and vocabulary searches in speaking tasks. Significant differences were also found within same modality tasks: off-task talk, and metacognitive talk occurred significantly more frequently in the dictogloss and the picture placement tasks than in their modality counterparts, while grammar talk and vocabulary searches were significantly more frequent in the

text editing and the picture differences tasks than in their modality counterparts. Table 4 features those findings.

| Off-task talk | Metacognitive talk | Grammar talk | Vocabulary | Phatics |
|---------------|--------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| 117 (6.04%) | 150 (7.74%) | 260 (13.42%) | 450 (23.23%) | 960 (49.56%) |

| | Predominant L1 | Minor L1 |
|--------------------|-------------------------|---------------|
| Off-task talk | 115 (12.27%) | 2 (0.2%) |
| | $z = 11.14, p < 0.0001$ | |
| Metacognitive talk | 142 (15.15%) | 8 (0.8%) |
| | $z = 11.81, p < 0.0001$ | |
| Grammar talk | 202 (21.56%) | 58 (5.8%) |
| | $z = 10.16, p < 0.0001$ | |
| Vocabulary | 137 (14.62%) | 313 (31.3%) |
| | $z = 8.68, p < 0.0001$ | |
| Phatics | 341 (36.39%) | 619 (61.9%) |
| | $z = 11.22, p < 0.0001$ | |
| Total | 937 (48.37%) | 1000 (51.63%) |
| | $z = 2.024, p = .043$ | |

| | Speaking+writing tasks | | Speaking tasks | |
|-------------|---|--------------|-------------------|---------------------|
| Total turns | 4991 | | 7579 | |
| L1 turns | 921 (18.45%) | | 1016 (13.40%) | |
| | $z = 7.67, p < 0.0001$ | | | |
| | Dictogloss | Text editing | Picture placement | Picture differences |
| Total turns | 2227 | 2764 | 3171 | 4408 |
| L1 turns | 378 (16.97%) | 543 (19.64%) | 492 (15.51%) | 524 (11.89%) |
| | $z = 2.42, p = 0.0156$ $z = 4.57, p < 0.0001$ | | | |

| | Speaking+writing tasks | | Speaking tasks | |
|--------------------|-------------------------|--------------|------------------------|---------------------|
| Off-task talk | 98 (10.65%) | | 19 (1.87%) | |
| | $z = 8.09, p < 0.0001$ | | | |
| Metacognitive talk | 83 (9.01%) | | 67 (6.59%) | |
| | $z = 1.99, p = 0.05$ | | | |
| Grammar talk | 176 (19.11%) | | 84 (8.27%) | |
| | $z = 6.99, p < 0.0001$ | | | |
| Vocabulary | 76 (8.25%) | | 374 (36.81%) | |
| | $z = 14.68, p < 0.0001$ | | | |
| Phatics | 488 (52.98%) | | 472 (46.46%) | |
| | $z = 2.87, p = 0.0041$ | | | |
| | Dictogloss | Text editing | Picture placement | Picture differences |
| Off-task talk | 73 (19.31%) | 25 (4.6%) | 15 (3.05%) | 4 (0.76%) |
| | $z = 7.12, p < 0.0001$ | | $z = 4.31, p = 0.007$ | |
| Metacognitive talk | 43 (11.38%) | 40 (7.37%) | 58 (11.79%) | 9 (1.72%) |
| | $z = 2.09, p = 0.036$ | | $z = 6.46, p < 0.0001$ | |
| Grammar talk | 55 (14.55%) | 121 (22.28%) | 24 (4.88%) | 60 (11.45%) |

| | | | | |
|------------|-----------------------|--------------|------------------------|--------------|
| | $z = 2.93, p = 0.003$ | | $z = 3.80, p < 0.0001$ | |
| Vocabulary | 19 (5.03%) | 57 (10.5%) | 152 (30.89%) | 222 (42.37%) |
| | $z = 2.97, p = 0.003$ | | $z = 3.79, p = 0.0002$ | |
| Phatics | 188 (49.73%) | 300 (55.25%) | 243 (49.39%) | 229 (43.70%) |
| | $z = 1.65, p = 0.10$ | | $z = 1.82, p = 0.07$ | |

6. Discussion

This study aimed at exploring L1 use and the functions it served during EFL task-based interaction, and whether there were task-modality differences in L1 use and functions. Table 5 provides a general overview of the findings of the study in a simplified way for the reader's convenience.

