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Interactions Between and Among Heritage Language Learners  
and Second Language Learners during Collaborative Writing Activities:  
How Learners Attend to Language

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the  
requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy  
in Applied Linguistics

by

Laura Walls

2013

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2013

## ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

Interactions Between and Among Heritage Language Learners  
and Second Language Learners during Collaborative Writing Activities:  
How Learners Attend to Language

by

Laura Walls

Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics

University of California, Los Angeles, 2013

Professor Susan Plann, Chair

This study investigates the dynamics in the Spanish classroom between heritage language learner (HLL) dyads, second language learner (L2L) dyads, and mixed HLL-L2L dyads. Specifically, it examines oral, written and embodied discourse that informs our understanding of how learners attend to language. Analysis for this dissertation examined 15-minute video-recordings of 16 same-sex dyads (four HLL-HLL; four L2L-L2L; eight HLL-L2L; eight female dyads and eight male dyads) taken during collaborative writing assignments in Spanish I, Spanish II, and Spanish II honors classrooms at a community college in southern California. These interactions were transcribed and analyzed using conversation analytic methods (i.e. analysis of conversation in terms of turns of talk). They were further examined in light of second language acquisition research that focuses on an interactional approach to learning. This interactional approach emphasizes the need for negotiation, noticing, hypothesis testing, and

engaging in the use of metalanguage. Findings reveal that HLL-HLL and L2L-L2L dyads were more cooperative and attended to language more frequently than HLL-L2L dyads. Results also demonstrated that all three dyad types often resolved language issues accurately. Though this study argues that HLLs and L2Ls would be better served in classes that separate the two groups, it does not argue for the abandonment of the HLL-L2L dyad entirely. On the contrary, it outlines several advantages to this mixed dyad type. From these findings, several pedagogical implications are pinpointed as possible ways in which dyads can function more effectively.

The dissertation of Laura Walls is approved.

Marianne Celce-Murcia

John Heritage

Olga Kagan

Susan Plann, Committee Chair

University of California, Los Angeles

2013

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents,  
John Wesley Walls, and Concepción Martínez Walls.

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## LIST OF ACRONYMS

CA	conversation analysis
ESL	English as a second language
HL	heritage language
HLL	heritage language learner
L1	first language
L2	second language
L2L	second language learner
LRE	language related episode
NNS	non-native speaker
NS	native speaker
SLA	second language acquisition
ZPD	zone of proximal development

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### **Purpose of the Study**

According to US Census data from 2010 (Ennis & Albert, 2011), the US Hispanic population makes up 16% of the total US population, and 23% of the US population under age 18 is Hispanic. This constitutes a population increase of 43% between 2000 and 2010. In fact, this increase accounted for more than half of the total population increase of the United States. Although the data indicate that the majority of Hispanics reside in the West and Southwest, and this is where the bulk of the growth occurred, the data also indicate that the population has more than doubled in South Carolina, Alabama, Tennessee, Kentucky, Arkansas, North Carolina, Maryland, Mississippi, and South Dakota. This population increase means that the US Hispanic population constitutes the second largest concentration of Hispanics in the world after Mexico (“Facts for Features: Hispanic Heritage Month 2010: Sept 15-Oct. 15,” 2010).

The increased presence of Hispanics in the US has a profound impact on the educational system at all levels and across the country. For those of us that teach Spanish, this will mean an even greater impact on the dynamics of our classrooms as heritage speaker enrollment increases. Heritage speakers, also referred to in the literature as “native,” “proficient,” and “home background,” are individuals who grew up speaking a language other than English (Spanish in this case) in the home (Valdés, 2001). While language proficiency among this population varies, these speakers possess receptive and productive abilities in this non-English (heritage) language.

The present study explores the interactions between and among heritage language learners (HLLs) and second language learners (L2Ls) in elementary and intermediate Spanish

classrooms at a community college in Southern California. Because the HLL-L2L dyad is a common occurrence when doing their pair work in lower level Spanish classes across the country, it is my aim to investigate the dynamics in the classroom in HLL-HLL, L2L-L2L, and HLL-L2L dyads during collaborative writing activities. My goal with this dissertation is threefold: to determine 1) what types of language issues each of these dyad types attends to, 2) how these various dyad types effect the successful outcome of the language issues they attend to during collaborative writing activities; and 3) how peer interactions in these contexts can be improved upon.

This study is significant because, although HLLs may be better served in courses specifically designed to meet their needs, their presence in the L2 classroom is a reality that is not likely to change; even at colleges that offer HL courses, HLLs still enroll in L2 courses due to scheduling constraints and other factors. Therefore, this study aims to determine the effectiveness of these various dyad types in resolving language issues that arise in order to make peer interactions in the foreign language classroom more effective.

### **Statement of the Problem**

As an instructor of Spanish as a foreign language in southern California, at a community college that does not offer classes specifically designed for HLLs, I have often had HLLs enrolled in my elementary and intermediate Spanish classes. During the many years I have been teaching these courses, in any given semester anywhere from one to thirteen of the thirty-two enrolled students have been HLLs; therefore, mixed dyads (i.e. HLL-L2L) have been common in my classrooms. In fact, these types of mixed classrooms are common throughout the United States (Lynch, 2008) given that HLLs have been enrolling in Spanish classes with increasing numbers since the 1980s (Valdés, 2001); Indeed, Ingold, Rivers, Tesser and Ashby's (2002)

survey of 240 Spanish programs across the country reported that only 18% of colleges and universities offer HL classes. This is not due to a lack of need rather to the low priority placed on the specific needs of this group. Respondents indicated a lack of enrollment, lack of interest on the part of both faculty and students, and lack of trained faculty as reasons for not offering these courses. This means that HLLs are more often than not placed in Spanish as a foreign language classes. This pedagogical reality caused me to question how this type of dyad (i.e. HLL-L2L) compares to HLL-HLL and L2L-L2L dyads in terms of promoting language acquisition. Because this topic has been underexplored in the literature, I undertook this project as my dissertation research.

Although research in second language acquisition (SLA) has explored the dynamics between L2L-L2L dyads (also referred to in the literature as non-native speakers) and L2L-NS (native speaker) dyads, this focus has been primarily within an English as a second language (ESL) context. Furthermore, interactions in which NSs took part, employed traditionally monolingual speakers of English and the emphasis was on the benefits of these interactions to the L2L. Nunan (1989) has also pointed out that the majority of these studies are empirical in nature in which participants were given instructions to perform specific tasks as part of a research project; investigations stemming from naturalistic classroom-based interactions, however, are rare.

Examinations into the interactions between L2Ls and HLLs are also rare. Though it may be tempting to assume that these exchanges would be similar to those described in studies that examined L2L-NS interactions, HLLs differ from the traditional native speaker in many ways. Having grown up in an English dominant country, these speakers' exposure to the heritage language is in the home. Consequently, many of these speakers do not fully acquire the heritage

language and therefore exhibit gaps in their knowledge in terms of both grammar and lexicon (Montrul, 2006; Valdés & Geoffrioni-Vinci, 1998). Another feature is that because many of these speakers have acquired a non-prestige variety (Valdés & Geoffrioni-Vinci, 1998), they require instruction that expands their linguistic repertoire and gives them access to academic registers of the heritage language. Therefore, HLLs share some similarities with NSs: HLLs typically possess an internalized grammar and a large lexicon. They also share some similarities with L2Ls: HLLs are still acquiring various language features. Given these distinctions, it is likely that L2L-HLL exchanges will differ to some degree from L2L-NS exchanges.

Some researchers have begun to study this particular dyad type (i.e. HLL-L2L), and have found both positive and negative effects for both HLLs and L2Ls (e.g. Blake & Zysik, 2003; Bowles, 2011; Potowski, 2004). L2Ls benefited from the HLLs' knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, while HLLs were exposed to the metalanguage familiar to L2Ls. However, these studies have focused primarily on oral tasks, or activities in which writing is minimal. The effects of this diverse environment on more substantive writing activities have been largely underexplored in the literature. Therefore, this dissertation fills a gap in the research by investigating the effects of a collaborative writing task on students enrolled in Spanish at a community college in Southern California. Specifically, the dynamics of HLL-L2L dyads are compared to those of HLL-HLL and L2L-L2L dyads.

### **Theoretical Framework**

This dissertation takes a sociocultural perspective on language learning. This perspective draws heavily on Vygotsky's (1978) work, which postulates that learning is a social endeavor. Central to this view is what Vygotsky called the zone of proximal development (ZPD), which he describes as the differences between what individuals are able to do on their own and what they

are able to do with others. Ohta (2001) has since reformulated this definition to better fit L2 learning. She defines it as, “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by individual linguistic production, and the level of potential development as determined through language produced collaboratively with a teacher or peer,” (p.9). This perspective is used to understand how assistance is related to language development. The idea here is that the learner is able to accomplish jointly what is within the learner’s reach but not yet fully incorporated into the learner’s linguistic repertoire. Interaction, therefore, is thought to be a key factor in language acquisition.

Interaction has been central to the study of SLA since the 1980s (Gass, Mackey, & Pica, 1998). Michael Long’s seminal paper (1996), in which he proposed what came to be known as the Interaction Hypothesis, has been particularly influential. In it, he argues that the effectiveness of comprehensible input is enhanced when learners are required to negotiate for meaning. Negotiating meaning occurs when learners receive negative feedback from their interlocutors and must overcome a breakdown in communication. Meaning negotiation can take various forms, including: slowing down speech, speaking more deliberately, requests for clarification or repair of speech, and paraphrases. In performing negotiation, learners notice a difference between their own knowledge and the target language. Furthermore, when interacting with native speakers of the target language, learners have access to grammatically accurate and pragmatically appropriate language, which they may or may not have been previously aware of.

Swain (1985; 1995) has also maintained that interaction serves an important function in second language acquisition. Her focus, however, has been on learner output. She postulates that there are three functions to output: 1) noticing, 2) hypothesis formation and testing, and 3) metatalk. Noticing occurs when learners notice that they do not know how to convey their

intended meaning. Therefore, as they produce the target language, learners become conscious of their own linguistic limitations. The second way in which output enhances language learning is when learners form hypotheses about language and then test those hypotheses. As learners produce language they test their understanding of that language (i.e. grammar) and modify it based on the feedback they receive from their interlocutors. Finally, output serves a metalinguistic function when learners use language to reflect on language. Swain (2001) argues that this metatalk serves a cognitive function and that

“by encouraging metatalk amongst second and foreign language students, we may be helping student to make use of second language acquisition processes. That is, metatalk may be one pedagogical means by which we can assure that language acquisition processes operate. It is essential, however, that this metatalk—this conscious focus on language form—is encouraged in contexts where the learners are engaged in making meaning. Otherwise, the critical links between meaning, form and function may not be formed.” (p. 51)

This means that not only is it necessary that learners use metatalk, but that they do so within a meaning-making context. Discourse-based activities are an integral part of language learning processes.

These interactional perspectives inform the current study. Particularly, I draw upon the necessity of negotiation as a means by which learners’ cognitively process language. Because negotiation has shown to affectively facilitate language learning, I analyze the dyads in this investigation (i.e. HLL-HLL, L2L-L2L, and HLL-L2L) to determine which of them are most conducive to language learning based on these negotiations. Furthermore, as Swain (2001) has so convincingly argued, learners’ metatalk appears to be representative of the cognitive processes

by which learners internalize language features. Therefore, central to this analysis, is the frequency with which HLLs and L2Ls attend to language and employ metatalk. In applying this theoretical framework to the current data, I draw conclusions with regard to the effectiveness of these dyad types, and discuss some of the challenges these mixed dyads pose.

### **Description of the Study**

Although a growing number of colleges and universities across the country offer language classes specifically designed to meet the needs of HLLs, many HLLs nevertheless take classes in these languages designed for L2Ls. Consequently, it is common for these classrooms to have linguistically diverse environments in which HLLs and L2Ls interact. Therefore, this dissertation study investigates the effects of these diverse environments on students enrolled in Spanish at a community college in Southern California. Specifically, it examines oral, written and embodied discourse that informs our understanding of how students attend to language. This study aims to answer the following questions:

1. What types of language issues do HLLs and L2Ls of Spanish attend to during collaborative writing activities?
2. How do these dyads differ in the way they attend to these language issues?
3. What dyad type (HLL-HLL, L2L-L2L, HLL-L2L) is most successful in resolving language issues that arise?
4. To what extent does gender play a role in the way in which HLLs and L2Ls attend to language related episodes?

The above questions are addressed by examining collaborative writing activities of 16 dyads; these dyads consisted of 21 community college Spanish students. By examining video-recordings of these 15-minute interactions during which learners engage in collaborative writing

activities, I develop an account of how each of these dyad types (HLL-HLL, L2L-L2L, HLL-L2L) interacts. Because a focus on form has been shown to play a facilitative role in language learning, I employed a collaborative writing task that would encourage output, and particularly metatalk. I investigate participants' focus on language issues, how they initiate and resolve each of these issues, and how successful they are in doing so. My methodology involves examining each of these interactions using conversation analytic methods that illustrate this study's theoretical claims. The findings of this investigation are presented in two chapters in which I discuss the patterns that emerged within these interactions.

### **Overview of the Study**

This dissertation consists of six chapters: an introduction, literature review, methodology, two data chapters, and a discussion and conclusion. Following this introduction, Chapter 2 introduces the relevant context and information about Spanish as a heritage language in Southern California. It also provides a literature review of collaboration in the classroom, research in conversation analysis, which focuses specifically on epistemic stance (knowledge based on one's history and experience), repair in conversation, and interaction between and among males and females. Chapter 3 focuses on the methodology describing how data was collected and analyzed. Findings from an analysis of the research data are presented in chapters 4 and 5. Chapter 4 explores collaboration in each of the three dyad types (i.e. HLL-HLL, L2L-L2L and HLL-L2L) with regard to language negotiation. Chapter 5 includes a detailed account and interpretation of the ways in which each dyad type initiates and resolves language issues that arise during collaboration. Lastly, chapter 6, the discussion and conclusion, considers themes across the chapters and examines how collaborative writing activities can be improved upon in the L2



classroom. This final chapter also offers conclusions, pedagogical implications of the findings, and points to limitations of the study.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

This dissertation investigates the dynamics of a typical Spanish classroom in southern California in which heritage language learners (HLLs) and second language learners (L2Ls) often work together. This type of diverse environment is common in language classrooms across the country; however, there is very little research that substantiates the benefits or disadvantages of pairing HLLs and L2Ls. Therefore, in an attempt to fill this gap in the literature, I investigate interactions of HLL-HLL, L2L-L2L and HLL-L2L dyads during collaborative writing activities. The current chapter presents the relevant background for this topic. I will introduce the context and information about Spanish as a heritage language in Southern California, as well as provide a literature review of collaboration in the classroom, research in conversation analysis which focuses specifically on epistemic stance (knowledge based on one's history and experience), repair in conversation, and interaction between and among males and females.

#### **Heritage Language Learners**

##### **Defining a heritage language**

There is a scholarly debate on the exact definition of a heritage language learner (HLL) as it is used to describe individuals across languages with very different language experiences. The HLLs, also referred to “native speakers,” “quasi-native speakers,” “residual speakers,” and “bilingual speakers,” are a heterogeneous group of individuals. Fishman (2001) notes that in the United States the term heritage language has been applied to immigrant languages, indigenous languages, and colonial languages. Consequently, the reality of each of these language types is characterized by different historical, social and demographic situations. For example, immigrant

languages like Spanish have a large demographic of native speakers—currently, the Spanish speaking population in the United States comprises the second largest population of Spanish speakers in the world (US Census Bureau, 2010)—while many indigenous languages, like Yaqui (Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger, 2010), have very few native speakers. The term heritage language, then, may be used to describe a vast array of language learning experiences. Carreira (2004) notes, “definitions of HL [heritage learner] fall into one of three categories, according to the relative importance [researchers] assign to the following criteria: A) the learner’s place in the HL community, B) the learner’s personal connection to the HL and HC (heritage culture) through his/her family background, and C) the learner’s proficiency in the HL” (p. 2).

While some definitions focus on cultural background (Fishman, 2001), others focus on language competence (Polinsky, 2008; Valdés, 2001). According to Fishman, (2001) heritage languages “have a particular family relevance to the learner.” Polinsky (2000) defines a heritage language as “a language which was first for an individual with respect to the order of acquisition but has not been completely acquired because of the switch to another dominant language.” She defines an HLL as “an individual who grew up speaking (or only hearing) A as his/her first language but for whom A was then replaced by another language as dominant and primary” (Polinsky, 2008, p. 41). The heritage language, however, is not always first in order of acquisition as some individuals may have acquired both languages concurrently, and therefore this definition can also be problematic. This reality is reflected in Valdés’ (2001) definition of a heritage speaker in the US as “a student of a language who is raised in a home where a non-English language is spoken, who speaks or merely understands the language, and who is to some degree bilingual in English and the heritage language.”

Though definitions differ in the sense that some are more broad (e.g. Fishman, 2001) and others more narrow (e.g. Polinsky, 2008; Valdés, 2001), according to Katz (2003) “most researchers agree that many of these speakers should be considered native speakers” of the heritage language (p. 132). For pragmatic purposes in the classroom, many researchers (Kagan & Dillon, 2008; Kagan, 2003, 2005; Lynch, 2003; Valdés, Fishman, Chávez, & Pérez, 2008; Valdés, 1995, 2000a, 2005) argue for a proficiency-based definition of HLLs. Kagan (2003) notes that these students are “neither typical students of a foreign language, nor of a native language” (p. 2). Given that HLLs already possess some language ability, as opposed to second language learners (L2Ls) who begin with nothing, Kagan (2005) argues that a macro approach to teaching is required for these students. She notes that in comparison to L2 learners, HLLs possess a vast vocabulary, though it is still inadequate for high-level performance; rapid fluent speech that may contain grammatical and register errors; and writing ability that may be incomprehensible due to orthographic and grammatical errors (p. 218).

The present study focuses on HLLs in college-level Spanish classes in an attempt to ascertain the ways in which they attend to language in collaborative writing activities. For the purposes of this study, because I will be exploring these negotiations, I will be following Kagan’s (2005) suggestion and define HLLs on the basis of proficiency. This means that HLLs in the present study possessed some level of productive abilities in Spanish.

### **Spanish heritage speakers’ linguistic repertoire**

Although for this study, some proficiency in Spanish is vital, it is nevertheless important to note that HLLs make up a heterogeneous group. Having been raised in environments in which they were exposed to the heritage language to differing degrees, they vary in their language proficiency. However, what tends to be common to this group is that they acquire the heritage

language as their first language and usually acquire a second language that later becomes dominant<sup>1</sup>. Typically, these learners receive exposure to the first language at home, but they have little if any formal training in Spanish; therefore, they are proficient in lower registers, but may lack proficiency in higher ones.

Heritage language Spanish speakers are the largest group of HLLs in the United States and much of the research in this field has been conducted on this population. This is not surprising since, as previously noted, the United States possesses the second largest Spanish-speaking population in the world. A national survey of HLLs (Carreira & Kagan, 2011) indicates that the largest group of respondents, 23.1%, are heritage language speakers of Spanish. Most of these respondents were born in the United States, and nearly a fifth of those that were not born in the US arrived before the age of 11. Unlike heritage language speakers of other languages, however, these speakers reported speaking Spanish frequently at home, although in informal settings; nearly one third (30.8%) visited their ancestral country once a year, while others (31.1%) reported having visited three to five times. Additionally, unlike respondents of other languages, nearly half of heritage language speakers of Spanish reported having no exposure to formal or academic Spanish.

The Spanish employed by heritage speakers in the United States is often denigrated by other Spanish speakers (Parodi, 2008; Silva-Corvalán, 1994; Valdés, 2000b). In some academic contexts, these speakers may be made to feel inadequate by language experts, who implicitly or explicitly assert that their variety is best used at home and is inadequate for an academic

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<sup>1</sup> This may not always be the case as some heritage speakers grow up in bilingual homes and thus acquire both languages concurrently—these speakers are termed concurrent bilinguals. Most of the studies on HLLs, however, have focused on sequential bilinguals, those who acquired the second language after acquiring the first. Most HLLs in the present study fall into the latter category.

environment (Villa, 2002). Some researchers, however, have advocated not the eradication of these individual varieties but rather an expansion of their repertoires by means of vocabulary expansion (Fairclough & Mraak, 2003) and language representative of formal and informal registers (Lynch, 2003). Yet other researchers have focused on the placement of HLLs in second and foreign language classrooms (Lacorte & Canabal, 2005; Valdés, 2000a). These particular students are of interest to this study because it is a very common situation in colleges in Southern California.

Silva-Corvalán (1995) describes bilingualism as a continuum similar to a creole continuum. Polinsky and Kagan (2007) go a step further by classifying HLLs language abilities in light of research on creole languages. According to this model, speakers who approximate the baseline are analogous to an acrolectal speaker, that is, a speaker whose speech is closest to the prestige variety, whereas those furthest from it are analogous to a basolectal speaker, one whose speech is farthest from the prestige variety. However, they argue that the baseline needs to be determined, not by the standard variety taught in the classroom setting, rather by the variety the speaker is exposed to. Consequently, researchers need to be aware of immigration patterns of speakers in order to establish this baseline.

Parodi (2008) has termed the Spanish spoken in southern California, where the data for the present study was collected, California Spanish vernacular (SV). She argues that as a rural variant of Mexican Spanish it is considered “uneducated” and “incorrect.” Table 1, (p. 202) reproduced below, lists some of these stigmatized features characteristic of oral speech of this variety and compares it to the monolingual standard. Also typical for SV speakers is the use of English loan words and Anglicisms (p. 203) like those noted in table 2 (also reproduced below). Given that these speakers have acquired Spanish orally, their oral/aural proficiency is extremely

high. They have typically mastered Spanish stress and intonation and can adapt to the pronunciation of other dialects. High proficiency speakers of this dialect have internalized Spanish grammar and possess a quasi-native grammatical intuition. They possess a good command of most tenses, although they exhibit difficulties with the subjunctive. While they do not typically have problems reading Spanish, given that the alphabet is the same as English, and Spanish orthography is typically phonetic, writing is the most difficult aspect of language for HLLs of Spanish. They tend to have problems with spellings of sounds that have several written variants (<s,c,z> /s/, <b,v> /b/, <g,j> /x/, <g, gu> /g/, <c,que> /k/, <ll,y> /y/, <h> /ø/); many HLLs do not employ stress marking correctly (*mas* rather than *más* ‘more’); their writing is infiltrated with English spellings (*characteristic* for *característica*) and negative semantic transfer (*misinterpretación* [<misinterpretation] instead of *malentendido*).

Table 2.1: Parodi's "Stigmatized Features of the SV of Los Angeles"

The SV of Los Angeles	Monolingual Standard Spanish
Generalization of the 2 <sup>nd</sup> person morpheme –s; <i>vinistes, hicistes, comistes</i> ‘you came,’ ‘you did,’ ‘you ate’	Absence of –s in the 2 <sup>nd</sup> person preterit: <i>viniste, hiciste, comiste</i>
Presence of morpheme –nos in the 2 <sup>nd</sup> person imperfect preterit of <i>ar</i> verbs: <i>andábanos, caminábanos, tomábanos</i> ‘we used to go, walk, take’	Morpheme ending in –mos: <i>andábamos, caminábamos, tomábamos</i>
Analogical stress in the verb root in 1 <sup>st</sup> person: <i>véngamos/vénganos, téngamos/ténganos, hágamos/háganos</i> ‘we come, have, do’	Stress in the thematic vowel plural, present subjunctive: <i>vengamos, tengamos, hagamos</i>
Contraction of the article before a vowel: <i>l’água, l’águila, l’arena, l’espada</i> ‘the water,’ ‘the eagle,’ ‘the sand,’ ‘the sword’	No contraction: <i>el águia, el águila, la arena, la espada</i>
Diphthongization of hiatus: /pjor/ ‘peor’, /kwete/ ‘cohete’, /tjatro/ ‘teatro’, /twaya/ ‘toalla’ ‘worse,’ ‘fireworks,’ ‘theatre,’ ‘towel’	No diphthongization: /peor/ ‘peor’, /koete/ ‘cohete’, /teatro/ ‘teatro’, /toaya/
Pronunciation of the phoneme /f/ as /h/ before the diphthong <i>ue</i> : /hwera/ <i>fuera</i> , /hwersa/ <i>fuerza</i> , /hwente/ <i>fuenta</i> . ‘outside,’ ‘strength,’ ‘fountain’	/f/ is pronounced: /fwera/ <i>fuera</i> , /fwersa/ <i>fuerza</i> , /fwente/ <i>fuenta</i>
Lexical archaisms: <i>mesmo, haiga, ansina/asina</i> ‘same,’ ‘have,’ ‘this way’	Modernized forms: <i>mismo, haya, así</i>

Source: Parodi 2008, pg. 202



Table 2.2: Parodi's "English Loan Words/Anglicisms in the SV of Los Angeles"

The SV of Los Angeles	Monolingual Standard Spanish
<i>yarda</i> (<yard)	<i>patio, jardín</i>
<i>marqueta</i> (<market)	<i>mercado</i>
<i>taipear</i> (<to type)	<i>mecanografiar, escribir a máquina</i>
<i>troca</i> (<truck)	<i>camión, autobús</i>
<i>cora</i> (<quarter)	<i>25 centavos, tostón</i>
<i>carpeta</i> (<carpet)	<i>alfombra, tapete</i>

Source: Parodi 2008, pg. 203

### Collaboration in the L2 writing class

Collaborative pair and group work is common in the second language (L2) classroom. In fact, the current view on language learning and teaching emphasizes collaboration in the L2 classroom (e.g. Long & Porter, 1985; Swain, 2000). From a theoretical point of view, collaboration is supported by the social constructivist point of view, which argues that knowledge and meaning is constructed through the interaction of experience and ideas (Piaget, 1967). Moreover, research on the topic (Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2001) has shown that cognitive and linguistic development can occur by means of collaborative group work.

Much of the research on collaborative writing, however, has focused on group interactions in a professional setting. Many of these studies (Beck, 1993; Kuiken et al., 2002; Noël & Robert, 2004) have administered questionnaires via the Internet in order to determine how respondents work when collaboratively writing a document. These studies found that computer assisted writing is most often used in these circumstances. They also found that

participants felt that collaborative writing yields higher quality written work than individual writing does.

One of the few studies that focuses on the L2 classroom setting was done by Kuiken et al. (2002). Students were asked to collaboratively reconstruct a text that the teacher had read to them. They sought to prove a positive effect of group interaction on the text, but were unable to establish a connection. Shehadeh (2011), however, found that over the course of a 16-week period, students improved in the areas of content, organization and vocabulary, though grammar and vocabulary was not effected. Another investigation that focused on the classroom was conducted by Yarrow and Topping (2001), although within a first language context. They conducted a study with eleven-year-olds in which students with stronger writing skills were paired with students with weaker writing skills. Over the course of 24 writing sessions, they found that not only did students significantly improved in their writing skills, but they had more positive self esteem as writers.

### **The Organization of Repair in English Conversational Exchanges**

Repair was first defined by Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977) as the practice by which an interlocutor interrupts the ongoing action of the talk to attend to a problem in speaking. They distinguish between repair and correction, arguing that correction refers specifically to the replacement of an error or mistake with a correct form, while repair can include word searches and replacement of a non-hearable mistake or fault. They contend that correction is a subcategory of repair, and therefore focus their analysis on the general domain of repair and the preference for self-repair as a result of the organizational practices of interaction.

Schegloff, et al. (1977) outline specific structural features to repair; this structure includes a “trouble source” or “repairable,” followed by “repair initiation,” and the “repair proper.”

Kitzinger (2013) describes these features. The cause of the trouble source, or the element to be repaired, can include incorrect lexical choice, a problem hearing, a problem speaking, incorrect pronunciation, a problem understanding, or a problem with the turn design itself. Repair initiation begins at the point where the trouble source has been identified either by the speaker or his/her interlocutor<sup>2</sup> and is categorized as self-initiated or other-initiated (Kitzinger, 2013; Schegloff et al., 1977). Self can initiate repair by means of cut offs (I wu-), lengthening or sound stretches (I we::nt), sound insertion (uh, mm, etc.), or “I mean.” Strategies used in other-initiated repair include the use of open class initiators, which are non-specific to the referent (e.g. What? Huh? Pardon? Sorry?), class specific initiators, which specify the referent (e.g. Who? Where? When?), repetition and “you mean...” Open class initiators typically have one of three functions: 1) they occur at unmarked topical junctures (e.g. the absence of “anyway”); 2) they signal that the recipient sees the prior turn as irrelevant or inappropriate; and 3) they can occur when a speaker has violated the rules of politeness (Drew, 1997). The repair proper can also be provided by self or other. When the repair proper is done by self, it typically takes the form of insertions (e.g. I told you), deletions (Because I als- I tried), replacement (e.g. the brown- the blue car) or restarts (I told- she told me). Other repair is typically done through confirmations (e.g. A: I saw her; B: Her?; A: Him), full or partial repeats, rephrasing, and providing an account (e.g. because).

By outlining the repair initiation opportunity space (i.e. same turn, transition space, next turn, third turn, or third position), Schegloff, et al. (1977) demonstrate a preference for self repair. They show that the opportunity for self-initiated repair comes before the opportunity for

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<sup>2</sup> It is important to note here that not all trouble sources are immediately oriented to by the either speaker or his/her co-participant. These speakers may come back to it later in the talk and can be close or far in proximity to the trouble source.

other-initiated repair, and typically self will repair prior to the next turn, making it vastly more common than other initiated repair.

Research on other-initiated repair has shown that interlocutors can address it in very different ways. Jefferson (2007) demonstrates that in some cases, the co-participant, knowing that the speaker has made a mistake, does not initiate repair in the following turn; she calls this abdicated other correction. She argues that the co-participants may be abdicating other correction in order to minimize the importance of the error. In situations where co-participants do initiate repair, Jefferson (1987) asserts that these repairs can be exposed or embedded. Exposed corrections are those mentioned above, where the co-participant makes explicit reference to the trouble source. Embedded corrections, then, would be those instances where the co-participant offers an alternative lexical item that is then repeated by the first speaker. Jefferson demonstrates that although the co-participant can choose to make the correction explicit or not, other initiated correction takes the form *XYX* (trouble source, attempt at repair, uptake on repair) in instances in which the speaker accepts the correction, and *XYX* (trouble source, attempt at repair, rejection of repair) in instances where the speaker rejects the correction.

M. H. Goodwin (1983) further investigates the use of aggravated correction in urban black children's speech. She found that unlike the adults in Schegloff et al.'s (1977) study where other-initiated repair takes place over the course of several turns, boys in this study collapse the repair into a single turn. By doing so, they point out the trouble source and provide the correction within the same turn and do not provide an opportunity for self to correct.

### **Epistemic Stance and Status**

Epistemic status, which involves status of knowledge between interlocutors, has been studied from various perspectives. Labov and Fanshel (1977) first described epistemic status in

terms of A and B events: A events are those in which information is known to A but not to B; B events are the opposite—information is known to B, but not to A; AB events are those in which both A and B are privy to the information; O events are known to everyone present; and D events are known to be disputable. Similarly, Pomerantz (1980) establishes event distinctions that set up domains of knowledge. She describes these as type 1 knowables in which the actors have first hand knowledge or experience, and type 2 knowables in which the information is known by report, hearsay or inference. Kamio (1997) proposed the concept of territories of information in which he describes interlocutors as possessing domains of information. According to this framework, information that is proximal to one speaker is within his/her territory whereas distal information does not fall within his/her territory of information.

Heritage (2012) notes that epistemic stance refers to the moment-by-moment expression of epistemic status. While speakers typically display an epistemic stance that is congruent with their epistemic status, it is possible to take up an epistemic stance that is incongruent with one's epistemic status. He further describes epistemics in terms of action formation by arguing that the illocutionary force of an utterance depends on the epistemic status of the speaker: whether knowledge is within the speaker's epistemic domain (K+) or the knowledge is not within the speaker's domain (K-). For example, when a speaker is in the K- position and poses a question with negative interrogative syntax, the speaker is requesting information, however, if the speaker is in the K+ position, he/she is making an assertion or an assessment.

Heritage and Raymond (2005) further describe epistemics in terms of authority and subordination of assessments. They demonstrate that assessments made in first position can be unmarked (show direct access to what is being assessed) by means of declarative utterances; downgraded by demonstrating mediated access to the referent; and upgraded by means of

negative interrogative syntax. While assessments in second position can also be negotiated to display epistemic status, the speaker has the added task of having to manage the assessment made in the previous turn. Therefore, there are four structures speakers use to upgrade the epistemic claims of their assessments: 1) repeat/confirmation + agreement; 2) “oh”-prefaced response; 3) assessment + tag question; and 4) negative interrogative. When speakers employ the first two, the speaker displays epistemic authority by claiming that he/she held this position prior to his/her interlocutor’s assertion. The last two structures are used to ‘reclaim’ the first position and thus claim the epistemic rights that are typically assigned to that position.

### **The Role of Gender in Interaction**

Lakoff (1976) sparked the interest in language and gender with her book, *Language and Women’s Place*, in which she outlines various features of what she called women’s language. Among these features of women’s language are the use of tag questions, rising intonation with declarative sentences, and the use of hedges and tag questions. She argues that by using this type of language, women portray themselves as powerless. Her claims, however, have been criticized due to the fact they are based on observations and not on empirical evidence.

Studies on gender difference in conversational practice have investigated the accuracy of Lakoff’s (1976) claims that women use these features more than men. The use of hedges, for example, was studied by Preisler (1986). He found that women use far more hedges in conversation than men. Holmes (Holmes, 1984, 1987) also investigated the use of “you know,” however, unlike Preisler, she made a distinction between the use of “you know” when it was used to express the speaker’s confidence and certainty and instances in which it expressed lack of confidence and uncertainty. She found that although men and women use hedges with similar

frequency, women use “you know” to express certainty the majority of the time. Men, however, use it to express uncertainty much of the time.

Maltz and Borker (1982) argue that speech differences between men and women are a result of having grown up in different subcultures. According to them, boys grow up in environments in which a hierarchy is seen as valuable, therefore, their speech is characterized by competition. Girls, on the other hand, are raised in nurturing environments and value cooperation rather than competition. As evidence for this argument, Maltz and Borker cite studies done by M. H. Goodwin (1990). However, Goodwin’s work (C. Goodwin & Goodwin, 1987; M. H. Goodwin, 1982, 1983, 2002) has consistently shown that not only can girls be as competitive as boys in their playgroups, they are capable of using boys’ linguistic practices.

## CHAPTER 3

### METHODOLOGY

This project explores pair interactions in four community college elementary Spanish classes. The fundamental concern is to ascertain how and to what extent pairs negotiate language in productive ways. Conversation analysis (CA) is the primary analytic tool employed in the present study. As language learning occurs at the interactional level and communicative competence is the ultimate goal in learning another language, analyzing student interactions at a microanalytical level is a practical endeavor. Indeed, Clayman and Gill (2004) maintain that CA is a legitimate means by which to study human interactions, and Kasper (2006) argues that within SLA research, CA's particular strength is its focus on orientations that participants find relevant to their interactions.

CA is both a methodology and a field of study, which originated in the 1960s with the work of Harvey Sacks, Emmanuel Schegloff, and Gail Jefferson (1974). It is fundamentally concerned with how interlocutors situate actions within a context. According to this perspective, language is context dependent, and therefore, turns of talk are the primary units of analysis, given that interactants are constantly responding to previous utterances. Pomerantz and Fehr (1997) define CA as the study of "how people in society produce their activities and make sense of the world about them. The core analytic objective is to illuminate how actions, events, objects, etc., are produced and understood rather than how language and talk are organized as analytically separate phenomena" (p. 65).

While CA began in sociology with the study of casual conversation, since its creation in the 1960s, it has extended to include the study of task- and institution-centered interactions; furthermore, it has been adopted as a methodology within applied linguistics, anthropology,



psychology, and communication studies. Although several researchers had been arguing for a more socially oriented approach to SLA prior to the mid 1990s (e.g. Frawley & Lantolf, 1984, 1985; Lantolf & Frawley, 1988), CA's inception within the field of SLA is generally attributed to Firth and Wagner's call for an emic centered approach in their presentation at the 1996 International Association of Applied Linguistics Congress, and their 1997 paper published in the *Modern Language Journal*. In this paper, Firth and Wagner (1997) argued that traditional studies in SLA had been cognitively centered, and because of their focus on the acquisition of L2 competence, had emphasized learners' deficiencies rather than what they were able to accomplish with the language ability they possessed. In support of this point of view, Rampton (1997) maintained that researchers should focus on how learners accomplish communication with the resources at their disposal. Not surprisingly, this criticism led to debate within SLA research as opponents reasoned that the primary focus of SLA is acquisition and not use (e.g. Gass, 1998; Kasper, 1997; Long, 1997, etc.).

Though it is not my intent to argue in favor of an interactional approach to SLA research at the expense of a cognitive approach, I do hold that focusing on interaction can further our understanding of how language is acquired and used by second language learners (L2Ls) and heritage language learners (HLLs). As Clark (1996) has noted, "face-to-face conversation is the cradle of language use" (p. 9), and, therefore, an analysis of how students employ language face-to-face can speak to the positive and/or negative effects of interactions between and among L2Ls and HLLs. Given that analysis is carried out through an examination of the sequences of turns of talk, the use of audio and video recordings (Clayman & Gill, 2004; Pomerantz & Fehr, 1997) is central to this methodology. Here, video recordings of 16 dyads have been analyzed to determine the dynamics of different dyad types.

## Settings and Participants

The data analyzed in the present study centers on 21 students enrolled in four Spanish classes at a community college in Southern California—two Spanish I classes, one Spanish II class, and one Spanish II honors class. The researcher was the instructor in two of these courses (one Spanish I and one Spanish II). Analysis is based on information gathered from these 21 students, which comprise two distinct groups—ten HLLs and eleven L2Ls.

Table 3.1 provides demographic information for the HLLs that participated in the present study. Their ages ranged from 18 to 29. Most of these participants were U.S. born with the exception of Sabrina, who was born in Colombia and came to the U.S. when she was three years old, and Manuel, who was born in Mexico and came to the U.S. when he was three months old. Most participants' families were originally from Mexico except for Sabrina (Colombia) and Gabriel (El Salvador). It is also interesting to note that with the exception of Gabriel, all of these participants have taken at least one Spanish class before, either in high school or at the community college level. Furthermore, three participants mentioned having been enrolled in classes specifically designed for HLLs (Diego, Javier, and Isaac). As is often the case with HLLs, their language ability varied both orally and in written form, and, based on their performance in the dyads, they all used non-standard elements in their Spanish.

Table 3.1: Heritage Language Learners' General Profiles

HERITAGE LANGUAGE LEARNERS								
<i>Student</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Languaes Spoken at Home</i>	<i>Self Reported Strongest Language</i>	<i>Current Spanish Class</i>	<i>Previous Spanish Instruction</i>	<i>Participant's Place of Birth</i>	<i>Age of Arrival in the US</i>	<i>Parents' Place of Birth</i>
<b>FEMALES</b>								
Sabrina	19	Spanish	Spanish	Spanish II Honors	one semester of community college Spanish	Colombia	3 years old	Colombia
Angie	18	Spanish, English	English	Spanish II Honors	one semester of community college Spanish	US	-	Mexico
Delia	20	Spanish, English	English	Spanish I	two years of high school Spanish	US	-	Mexico
Mayra	23	Spanish	no answer	Spanish I	one year of high school Spanish	US	-	Mexico
Katarina	21	Spanish, English	equal	Spanish I	one year of high school Spanish	US	-	Mexico
<b>MALES</b>								
Diego	21	Spanish, English	English	Spanish II	two years of high school Spanish (one of these for heritage speakers)	US	-	Mexico
Javier	25	Spanish	English	Spanish II	two years of Spanish for heritage speakers in high school	US	-	Mexico
Manuel	29	Spanish	no answer	Spanish I	one year of high school Spanish	Mexico	3 months old	Mexico
Gabriel	28	Spanish	no answer	Spanish I	none	US	-	El Salvador
Isaac	20	Spanish	Spanish	Spanish II Honors	three years of Spanish for heritage speakers in high school	US	-	Mexico

With regard to the HLLs' own assessment of their strongest language, their answers varied. The two HLLs enrolled in Spanish II honors reported Spanish as their strongest language. Isaac did not give a specific reason for this choice; however, Sabrina explained, “[I] consider [S]panish my strongest language. [S]panish might have been the language [I] spoke at home but [I] grew up learning [E]nglish in school since pre school.” Based on her second sentence, it appears that she may have meant to indicate that English is her dominant language. Her use of “might” in the first clause of her second sentence here mitigates her use of Spanish in favor of English as an significant language for her. Regardless of whether she meant to indicate that Spanish is her strongest language or not, her response nevertheless places prominence on her strength in English as well as Spanish. Of those that reported English as their dominant language

(Angie, Delia, Diego, and Javier), two of them, Angie and Javier, explained that their English dominance was due to having been formally educated in English. Katarina was the only student to report being equally comfortable with both English and Spanish. The remaining three HLL participants (Mayra, Manuel, and Gabriel) left this question blank. There are several possibilities for this: that these students did not answer the question may have been an oversight; it may have meant that they were unsure of how to answer the questions; or it may have indicated that they were uncomfortable saying that they were English dominant. In any case, it is of note that the three students that did not answer this question were also students that had little to no formal instruction in Spanish. These three students were enrolled in the same Spanish I class of which I was the instructor; based on my observations of the data, as well as their classwork, I would argue that these students are English dominant.

Demographic information for the 11 L2Ls (five men and six women) who participated in this study is detailed in table 3.2 below. These L2Ls range in age from 18 to 52. All of these participants reported having taken Spanish classes prior to the class in which they were currently enrolled. Although all L2Ls reported English as their native and dominant language, two participants (Sarah and Sharif) reported being heritage speakers of another language (Hebrew and Farsi respectively).