In line with previous findings (Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Swain & Lapkin, 2000), the participants in this study made a minimal use of their shared L1 (only a 15.41%). This finding suggests that sharing the same L1 does not mean that students will make an excessive use of it and supports the claim that pair work provides learners with many opportunities to use their L2. These participants employed their L1 mainly for phatics in all tasks followed by vocabulary searches in speaking tasks, grammar talk in the text editing and off-task talk in the dictogloss. The findings obtained in the dictogloss differ from those in Alegria de la Colina and García Mayo (2009) as in their study instances of off-task talk were not very common while in our study this was the main function of L1 in this task. Regarding text editing, Storch and Aldosari (2010) found that their participants employed their L1 mainly for managing the task, while in our study, apart from phatics, the main function the L1 served was for grammar talk. In what follows we summarize the findings regarding the nature of the L1 turns and differences regarding L1 use and its functions across task modalities.

| | | | | | |
|--|---------------|--------------------|--------------|------------|---------|
| Table 5. Summary of the significant findings of the study. | | | | | |
| L1 Functions: Phatics > Vocabulary > Grammar talk > Metacognitive talk > Off-task talk | | | | | |
| L1 predominance: Minor L1 > Predominant L1 | | | | | |
| L1 production in tasks: Speaking+Writing > Speaking Text Editing > Dictogloss Picture Placement > Picture Differences | | | | | |
| | Off-task talk | Metacognitive talk | Grammar talk | Vocabulary | Phatics |
| L1 Predominance | P L1 | P L1 | P L1 | M L1 | M L1 |
| S+W vs. S | S+W | S+W | S+W | S | S+W |
| Dic vs. TE | Dic | Dic | TE | TE | -- |
| PP vs. PD | PP | PP | PD | PD | -- |
| <i>Notes.</i> Dic = Dictogloss; M L1 = Minor L1 turns; P L1 = Predominant L1 turns; PD = Picture Differences; PP = Picture Placement; S = Speaking tasks; S+W = Speaking+Writing tasks; TE = Text Editing. | | | | | |

6.1. Nature of L1 turns: language predominance

The analysis of language predominance showed that the majority of L1 turns were minor L1 turns. This result contrasts with Storch and Aldosari's (2010) findings, where most L1 turns were predominant L1 turns. Minor L1 turns were more frequent in the case of vocabulary searches and phatics. In the case of vocabulary, participants just needed to refer to the word they were not able to produce in English, as example (6) shows:

- (6) 1. Santiago: Is there, yes. Is a ...

2. Rafael: In Spanish is *lavabo*. [sink.]
 3. Santiago: *Sí, sí, sí*. [Yes, yes, yes.] Bathroom, bath, eh ... And a toilet ... I don't remember how it says. Ok.

During the picture placement task, Santiago is trying to remember the word 'sink'. Rafael tries to help him by saying the word in Spanish (*lavabo*), but Santiago does not remember the correct word (turn 3). He tries to find a word that starts with 'bath', but is not able to find any.

Predominant L1 turns were more frequent in the case of off-task, metacognitive and grammar talk. Below we illustrate this finding with several examples. In the case of off task, as participants talked about issues unrelated to the task, they felt free to employ their L1. Consider example (7):

- (7) 1. Raquel: *Y en Raquel también*. [And in Raquel too.]
 2. Laura: *¡Oh! Así que lo has cambiado tú ... Y es García también, ¿no?*
 [Oh! So, you changed it ... And it is García too, isn't it?]
 3. Raquel: *Sí*. [Yes]
 4. Laura: *Y ahora, ¿tenemos que esperar?* [And now, do we have to wait?]

As participants had to hand the researcher a written version of their reconstruction of the dictogloss text, they were asked to write their names in the article. In this case Laura is asking Raquel about the correct spelling of her name. All L1 turns were considered as total/predominant L1 turns.

In the case of metacognitive talk, in order to understand how they had to carry out the task, they discussed it mainly in Spanish. Consider example (8):

- (8) 1. Rosa: *¿Empiezas o empiezo? Empezamos ahora con lo del ordenador*.
 [Shall I start or you start? We start now with the one on the computer.]
 2. Julian: *Entonces ... Yo tengo que ir preguntando dónde están las cosas o ¿cómo?*
¿Lo tienes en el margen? [Then ... I have to ask where the thing are, or what?
 Do you have it on the margin?]
 3. Rosa: *Eso es*. [That's it.]
 4. Julian: *Te tengo que ir explicando. Vale*. [I have to explain it to you. Ok.]

In turn 1, Rosa wants to know who is going to start giving the instructions to place the objects in the correct position. Julian explains what he thinks they have to do in the task (turn 2) and Rosa agrees (turn 3). In turn 4 Julian seems to be sure about the task procedure. All the L1 turns were coded as total/predominant L1 turns.

In the case of grammar talk they could have mainly employed their L1 to properly understand the linguistic problem they were dealing with. Consider example (9):

- (9) 1. Pablo: We almost everyone ... *Está mal, ¿no?* [It is wrong, isn't it?]
 2. Adrian: *Así lo marcamos, ¿no?* [We mark it like that, don't we?]
 3. Pablo: *El we ese hay que quitar, ¿no?* [We have to delete that 'we', don't we?] We everyone? *No sé. No. ¿Será ...?* [I don't know. No. Should it be ...?]

In the example above, students discuss if they have to use the subject 'we' or not during the text editing task. Pablo asks Adrian in Spanish if the beginning of the sentence 'We almost everyone ...' is wrong. In turn 2, Adrian thinks that they should mark the subject, that is, that 'we' has to appear in the sentence, but Pablo suggests again that the subject should be deleted. As he is not sure about it, he decides to delete the adverb 'almost', but still seems not to be convinced with his choice. They stop discussing this issue and go on with the task. In the final written product they had to hand in the researcher, they deleted the subject 'we'. These L1 turns were coded as total/predominant L1 turns.

6.2. L1 use and function: across task differences

The analysis of L1 use and functions across task-modality indicated that participants made significantly more use of their L1 in speaking+writing tasks than in speaking tasks and for different purposes. In the former all the main L1 functions were attested whereas in the latter the L1 was mainly used for vocabulary searches. Task-modality seems to clearly influence L1 use and its functions. These results are in line with previous research done in the field where L1 use was task dependent (Alegria de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003). In these studies the main finding was that tasks with a written component generated more L1 use than oral communicative tasks, and the functions also varied from task to task.

In the present study, L1 use and its functions were also compared between same modality tasks. The findings indicated that there were significantly more L1 turns in the text editing and in the picture placement tasks than in their modality counterparts. Participants could have felt these tasks were more structured, and, therefore, they might have resorted to their L1 more frequently to carry out the tasks successfully.

Regarding L1 functions, some differences were also found between same-modality tasks. In the case of the speaking+writing tasks, off-task and metacognitive talk were significantly more common during the dictogloss whereas grammar talk and vocabulary searches were significantly more frequent during text editing. The differences between these two tasks regarding off-task talk might be due to the length of the tasks themselves. Participants had approximately five minutes to complete each task, and the one that they usually finished first was the dictogloss. Although they were told to go on with the other tasks, some participants waited for the researcher to tell them to go on. During this period of time, they talked about issues unrelated to the task. Regarding metacognitive talk, participants had more difficulties understanding the procedure of the dictogloss. Although they were given precise instructions, they were not sure about whether they had to write the text as they listened to it or afterwards. In addition, although participants were told they could start with any task, they usually started with the dictogloss and they could have felt overwhelmed because they were not sure about how to proceed with task completion (see example (2) above). Although both dictogloss and text editing drew learners' attention to form, text editing seems to be a more structured task than dictogloss (García Mayo, 2002a, 2002b), and that could be the reason why grammar talk was more common.