Table 3.2: Second Language Learners' General Profiles

<b>SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS</b>			
<i>Student</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Current Spanish Class</i>	<i>Previous Spanish Instruction</i>
<b>FEMALES</b>			
Sandra	52	Spanish I	two years of high school Spanish
Sarah	26	Spanish I	three years of high school Spanish
Sophia	22	Spanish I	three years of high school Spanish
Adel	32	Spanish I	two years of high school Spanish
Petra	18	Spanish II Honors	one semester of community college Spanish
Kelly	21	Spanish I	two years of high school Spanish
<b>MALES</b>			
Jessie	18	Spanish II	four years of high school Spanish
Keith	25	Spanish II	four years of high school Spanish
Joel	48	Spanish II Honors	one semester of community college Spanish
Sharif	19	Spanish II Honors	four years of high school Spanish, one semester of community college Spanish
Stanley	27	Spanish I	two years of high school Spanish (both years Spanish I)

### **Pedagogical Context**

All four classes met two and one half hours twice a week for a total of five hours per week over the course of 16 weeks. Students were expected to speak Spanish throughout the class, except during the last ten minutes, which were reserved for English. Given that these were elementary Spanish classes designed for beginning L2 speakers, many students had difficulty adhering to the Spanish only policy. In at least three of these classes, students who reverted to English were expected to ask permission of their interlocutors to do so; however, my observation is that students, whether L2Ls or HLLs, did not always respect this rule.

Although some class time was dedicated to class discussions and review of important grammatical structures, it is important to note that they were all taught using the communicative approach and much of the time was spent in small groups. Consequently, students developed strong bonds with other class members, particularly those in their immediate vicinity. In my own

classes, students did not display a tendency to self-segregate according to L1, and HL speakers of Spanish were dispersed throughout the classroom. The instructors of the other two courses reported that they encourage HLLs to work with L2Ls and often separate HLL-HLL groups. Because this particular community college does not have a program designed specifically for HLLs of Spanish, it is very common to have several HLLs enrolled in any given Spanish class, at all levels.

### **Procedures**

Prior to beginning each collaborative writing activity, the researcher reviewed the grammatical structures that each class had recently studied. For students in Spanish I recorded during weeks 11 and 12 of the semester, this was a review of present tense verbs (i.e. regular *-ar*, *-er*, *-ir* verbs, stem changing verbs, reflexive verbs, verbs that are irregular in the first person singular, and commonly used irregular verbs like *ser* [to be], *estar* [to be], *ir* [to go], etc.). Students recorded during week 15 of the semester also discussed the present progressive as well as verbs expressing obligation (e.g. *tener que* [to have to], *deber* [ought to], *necesitar* [to need to], *hay que* [it is necessary], and *es necesario* [it is necessary]) and verbs expressing plans and desires (e.g. *pensar* [to intend to], *quisiera* [would like], *me gustaría* [I would like], and *tener ganas de* [to feel like]). A reflection of the imperfect tense was conducted with Spanish II students recorded during week 11, while students recorded during week 13 reviewed the present perfect. In order to aid students in the use of these grammatical structures, the researcher created handouts that outlined the various forms of the verbs (see Appendix A) and distributed them to the students. Given that all of these classes were using the textbook *Dos mundos* (Terrell, Andrade, Egasse, & Muños, 2010), these handouts reflected the grammar and vocabulary covered in the textbook. Students also received a handout on how to insert accents and other

Spanish characters into their compositions (Appendix B).

After this brief grammar review, participants were placed into each dyad type (HLL-HLL, L2L-L2L or HLL-L2L), and given several pictures to choose from which reflected vocabulary with which they were familiar (Appendix C). For example, during one data collection session in Spanish I, students were learning vocabulary that related to holidays; therefore, they chose among pictures that related to holidays. Once each dyad had chosen a picture, they were asked to collaboratively write a story based on the picture with the caveat that they were to incorporate the grammar they had studied. It was explained to them that they were to use the grammar structures we had just reviewed, as well as any other structures they had studied thus far in class. This meant that for students enrolled in Spanish I, they were to focus specifically on the present tense if this was week 11, or the present progressive and verbs that express obligation, plans or desires if the data collection occurred during week 15; moreover, they could also incorporate other grammatical constructions (e.g. *ir + a + infinitive* [colloquial future], reciprocal verbs, demonstrative adjectives, direct and indirect objects) as long as they had been studied in class. Spanish II students were asked to incorporate the imperfect tense or the present progressive, again depending on the point at which they were in the semester. It is important to note here that at the time this research was conducted students in Spanish II had studied the preterit tense and had now begun to study the imperfect; however, a comparison of the two tenses had not yet been made, and thus, students were discouraged from mixing the two tenses. Rather, they were encouraged to either use the imperfect tense by framing their story as an activity they used to do, or use the preterit tense by describing actions that happened yesterday or last week. Also, at the time of the recording, Spanish II honors students had already studied specific uses of the present subjunctive in noun clauses and the future tense; therefore, this was

also an option for this group.

After explaining the activity to the class, the researcher then presented a model (Appendix D) that demonstrated the specific grammatical features the class had reviewed moments before. They were told that they could use all the resources at their disposal; they could consult their textbook, notes, handouts, dictionaries, and any online resources they chose as long as they did not use online translating software to translate whole sentences or paragraphs. Additionally, each dyad was to turn in one co-authored essay written on the computer; one participant would type, and the other would be free to check available resources when necessary. They were reminded to be mindful of their grammar and spelling and then given 15 minutes to compose their essays collaboratively (see Appendix E for the compositions that each dyad submitted at the end of the 15 minutes). At the end of the first 15-minute collaboration, students switched partners. If they began in an HLL-HLL or L2L-L2L dyad they moved to an HLL-L2L dyad and vice versa. The new dyad was given a different picture with which to work, and again given 15 minutes to compose an essay. These 15-minute interactions were video recorded for analysis.

### **Data Collection**

The data set from these recordings comprises of a total of approximately four hours. This corpus consists of sixteen fifteen-minute interactions, which include four HLL-HLL dyads (two male-male and two female-female), four L2L-L2L dyads (two male-male and two female-female) and eight HLL-L2L dyads (four male-male and four female-female). Additionally, all dyads were male-male, female-female in order to determine whether there was a gendered component to these interactions. Male-female dyads, however, were not recorded or analyzed in the present study. Whenever possible, each participant was recorded in each dyad type.



However, given the make-up of each classroom and unforeseen circumstances with recording equipment, it was not always possible to analyze each participant in each dyad type. In instances where participants were only analyzed in one dyad type, they were replaced by other participants in the other dyad type. Table 3.3 shows each of these participants in each dyad type.

Table 3.3: Dyad Participants

	<b>FEMALE</b>	<b>MALE</b>
<b>HLL-HLL Dyads</b>	Sabrina <sup>✓</sup> —Angie <sup>*✓</sup> Delia—Mayra <sup>✓</sup>	Diego—Javier Manuel <sup>✓</sup> —Gabriel <sup>*</sup>
<b>L2L-L2L Dyads</b>	Sandra <sup>*</sup> —Sarah <sup>*</sup> Sophia <sup>✓</sup> —Adel <sup>✓</sup>	Jessie—Keith Joel <sup>✓</sup> —Sharif <sup>*</sup>
<b>HLL-L2L Dyads</b>	Sabrina <sup>✓</sup> —Petra <sup>*</sup> Katarina <sup>*</sup> —Kelly <sup>*</sup> Delia <sup>✓</sup> —Sophia Mayra <sup>✓</sup> —Adel	Diego <sup>✓</sup> —Jessie Javier—Keith Manuel <sup>✓</sup> —Stanley <sup>*</sup> Isaac <sup>*✓</sup> —Joel

\*participant did not participate in both dyad types

✓participant's computer screen was available for analysis

Additionally, all of the collaborative writing activities in the present study were conducted in the community college's computer laboratories rather than in the regular classroom. Because these interactions were being video recorded, use of the school's computer laboratory enabled the researcher to access the student collaboration as well as the ongoing creation of the text. Therefore, whenever possible, the computer screen of each participant was also recorded using screencast-o-matic.com, an online screen capture recording program. Although it was not always possible to record each participant's computer screen, there are a total of 13 computer screen recordings. These are indicated by a "✓" next to the participant's name in Table 3.3. Recordings of the participants' computer screens proved invaluable as they made it possible to

analyze interactions such as the following:

Example 3.1—Joel (L2L) and Sharif (L2L)

01     SHA:     s:e ((Joel raises hand to screen and points) levanta  
                  himself   gets-up.3P.SG  
                  **he gets up**

02     JOE:     e- (0.8) ese:         y         e-  
                                  that-one and th-  
                  **that one and th-**

03                 (1.0)

04     SHA:     si o^kay  
                  yes  
                  **yes okay**

05     JOE:     ese i e  
                  S    I   E  
                  **S I E**

06                 ((Sharif makes the correction))

In this example, Joel and Sharif, two L2Ls, were creating the sentence “*Ese hombre nunca tinene (sp) miedo y simpre (sp) se levanta cuando se cae*” (That man is never scared and always gets up when he falls). Sharif, who is doing the typing at this point, misspelled “*siempre*” (always). Joel recognizes this mistake and initiates repair on this word through his pointing in line 1, followed by explicit correction in line 2. Without the video recording of the computer screen it would have been impossible to verify Joel’s specific correction. In such cases, therefore, access to these videos made it possible to analyze the interactions in more detail.

Because the objective of the present study was to focus on how students collaborate and attend to language effectively, only instances in which the participants focused on language were analyzed. Instances in which participants made mistakes, but did not single them out as such, were not included for analysis in this study. In example 3.1 above there are two misspellings (*tinene* [meant be *tiene*-he has] and *simpre* [*siempre*-always]). This dyad did not initiate repair on

“tinene”; therefore, this particular mistake was not singled out for analysis.

### **Data Analysis.**

Interactions in these dyads were transcribed according to the conventions developed by Gail Jefferson (1984), which include attention to pauses, overlaps and intonation (see Appendix F for transcription conventions). Body language, in terms of eye gaze, head movement and body position is also noted and examined, as it is my belief that they are relevant to the ongoing action of the speakers. Because not all the dialogue is in English, but rather a large portion of it is in Spanish, the Spanish utterances was translated. This is reflected in the transcript in three glosses: the original Spanish, a morpheme-by-morpheme translation, and an English equivalent. Discourse and conversation analytic methods (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984; Drew & Heritage, 1992; Schegloff, 2007) were used to analyze the dyads.

## CHAPTER 4

### HOW COLLABORATIVE ARE COLLABORATIVE WRITING ACTIVITIES?

#### THE EFFECT OF DYAD TYPE ON COOPERATION

Research in second language acquisition has emphasized the importance of native speaker (NS)-non native speaker (NNS) interaction in the acquisition process (Long & Porter, 1985; Long, 1983a, 1996). According to the literature, these interactions are beneficial in terms of not only increasing comprehension of L2 input; they also expose the NNS to grammatically accurate and pragmatically appropriate language (Long, 1981). Swain (1985, 1995) argues, however, that input is not a sufficient means by which to acquire a second language given that a learner can understand the meaning of an utterance without fully understanding its structure. She contends that output is also a necessary component, as it requires a learner to notice the difference between his/her own language and the target language. Pica (1994) points out that this “modification and restructuring of interaction that occurs when learners and their interlocutors anticipate, perceive, or experience difficulties in message comprehensibility” is referred to as negotiation. It is through these negotiations that learners notice their linguistic limitations, modify their hypotheses and move closer to the target language (Gass, 1997).

Various studies have examined how these negotiations work in different types of dyads. Long (1981) demonstrated that in NS-NNS interactions, NSs modify their speech through repetitions, expansions, clarifications and questions. Despite the benefits of NS-NNS pairings, however, Varonis and Gass (1985) argue that unequal power relations in this particular dyad type can discourage negotiation. In fact, in their comparison of NS-NNS and NNS-NNS exchanges, they found that the NNS-NNS dyads negotiated more frequently than the NS-NNS dyads. Moreover, the most negotiation occurred among participants with different L1s and different

proficiency levels. While these studies focused on negotiation involving monolingual NSs and NNSs, negotiation between heritage language learners (HLLs) and NNSs has been underexplored in the literature. One such study conducted by Blake and Zyzik (2003) explored the dynamics of HLL-L2L (second language learner) dyads within a computer-mediated context and found that these dyads engaged in the same types of negotiations as NNS-NNS dyads. They argue that although the HLLs provided more support than their L2L partners, both participants nevertheless benefited. Bowles (2011) also indicated mutual benefit to both parties. Her study demonstrated that while HLLs relied on L2Ls for help with orthography, NNSs received assistance with vocabulary from HLLs.

Based on anecdotal evidence, it seems that it is common practice for instructors to deliberately separate HLL-HLL dyads in favor of mixed dyads. This is not surprising given the fact that, as previously established, research has demonstrated benefits to pairing more proficient speakers with lower proficiency ones. Indeed, the few studies that have focused on HLL-L2L dyads (Blake & Zysik, 2003; Bowles, 2011) have pointed to the ways in which each can benefit from these interactions. Working with L2Ls can boost HLLs' confidence. Additionally, HLLs gain experience with registers they may not be proficient with, as well as gain from their L2L partner's knowledge of spelling and accent placement. Conversely, HLLs help L2Ls augment their linguistic repertoire.

Although the benefits of HLL-L2L interactions are clear, the data in the present study demonstrates that such interactions can create challenges with regard to language negotiation. Though dyads in which participants shared a similar language experience (i.e. HLL-HLL or L2L-L2L) tended to develop their writing product collaboratively and negotiated language issues with relative frequency, mixed dyads (i.e. HLL-L2L) were far less collaborative. Moreover, the

collaboration in these mixed dyads consisted mainly of story development. The L2L gave input with regard to the direction of the story they were constructing, while the HLL took charge of the formulation of language. Furthermore, these mixed dyads relied heavily on translation; the L2L frequently developed the story in English with the expectation that the HLL would translate that story into Spanish.

### L2L-L2L Dyads

#### Example 4.1—“Él se cae” (he falls)

The following example involving Joel and Sharif, two L2Ls, demonstrates the way in which cooperation typically takes place in this dyad type. This dyad is describing a picture of a young man in mid-air as he skateboards off of concrete stairs (see figure C.7 in Appendix C). This exchange takes place about half way through the interaction, when Joel is attempting to generate a sentence in which he describes his character falling.

Example 4.1—Sharif (L2L) and Joel (L2L)

01 JOE: A (1.0) veces (0.6) u:m  
*at times*  
**Some times uhm**

02 (4.0)

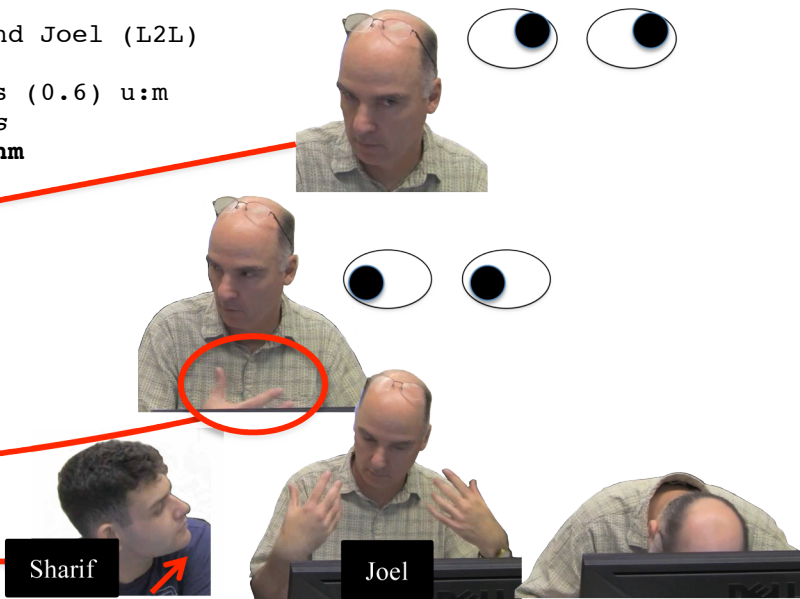
03 JOE: é:l um  
*he*  
**he um**

04 (1.2)

05 JOE: salto:?  
~~Jumped-1P.SG~~  
**jumped?**

06 (2.2)

07 SHA: oh oh caye caigo cae  
*falls-3P.SG fall-1P.SG fall-2P.SG*  
**oh oh he falls I fall he falls**



08 (2.0)

09 SHA: o:, (.) sí?  
oh yes  
**oh yes?**

10 (1.0) ((Joel nods heads))

11 JOE: sí? (0.6) uh::  
yes  
**yes? uh:::**

12 (2.6)

13 JOE: caigu[é?  
Fell ed((non-existent conjugation))  
**felled?**

14 SHA: [ 'ye caye. sí, (.) cay (1.8)  
'll fall-2P.SG yes fal  
'll he falls yes, fal

15 SHA: e:: a veces e:: él cay e. (0.6) como: (0.8) C A  
at times fall s.2P.SG like C A  
**mm sometimes mm m falls mm like C A**

16 (1.2) uh::

17 JOE: a i:::: ((pronounces English E)  
A I  
**A I**

18 (4.0)

19 SHA: él s[e caye él se caye  
he PART falls-2P.SG he PART falls-2P.SG  
**he falls he falls**

20 JOE: [cayó  
fell-2P.SG  
**he fell**

21 (1.0)

22 JOE: se cay:  
PART falls-2P.SG  
**He falls**

23 (2.6) ←

24 JOE: °ah° (0.6) sí

25 (3.8)

26 JOE: mm



As Joel attempts to create a sentence, he encounters his first problem; he does not know the word for “fall.” This prompts him to initiate a word search in line 1 with his utterance of “uh:m.” This utterance is then followed by a 4 second silence in which he moves his gaze away from the screen, up to his left, and then to Sharif. He follows this with the subject “él” (he) and “uhm” again. Given that Sharif does not interject a candidate answer, Joel provides his own in line 5 when he utters the word “salto?” (jumped). In this line, he offers this candidate answer with rising intonation and in so doing, signals to Sharif that he is trying the word out, but not entirely sure of its accuracy. While his initial pleas for help begin in line 1 with the “uh:m,” it is not until this moment that Sharif registers his awareness that he being asked to contribute to this word search. Sharif, however, is apparently not clear on what Joel has in mind, and therefore, as the silence in line 6 begins, he raises his chin indicating to Joel that he does not fully understand his meaning. At this point, Joel acts out the verb “to fall” by raising both of his hands and bringing his entire upper body to the desk. In this way, he demonstrates for Sharif the verb he is looking for. This is the only dyad in this study that strictly adhered to the Spanish-only policy of the classroom. Therefore, rather than switch to English and simply ask “How do you say \_\_\_ (fill in the blank)” as many other dyads do, Joel acts out his word search. This acting out proves to be very effective as Sharif registers his understanding with the “oh oh” in line 7 which reveals his change of state of knowledge (Heritage, 1984). This is then followed by the candidate answer, which he offers in various forms “caye caigo cae” for Joel to choose from. Sharif then reregisters his understanding of the falling in line 9 followed by a request that Joel acknowledge that understanding. Joel, in turn nods his head affirmatively as he types during the silence in line 10, and then does so verbally in line 11.



Although at this point the word search has been resolved, the negotiation now evolves into a negotiation of the correct form. In the silence in line 12 in which Joel begins to type, Sharif looks up the word using the dictionary on his cell phone. At this point, Joel offers “caigue?” as a possible conjugation to the verb *caer* (to fall) in line 13. Having looked up the word, Sharif positions himself as the expert here by dictating the correct form and spelling of the word “cae” (he falls) in the remainder of this episode. He begins line 14 by reiterating only the morpheme, which reflects the tense and subject, and then offering the entire word, followed by an affirmation of its correctness and the word again. Although the correct spelling of the word is *cae* and its pronunciation [ka|e], Sharif’s pronunciation of this word varies in that he creates a diphthong on the first syllable in his first attempt at the word, [kai|e], and then raises the vowel in the second [ka|i]. By this point in the interaction, Joel, as the typist, has written “caig” and waits on Sharif to produce the next morpheme. It appears that Joel has taken Sharif’s candidate answer “caigo” from line 7. Although this is an irregular verb, Joel does not appear to be aware of this and therefore assumes that the stem of the verb is “caig-” rather than the correct form “ca-.” In any event, we can see that both participants are collaborating in the production of the text. Sharif sees the “caig” on the screen and utters line 15. Here, he repeats the first part of the sentence and then says “cay e” as two separate syllables in order to indicate to Joel that he has spelled the word wrong. He then begins to spell the word “C A.” However, Sharif’s pronunciation causes problems for Joel who is very much aware of Spanish spelling rules.<sup>3</sup> For this reason, Joel’s

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<sup>3</sup> Although Joel produced a non-existent conjugation with the word “caigué” in line 13, it nevertheless demonstrates his awareness of Spanish grammar and spelling rules. He has taken the word “caigo” from line 7, removed the first person singular morpheme –o and replaced it with the third person morpheme –e. According to Spanish spelling rules, in order for the “g” to retain its pronunciation as the voiced velar [g] when followed by an “e” the morpheme is spelled “gue.” Therefore, his spelling indicates that he is applying his knowledge of these rules as he processes what he hears.

utterance in line 17 is his understanding of this mispronunciation. Sharif does not register a misunderstanding here. It should be noted that L2 learners of Spanish often interpret [i] to mean the English “e.” It may be that Sharif processes Joel’s “i” in line 17 in such a way. This would explain the fact that he does not attend to Joel’s spelling of “cai.” Instead, in the silence that follows Sharif shifts his gaze down before coming up with the correction “él se caye él se cae” in line 19. We see further modification of the verb here as Sharif adds a reflexive pronoun to the word. At this point, Joel erases “cai” entirely and begins to type “se cai.” Not until the silence in line 21 does Sharif see Joel’s misspelling. Given this misunderstanding, Sharif decides to simply make the correction himself, upon which Joel finally registers his understanding in line 24.