In the case of the picture placement and the picture differences tasks, the findings showed that off-task talk was more frequent in the picture placement than in the picture differences. During the picture placement task, participants needed to focus on fewer items than in the picture differences task, which included more items. Participants spent more time talking about the items that appeared in the picture differences task even if they already finished with the task. This could be the reason why they spent less time talking about other issues unrelated to the task. Consider example (10):

- (10) Raul: *Sólo me salía en castellano. Cosas así ...* [It only came out in Spanish. Things Like that ...]
Cristina: *No, yo tampoco. Pero en el otro dibujo igual. Yo eh ...* [Me neither. But in the other picture it was the same. Me ...]

This example shows how Cristina and Raul talked about other issues unrelated to the picture placement task they were working on. In this case they were talking about the other task (picture differences).

Participants also employed their L1 significantly more as metacognitive talk in the picture placement than in the picture differences task. During the former they had to agree about who was going to start giving the explanations to carry out the task and that could have led to L1 use for metacognitive talk (see example (8) above). When they worked in the picture differences task, participants employed their L1 significantly more for grammar talk. The majority of grammar-related issues were related to the location of objects that appeared in the pictures. The participants employed their L1 for vocabulary searches significantly more often in the picture differences task than in the picture placement task probably because the former included more objects than the latter.

These results show that L1 use and its functions are task dependent. The tasks that required students to produce a final written product made them fall back on their L1 more often than those tasks that only required oral communication. In addition, L1 functions also depended on task-modality. In speaking+writing tasks the participants resorted to their L1 more frequently to deal with grammar issues and in speaking tasks they employed their L1 more frequently for vocabulary searches. However, these differences were also present between same-modality tasks: The L1 was significantly more used in the most structured tasks (text editing and picture placement) than in their modality counterparts.

7. Conclusions

This study examined the impact of task-modality on the use and functions of the participants' L1 when EFL Spanish learners worked in pairs in four different collaborative tasks. In line with previous studies (Alegria de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Storch & Aldosari, 2010), the overall results showed that the use and functions of L1 were task dependent, and that participants fell back on their L1 more frequently when they worked in collaborative speaking+writing tasks than in speaking tasks. The L1 assisted these EFL learners in different ways to complete these tasks, facilitated their work and acted as a tool to scaffold each other's production and manage the task (Alegria de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009).

Although this study has shed more light on the role of task-modality on L1 use during task-based interaction, it has some limitations that need to be acknowledged and that could also serve as lines for further research. Since the present study was carried out in an experimental setting, further research should consider a larger sample of participants carrying out similar tasks in a classroom setting (Carless, 2008). This study was also carried out in an EFL setting and future research should also consider different instructional settings such as CLIL (Basterrechea & García Mayo, 2013; Dalton-Puffer, 2011) or communicative Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) (Warschauer & Healey, 1998) as their intrinsic characteristics might lead to different findings.

This study has shown differences between same-modality tasks, and these differences have been attributed to the fact that some tasks are more structured than their modality counterparts. Carless (2008) already argued that task difficulty could increase L1 use and, thus, future research should also consider the relationship between task complexity and L1 use. Research has shown that more complex tasks elicit more language learning opportunities (Robinson, 2011a, 2011b), so one might speculate that they could also generate more L1 use. It would also be interesting to further examine whether the results are in line with learners' perceptions of task difficulty (Tavakoli, 2009).

As mentioned above, although proficiency was controlled for in order to set up the different pairs, L1 use was not analysed on the basis of learners' proficiency. This is an issue that needs to be investigated further in studies that analyse task-modality differences in L1 use. Our findings, together with future research along the lines suggested, could be highly interesting and efforts should be made to transfer knowledge about tasks and the type of language they elicit to L2 practitioners.

References

- Adams, R. (2006). L2 tasks and orientation to form: A role for modality? *ITL: International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 152, 7–34.
- Adams, R., & Ross-Feldman, L. (2008). Does writing influence learner attention to form? In D. Belcher, & A. Hirvela (Eds.), *The oral-literate connection: Perspectives on L2 speaking, writing, and other media interactions* (pp. 243–265). Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.
- Alegria de la Colina, A., & García Mayo, M.P. (2007). Attention to form across collaborative tasks by low-proficiency learners in an EFL setting. In M.P. García Mayo (Ed.), *Investigating tasks in formal language learning* (pp. 91–116). London: Multilingual Matters.

- Alegria de la Colina, A., & García Mayo, M.P. (2009). Oral interaction in task-based EFL learning: The use of the L1 as a cognitive tool. *IRAL: International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 47, 325–345.
- Alley, D.C. (2005). A study of Spanish II high school students' discourse during group work. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38, 250–257.
- Antón, M., & DiCamilla, F. (1998). Socio-cognitive functions of L1 collaborative interaction in the L2 classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 54, 314–342.
- Azkarai, A., & García Mayo, M.P. (2012). Does gender influence task performance in EFL? Interactive tasks and language related episodes. In E. Alcon Soler, & M. P. Safont Jordá (Eds.), *Discourse and learning across L2 instructional contexts* (pp. 249–278). Amsterdam: Rodopi.
- Basterrechea, M., & García Mayo, M.P. (2013). Language-related episodes during collaborative tasks: A comparison of CLIL and EFL learners. In K. McDonough, & A. Mackey (Eds.), *Interaction in diverse educational settings* (pp. 25–44). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Brooks, F.B., & Donato, R. (1994). Vygotskian approaches to understanding foreign language learner discourse during communicative tasks. *Hispania*, 77, 262–274.
- Carless, D. (2008). Student use of the mother tongue in the task-based classroom. *ELT Journal*, 62, 331–338.
- Cumming, A. (1989). Writing expertise and second language proficiency. *Language Learning*, 39, 81–141.
- Dalton-Puffer, C. (2011). Content-and-language integrated learning: From practice to principles? *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 31, 182–204.
- DiCamilla, F.J., & Antón, M. (1997). Repetition in the collaborative discourse of L2 learners: A Vygotskian perspective. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 53, 609–633.
- DiCamilla, F.J., & Antón, M. (2012). Functions of L1 in the collaborative interaction of beginning and advanced second language learners. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 22, 160–188.
- Donato, R. (1988). Beyond group: A psycholinguistic rationale for collective activity in second language learning. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Delaware, Newark, DE, USA.
- Doughty, C. (2001). Cognitive underpinnings of focus on form. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 206–257). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Fernández Dobao, A. (2012). Collaborative writing tasks in the L2 classroom: Comparing group, pair, and individual work. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 21, 40–58.
- Ganem Gutierrez, A. (2013). Sociocultural theory and second language development: Theoretical foundations and insights from research. In M.P. García Mayo, M.J. Gutiérrez Mangado, & M. Martínez Adrián (Eds.), *Contemporary perspectives on second language acquisition* (pp. 129–152). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- García Mayo, M.P. (2002a). The effectiveness of two form-focused tasks in advanced EFL pedagogy. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 12, 156–175.
- García Mayo, M.P. (2002b). Interaction in advanced EFL pedagogy: A comparison of form-focused activities. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37, 323–341.
- García Mayo, M.P. (Ed.) (2007). *Investigating tasks in formal language learning*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- García Mayo, M.P., & García Lecumberri, M.L. (Eds.) (2003). *Age and the acquisition of English as a foreign language*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Gass, S., Mackey, A., & Ross-Feldman, L. (2005). Task-based interactions in classroom and laboratory settings. *Language Learning*, 55, 575–611.
- Kowal, M., & Swain, M. (1994). Using collaborative language production tasks to promote students' language awareness. *Language Awareness*, 3, 73–93.