What this example demonstrates is that these two participants are working together to produce the text. While Joel has offered a direction for the story and asks for help when he encounters a problem, Sharif is quick to offer that help. That help consists of various transformations of Joel’s candidate answer “salto” from line 7 through its final version in line 22, “se cay.” They work together in transforming this sentence into something that reflects their understanding of how the language works.

#### **Example 4.2—“Isn't it viernes (Friday)”**

The next example is from another L2L-L2L dyad. In this case, Sophia and Adel are working on constructing the sentence, “Pensamos hacer jugar al futbol en este viernes” (We plan to play soccer this Friday), when Sophia encounters problems with the spelling of “viernes” (Friday). She begins to look up the word in her textbook and Adel takes notices.

Example 4.2—Samantha (L2L) and Adel (L2L)

01 ADE: Whata ya looking for?  
02 SOP: uh the days a the week

03 ADE: isn't it viernes

04 SOP: viernes (0.2) yeah  
*Friday*  
**Friday**

05 (5.2)

06 ADE: en viernes:: uh::::  
*in Friday*  
**on Friday**

07 (4.0)

08 SOP: is it V E ernes or viernes ((focus on spelling))  
*Friday Friday*  
**Friday Friday**

09 ADE: vi::ernes  
*Friday*  
**Friday**

10 (3.8)

11 ADE: I should have it tabbed with- for all the vocab

12 (1.2)

13 SOP: °seriously°

14 (4.2)

15 ADE: °let's see° (2.6) mm::

16 SOP: I got (.) viernes si  
*Friday yes*  
**Friday yes**

17 ADE: okay

Adel effectively expresses her willingness to help in line 1 by posing the question, "Whata ya looking for?" Previous to this example, the pair had agreed on the formulation of this sentence, and therefore, when Sophia says she is looking for the days of the week in line 2, Adel can be sure she is looking specifically for Friday. However, unlike the previous example in which Sharif simply produced the candidate answer, Adel mitigates her epistemic status by posing her utterance as a question in line 3. This enables Sophia to confirm its correctness. In the

silence that follows, Sophia starts to type "viernes" when she encounters a problem again; she is unsure of its spelling. At this point, she solicits help from Adel in line 8 by uttering two alternative spellings to the word. Although Adel's repair is correct, and she explicitly focuses on the trouble source by emphasizing the [i] in "viernes," she nevertheless looks it up in her textbook. This suggests her insecurity in her own language abilities and the importance she places on the epistemic authority of the textbook. At this point, her comment in line 11 highlights the fact that having to look up such information can be a tedious process of sifting through the information in the textbook. Another function of line 11 is to offer an account for why her response requires more time. In order to demonstrate her own understanding and alignment with Adel's utterance, Sophia validates this statement in line 13. Line 15 then, allows Adel to take her turn as well as indicates her continued search for the word with the "mm." This "mm" serves to cede the floor to Sophia, who announces her successful search and confirms that yes, they have, in fact, correctly spelled the word.

Like the previous example, this interaction demonstrates that both partners take responsibility for the language. When one partner encounters a problem, the other is willing to help in solving that problem. The interaction that follows is an extended one in which both partners negotiate the meaning and spelling of the word in question. However, there is one important difference here: these interactions demonstrate that women mitigate their statements far more often than men do. Although I have only provided two examples here, the pattern tends to be true throughout these interactions. This is not surprising given that other researchers have found the same (e.g. Barnes & Vangelisti, 1995; M. H. Goodwin, 1990; Holmes, 1984, 1987; Tannen, 1998). Another distinct difference between this interaction and the previous one is the language they choose to communicate with. In example 4.1, the interaction is entirely in Spanish,


while in example 4.2, the interaction is in English, and only one word, “viernes” (Friday), is said in Spanish.

### HLL-HLL Dyads

#### Example 4.3—“is it si no se come?”

Cooperation is also a prevalent phenomenon in HLL-HLL interactions. In the following example involving Delia and Mayra, they are describing a picture in which a little girl is eating noodles (See figure C.2 in Appendix C). According to their story, the little girl would like to go out and play, but her mother requires her to eat her vegetables first. Subsequent to Delia's formulation of the sentence, Mayra notices a problem with the utterance and initiates repair. This is the resulting repair sequence.

Example 4.3—Delia (HLL) and Mayra (HLL)

01	DEL:	pero si no come su verdura:s no puede <i>but if no eats-3P.SG her vegetables no able-to-3P.SG</i> <b>but if she doesn't eat her vegetables she can't</b>	
02		(4.2)	
03	MAY:	no:	
04		(4.0)	
05	MAY:	is it si no <u>se</u> come? <i>if no REFL.PRON eats-3P.SG</i> <b>if she doesn't eat</b>	
06		(5.2)	
07	MAY:	si no se come s[u:s] <i>if no REFL.PRON eats-3P.SG her.PL</i> <b>if she doesn't eat her</b>	
08	DEL:	[yeah: I think that sounds right	

Mayra begins to type Delia's formulation in the silence in line 2. Mayra's no in line 3 serves two distinct functions: 1) it is a repetition of the "no" prior to "come" from Mayra's

previous turn; and 2) the elongation on the end of this word is an initiation of repair. *Comer (to eat)* is commonly used as a reflexive verb in Spanish, and as she types the "no," Mayra notices that Delia did not use a reflexive pronoun. Therefore, she stops typing, turns to Delia to her right, and offers a correction. Like the previous example, Mayra mitigates her correction by framing it as a question and emphasizing the missing pronoun. Rather than respond immediately, Delia displays a pensive look as she considers this correction. However, when Delia allows a long silence to pass without offering her evaluation, Mayra reiterates her correction. At this point, Delia interjects with her agreement that this is the correct form. Interestingly, while the previous L2L-L2L dyads relied on the epistemic authority of outside sources (Sharif used an online dictionary and Sophia and Adel referred to the textbook) these participants make no effort to consult such sources. Instead, these participants rely entirely on their own intuition of what "sounds right" and thus consult their internalized understanding of Spanish grammar. This is a very common practice within a heritage learner dyad.

#### **Example 4.4—"Is that how you spell it?"**

The following is another example of HLL-HLL cooperation. This interaction takes place between Manuel and Gabriel, who are creating a story around a picture of a turkey (See figure C.4, Appendix C). Previous to this excerpt, they have written that their protagonist was unable to purchase a turkey for Thanksgiving, and they are now in the process of explaining that this character was able to capture one in the wild.

Example 4.4—Miguel (HLL) and Gabriel (HLL)

01       GAB:     um  
02       MAN:     y logré                      capturar [tres \*ja ja ja  
               *and succeeded-1P.SG capture-INF three*  
               **and I was able to capture three ((laughing))**

03 GAB: [logré capturar:  
*succeeded-1P.SG capture-INF*  
**I was able to capture**

04 MAN: is that how you spell it or no tsk-okay  
05 (1.8)

06 GAB: able. as in able?  
07 (1.0)

08 MAN: yeah  
09 (1.8)

10 GAB: how you spell able ha he ((laughing))

11 MAN: A B L E ha ha ((laughing))

12 GAB: A B, L E,

13 MAN: no [just A B L E

14 GAB: [oh

15 GAB: e hol' on o >yeah yeah<  
16 (1.0)

17 MAN: capaz?  
*capable*  
**capable**

18 GAB: capaz?  
*capable*  
**capable**

19 (0.8)

20 GAB: no  
21 (0.6)

22 GAB: logré?  
*succeeded-1P.SG*  
**I succeeded**

23 (0.4)

24 GAB: is that how you spelled it? logré? is that the one you said

25 MAN: yeah  
26 (0.4)

27 GAB: English

28 MAN: >I think it's like ( )<

29 GAB: oops Spanish  
30 (2.4)

31 GAB: achieve

32 MAN: achieve

33 GAB: alright

34 MAN: is that how you spell it then hokay

35 GAB: °that's it°

In the activity leading up to this segment, Manuel had been typing while Gabriel did most of the story telling. In line 2, however, Manuel interjects with "logré capturar tres." Line 4 demonstrates that as he types this, he doubts his own ability to spell the word "logré." As was mentioned in chapter 2, HLLs often have good oral/aural skills, but lack literacy skills in their heritage language. This tends to cause issues with their writing and this case is no exception. What is interesting about Gabriel's response to Manuel's asking for help is that Gabriel translates the word to English in line 6. Given that this is a Spanish as a foreign language classroom, and Spanish-English dictionaries are the norm, these learners are not accustomed to consulting monolingual dictionaries, and this may be the reason for their use of translation in this exchange. Another reason may be that they are simply more proficient in English. Perhaps significantly, neither of these two participants stated which was their stronger language. Nevertheless, translation becomes an important element in the way in which Gabriel attempts to resolve this issue. Rather than look up the spelling of the word "logré," Gabriel uses the English word "able" in an online translator in an attempt to generate *lograr* (to achieve). This strategy, however, proves inadequate as the online translator produces the word "capaz" (capable). Therefore, when Gabriel reports his findings in line 17, Manuel confirms his understanding by repeating "capaz" in line 18, and then rejecting it in line 19. Manuel again reiterates "logré?" in line 22 as an indication that this is word he intends to use. As a result, Gabriel changes his strategy. He confirms that this is the word for which Manuel needs the correct spelling and then Gabriel proceeds to use the online translator in reverse. Presumably, if the online translator offers an acceptable English translation, then "logré" must be spelled correctly. When they confirm this, therefore, Gabriel acknowledges that Manuel's original spelling was correct.



This example, like the previous ones, shows how cooperation and language negotiation is the norm in same type dyads (HLL-HLL/L2L-L2L). In this case, Manuel asks his partner for help in determining the correct spelling of a word, and both partners work together to find that word. Although they do not ultimately spell the word with the required written accent, and in fact, their composition (Appendix E-1) does not have any written accents, they are nevertheless attempting to solve the issue together. Unlike example 4.3 where Delia and Mayra rely on their internalized grammar, Manuel and Gabriel's difficulty requires further investigation. It should be noted, however, that even though they consult the online dictionary, they still rely heavily on their own intuitions. The use of both English and Spanish is also prevalent in both dyads. In each of these examples, communication between the participants is conducted in English, while the formulation of the language going into the story telling is in Spanish. This is a likely reflection of their comfort level with each language.

### **HLL-L2L Dyads**

#### **Example 4.5—"Qué pasa después" (What happens next?)**

Examples 4.1 through 4.4 have demonstrated that learners who are paired with other learners of a similar language background (HLL-HLL/L2L-L2L) negotiate language, and in such dyads negotiation occurs frequently. In contrast, in mixed dyads (HLL-L2L) in which learners do not share a similar language background language negotiation is far less frequent. In these interactions the HLL tends to take charge of the activity and limits the L2L's participation as we see in the following examples. Moreover, in instances where collaboration does occur, most of these instances take the form of translation.

The following interaction takes place between Diego, an HLL, and Jesse, an L2L. This pair is describing a group of boys playing soccer (see picture C.7 in Appendix C). What is most

striking in this interaction is the lack of eye contact between each participant, and the fact that Diego, who is typing, limits Jesse's participation. The only input that Diego allows from Jesse is input with regard to the story itself and not in the formulation of the language.

Example 4.5—Jesse (L2L) and Diego (HLL)

01 DIE: y:: uh qué pasa después  
and what happens-3P.SG after  
**and what happens next**

02 (1.8)

03 JES: **tsch u:m**

04 DIE: uh (1.2) °s-° (1.0) °s-° va y mete gol?  
uh go-3P.SG and puts-in-3P.SG. goal or  
**does he score?**

05 o se la roba a Pablo el- él roba  
or PART it steals-3P.SG to Pablo the he steals-3P.SG  
**or does he steal it- he steals**

06 el balón?  
the ball  
**the ball**

07 JES: se mete el gol  
himself puts-in-3P.SG. the goal  
**he scores**

08 DIE: él? se va y mete gol?  
he himself goes-3P.SG and puts-in-3P.SG goal  
**him? he scores?**

09 JES: mhm

10 DIE: okay

11 (2.2)

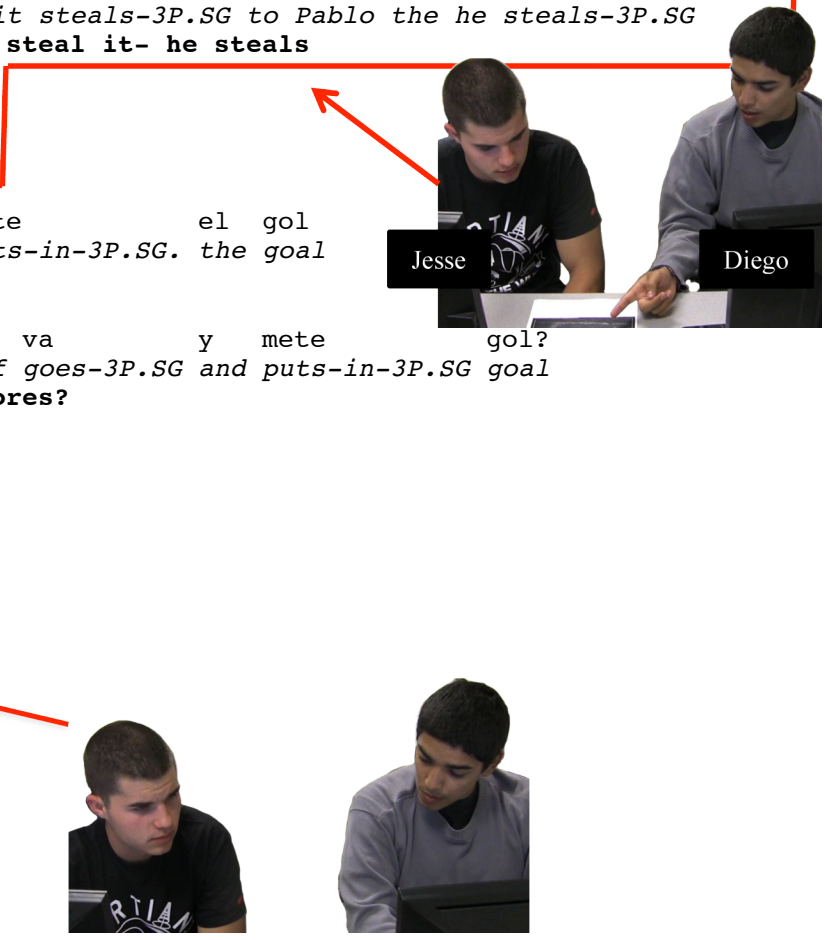
12 DIE: Jorge::

13 (10.8)

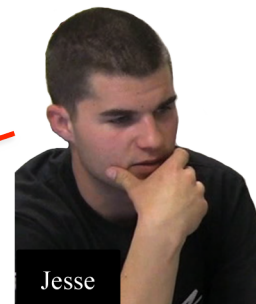
14 DIE: Pablo.

15 (2.8)

16 JES: ah sí  
oh yes  
**oh yeah**



16 (2.0)  
17 JES: °logra                   vencer       a Pablo°  
          accomplishes-3P.SG defeat.INF to Pablo  
          °he manages to beat Pablo°



In line 1 we see that Diego encourages Jesse's participation in the story telling by asking him what happens next. This is followed by a 1.8 second silence in which Jesse is presumably formulating his thoughts. Given that he has been asked a question, he must take his turn. He does so, therefore, in line 3 by uttering "tsch um." This response serves not only to take his turn, but also to signal to Diego that he is deciding on what to say next (Herbert H Clark & Fox, 2002). Diego ignores Jesse's apparent effort to formulate responses and begins his utterance in line 4 with "uh," thus seizing the floor and holding his position as current speaker. This then allows him to formulate a suggestion for Jesse. In the remainder of the turn, Diego gives Jesse a choice in the direction of the story thereby limiting Jesse's input. Jesse is no longer allowed to formulate his own ideas with regard to the story; rather, he must chose between the two options afforded him. Interestingly, not once during this exchange, does Diego look at Jesse. Rather, he gazes at the picture and through his pointing, directs Jesse's gaze to the picture as well. Likewise, Jesse does not look at his partner during this exchange. This may be a reflection of each participant's perceived role. Diego may not think of himself as a facilitator in Jesse's language learning, rather he may see himself as the expert responsible for making sure that the output is correct at all costs. Jesse may feel the same. Nonetheless, such behavior underscores the lack of personal connection between the two.

When Jesse decides among the choices given to him, he does so through format typing. Diego's formulation in line 4, "mete gol," is expanded upon by Jesse, "se mete gol" (line 7). In this case, Jesse has unnecessarily added the reflexive pronoun *se*. Diego's response in line 8, serves two functions then: 1) he performs an embedded correction by adding the verb "va" (he goes), which makes the reflexive pronoun appropriate in this context; and 2) by repeating Jesse's utterance he confirms the choice he has made. As Diego begins to type he needs to be reminded of one of the character's names. This is evident by his elongation on the name in line 12. Again, he does not gaze at his partner, Jesse; rather, he fixes his gaze on the picture (line 10), effectively excluding Jesse.

We can see from this interaction that this particular dyad exhibits minimal cooperation. Diego is clearly in control of the interaction. Not only is he the one typing and formulating the language, he is also formulating the story itself. Jesse's only contribution here is to decide on the direction of the narration based on the choices he was given. This is not to say that Jesse is not engaged in the interaction. Rather the opposite is true. This is evident from the fact that Jesse's gaze is always on either the computer or the picture. He further shows his engagement in line 17 where he quietly reads the sentence that Diego is currently typing.

That this dyad engages in minimal cooperation is not to say that the benefits referred to in the literature with regard to mixed dyads (Blake & Zysik, 2003; Bowles, 2011) are not present. Based on Diego's comportment, this exchange likely boosts his confidence. He is after all positioning himself as the expert and demonstrating his control of the language. At the same time, Jesse is exposed to a broader linguistic repertoire in which he receives grammatically accurate input. Krashen (1982) would argue that this is sufficient for acquisition. According to him, comprehensible input is the only mechanism by which learners subconsciously acquire

language and that output does not affect a learner’s ability. However, other researchers (Gass et al., 1998; Gass & Selinker, 2010; Long, 1981, 1983b; Pica, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Swain, 1985, 1995) however, have demonstrated that input alone is not sufficient. Therefore, given that the purpose of this interaction is to aid in the acquisition process, and according to the literature, acquisition occurs through negotiation, this is not an ideal interaction.

**Example 4.6—“cómo le ponemos” (how do we put it)**

While it is true that Diego has a strong personality and has a tendency to take charge of the interaction, there is a difference in the way he works with Jesse, an L2L, and the way he works with Javier, an HLL. Like his interaction with Jesse, Diego is also in control of the interaction that takes place with Javier. Figure 4.1 shows that Diego controls the computer on which they are to compose their narration. Additionally, we can see that his eye gaze is directed at the computer screen and his furrowed brow indicates contemplation of the task at hand. Javier, on the other hand, appears distant both physically and mentally. Not only does he look to be at a substantial distance from the computer screen physically, from which it is likely difficult to monitor Diego’s activity, the alignment of Javier’s body is directed forward rather than at Diego’s computer. His slouched posture and neutral face are further indications of his alienation.



Figure 4.1: Diego (HLL) and Javier (HLL)

The following excerpt, which is the first exchange at which the pair begins the composition process, demonstrates that although Javier resists, Diego insists on his participation.

Example 4.6—Diego (HLL) and Javier (HLL)

01 DIE: cómo le ponemos ((Diego gazes towards Javier))  
how to-it put-we  
**how do we put it**

02 (2.0)

03 JAV: \*hh

04 (3.0)

05 JAV: Como sea (hazle)  
What is-it (make-to-it)  
**Whatever (put)**

06 (1.0)

07 DIE: cómo [le ponemos °a-°  
How to-it put-we to her  
**What [do we call her**

08 JAV: [how- how do you say surfing? In Spanish

09 DIE: surfear?  
To-surf  
**to surf?**

10 JAV: surfear? Eh?  
To-surf huh  
**to surf? Eh?**

11 DIE: eh- es- que pasó, um  
is-it that passed-it  
**uh it's- what happened, um**

12 (3.0)

13 DIE: cómo le ponemos a ella  
what to-it put-we to her  
**What should we call her**

14 JAV: o el nombre  
oh the name  
**oh her name**

15 DIE: sí  
**yeah**

16 (7.0)

17 JAV:        **uh:m:::**

18               (34.0)

19 DIE:        cómo le    ponemos?  
               what to-it put-we  
               **what should we call her?**

20               (4.0)

21 JAV:        pónle::: **Juana(h) ha ha**  
               put-to-it  
               **put:::**

22 DAV:        **Jua(h)na(h)?**

23 JOR:        **je je je a** co[mo quieras  
                                   how        want-you  
                                   **what[ever you want**

24 DAV:                                    [perfecto perfecto  
   **[perfect perfect**

25               (0.2)

26 DAV:        trabaja  
                   works-it  
                   **it works**

We can see in line 1 that Diego’s question is prompting Javier to participate. However, rather than offer immediate cooperation, Javier allows a long pause during which he exhales (lines 2-3) before he gives a somewhat dismissive answer in line 5. While the “como sea” (whatever) displays Javier’s stance as disinterested in the activity, he nonetheless follows this with “hazle” (put), which indicates modest cooperation. Therefore, we can see that although he seems to begrudgingly participate in the activity, he is rather indifferent about it. During this time, Diego sustains his gaze towards Javier and then escalates his persistence to a verbal pursuit by reissuing the question in line 7 and thus forcing Javier to initiate a word search in line 8. It is particularly interesting that the word search is in English as this is consistent with studies on L2L-L2L interaction (Antón & Dicamilla, 1999), which indicate that L2 speakers use the L1 to mediate their cognitive processes. This was also evident with the HLL-HLL dyads in examples

4.3 and 4.4. Diego then offers a candidate answer in line 9 given that he responds with upward question intonation. Javier's response to this is to repeat "surfear?" (to surf) while adding on the "eh?" (huh?). In effect, this questions the validity of this answer. It may be that Javier recognizes that the word "surfear" is simply a borrowing of the English word *surf* with the added Spanish morpheme *-ear* to transform it into a verb. While this type of transformation is typical of languages, there is a stigma attached to the use of what Spanish speakers, particularly those living in the US, perceive as Spanglish (i.e. the mixing of English and Spanish). Therefore, his reaction in line 10 may be his recognition of this.