- Lazaro, A., & García Mayo, M.P. (2012). L1 use and morphosyntactic development in the oral production of EFL learners in a CLIL context. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 50, 135–160.
- Long, M.H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W.C. Ritchie, & T.K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413–468). New York: Academic Press.
- Mackey, A. (2007). Interaction as practice. In R. DeKeyser (Ed.), *Practice in a second language: perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology* (pp. 85–110). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mackey, A., & Oliver, R. (2002). Interactional feedback and children's L2 development. *System*, 30, 459–477.
- Munoz, C. (Ed.) (2006). *Age and the rate of foreign language learning*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Nassaji, H. (2000). Towards integrating form-focused instruction and communicative interaction in the second language classroom: some pedagogical possibilities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 84, 241–250.
- Niu, R. (2009). Effect of task-inherent production modes on EFL learners' focus on form. *Language Awareness*, 18, 384–402.
- Oxenden, C., Latham-Koenig, C., & Seligson, P. (1997a). *New English file elementary: Student's book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Oxenden, C., Latham-Koenig, C., & Seligson, P. (1997b). *New English file pre intermediate: Student's book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Oxenden, C., Latham-Koenig, C., & Seligson, P. (1997c). *New English file upper intermediate: Student's book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Pica, T., Kanagy, R., & Falodun, J. (1993). Choosing and using communication tasks for second language instruction and research. In G. Crookes, & S.M. Gass (Eds.), *Tasks and language learning* (pp. 9–34). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Pica, T., Kang, H.S., & Sauro, S. (2006). Information gap tasks: Their multiple roles and contributions to interaction research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, 301–338.
- Qi, D. S. (1998). An inquiry into language-switching in second language composing processes. *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue Canadienne des Langues Vivantes*, 54, 413–435.
- Robinson, P. (2011a). Second language task complexity, the Cognition Hypothesis, language learning, and performance. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Second language task complexity: Researching the cognition hypothesis of language learning and performance* (pp. 3–37). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Robinson, P. (2011b). Task-based language learning: A review of issues. *Language Learning*, 61, 1–36.
- Rommetveit, R. (1985). Language acquisition as increasing linguistic structuring of experience and symbolic behavior control. In J. Wertsch (Ed.), *Culture, communication and cognition: Vygotskyan perspective* (pp. 183–204). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ross-Feldman, L. (2007). Interaction in the L2 classroom: Does gender influence learning opportunities? In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 52–77). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Samuda, V., & Bygate, M. (2008). *Tasks in second language learning*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Schmidt, R., & Frota, S. (1986). Developing basic conversational ability in a second language. A case study of an adult learner of Portuguese. In R.R. Day (Ed.), *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition* (pp. 237–326). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Storch, N. (2002). Patterns of interaction in ESL pair work. *Language Learning*, 52, 119–158.
- Storch, N. (2007). Investigating the merits of pair work on a text editing task in ESL classes. *Language Teaching Research*, 11, 143–159.