The analysis above is based on Javier's interpretation of line 1 which I have translated as "How do we put it". However, based on the remainder of the transcript, I argue that Diego's original meaning was "What do we call her". The ambiguity in this phrase comes from the word "le". This is a third person singular direct object pronoun, which takes as a referent *he*, *she* or *it*. The interpretation that Diego is attempting to generate a name for this character can be seen as early as line 7 where Diego repeats his original question "cómo le ponemos" and then adds the personal "a" at the end of that line 7. In Spanish, when the direct object is a person, it must be preceded by the so called personal "a." Diego likely realizes that by omitting the indirect object (in this case it would have been "a ella" [to her]) he allowed for two separate interpretations of the utterance. Therefore, in order to prevent ambiguity, he initiates self-repair in line 7, but it is lost in the overlap with Javier's utterance in line 8. Based on this response, in which Javier orients to the activity portrayed in the picture of a girl surfing, Javier clearly interprets the "le" as an "it". Rather than insist on his original meaning for this utterance, Diego realigns the meaning to Javier's interpretation by following this new agenda. In doing so, he gives the continuation of the task, and Javier's participation in it, more importance than his original intent. It is seemingly



for this reason that he waits to initiate repair again, by placing it in third position (Schegloff et al., 1977), until Javier's inquiry has been resolved.

Diego finally returns to his agenda by offering the repair proper in line 13. However, he does so in a somewhat covert way. He offers a full repeat with the indirect object for clarification, but does not emphasize the latter. In so doing, this utterance could be understood as proposing a new agenda, and thus he accepts some of the blame for this misunderstanding. Diego's correction is similar to what Jefferson (1987) refers to as embedded correction, which has a tendency to minimize the importance of the error. Jefferson contends that embedded corrections are instances in which the co-participant offers an alternative lexical item that is then repeated by the first speaker. Although the speaker offered this concealed correction, it nonetheless demonstrates that he does not make a production of the error. In actuality, Javier is the one that acknowledges Diego's repair with his response in line 45, "o el nombre." Here he offers the "o" as a change of state of knowledge token (Heritage, 1998), which registers his understanding of the correction, and then clarifies his interpretation of Diego's original meaning.

After Diego confirms this new agenda, there is a seven second silence (line 16) followed by Javier's "uh:m:." (line 17) in which he takes his turn and indicates that he is thinking of what to say next (Herbert H Clark & Fox, 2002). Unlike the previous example (4.5) in which Diego immediately takes a turn after Jesse (an L2L) indicates that he is thinking (Example 4.5, line 3), Diego allows a very long 34-second pause (line 18) before he insists on Javier's participation once again. It appears that Diego has different expectations from his partners. While he expects his HLL partner to be a full participant in the production of the story, he likely sees his L2L partner as lacking the necessary linguistic capabilities to fully contribute. We see then, a very

different kind of relationship in each dyad. Diego practically dismisses his L2L partner, Jesse, but he consistently solicits participation from his HLL partner, Javier.

#### **Example 4.7—“We like chocolate”**

Cooperation in HLL-L2L dyads varied, and unlike Diego and Jesse, most dyads were not nearly as extreme with regard to the limited participation of the L2L; however, language negotiation was far less frequent in this dyad type. In fact the dynamics of these dyads was such a way that the HLL tended to function as translator while the L2L formulated the story in English. This can be seen in the following excerpt.

Example 4.7—Katarina (HLL) and Kelley (L2L)

01      KEL:    \*hh [chocolate.  
02      KAT:            [la Pas::  
                      *the Eas*  
                      **Easter**  
03      KEL:    We like chocolate.  
04      KAT:    ha ha ha  
05      KEL:    And bu(h)nnie(h)s  
06      KAT:    ha ha ha okay. Nos gusta::  
                                  *to-us pleasing*  
                                  **we like**  
07      KEL:    les        gusta?  
                                  *to-them pleasing*  
                                  **they like**  
08      KAT:    nos        gusta  
                                  *to-us pleasing*  
                                  **we like**  
09      KEL:    nos        gusta?  
                                  *to-us pleasing*  
                                  **we like**  
10      KAT:    nos aha las dos

This example begins in overlap as both Kelly and Katrina begin to develop the story. As this dyad is describing Easter activities (figure C.8 in Appendix C) Kelly begins to nominate chocolate as the topic, while Katarina suggests Easter. Because Kelly's topic nomination


occurred in overlap, she reiterates it, but this time in a complete sentence. Katarina is amused by this suggestion and laughs, which prompts Kelly to follow this up with bunnies in line 5. While Katarina cooperates in that she acquiesces to Kelly's topic nomination (line 6), it is important to note that Katarina translates Kelly's English sentence into Spanish. While there is some minimal language negotiation in this example—Katarina corrects Kelly's "les gusta" to "nos gusta" and then explains the choice of pronoun—most of the interaction in this dyad consists of Katarina dictating Spanish to Kelly. Moreover, in this 15-minute dyad this is the only grammatical negotiation that takes place. There are two word searches—one initiated by Kelly, the L2L, that leads Katarina to translate, and one initiated by Katarina in which she verifies the correctness of the word “Pascua” (Easter)—and seven spelling negotiations initiated by Kelly. Kelly is typing while Katarina translates their story into Spanish, and these spelling negotiations are Kelly’s inquiries about accent placement. These interactions will be further analyzed in chapter 5.

**Example 4.8—“What did you say?”**

Translating is a predominant strategy throughout the HLL-L2L dyads. In the following example, even though the dyad is cooperative in the sense that both parties are contributing something to the interaction, the tendency is for the HLL to translate what the L2L has offered as the next event. This is not to say that this dyad does not negotiate language. This is, however, the only mixed dyad in which negotiation is a common practice; the HLL often turns to her L2L partner for help with spelling. Nevertheless, even this dyad sets up the model of the HLL as translator. In this excerpt, Delia (HLL) and Sophia (L2L) create a sentence very similar to one the instructor provided in her model (Model 2, Appendix D).

Example 4.8—Sophia (L2L) and Delia (HLL)

01 DEL: oh you said it was gonna be a fun day or >what did you say?<  
 02 SOP: yeah r like thought it was gonna be a fun day r:  
 03 [I guess that's what that says huh? ha ha ha ha  
 04 DEL: [um pensaba \*ha wait  
           *thought-3P.SG*  
           **thought**  
 05 (0.4) ← Sophia  
 06 SOP: um: (1.8) they were re[ally excited  
 07 DEL: [piens: or piensan?  
 08 (1.8)  
 09 DEL: piensan



We see here that Delia asks Sophia to reiterate what she had originally said. As is often the case in interaction (Pomerantz, 1984), Sophia begins her turn with the affirmative "yeah" before she disagrees and provides an alternate sentence. This turn, which takes place in English, points to the expectation that Delia will then translate the utterance. As Sophia asserts that this is the meaning conveyed in the teacher's example, Delia overlaps Sophia with an initial formulation of her translation. She begins with the "um" to indicate that she is thinking of the right way in which to write this, and then follows this with a candidate version of the verb "pensaba" (thought). Her talking out loud does not appear to be an invitation for Sophia to engage in a word search. Rather, it is her own processing of the grammar. This is further shown by her posture in the silence that follows her utterance, turning her back to Sophia and consulting the handout that the instructor provided on the conjugations of present tense verbs (see Appendix A). Although Sophia attempts to engage Delia in line 6 by further modifying the story, Delia continues to shuffle through her paperwork while at the same time seemingly uttering candidate answers to

herself in line 7. Here, she pronounces the stem of the verb “piens-” followed by the conjugated verb form “piensan” (they think). Based on the fact that she is consulting the verb chart, she likely recognized the stem of *to think* and says it to herself as she finds the correct ending. In the silence that follows, she begins to type the word and then utters it in line 9 as she types. What this shows is that Delia takes full responsibility for the Spanish. Rather than ask her partner for help, she relies on her own resources to solve her problem.

It is also important to note that Delia began to write “pensaba” (thought) in the past tense. Because this was a Spanish I class, students had only studied the present tense; however, HLLs were not focused on grammar and often used the past tense. This lack of focus on grammar effectively rendered the L2L incapable of participating. This was true even though prior to the interaction, I reminded HLLs in Spanish I to use the present tense, and when in doubt, to refer to the handout. Therefore, the fact that Delia recognizes that she used the past tense and was able to find the present tense shows that she is beginning to acquire and apply the metalanguage.


#### **Example 4.9—“Tell me in English”**

The following exchange is taken from a dyad that was ultimately not chosen for inclusion in this study, given that Michael’s status as an L2L was less clear. I include it here because it demonstrates just how prevalent translating in HLL-L2L dyads is. Michael’s mother was Peruvian and spoke to him in Spanish until he was five years old, and Michael reports that after the age of five, he did not receive input in Spanish. Although he had knowledge of occasional lexical items, at the time this research was conducted, he was learning Spanish as foreign language. Moreover, in his interactions with other heritage speakers, it was clear that they saw him as an L2L. Thus, despite his early exposure to Spanish, at the time of this study, he more

closely fit the profile of an L2L. Octavio, the other participant in this dyad, is a third generation Mexican-American who has spoken Spanish with his grandparents his whole life.

In this interaction the pair is describing the same picture as the one used by the dyad in example 4.5 (figure C.12 in Appendix C)—a picture of young boys playing soccer. Prior to the interaction here, Michael had begun dictating the first sentence to Octavio in Spanish. Octavio, however, was preoccupied with asking the instructor what the rules of the interaction would be. The excerpt here immediately follows the teacher’s explanation that they should write the story together while one of the two types.

Example 4.9—Michael (L2L/HLL) and Octavio (HLL)

01	OCT:	alright watch	
02	MIC:	un día Tomás (1.6) juegan one day Tomás play-3P.PL <b>one day Tomás play</b>	
03		(1.0) ←	
04	OCT:	alright tell me in English	
05		(1.0)	
06	MIC:	one day Thomas was playing soccer with his friends.	

Octavio transitions from the interaction with the instructor to the task at hand when he announces “alright watch” in line 1. Presumably, the imperative “watch” indicates that he intends to offer the first sentence and thus ignore what Michael has previously offered. Michael, however, is not willing to allow this and thus interjects in line 2 with the sentence he had offered previously. Based on the fact that “Tomás” was not cut off, or pronounced with rising intonation, the 1.6 second silence in line 3 is likely a pause to enable Octavio to type. Octavio, however, does not begin to type, and Michael finishes the clause with the verb “juegan.” In so doing, Michael has offered a verb (*juegan*—third person plural) that does not agree with the subject

(*Tomás*). Rather than initiate repair, Octavio changes the rules of the interaction. In the silence that follows (line 3) Octavio lowers his head, faces Michael and then instructs in line 4, “alright tell me in English.” Again, the use of “alright” indicates a departure from the task into a negotiation of how that task will be carried out. There is a one second silence following Octavio’s imperative in which Michael displays a neutral face. Michael’s response to this is to simply obey. Interestingly, not only does Michael switch to a description in English, he even changes the pronunciation of the character’s name from the Spanish, *Tomás*, to the English equivalent, Thomas.

### **Conclusion**

What these examples demonstrate is that in L2L-L2L and HLL-HLL dyads, negotiation and cooperation are the norm, whereas HLL-L2L dyads vary. In L2L-L2L dyads, negotiations lead participants to rely on outside sources in order to resolve their difficulties. HLL-HLL dyads, however, rely to a large extent on their own knowledge of the language and what “sounds right.” Another major difference here is the fact that men tend to be very direct in offering candidate answers and performing repair. This was evident in example 4.1 when Sharif simply gave candidate answers. Women, on the other hand, tend to mitigate their statements. We saw this with Adel in example 4.2 and Mayra in example 4.3 where each woman framed the relevant information as a question. These findings are not surprising given that other studies have also found different interactional styles between men and women (e.g. M. H. Goodwin, 1982, 1990; Holmes, 1984, 1987). More specifically, these studies show that women tend to be more polite in their speech in that they hedge far more often than men do.

Dyads in which participants do not share a similar linguistic background (HLL-L2L) tend to be less productive in terms of what the literature suggests is optimal for language acquisition.

As previously mentioned, studies in SLA argue that language acquisition occurs through negotiation (Gass, 1997; Long, 1982, 1985; Pica, 1994; Swain 1985, 1995; Swain & Selinker, 2010) (Gass & Selinker, 2010; Gass, 1997; Long & Porter, 1985; Long, 1981, 1983c; Swain, 1985, 1995). Therefore, the finding that L2L-L2L and HLL-HLL dyads are doing just that speaks to the benefits of grouping these participants together in the L2 classroom. Varonis and Gass (1985) argue that L2L-L2L dyads work well together because they are comfortable in the fact that they share in their not knowing. This may also explain why HLL-HLL dyads are cooperative. After all, these participants also share their not knowing along with their knowing. This does not seem to be a factor, however, in mixed HLL-L2L dyads. In the mixed dyads, there appears to be an expectation that the HLL partner's knowledge supersedes that of the L2L; therefore, this power dynamic leads to a less cooperative interaction than the HLL-HLL and L2L-L2L interactions.

As mentioned in chapter 2, HLLs often lack Spanish literacy skills and have not always completely acquired Spanish grammatical forms such as the subjunctive. In their examination of NS-L2L and L2L-L2L interactions, Varonis and Gass (1985) demonstrated that the most frequent negotiations happen in dyads in which proficiency among the dyad members differs. Although it stands to reason that HLL-L2L dyads could also lead to frequent negotiations, the results of this investigation suggest otherwise. There may be various explanations as to why such dyads were less effective here. Based on conversations I have had with L2 students and colleagues that have taken classes in which HLLs enroll, L2Ls many times feel intimidated by the HLLs oral fluency. Often times L2Ls base their judgments on the HLLs Spanish abilities on their oral speech without fully understanding that the HLLs lack literacy skills. HLLs likely judge their language ability superior to their L2 classmates and may feel they have nothing to



learn from interacting with a weaker student and may feel that the L2L has nothing to contribute. Another possibility could be that students simply want to get the job done and take the easiest path. It would appear that student's language ideologies are an important factor in these interactions. A study that explores these ideologies may provide more insight into the reasons for this lack of negotiation.

## CHAPTER 5

### HOW HLLs AND L2Ls RESOLVE LANGUAGE ISSUES:

#### IMPLICATONS FOR LEARNING

Swain (1995) has argued that output is a central aspect of L2 learning. She points to three important functions of output: 1) noticing; 2) hypothesis formation and testing; and 3) metatalk. With regard to noticing, she contends that as learners attempt to construct meaning in the target language, they realize that they do not know how to convey a desired meaning; therefore, these learners recognize the limitations of their linguistic repertoire. Output can also lead to hypothesis formation. Specifically, this means that as they produce output, learners modify their speech and try out new language forms. It is by means of these alterations that learners test their hypotheses about the target language. Lastly, output serves a metalinguistic function—they use language to reflect on language. She refers to this as metatalk.

Investigations have shown that engaging in metatalk leads to L2 learning (LaPierre, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 2001; Swain, 2001). LaPierre's (1994) study, for example, demonstrated that over time students recalled knowledge they had learned collaboratively suggesting that when learners consciously reflect on language, they are also learning and retaining that knowledge. Her investigation also found that learners internalize their collaboratively negotiated language regardless of whether these forms are correct or not, therefore, accuracy is an important component of these collaborations.

The present chapter adds to the research on metatalk and examines HLL-HLL, L2L-L2L, and HLL-L2L collaborative interactions with the purpose of determining what language features learners hone in on and which language features lead to metatalk. It should be noted that given the small number of learners involved in the present study, no definitive conclusions can be

drawn, but the results are nevertheless suggestive. Because not all incidences involved extended negotiations, some were resolved in the next turn, this analysis will refer to language related episodes (LREs) by the students in each dyad. Swain (2001) defines an LRE as “any part of a dialogue where students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or other- or self-correct” (p. 61). LREs were divided into three separate categories: lexis, orthography, and grammar. Lexis refers to any attention learners gave to lexical items. This included word searches, attention to word choice, or questions regarding the meaning of words. Though orthography may be a form related aspect of language, it was singled out as a category because of its prevalence in the interactions that took place. Orthography included spelling and accent placement. Grammar LREs were those in which learners attended to aspects of Spanish grammar such as morphology, syntax, or discourse. Additionally, there was one instance in which Delia and Mayra (HLL-HLL) focused on punctuation. In this particular case, the punctuation in question was meant to separate clauses, and therefore, this episode was categorized as a grammatical one.

### **HLL-HLL Dyads**

Table 5.1 below shows a detailed count of the LREs within the HLL-HLL dyads. Of the 35 total LREs, 11 (31%) were lexis related, 11 (31%) were orthographically related, and 13 (37%) were grammar related. An analysis of the totals indicates that HLL-HLL dyads focused on all three language aspects—lexicon, orthography, and grammar—in relatively equal proportions. However, by separating the LREs by gender, we can see that although both the male and female dyads focused on lexicon in similar numbers, the males tended to focus more on orthographic issues (8 out of 11), while the females were more concerned with grammar (10 out of 13 total instances). Also, both of the female dyads attended to language issues with similar frequency. In

other words, with the exception of orthography, both female dyads attended to the three lexical items and five grammatical items. The same was not true of male dyads. In the case of the male dyads, Diego and Javier did not talk about grammar and attended to only four language issues—two lexical items and two orthographic ones.

Table 5.1: Type and Frequency of LREs by HLL-HLL Dyads

	Dyad	Lexical	Orthography	Grammar	Total
Females	Sabrina & Angie	3	2	5	10
	Delia & Mayra	3	1	5	9
	<b>Female Total</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>19</b>
Males	Diego & Javier	2	2	0	4
	Manuel & Gabriel	3	6	3	12
	<b>Male Total</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>16</b>
<b>Total (HLL-HLL)</b>		<b>11</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>35</b>

## Lexis

Differences and similarities in LREs also manifested themselves in the ways in which male and female dyads interacted during these episodes. With regard to lexis, male and female HLL-HLL dyads tended to initiate and resolve searches in different ways. The females, for example, tended to introduce candidate answers followed by a confirmation request. Another strategy was to ask “isn’t it \_\_\_ (fill in the blank)” or “is it \_\_\_ (fill in the blank).” The following example between Sabrina and Angie demonstrates both of these strategies.

Example 5.1—Sabrina (HLL) and Angie (HLL)

01 ANG: tch Ana::

02 (0.8)

03 SAB: ello- e:[:  
**they uh**

04 ANG: [fue era p\*hh es (1.0) patinadora?  
*Was-3P.SG was-3P.SG is-3P.SG skater?*  
**Was was p\*hh is a skater?**

05 (0.4)

06 SAB: [es::  
*is-3P.SG*  
**she is**

07 ANG: [°patinadora?°  
*skater-FEM.*  
**a skater**



08 SAB: es  
*is-3P.SG*  
**she is**

09 ANG: profies- professional [>I don't know<  
**profess- professional >I don't know**

10 SAB: [es profesional (1.2) pa tinadora?  
*is-3P.SG professional skater-FEM*  
**she is a professional skater**

11 (0.6)

12 ANG: isn't it (0.8) patinadora profesional?=  
*skater-FEM professional?*  
**isn't it professional skater ((word order))**

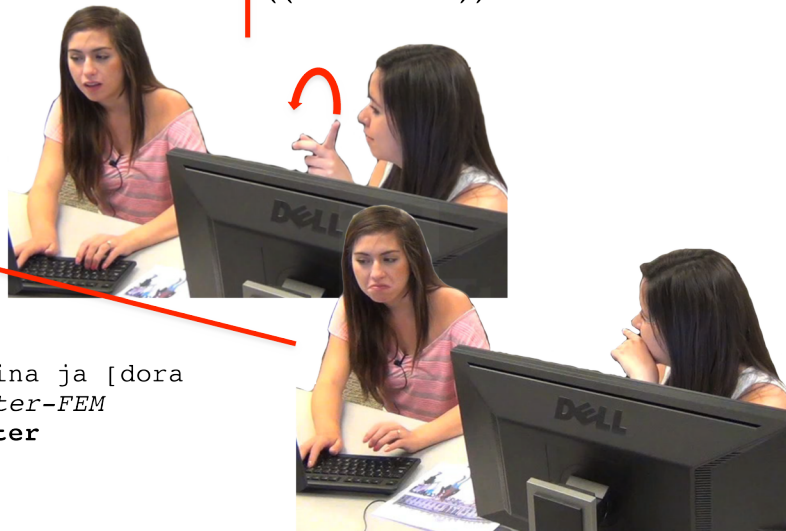
13 SAB: es  
*is-3P.SG*  
**she is**

14 ANG: right

15 SAB: m^mm::

16 ANG: je ja ea[aa  
**((laughter))**

17 SAB: [patina ja [dora  
*skater-FEM*  
**skater**



18 ANG: [ha [I thi(h)nk(h) tha(h)t's i(h)t(h) a ha  
19 ha  
20 SAB: [pro(h)fe(h)sio(h)na(h)l  
**professional**  
21 SAB: you should do that uh  
22 (0.8)  
23 SAB: °like° (0.6) ice skater (0.2) Ana es patinadora  
is-3P.SG skater-FEM.  
**Like ice skater Ana is a**  
24 profesional  
*professional*  
**professional skater**  
26 ANG: patinaje sobre hielo  
*skating over ice*  
**ice skating**  
27 SAB: Google translate sucks  
28 ANG: es patinaje?  
*is-3P.SG skating*  
**is it skating?**  
29 SAB: \*h e na es pa ti na dora profesional (.) mm:::  
*is-3P.SG skater-FEM profesional*  
**she is a professional skater**

This dyad is describing a winter scene in which various people are skating in a large town square (figure C.1 in appendix C), and Angie initiates a search for the word “skater.” Her search begins in line 5 after her grammatical search, where she offers the candidate answer “patinadora” (skater) with rising intonation. This rising intonation effectively asks for confirmation that this is the correct word. In the 0.4 second silence that follows (line 5) Sabrina looks up and displays a frown face in which she demonstrates her ongoing assessing of the candidate answer Angie has provided. Sabrina does not appear to be entirely satisfied with “patinadora” given that she initiates a word search of her own in line 6 as she elongates the word es::: (is). However, as Sabrina fails to offer an alternative, Angie reiterates the candidate answer, only this time in a

lower voice. She is likely affirming her choice of the word “patinadora” here, while at the same time attempting not to threaten her partner’s face. This is evidenced by the fact that in line 9 Angie makes further modifications when she adds “profesional” (professional). Angie ends this utterance with “I don’t know,” which once again serves to mitigate her face-threatening action by allowing for the possibility that there may be a better answer. It is at this point in the interaction that Sabrina utters her acceptance of the candidate answer, although she does so with an incorrect word order. Angie initiates another grammatical repair on the word order (line 12) by framing it as a question. Although Angie has epistemic authority over the correctness of the word order, her epistemic stance is that of not knowing; therefore, in framing her repair as a question, she mitigates the face-threatening action. Angie may feel that avoiding relationship-threatening types of criticism is important to maintain group harmony (Barnes & Vangelisti, 1995; Tannen, 1998). This is particularly true, given that Sabrina appears resistant to correction. Sabrina displays this resistance in her frown face in line 16 after Angie has asked her to acknowledge the correctness of her repair of the word order. Moreover, Sabrina seems so resistant to correction that she insists that Angie look up the word “patinadora” in line 22. In so doing, Sabrina challenges the correctness of Angie’s candidate answer.

Another interesting phenomenon of lexical LREs, which is true of both male and female HLL-HLL dyads, is that the participants tended to rely more on their own knowledge of Spanish lexicon. The remainder of this episode between Sabrina and Angie is an example of this. Although Sabrina has insisted that Angie look up the word for *ice skater*, when Angie reads “patinaje sobre hielo” (ice skating) in line 25, Angie immediately recognizes that this is not the word form she needs. Ultimately, the pair adopts Angie’s original word choice and employs

“patinadora profesional” (professional skater). Thus, these HLL participants put more stock in their instincts about the language, than the online translator.

While repair operations in the female dyads were limited to three strategies (candidate answer + confirmation, “is it \_\_\_ [fill in the blank]?” or “isn’t it \_\_\_ [fill in the blank]?”, and “how do you say \_\_\_ [fill in the blank]”), the male dyads employed a wider range of approaches. These included two instances where the partner initiated a word search by asking, “how do you say \_\_\_ [fill in the blank],” and one instance of each of the following: a) in situ repair which consisted of a partial repeat followed by an interrogative (*estaban qué?* [they were what?]); b) an imperative (e.g. “let’s say \_\_\_ [fill in the blank]”); and c) embedded correction (i.e. other initiated repair that does not make specific reference to the trouble source).










### **Orthography**

With regard to orthography, HLL-HLL dyads focused on the issues mentioned in the literature (see chapter 2 for a review), that is, they questioned words which contained sounds that can be represented orthographically by two or more letters (i.e. <b> versus <v> as [b], <y> versus <ll> as [j], etc.), accent placement, and cognates that in English are spelled with double letters (e.g. *Russia* in English versus *Rusia* in Spanish). Other orthographic issues stemmed from mispronunciation of words, or unfamiliarity with the words their partners proposed.

The following is an example of how HLL-HLL dyads negotiate letters that represent the same phoneme. This interaction takes place between Diego and Javier at the beginning of their exchange. Diego, as the designated typist, has written his own name on their document and then proceeds to write his partner’s name. As was previously mentioned, Bs and Vs pose problems because they are both orthographic representations of the phoneme [b]. Javier’s last name, Valdivia, has two, which leads to the following negotiation.



Example 5.2—Diego (HLL) and Javier (HLL)

01	DIE:	apellido. <i>Last-name</i> <b>Last name.</b>		
02		(0.8)		
03	JAV:	Sí uh Valdivia (.) con ve chica <i>Yes with V small</i> <b>Yes uh Valdivia (.) with a V</b>		
04		(0.6)		
05	DIE:	e- así <i>uh like-this</i> <b>uh- like this</b>		
06	JAV:	[eh um [uh um		
07	DIE:	[o [oh		
08	JAV:	<b>yeah that one (.) I (0.2) ve I A.</b> <b>V I A.</b>		
09		(0.4)		
10	DIE:	<b>Valdivia</b>		
11		(0.2)		
12	JAV:	<b>Yeah with the other (0.2) (otro)</b> <b>(other)</b>		
13	DIE:	o: (.) [Vívar oh:		
14	JAV:	[°right yeah°		

Upon being asked his surname, we see in line 3 that Javier is very much aware of the spelling issues that his last name can cause; therefore, he preempts the question of B or V by offering the correct form immediately. It is common practice for native speakers of Spanish to refer to the V as “ve chica” (small V) and the B as “be grande” (big B), and he employs this strategy here. However, Diego does not hone in on Javier’s directions. In line 5 Diego asks for confirmation by using the deictic term, “así” (like this), thus requiring Javier to visually inspect

the spelling Diego has used. At the same time, Diego turns his gaze to see Javier’s reaction and then immediately acknowledges his understanding that Javier said V with the change of state of knowledge token “o” in line 7 (Heritage, 1998). Though it is not clear what caused Diego to come to this understanding—he may have finally registered Javier’s “ve chica” from line 3, or he may have understood Javier’s intent gaze as negative feedback—it is clear that Javier’s repair proper in line 6 has no influence given that it occurs in overlap with Diego’s acknowledgement. Interestingly, Javier’s repair consists of both a verbal and a physical response. His utterance of “eh um” in line 6 could be interpreted as him seizing the floor and holding on to it (Herbert H Clark & Fox, 2002) while he thinks of a way to articulate the correct form. However, he draws a physical V with his finger in conjunction with his utterance which constitutes the repair proper. Although Javier acknowledges the successful negotiation of the first V in Valdivia in line 8, he once again anticipates a problem with the second V and finishes spelling his last name. In line 12, Javier once again initiates a repair sequence. He mitigates this repair however, by prefacing it with an agreement token (yeah) before indicating that Valdivia is spelled with a V and not a B. Furthermore, he once again draws a V with his finger to reinforce the correction.

An additional type of spelling issue that arose for HLL-HLL dyads involved words in which participants confused the pronunciation of a word. In the following example between Manuel and Gabriel, we see a negotiation over the correct spelling of the preposition *hacia* (toward).

Example 5.3—Manuel (HLL) and Gabriel (HLL)

01 GAB: no cuando iba caminando para mi carro  
no when went-1P.SG walking to my car  
**no when I was walking to my car**

02 MAN: okay

03 (1.0)

04 MAN: cuando iba (1.0) caminando >okay< (1.2) [es:  
*when went-1P.SG walking is*  
**when I was walking >okay< is it**

05 GAB: [nando  
*ing*  
**ing**

06 MAN: *hacie el carro?*  
*toward ((no such word)) the car*  
**toward the car**

07 GAB: *hac- hace el carro*  
*tow- toward ((pronunciation means "make")) the car*  
**tow- toward the car**

08 MAN: [°hacia°  
*toward ((pronunciation means "made"))*  
**toward**

09 GAB: [hace  
*toward ((pronunciation means "makes"))*  
**toward**

10 GAB: *hacea (0.4) el carro*  
*toward ((no such word)) the car*  
**toward the car**

11 MAN: °hacia el carro(h)° je je ja  
*toward (pronunciation means "make") the car*  
**toward the car ((laughter))**


In line 1, the original word offered was *para* (to). Manuel attempts to replace this word with *hacia*, which creates a problem for this pair. This spelling issue appears to stem from their own uncertainty with regard to the pronunciation of the word, although their lack of knowledge with regard to grammar also plays a role. Therefore, in line 6, Manuel offers the word “*hacie*.” In a further attempt to solve the issue, Gabriel offers “*hace*” in line 7 as a further modification. *Hace* (make) is a high frequency verb in Spanish, and one that has been studied in various contexts thus far in this course. Gabriel may be suggesting this verb since they have similar pronunciations (*hace* [ˈa.se] vs. *hacia* [ˈa.sia]) and he is likely familiar with its spelling. This may also be the strategy that Manuel is using when he utters the word “*hacia*” in line 8. The

preposition *hacia* (toward) is similar in spelling to the verb *hacía* (made) in that the only difference between the two is the written accent over the “i.” These words are also pronounced similarly ([<sup>l</sup>a.sia] vs [a.<sup>l</sup>si.a]). The fact that both Manuel and Gabriel have offered verbs rather than a preposition does not seem to be apparent to either of them. This is likely because they do not have a full grasp of the grammar of the language; therefore, this lack of grammatical knowledge is contributing to their spelling mistake and their inability to resolve this particular spelling issue. Interestingly, this pair does not bother to consult the textbook or search a dictionary as they have done with other language-related issues (see example 4.4).

Moreover, the written form of the word they finally chose “*hacia*” is the correct form even though they pronounced it as the verb *hacía* ([a.<sup>l</sup>si.a]). This does not necessarily mean that they know the difference between the two; based on the interaction that took place, it appears that they do not. Rather, the fact that they employed the correct form on the composition they turned in may just be an accident, and may reflect their lack of knowledge of accent placement in general. It should be noted that this particular dyad did not include accents on any words. It may be that they had intended to do so once they had completed the story and ran out of time, or it could be that they simply did not know how to use accents, and therefore, did not bother to include them.

Accent placement is also a problem with which HLLs tend to struggle. However, of the eleven spelling LREs, only one of them focused on accent placement. This example is presented here.

Example 5.4—Delia (HLL) and Mayra (HLL)

01	DEL:	uhm Marikó- quisiera jugar (1.2) futbol? *hh would-like.3P.SG play.INF soccer <b>uhm Marikó would like to play soccer?</b>	
02		(5.0)	
03		((Mayra stops typing at F))	
04		(2.8)	
05	DEL:	futbol is F U (.) T B >O L< and then the U has an accent	
06		(11.8)	
07		((Mayra finishes typing <i>fútbol</i> ))	
08	MAY:	[that right	
09	DEL:	[yem	
10	DEL:	yeah	

In this example, Mayra types the sentence that Delia has created, “Mariko quisiera jugar fútbol” (Mariko would like to play soccer); however, she stops after typing the F, fixes her gaze down and begins to shuffle through the papers in front of her. Delia interprets the 2.8-second silence that follows as a search for the correct spelling and begins to spell the word for her in line 5, thus exerting her epistemic authority over the word *fútbol* (soccer) and positioning herself as the expert. While it is possible that Mayra was searching for the correct spelling of the word “fútbol,” which is how Delia interpreted the silence, because Mayra still hesitated (11.8 seconds) once Delia gave her the spelling, it is more likely that she was searching for the commands necessary to put a written accent over the U. Nevertheless, once she types the word as Delia has spelled it, she asks for confirmation, which Delia provides.

For this particular dyad, this was the only orthographic LRE. While it may be that this dyad is very well versed in Spanish orthographic rules, it is more likely that they were able to effectively use the spell check option in the Microsoft Word program they were using. This was

one of the dyads in which a video of Mayra’s computer screen was available for analysis and at the beginning of their collaborative activity. Mayra stopped the interaction to change the language preferences of the word processing program to Spanish. In fact, there are various examples throughout the interaction in which Mayra used the spell check option, though these instances were not included for analysis because the pair did not stop their narrative to verbally attend to them.

## Grammar

While the male dyads focused more on orthographic issues than grammar, the female dyads focused more on grammar than orthography. With Delia and Mayra, these grammatical LREs were due in large part to Delia’s attempt to master the metalanguage she had been hearing throughout the course, and Mayra’s effort to stay within the prescribed boundaries of the task. Here is an example of one such case.

### Example 5.5—Delia (HLL) and Mayra (HLL)

- 01       MAY:     Can we use tenía?  
   *would-have-3P.SG*  
                   **Can we use she was**
- 02                         (2.8)
- 03       DEL:     >whata ya mean< where (.) I don't see
- 04       MAY:     cause >we have to do like<
- 05       DEL:     like tenía                         seis años                     or something=  
   *would-have-3P.SG six years-M.PL*  
                   **like she was six years old or something**
- 06       MAY:     =yeah
- 07                         (0.6)
- 08       MAY:     o de tenía                         hambre [or I don't know  
   *or of would-have-3P.SG hunger*  
                   **or she was hungry or I don't know**
- 09       DEL:   [I don't think so 'cause ths-

10 (2.0)

11 DEL: she'd a wrote it on here no?

12 MAY: should Mariko tiene: [Mariko  
*has-3P.SG*  
**should Mariko have Mariko**

13 DEL: [ >o no< because it's the what, the present

14 [progressive what'd she say so it has to be these no?

15 MAY: [yeah

16 MAY: °yeah° M:ariko tiene hambre?  
*Has-3P.SG hunger*  
**Yeah Mariko is hungry**

Mayra begins this episode with the question, “Can we use *tenía* (had).” As was mentioned in chapter 3, prior to the collaborative writing activity, the instructor had reviewed the grammatical forms that the class had been studying and asked students to employ these structures in their story. Also, because HLLs were not always mindful of the grammar, the researcher made an extra effort to remind HLLs to utilize the structures that had just been reviewed. With this particular dyad, they were asked to focus on present tense verbs. In an attempt to provide students with further assistance, they were given a handout (see Appendix A) with sample conjugations of various verbs in the present tense. Therefore, the question that Mayra poses in line 1 is an attempt to be mindful of the parameters the instructor has set. Although Mayra does not explicitly refer to tense, she clearly understands that “*tenía*” (had) may be grammatically correct, but the verb form may not be the form they were asked to use. When Delia does not hone in on Mayra’s intentions, she begins to clarify in line 4. Once Delia is clear as to what Mayra meant with her question, she answers in line 9, “I don’t think so,” and then refers to the handout with sample conjugations. At this point, both participants are gazing down at the handout, and Mayra utters “should Mariko *tiene*: (have).” In her repair, Mayra has successfully

located the verb and its correct tense. When Delia recognizes that they should not use *tenía* (had), but rather *tiene* (has), she attempts to use the metalanguage as justification (lines 13-14). Although *tiene* is actually the simple present tense of the verb *tener* (to have), she labels it the present progressive tense. Nonetheless, this demonstrates that she is attempting to learn the metalanguage. These two participants were clearly conscious of the task, and aimed to stay within it. Although Mayra did not attempt to use the metalanguage, as Delia did, she is nevertheless aware of the different grammatical structures they are being asked to use.

The way in which Sabrina and Angie approached grammatical LREs differed significantly from the way in which Delia and Mayra approached them. Actually, Sabrina and Angie's grammatical LREs were more in line with the way Manuel and Gabriel managed them. That is, LREs tended to take the form of corrections and seldom led to extended negotiation like the previous example (5.5) with Delia and Mayra. The following is an illustration of a typical grammatical LRE between Sabrina and Angie.

Example 5.6—Sabrina (HLL) and Angie (HLL)

01	ANG:	ella l'encanta                    patinar[: <i>she to-her love-3P.SG skate-INF</i> <b>she loves to skate</b>
02	SAB:	[A: ella:: len-    le <i>to her    to-her to-her love-</i> <b>she            she-1 she</b>
03		encanta (0.8) patinar. <i>love-3P.SG skate-INF</i> <b>loves to skate</b>

The verb *encantar* (to love) is one that takes indirect objects in Spanish, and unlike English, the indirect object pronoun (here, *le*) is obligatory, but the inclusion of the corresponding full indirect object (here, *ella*) is optional. Moreover, when speakers choose to



include the full indirect object (ella—her), they must also include the “a” (to) before it. In this example, Angie has omitted the “a”. Therefore, Sabrina makes the correction in line 2 by stressing the “a.”

This type of correction is in contrast to what Schegloff, et al. (1977) have described as typical repair practices in conversation. According to their study, there is a preference for self repair. Typically, even when the other initiates repair, the speaker allows the original speaker to self repair in a subsequent turn. Here, Sabrina points to the trouble source and repairs that trouble source within the same turn. M.H. Goodwin (1983) terms this phenomenon aggravated correction. Aggravated correction is also a strategy employed by Gabriel in the following example.

Example 5.7—Manuel (HLL) and Gabriel (HLL)

01        MAN:    en el bosque(h) [je je  
                  **in the forest**        ((laughter))

03        GAB:                                    [en el bosque yeah en el bosque  
  **in the forest yeah in the forest**

04        MAN:    bos  
                  **for**

05        GAB:    en- en bosque? en el bosque  
                  **in in forest? in the forest**

Here, though Gabriel dictates the correct form in line 1, Manuel types “en bosque,” (in forest) and leaves out the article “el” (the). When Gabriel notices this, he identifies the trouble source through repetition in line 5, and then in the same turn, provides the correction by emphasizing the missing element “el” (the).

## L2L-L2L Dyads

A detailed count of LREs in L2L-L2L dyads is shown in table 5.2. Of the 78 total LREs, 35 (45%) of them were lexis related, 30 (38%) were grammar related, and 17 were orthographic related. Like the previous dyad type (HLL-HLL), there were also differences with regard to gender within the L2L-L2L dyad type. The males tended to focus more on lexical items, while the females focused more orthography. Both genders focused to a similar extent on grammar, although the males were slightly more concerned with grammar (16 LREs in the male interactions verses 14 LREs in the female interactions).

Table 5. 2: Type and Frequency of LREs by L2L-L2L Dyads

	Dyad	Lexical	Orthography	Grammar	Total
Females	Sandra & Sarah	9	5	9	23
	Sophia & Adel	7	5	5	17
	<b>Female Total</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>40</b>
Males	Jesse & Keith	14	2	11	27
	Jeol & Sharif	5	1	5	11
	<b>Male Total</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>38</b>
<b>Total (L2L-L2L)</b>		<b>35</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>78</b>

Unlike the HLL-HLL dyads in which LREs were mainly isolated instances of lexis, orthography, and grammar, LREs in these dyads many times triggered other types of LREs. The most common LRE to trigger another was lexis; there were six instances in which lexis led to a grammatical issue, one in which it led to an orthographic issue, and another that led to orthography followed by grammar. There was also a case in which grammar led to lexis that led

to orthography, and one example of an orthographic LRE that led to grammar. The following is an example of a lexis based LRE that triggered both a grammatical and an orthographic LRE.