- Storch, N., & Aldosari, A. (2010). Learners' use of first language (Arabic) in pair work in an EFL class. *Language Teaching Research*, 14, 355–375.
- Storch, N., & Wigglesworth, G. (2003). Is there a role for the use of the L1 in an L2 setting? *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 760–770.
- Swain, M. (1998). Focus on form through conscious reflection. In C. Doughty, & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 64–81). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 97–114). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1994). *Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: A step in second language learning. Report of Year 1 of SSHRC grant*. Toronto: OISE, Modern Language Centre.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1998). Interaction and second language learning: Two adolescent French immersion students working together. *Modern Language Journal*, 82, 320–337.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2000). Task-based second language learning: The uses of the first language. *Language Teaching Research*, 4, 251–274.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2001). Focus on form through collaborative dialogue: Exploring task effects. In M. Bygate, P. Skehan, & M. Swain (Eds.), *Researching pedagogic tasks: Second language learning, teaching and assessment* (pp. 99–118). London: Pearson Education.
- Syndicate UCLE (2001). *Quick placement test*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Tavakoli, P. (2009). Investigating task difficulty: Learners' and teacher's perceptions. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 19, 1–25.
- Tognini, R., & Oliver, R. (2012). L1 use in primary and secondary foreign language classrooms and its contribution to learning. In E. Alcon Soler, & M.P. Safont Jorda (Eds.), *Discourse and learning across L2 instructional contexts* (pp. 53–78). Amsterdam: Rodopi.
- Villamil, O.S., & de Guerrero, M.C.M. (1996). Peer revision in the L2 classroom: Social cognitive activities, mediating strategies, and aspects of social behavior. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 5, 51–75.
- Wajnryb, R. (1990). *Grammar dictation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Warschauer, M., & Healey, D. (1998). Computers and language learning. *Language Teaching*, 31, 57–71.
- Williams, J. (1999). Learner-generated attention to form. *Language Learning*, 49, 583–625.
- Wolff, D. (2000). Some reflections on the importance of writing in foreign language learning. In I. Play, & K.P. Schneider (Eds.), *Language use, language acquisition and language history* (pp. 213–226). Trier: WVT Wissenschaftlicher Verlag Trier.

Appendix 1

Examples of tasks employed in the present study.

Dictogloss (lower-intermediate level version)

I was very optimistic when I went to meet Claire. My first impression was that she was very friendly and very extrovert. Physically she was my type: she was quite slim and not very tall with long dark hair, very pretty! And she was very funny too! She had a great sense of humor, we laughed a lot. But the only problem was that Claire was very talkative.

Text editing (upper-intermediate level version)

Original Text: Louise Woodward was the 18-year-old nanny convicted in 1998 by a court in the United States of murdering the infant Matthew Eappen. Recently she spoke about her experience of a televised court case at the Edinburgh Television Festival, Scotland, UK. Louise criticized the televising of trials. 'It should never be the case of looking into a defendant's eyes and making a decision on their guilt or innocence,' she told the Edinburgh Television Festival. 'It should be the law that decides on a person's guilt, but television, with its human and emotional interest, takes the attention away from this.' Although she thought it was an inevitable development, she added: 'Television turns everything into entertainment. We should remember that in the end courtrooms are serious places. It is people's lives and future lives that you are dealing with. It is not a soap opera and people should not see it like that. Serious issues should not be trivialized [...]'

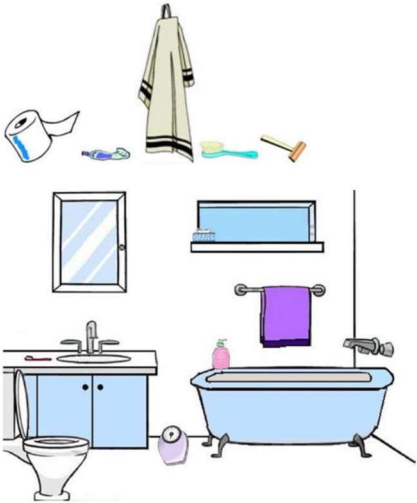
Modified Text: Louise Woodward was the 18-year nanny convicted in 1998 by a court in the United States of murder the infant Matthew Eappen. Recently she speak her experience of a televised court case the Edinburgh Television Festival. Louise criticize the televising of trials. 'It should never be the case of looking into a defendant's eyes and making a decision their guilt or innocence,' she told the Edinburgh Television Festival. 'It should be the law decides on a person's guilt, but television, with its human and emotional interest, takes the attention from this.' Although she thought it was an inevitable development, she add: 'Television turn everything in entertainment. We should remember that in end courtrooms are serious places. It is people lives and future lives you are dealing with. It is not a soap opera and people should not see it like that. Serious things should not be trivialized [...]'

Picture placement (in color in the original task)

Version A



Version B



Picture differences (in color in the original task)
Version A



Version B



Source: http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Spot_the_difference.png (July 2014).