Example 5.8—Sandra (L2L) and Sara (L2L)

01     SAN:    ah::: help. >we wanna say< help prepare. or help cook?  
02            (.) something different?  
03            (1.2)  
04     SAR:    how do you say cook?  
05     SAN:    ho- help to cook is cochina?  
                        cook ((incorrect))  
06            (0.8)  
07     SAN:    does that make sense though? >Mi        mama y< mis:  
  my.SG mom   and my.PL  
          **does that make sense though? >my mom and< my**  
08     SAR:    cosh:: cochina  
                coo     cook-3P.PL ((incorrect))  
          **coo cook**  
09     SAN:    cochinar is to cook.  
                cook-INF ((incorrect))  
          **cook is to cook**  
10     SAR:    is it?  
11            (0.8)  
12     SAR:    coc- [maybe no it's (.) I think its concinar  
  cook-INF.  
                coo- maybe not it's I think it's cook  
13     SAN:    [lemme see >OH NO NO I SPELLED IT< you're right  
14            C O C I: N (0.8) A N cocinan?  
  Cook-3P.PL  
          **C O C I N A N they cook?**  
15     SAR:    conci na::? Maybe  
                cook-3P.SG  
          **she cooks maybe**

16	(10.0)	←	
17	SAR: cocinar yeah cook- <i>INF</i> to cook yeah		
18	SAN: okay		

Though Sara initially interprets line 1 as self initiation of repair, she quickly realizes that Sandra is thinking aloud. Because this is a collaborative activity in which both partners are responsible for the outcome, it is necessary that both partners be in agreement as to the story. Therefore, when Sandra says “help cook?” in line 1 with rising intonation, followed by “something different?” in line 2, also with rising intonation, she is asking for alignment from Sara with regard to the story. Sara’s response in line 4, “how do you say cook,” serves two functions: 1) it displays Sara’s acceptance of this new agenda, and 2) it initiates a word search. This word search leads to various transformations. The first attempt at an answer comes from Sara, who offers the incorrect word “cochina” in line 8. She does not use the typical infinitive form (infinitives end in –ar, –er, or –ir), but offers instead the conjugated form of the verb. However, when Sandra offers the infinitive form “cochinar” in line 9, and asserts its meaning, Sara questions the correctness of this word choice (line 10) and repairs “cochina” in line 12; she offers the first syllable of the word plus the [s] (coc-) of the following syllable and then proceeds to offer another candidate answer. Here, as in many of the interactions that took place within this particular dyad type, she mitigates her correction through the use of “maybe” and “I think.” Though this correction occurs in overlap with Sandra’s turn in line 13, Sandra acknowledges that

Sara is correct, and she frames it as a spelling error. In this way, this particular lexis-based LRE transforms to one of orthography and to one of grammar.

Once Sara and Sandra agree on the form of the word, Sandra initiates an orthographic LRE that also has elements of a grammatical LRE. She spells out the root of the verb (concin- [*sic*]) and then adds the third person plural ending (-an) with rising intonation. This rising intonation is an indication that she is asking Sara for confirmation of the correct form. As Sara turns to consult her handouts, she offers another candidate answer, this time in the third person singular. Sara too ends this with rising intonation, although she also elongates the vowel. This serves to indicate that while Sara is not entirely sure of the correctness of this candidate answer, she nevertheless offers it as an alternative to Sandra's version. The fact that she also says "maybe" here is another way in which she mitigates her correction. She then turns to consult her notes in the 10-second silence that follows. When she finally locates the form in her notes, she confirms the correctness of the word search, although she does not confirm the correct grammatical form they had previously been looking for. One important difference between this interaction and the ones that took place between HLLs is that L2Ls frequently consult the resources at their disposal. For L2L dyads, these resources serve as the ultimate authority and thus they do not question their correctness like the HLL dyads do (see example 5.1).

The next example further illustrates the use of Internet translators as a resource for solving language issues that L2Ls encounter. In this exchange Jesse and Keith are working with a picture of a woman surfing (see appendix C, figure C.3). Previous to this turn, Jesse has suggested that they say that their character "catch[es] a good wave." This suggestion triggers the following search for the word "catch," which goes through various transformations as the pair negotiates the correct grammatical form.

Example 5.9—Keith (L2L) and Jesse (L2L)

01 KEI: °how do you say catch°  
 02 (0.8) ((Keith looks up “catch” online))  
 03 KEI: colguer so: co:  
*hang-INF ((mispronounced)) ha*  
**hang so ha::**  
 04 JES: v[a:  
*goes-3P.SG*  
**she goes**  
 05 KEI: [with an E col g: no colgia?  
*caugh:: used-to-catch-3P.SG*  
**with an E caught no used to catch**  
 06 JES: no I think it would just be colguer it wouldn't be  
*hang-INF ((mispronounced))*  
**no I think it would just be hang it wouldn't be**  
 07 co[njugated  
 08 KEI: [oh to ca- okay >yeah yeah you're right< colguer para  
*hai hand-INF for*  
**oh to ha- okay yeah yeah you're right hang for**  
 09 JES: colgue:r  
*hang-INF*  
**hang**

Here, as was common in L2L interactions, Keith initiates a word search by asking the question, “how do you say catch.” This question does not appear to be directed toward Jesse because Keith immediately conducts an Internet search for the word “catch.” Once Keith locates the correct word, he shares his findings with Jesse in line 3. Though Keith pronounces the word “coger” as [kol.<sup>l</sup>gɛɪ] (i.e. he added a [l] to the first syllable and began the next syllable with [g] rather than [x], the usual pronunciation is [ko.<sup>l</sup>xɛɪ]), they nevertheless use the correct spelling in their written document. He then proceeds to conjugate the verb by first uttering the first syllable of the stem (co), and then accessing his knowledge of the endings for the preterit tense before deciding instead on the imperfect tense (line 5). Jesse is not in agreement and therefore he rejects the conjugated verb in favor of the infinitive. Although Jesse corrects Keith, he mitigates the

correction by saying “I think it would just be *colger* it wouldn’t be conjugated” (lines 6-7). This demonstrates that Jesse has a very good understanding of Spanish grammar. In this example Jesse and Keith are focusing on the word “*coger*” (to catch) in the following sentence: *Ella se despierto (sic) a la seis de la mañana para coger una gran ola* (she woke up at six in the morning to catch a large wave). When a verb is the object of a preposition in Spanish, the verb must be in the infinitive form. Though this specific rule is normally discussed in both Spanish I and Spanish II courses (this pair is enrolled in Spanish II), students have a tendency to be preoccupied with conjugating verbs and they do not typically hone in on this rule. When Jesse points out that they should be using the infinitive form, Keith expresses his realization that this is correct in line 8. Whether Keith recognizes the reason for the infinitive in this case is unclear because Jesse made a correction without offering the specific rule. It could be that he understood the reasoning behind this choice, or it could be that he is attempting to save face after being corrected by Jesse. He may not want to appear to not know.

Though many grammatical LREs were not prompted by lexical LREs, they nonetheless took similar forms to the examples above. With Spanish I students, grammatical LREs tend to revolve around verb conjugations. In these cases, L2Ls negotiate either the correct endings to verbs, or in the case of stem changing verbs, the stems of verbs. Grammatical LREs that are not related to verbs are frequently related to gender and number of noun forms. In these cases, as in the cases with verbs, Spanish I L2Ls rely on their partners for confirmation and more often than not, consult outside resources. Spanish II L2Ls use similar strategies. Though they too attend to the proper conjugations of verbs, they were also concerned with utilizing the correct verb tense. For these students, attention to tense was primarily a comparison of the preterit and imperfect tenses (see example 5.9).

Lexical LREs that did not trigger other language issues were those in which extended negotiations did not take place. Rather, these cases took the form of question-answer sequences; this is to say that they had a first pair part followed a second pair part. The following are two examples.

Example 5.10—Sophia (L2L) and Adel (L2L)

- 01 SOP: how do you say después? (.) after  
*after*  
**how do you say after after**
- 02 ADE: is i:t (.) antes is before después is: (.) after  
*before after*  
**is it antes is before despues is after**
- 03 SOP: °después°  
**after**

Here, Sophia poses a question and then offers a candidate answer in line 1. In line 2, Adel produces the antonym first and follows this with her confirmation of the candidate answer.

Example 5.11—Jesse (L2L) and Keith (L2L)

- 01 KEI: entonces is so?  
*then*  
**then is so?**
- 02 JES: >yeah< then

In example 5.11, Keith poses a question that within it contains a candidate answer. Though Jesse answers affirmatively to the question, he nonetheless offers correction and gives him an alternative and correct translation.

With regard to orthographic LREs, there were three isolated instances of such LREs within the male dyads. In two of these, the partner that was not typing pointed out a typo for the



other to correct. The third example, shown below, involved a confusion that arose with a Spanish and English cognate.

Example 5.12—Jesse (L2L) and Keith (L2L)

- 01 JES: desayuno, (1.0) de cereal,  
*ate-breakfast-3P.SG of cereal*  
**she ate cereal for breakfast**
- 02 KEI: de cerial?  
*of cereal*  
**of cereal**
- 03 JES: de cereal. C like cereal ((pronounced in English))  
**of cereal. C like cereal**
- 04 KEI: oh de:  
*of*  
**oh of**
- 05 JES: de cerea:l  
**of cereal**

In this exchange, Jesse is dictating a portion of the story to Keith while Keith types. The word “cereal” creates a problem given that it begins with [s]. Although the typist’s (Keith) computer screen was not available for analysis, based on the dialogue, it seems likely that Keith has begun to spell the word with an S when he asks Jesse for confirmation. This request takes the form of a partial repeat that focuses on the trouble source. Jesse repeats the phrase and then makes the correction in English. This example is similar to those in the HLL-HLL (see example 5.2 above) dyads in that the trouble source was rooted in the fact that both C and S can be used orthographically to represent [s]. Unlike those examples, however, Jesse uses English as a way to resolve this problem.

There was also one exchange among the female dyads in which they made reference to a different spelling in Spanish. This took place between Sophia and Adel.

Example 5.13—Sophia (L2L) and Adel (L2L)

01        ADE:    basquetbol is spelled differently (0.8) the B O L at  
              **basketball is spelled differently**                **the B O L at**  
02                    the end or something  
03                    (7.8) ((both search textbook))  
04        SOP:    oh  
05                    (6.6)  
06        ADE:    yeah basquetbol

Adel acknowledges in line 1 that although “basquetbol” has a similar pronunciation to English, it is spelled differently in Spanish. Though she declares this with some confidence, neither partner relies on this assertion and they immediately sets to confirm it in the textbook. When Sophia locates the word in her textbook, she announces this discovery by uttering “oh” and proceeds to type “basquetbol,” which Adel confirms.

Most of the orthographic LREs that occurred in the female dyads were issues related to accent placement. One such interaction took place between Sara and Sandra.

Example 5.14—Sandra (L2L) and Sara (L2L)

01        SAR:    antes  
              **before**  
02        SAN:    ante[:  
              **before**  
03        SAR:            [accent I think on the E

As has been pointed out in many of the interactions, Sara hedges her correction of Sandra by inserting “I think” in her repair initiation. Though this repair is, in fact, an incorrect one (the word *antes* does not take a written accent), this episode demonstrates that the L2L females are attending to accents and attempting to use them in their writing.

### HLL-L2L Dyads

LREs within the HLL-L2L dyads is shown in table 5.3 below. Nearly half (34 out of 69) of the LREs in this dyad type were lexis based. Though males attended to lexis slightly more often than the females did (19 LREs in the male dyads verses 15 LREs in the female dyads), lexis was nonetheless the most attended to language issue by all HLL-L2L dyads. Moreover, there was a distinct difference by gender with regard to the other two categories. The females discussed orthography and grammar far more often than the males did. Of the orthographic LREs, the female dyads accounted for 14 of the 16 instances while the men accounted for 2 of the 16 instances. With regard to grammar, the females accounted for 13 of the 19 and then men accounted for 6 of the 19.

Table 5. 3: Type and Frequency of LREs by HLL-L2L Dyads

	Dyad	Lexical	Orthography	Grammar	Total
Females	Sabrina & Petra	6	2	5	13
	Katarina & Kelly	2	9	1	12
	Delia & Sophia	4	2	3	9
	Mayra & Adel	3	1	4	8
	<b>Female Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>42</b>
Males	Diego & Jesse	1	0	1	2
	Javier & Keith	3	1	2	6
	Manuel & Stanley	8	0	3	11
	Isaac & Joel	7	1	0	8
	<b>Male Total</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>27</b>
<b>Total (HLL-L2L)</b>		<b>34</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>69</b>

The following analysis will focus on the ways HLL-L2L dyads initiate and resolve LREs. Specifically, it will examine which partner initiates each of the three LRE types, as well as which

partner resolves the issue that was brought up. As mentioned in chapter 4, the dynamics of this dyad type unfolded in such a way that HLLs translated a majority of the story they were composing. Because this dynamic relied so heavily on the HLLs' Spanish language abilities, initiation and resolution tended to be divided between the HLL or L2L in the following ways: with regard to lexical LREs, most were initiated by the L2L and resolved by the HLL; orthographic LREs tended to follow this same pattern; the vast majority of grammatical LREs, on the other hand, were initiated and resolved by the HLL partner.

### **Lexis**

**LRE initiation.** The vast majority of lexis based LREs were initiated by the L2L partner in both the male and female dyads. These were primarily instances in which the L2L was initiating a word search or asking for the meaning of an unknown word. In connection with word searches, L2Ls used various strategies. These strategies are described below with examples.

1. The most common approach was for the L2L to offer a candidate answer with rising intonation.

Example 5.15—Sabrina (HLL) and Petra (L2L)

01      PET:    un perro-    perro    grande?  
                  *one dog-MASC dog-MASC large*  
                  **a dog- large dog?**

2. Posing a question in connection with the word search was another common tactic.

Example 5.16—Delia (HLL) and Sophia (L2L)

01 SOP: yeah. >do you know how to say [swing?<  
02 DEL: [or (0.8) wait I know that  
03 columpios means:::: I(h) ha(h)ve no(h) idea  
**swings**

3. L2Ls also uttered the word in English with the expectation that the HLL would translate.

Example 5.17—Mayra (HLL) and Adel (L2L)

01 ADE: what is (.) tienes ganas mean again? uh::m  
*have-2P.SG desire*  
**what is to want to mean again? Uh::m**

4. When L2Ls were unclear about the meaning of a word, they asked HLLs for a translation.

Example 5.18—Diego (HLL) and Jesse (L2L)

01 JES: persigue.  
*pursues-3P.SG*  
**pursues**  
02 (1.0)  
03 JES: cómo se dice,  
*how REFL.PRON say-3P.SG*  
**how do you say**  
04 (0.6)  
05 DIE: persigue es uh:m  
*pursues-3P.SG is*  
**pursue means uhm**  
06 (4.2) ←  
07 JES: oh okay



It should be noted that in this particular example, though Jesse acknowledges having understood Diego's explanation of "persigue" (pursue), it is unlikely that Jesse fully understands its meaning. Diego begins to give an explanation in line 5 and in an effort to explain raises his thumb in the silence in line 6; however, Diego abandons his explanation as he becomes distracted by writing. Moreover, the hand gesture he makes is not sufficiently descriptive of the word. As a speaker of Spanish myself, I would be hard pressed to understand Diego's meaning based on this gesture. Though it was not common practice for HLL-L2L dyads to abandon a word search, it did occur on three separate occasions, and they were all due to abandonment by the HLL.

Though HLLs initiated word searches less often than their L2L partners, when they did, they did so in one of the following ways.

1. HLLs used sound extension

Example 5.19—Mayra (HLL) and Adel (L2L)

01      MAY:    las:: uh:: hurt me  
                  *hur*  
                  **hur:: uh:: hurt me**

02      ADE:    mm:: is it (.)not enfermo  
  ill-MASC  
                  mm:: is it not sick

03      MAY:    it's lastimarme                            that's what hurt means but I don't  
  *injure-INF-REFL.PRON*  
                  **it's hurt myself that' what hurt means but I don't**

04                    know if like

Though Mayra is initiating a lexical LRE here, the problem with the word "lastimar" (to injure) is not that she does not know its meaning. She knows that it means to injure. The problem she

has with the word is that she is not sure whether it has been studied in class, and therefore if the word is acceptable for the current task.

2. They asked, “how do you say \_\_\_ (fill in the blank)”

Example 5.20—Delia (HLL) and Sophia (L2L)

01 DEL: uh::m (0.2) al- is- is park parque?

It should be noted that there were few examples of HLLs asking L2Ls for assistance with language. This dyad, Delia and Sophia, were unique in this sense.

**LRE Resolution.** With regard to resolution of lexis based LREs, 91% (31 out of 34) were resolved by the HLL in the dyad. As noted in the previous chapter, translation was a characteristic of these interactions, and not surprisingly, the most common type of resolution of lexical LREs was translation. The next most common strategy was for the HLL to replace the L2L’s candidate answer with something else. The following is an example of this.

Example 5.21—Sabrina (HLL) and Petra (L2L)

01 PET: debajo?  
**underneath**

02 SAB: debajo de,  
*underneath of*  
**underneath**

03 PET: de:: (1.2) la montaña.  
*of the-FEM mountain-FEM*  
**of the mountain**

04 (1.4)

05 SAB: abajo  
**under**

06 PET: abajo? debajo.  
**under underneath**

07 (1.2)

08      SAB:    y:: there's a mountain and you're gonna ski underneath it?  
                   *and*  
                   **and there's a mountain and you're gonna ski underneath it?**

09      PET:    oh(h)

In this example, when Petra offers “debajo” as a candidate answer in line 1, Sabrina corrects this with a partial repeat followed by the required preposition “de” (of). Once Petra finishes the phrase, Sabrina initiates repair again by replacing “debajo de” (underneath) with “abajo” (under). Not understanding the difference, Petra challenges this correction in line 6 by repeating the repaired item “abajo” with rising intonation, and then reiterating her original word “debajo.” Rather than give an explanation with regard to the difference between the two words, Sabrina translates the utterance and attempts to demonstrate to Petra the absurdity of the phrase. This particular reaction shows how the HLL is positioned as the expert in this case, and challenging that expertise can have face-threatening consequences.

Translating and replacing words are strategies that HLLs use when L2Ls initiate lexical LREs. When HLLs initiate them, the resolution is typically based on the HLLs’ intuition about the language. Here are two examples of this approach—the first one, between Mayra (HLL) and Adel (L2L), demonstrates how the search is resolved when the L2L insists on further negotiation; the second, between Manuel (HLL) and Stanley (L2L), shows Manuel searching his memory for the correct word.

Example 5.22—Mayra (HLL) and Anjail (L2L)

01      ADE:    mi vacacione? (0.6)                    o vacación? (1.0)  
                   *my vacation ((mispronounced)) or vacation*  
                   **my vacation or vacation**

                  how do s:: conjugate

02      MAY:    vacación  
                   **vacation**



03 ADE: vacación?  
**vacation**

04 (2.0)

05 MAY: estoy planiando (1.2) mi vacac:::ión?  
*am-1P.SG planning my vacation*  
**I'm planning my vacation**

06 ADE: af- (0.6) I wanna say vacacione but:: I don't think maybe  
*vacacione*  
**af- I wanna say vacation but:: I don't think maybe**

07 that's not right. Vacation

08 MAY: well I put my vacación.  
*vacation*  
**well I put my vacation**

09 (3.0)

10 MAY: °mi::° (1.0) ((uses spell checker in Word)) yeah it is.  
*my*  
**my yeah it is**

11 ADE: okay (1.0) vacación?  
*vacation*  
**okay vacation**

Adel initiates a word search in line 1 by offering two alternatives. The Spanish word for vacation is more often than not used in the plural form *vacaciones* rather than the singular *vacación*. In Spanish, when the singular form of a noun ends in a consonant, one adds –es to make it plural. Adel’s confusion may come from applying English spelling rules to the word, and basing her analysis on the plural form; according to her line of thinking, because English simply adds the –s to the plural form, the singular form would be “vacacione”. Mayra’s repair comes in the form of a repeat in line 2 and then she includes it within the context of the sentence in line 5. Adel, however, continues to insist on “vacacione.” Though she challenges Mayra’s repair in lines 6-7, unlike Petra, the L2L in example 5.21, Adel mitigates her statement with, “I don’t think maybe that’s not right.” Mayra’s reaction to this challenge, “well I put my vacación,” shows resistance to being challenged, and asserts her decision. Nevertheless, she uses the spell check

option in the word processing program in order to appease Adel. Once again we see that though the HLL accepts her own internalized knowledge of the language as sufficient means by which to resolve a word search, the L2L needs a concrete reference source so the HLL obliges.

Example 5.23—Manuel (HLL) and Stanley (L2L)

```

01     STA:   okay so we'll say::: (3.3) in the spring ti:me (0.6) girls
02           play soccer. so::
03     MAN:   en el          a^: (1.0) en el          (2.0) what's spring?
           in the-MASC          in the-MASC
04     STA:   uh:m ((turns to search through textbook))
05           (1.4)
06     MAN:   veran- no: (1.4) damn (1.0) it's not verano: es::
           summ-                summer is
           summ- no damn it's not summer it's
07           not otoño:, invierno:: >primavera<. en la-     en la
           fall  winter  spring-FEM in the-FEM in the-FEM
           not fall winter spring in the in the
08           primavera verdad. primavera
           spring true spring
           spring right spring

```

This example begins with Stanley offering a direction for the story in English in lines 1-2, with the expectation that Manuel will translate his English formulation into Spanish. As Manuel begins to translate, he initiates a word search for *spring* (line 3). Though Stanley immediately, begins to flip through the textbook, Manuel begins his own hunt by listing the seasons that come to mind until he finds the one he is looking for. Again, this is an example of the HLL relying on his own knowledge, while the L2L searches for external verification.

### Orthography

Though most of the orthographic LREs were initiated by L2Ls (9 out of 16), these were primarily due to one L2L participant—Kelly. There were two main strategies she used.

1. Kelly asked her partner, “how [do] you spell that.”

Example 5.24—Katarina (HLL) and Kelly (L2L)

01      KEL:    find eggs co::n with chocolate in it  
02                    (1.0)  
03      KAT:    aha (.) rellenados        con chocolate.  
   *filled-MASC.PL with*  
   **aha chocolate filled**  
04                    (0.8)  
05      KEL:    how you- re >how you spell that one<  
06                    (1.8) ((Katarina leans in to type))

It should be noted here, that within the HLL-L2L dyads, this particular dyad (Katarina and Kelly) was the only one in which the L2L typed while the HLL translated the story on their behalf. In this example, the end result of this orthographic LREs was that Katarina, the HLL partner, stepped in and typed.

2. Kelly (L2L) asked her HLL partner, Katarina, whether the word in question required a written accent. To clarify, though Kelly means to ask whether the word in questions needs an accent, she says “apostrophe” instead of “accent.”

Example 5.25—Katarina (HLL) and Kelly (L2L)

01      KEL:    is a- (.) apostrophe over- U too  
02                    (1.0)  
03      KAT:    uh::  
04                    (1.0)  
05      KEL:    n gusta  
   *like-3P.SG*

06 KAT: no no no no  
 07 KEL: no?  
 08 KAT: no. (.) 'cause look it's up there °look it°  
 09 KEL: okay

In this example, Katarina refers to the instructor's model (see model 2, appendix D).

Typically, L2Ls initiated orthographic LREs when they needed assistance with spelling or accent placement, as in the examples above. There was, however, the occasional instance in which the L2L initiated repair with the intention of pointing out an error. In example 5.26 below, Adel (L2L) points to a typo.

Example 5.26—Mayra (HLL) and Adel (L2L)

01 MAY: que voy estar >dolorida<.  
 that will-1P.SG be-INF sore  
 I'm going to be sore  
 02 (3.0)  
 03 ADE: está:  
 be-PARTIAL INFINITIVE  
 to be  
 04 (5.8)  
 05 ADE: estor?  
 be-INF ((pronunciation emphasizes misspelled infinitive))

Mayra is in the process of writing “que voy estar dolorida” (I'm going to be sore) as she utters the same clause in line 1. Though she says “estar” (to be), she writes “estor.” As the attentive partner in this dyad, Adel is watching the screen and utters “está:” as Mayra types it. Adel's gaze and concentration continues through the silence in line 4, when she notices a typo and initiates repair by repeating the trouble source with question intonation. Though Myra

immediately makes the correction, she does not acknowledge Adel's repair. In effect, she maintains her position as the more knowledgeable partner.

The orthographic LREs initiated by HLLs differ from those of the L2Ls in that the L2Ls are seeking help, while the HLLs are often performing correction on the L2L's language, or on the language for which they are responsible. The following example is the only occasion in which Katarina initiates an orthographic LRE. This interaction took the form of correction.

Example 5.27—Katarina (HLL) and Kelly (L2L)

01      KEL:    huevo::s::  
              eggs-PL  
              eggs

02      KAT:    mm: e- es            con hache. huevos  
              i- is-3P.SG with H            eggs  
              mm: **it's with an H. Eggs**

03      KEL:    °oh° (0.8) it's an H?

04      KAT:    mhm

Unfortunately, Kelly's computer screen was not available for analysis, and therefore it is impossible to know for sure how Kelly originally spelled the word "huevos" (eggs). Regardless, there was a misspelling of some kind, which prompted Katarina to initiate repair in line 2. She begins this repair with an elongated sound insertion (mm:). This sound insertion serves as a means to take and hold the conversational floor (Herbert H Clark & Fox, 2002) in preparation for her correction, which takes a very minimal form. She makes the correction (es con hache [it's with an H]) in Spanish, so Kelly confirms that she understood this correction by reiterating it in English.

The next example takes place between Sabrina (HLL) and Petra (L2L). This pair has agreed that the next sentence should be, “vamos a esquiar” (we are going to ski). As Sabrina begins to type “esquiar” she questions her spelling.

Example 5.28—Sabrina (HLL) and Petra (L2L)

```
01     PET:   esqui[ar
           ski-INF
           to ski

02     SAB:           [esqui:ʔarʔ
                       ski-INF
                       to ski

03           (1.2)

04     PET:   con
           with

05           (0.6)

06     SAB:   kaʔ ((spells esquiar then replaces Q with K and
07           changes to esquiar again))
```

This is another example in which the HLL’s confusion over spelling stems from different letters that represent the same phoneme in Spanish. In this case, Q and K can both be used to represent [k] (though K is far less common in Spanish and is not appear in native words). Sabrina’s utterance in line 6 appears to be her processing the spelling out loud. It is a question for herself and not her partner.

HLLs had a tendency to act as experts within this dyad type, therefore providing feedback to their partners in terms of what is correct or not. There were, however, some examples in which HLLs requested assistance from their L2L partner. These requests often offered a candidate answer with a request for confirmation.

Example 5.29—Delia (HLL) and Sophia (L2L)

01 DEL: and the:n invierno doesn't have accents right  
*winter*  
**and then winter doesn't have accents right**

02 SOP: no.

The way in which Delia poses the question, “invierno (winter) doesn’t have accents right”, indicates that she is expecting alignment and not correction, the grammatical structure used here constructs this question as preferring a ‘no’ response.

## Grammar

Unlike the other two categories, grammar LREs were overwhelmingly initiated and resolved by HLLs. Like some of the previous examples of the other categories, these interactions were often characterized by correction. In the following example, Sabrina initiates repair on the word “dije” (I said).

Example 5.30—Sabrina (HLL) and Petra (L2L)

01 PET: después (2.0) Petra (2.6) le (2.2) dije  
*after to-her-IOP said-1P.SG*  
**then Petra I said**

02 (1.8) vamos a esquia:r  
*go-1P.PL to ski-INF*  
**let's ski**

03 SAB: después Petra dijo?  
*then said-3P.SG*  
**then Petra said**

04 (1.8)

05 PET: yes sí  
*yes*  
**yes yes**

This is an example of aggravated correction (M. H. Goodwin, 1983) in which the trouble source (“dije”—I said) and the repair are collapsed into a single turn. In order to perform the repair, Sabrina utilizes a partial repeat followed by the repair proper (“dijo”—she said). She does, however, allow for Petra to confirm this as correct given that she uses rising intonation, which asks for confirmation.

An additional example of aggravated correction can be seen in this next interaction.

Example 5.31—Manuel (HLL) and Stanley (L2L)

- 01 STA: or (.) chicas or ella:s es muy atletico  
*girls they-FEM is-3P.SG very athletic-MASC.SG*  
**or the girls or they are very athletic**
- 02 (2.0)
- 03 MAN: e- son  
*uh- are-3P.PL*  
**uh- they are**
- 04 (1.0)
- 05 STA: >oh yea[h< son muy:  
*are-3P.PL very*  
**oh yeah they are very**
- 06 MAN: [muy  
**very**

Though there is more than one grammatical error in line 1, Manuel focuses on the verb form “es” (is). Stanley’s formulation in line 1 lacks subject verb agreement, and Manuel performs repair by offering the corrected form in line 3. The verb *be* like in English is an extremely high frequency verb and these learners have been exposed to its various present tense conjugations from day one of their Spanish class. This is information they should know, and when Manuel makes this correction, Stanley acknowledges this in line 5.



In addition to verb tense, pronouns sometimes pose problems for L2Ls as well. In this next exchange between Mayra and Adel, the trouble source can be found in line 1 with the reflexive pronoun “me.” There are many more reflexive verbs in Spanish than there are in English, and it is my experience that once learners are introduced to this construction, they have a tendency to overgeneralize it. This appears to happen in this interaction.

Example 5.32—Mayra (HLL) and Adel (L2L)

01     ADE:    so::: (1.0) me                            p- pienso:::  
   *myself-REFL.PRON think-1P.SG*  
               **so I think myself**

02                (1.0)

03     MAY:    >It's not gonna be< me pienso  
   *myself-REFL.PRON think-1P.SG*  
               **It's not gonna be I think myself**

04     ADE:    no?

05     MAY:    it's gonna be p[:ienso  
   *think-1P.SG*  
   **I think**

06     ADE:    [peinso?  
   *think-1P.SG ((mispronounced))*  
   **I think**

07     MAY:    pienso  
   *think-1P.SG*  
   **I think**

Mayra initiates repair in line 3 by explaining, “>It's not gonna be< me pienso” and then “it's gonna be p:ienso” in line 5. Though Mayra recognizes the faulty construction of the verb, it is unlikely that she is able to explain why it is a faulty construction. In other words, she lacks the knowledge of the grammatical rules that prevent her from explaining the reasons for this to her partner. This is probably why she announces it as incorrect and then makes the correction

directly. This means that even though she cannot engage in the metalanguage, she attempts to talk about language in a way that makes sense to her.

Though more often than not, incorrect grammatical forms are produced by the L2L, HLLs also encounter difficulties. The following difficulty, the construction of the colloquial future (ir [go] + a [to] + infinitive), is one that poses problems for many HLLs.

Example 5.33—Delia (HLL) and Sophia (L2L)

- 01 DEL: is it va a estar or it is va estar.  
*go-3P.SG to be-INF go-3P.SG be-INF*  
**is it going to be or going be**
- 02 (1.2)
- 03 SOP: °va a° (1.8) I don't know  
*go-3P.SG to*  
**going to I don't know**
- 04 DEL: va  
*go-3P.SG*  
**going**
- 05 (1.2)
- 06 SOP: no I think [va a  
*go-3P.SG to be-INF*  
**no I think going to**
- 07 DEL: [va es-  
*go-3P.SG b-*  
**going b-**
- 08 DEL: va a estar?  
*go-3P.SG to be-INF*  
**going to be**
- 09 SOP: yeah
- 10 (2.2)
- 11 DEL: °va a estar°  
*go-3P.SG to be-INF*  
**going to be**
- 12 SOP: yeah because the:n (2.0) no it's va estar  
*go-3P.SG be-INF*  
**yeah because then no it's going be**
- 13 (2.0)

14 DEL: va a just seems like (.) not natural  
 go-3P.SG to  
**going to just seems like not natural**

15 (0.6) va estar  
 go-3P.SG be-INF  
**going be**

16 (2.2)

17 SOP: everything seems unnatural to me(h)

Delia is unsure with regard to the correct form, and therefore she asks her partner by offering the two possibilities. The problem for Delia stems from the fact that in spoken Spanish, when the speaker uses the third person singular of *ir* (go), *va*, the [a] sound of the word “a” (to) in this construction is typically absorbed into the [a] sound of “va”. Therefore, rather than say [ba.a.ir], speakers say [ba.ir]. When Delia announces that *va a estar* “just seems like (.) not natural”, she is likely referring to this phenomenon. Sophia too goes through various stances with regard to which is the correct form. She first indicates (line 3) that *va a estar* is correct, though she is unwilling to fully commit to this. Though she states her preference for *va a estar* throughout (lines 3, 6 and 9), she changes her mind in line 12. At the end of this particular exchange, she provides an account for her lack of commitment when she explains that “everything seems unnatural to me(h)”.

While the examples thus far shown the HLLs willingness to participate in the resolution of LREs, not all HLLs did so. Javier was one HLL who tended to avoid this.

Example 5.34—Javier (HLL) and Keith (L2L)

01 KEN: I'll sa::y (1.6) one day there was a little girl  
 02 (2.0)  
 03 KEN: uh::: una: °oops° (1.8) °uh° (1.8) día, would it be:: (.)

04           era.  
              was-3P.SG  
              was  
05           (1.0)  
06        JAV:   uh::m: (2.2) should we build the story first? and then.

Here, Keith begins to formulate the story by first saying it in English and then attempting to translate it into Spanish. As he begins, he initiates a grammatical LRE in order to determine whether he should use the preterit or imperfect tense of *be* (*ser*). Rather than resolve the issue, Javier suggests that they first discuss the direction of the story and then begin to formulate the Spanish. In so doing, the pair abandon the LRE and begin to set up the dynamic that will dominate throughout the interaction—that being one where Javier translates Ken’s formulations. This is not to say that Ken does not attempt to use Spanish. In fact, he makes several efforts to do so even though Javier continues to dominate.

### **Accuracy of LREs by Dyad Type**

LaPierre (1994) and Swain and Lapkin (1998) found that correctly resolving language issues was an important aspect in the learning process because learners internalize collaboratively negotiated language. Therefore, in addition to the ways in which learners attend to and resolve language issues, the present study also examined the extent to which these LREs led to accurate modification in the composition each dyad submitted. In order to determine accuracy, the written result of the LRE was examined for correctness (i.e. acceptable word usage, accurate spelling, correct accent placement, subject-verb agreement, appropriate tense usage and verb conjugations, etc.). The end result of each LRE was then categorized as accurate, incorrect, or undetermined. Undetermined accuracy of LREs meant that the dyad in question had not resolved, or had abandoned, the LRE. LREs that were categorized as incorrect could contain

incorrect resolution of the LRE (e.g. incorrect word choice resulting from a word search), or it could contain another type of error (e.g. the dyad may have verbally produced a correct verb conjugation, but spelled it incorrectly in the submitted draft).

Table 5.4 below shows the accuracy percentage of each dyad type for each LRE category. Overall, learners successfully resolved LREs the majority of the time. Perhaps not surprisingly, HLL-HLL dyads successfully resolved lexical LREs 100% of the time. They were slightly less accurate with grammar (92%), though this was due to one of the female dyads (Sabrina and Angie) successfully negotiating the correct imperfect tense of the verb *caer* (to fall) but failing to use a written accent. HLLs were less effective in resolving orthographic LREs (73%). Of the 11 orthographic LREs, eight were resolved correctly and two incorrectly due to lack of a required accent. One LRE, described in example 5.3 above, was categorized as undetermined. HLLs resolved grammatical issues with 92% accuracy (12 out of 13), though one LRE was abandoned and therefore classified as undetermined.

Table 5.4: Percent Accuracy by Dyad Type

	<i>HLL-HLL</i>		<i>L2L-L2L</i>		<i>HLL-L2L</i>	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Lexis	11	100%	35	89%	34	94%
Orthography	11	73%	13	85%	16	94%
Grammar	13	92%	30	63%	19	79%
<b>TOTAL</b>	35	89%	78	78%	69	90%

L2L-L2L dyads were less successful in resolving LREs than their HLL counterparts. With regard to lexical LREs, this dyad type had an 89% accuracy rate. Though 31 of the 35 LREs were correct, the two incorrect instances (two were undetermined) were due to the fact that learners chose the wrong word form. For example, when describing a Thanksgiving dinner

Sandra and Sara attempted to say that they sit around the table and say a prayer. They initiated a word search for prayer and found *rezar* (to pray); then, they employed the verb form of the word, when it should have been the noun form. The other example was by Jesse and Keith, who used the past participle seen (*visto*) rather than using the correct conjugated form of the verb. L2Ls were more accurate (85%) with orthography than HLLs (77%). This was mostly due to the fact that L2Ls had a tendency to rely on the textbook and online translators to resolve these issues when they were unsure of the correct spelling. Of the 11 total orthographic LREs, one was abandoned, and one was resolved incorrectly. The incorrectly resolved LRE, between Sophia and Adel, was due to their intending to use “este” (this) and instead writing “esté” (subjunctive form of *be*). Grammar was the biggest problem for L2Ls. Of the 30 LREs, only 19 (63%) were successfully resolved. This was due to the fact that these learners many times chose and incorrect verb conjugation or verb tense.

HLL-L2L dyads tended to be more accurate than the other two dyad types. Accuracy with regard to orthography increased substantially when learners were mixed; HLL-L2L accuracy was 94% as opposed to 73% in HLL-HLL dyads and 77% in L2L-L2L dyads. This high accuracy rate appears to be due in part to one particular dyad—Katarina (HLL) and Kelly (L2L). This dyad attended to nine orthographic issues and correctly resolved eight of them. As was pointed out in example 5.25 above, Katarina referred to the instructor’s model to resolve questions about accent placement. She was also able to accurately resolve other orthographic issues. Unfortunately, because of the make-up of the classroom, it was not possible to video-record Katarina (HLL) with another HLL. Had this been possible, given her strength in this area, it may have increased the orthographic accuracy of the HLL-HLL dyads and it may have skewed the results even more, if she is atypical. Though grammatical accuracy is lower in the HLL-L2L

(79%) dyads than it is in the HLL-HLL dyad (92%), there was an increase when compared to the L2L-L2L dyads (63%). Of the 19 LREs in the HLL-L2L dyads, only three of them were resolved incorrectly. One was the example given in 5.32 above. The other two were due to the wrong verb conjugation.

### **Conclusion**

Overall, there is a difference in the way HLL-HLL, L2L-L2L and HLL-L2L interactions take place. When HLL-HLL dyads initiate LREs the purpose is often to confirm a candidate answer they have already chosen. Though corrections do take place in these dyads, they are more often than not mitigated, and they seldom challenge the speaker outright. Furthermore, these learners have a tendency to rely primarily on their internalized Spanish language ability. This strategy is not prevalent in the L2L-L2L dyads. Learners in these dyads show a preference for substantiation of their candidate answers by outside sources such as the textbook, handouts, and online translators. These dyads, even more so than the HLL-HLL dyads, mitigate their statements. L2Ls appear to carefully frame their repair practices in such a way as to leave room for error. That is, they consistently indicate, through hedging, question intonation, and specific statements about not knowing, that there may be a better answer. The third dyad type, HLL-L2L, differs in that L2Ls seem to be very conscious of their knowledge limitations in relation to their HLL partner's knowledge. L2L initiation of LREs in this dyad serves the purpose of information gathering, while the HLL's purpose tends to be that of correction. Not surprisingly, because the HLL is framed as the expert, most resolutions fall within their domain and their solutions are rarely challenged.

## CHAPTER 6

### DISCUSSION

#### The Study

As previously mentioned, the impetus for this study stems from my own experience as a Spanish instructor in southern California. The community college where I taught does not have classes designed for heritage language learners (HLLs), and therefore, many of these students enrolled in my elementary and intermediate classes. Intuitively, I often paired HLLs with second language learners (L2Ls), though there were no studies that I knew of to support this inclination. Consequently, as I began to investigate the HLL-L2L dynamic, I discovered that there were, indeed, few studies on the topic, and thus, I set out to fill this need with the present study which examines and compares interactions between HLL-HLL, L2L-L2L and HLL-L2L dyads. This final chapter discusses the findings of this study, and from these findings presents several pedagogical implications as possible suggestions for improving upon classroom interactions. The discussion proposes answers to the research questions posed at the outset of this study.

**Questions 1 and 2: What types of language issues do HLLs and L2Ls of Spanish attend to during collaborative writing activities? And how do these dyads differ in the way in which they attend to these language issues?**

The data demonstrate that all three dyad types (HLL-HLL, L2L-L2L, and HLL-L2L) attended to lexis, orthography, and grammar to differing degrees and in different ways. HLL-HLL dyads attended to these three categories in relatively equal proportions. With regard to lexical language related episodes (LREs), the most prevalent phenomenon in this dyad type was the HLLs' reliance on their intuitions about Spanish, though this was also a strategy HLLs used



to resolve the other two LRE categories. In the case of lexical LREs, when HLLs initiated word searches, rather than consult outside sources, they relied on themselves to resolve these issues. Orthographic issues within the HLL-HLL dyads were often caused by phonemes that are represented in Spanish by more than one letter (e.g. [b] represented orthographically by both B and V). Other spelling issues emerged as a result of the HLLs' lack of grammatical knowledge (see example 5.3), as well as confusion over the spelling of English cognates. Interestingly, with the exception of one instance (example 5.4), HLLs did not attend to accents.

One noteworthy strategy employed by Manuel and Gabriel, both HLLs, to resolve both lexical and orthographic LREs was to use an online translator in reverse. Often, when one of the two questioned the correctness of a candidate answer, or the spelling of a word, the pair would find the English equivalent, and Gabriel would input that English word into the online translator in hopes of retrieving the Spanish word in question. This approach demonstrates that these two participants used their strengths in English to supplement their weaknesses in Spanish. This approach was not always fruitful; there were times when they were unsure of the English equivalent, other times when they did not know the English spelling of this equivalent, and yet other times when the dictionary provided a word other than the one the pair was looking for. As an observer, I wonder if they used this strategy because they did not know how to use a Spanish-Spanish dictionary, or if this idea had not occurred to them. Nonetheless, this highlights the importance of making HLLs aware of these resources.

Grammatical LREs that arose in the HLL-HLL dyads were due in large part to Delia and Mayra. In this particular dyad, Delia often, though incorrectly, attempted to utilize the metalanguage she had been hearing throughout the semester. Mayra, on the other hand, made an effort to stay within the parameters of the assignment. As a result, these grammatical LREs often

involved Mayra questioning the verb tense, not in an attempt to ascertain its correctness, rather in an attempt to determine whether it fit the grammatical structure they were asked to use. In the other HLL-HLL dyads, when grammatical LREs were the result of an incorrect grammatical structure, the partner that did not produce the ungrammatical structure often resolved it by initiating repair. As with the lexical LREs, HLLs relied on their intuition when resolving grammatical LREs.

LREs in the L2L-L2L dyads differed from those in the HLL-HLL dyads in that HLL-HLL LREs were typically isolated instances of lexical, orthographic, or grammatical issues, while LREs in the L2L-L2L dyads tended to be intertwined. In the L2L-L2L dyads, lexical LREs were the most frequent and also the most likely to lead to another LRE type. This is not to say that orthographic and grammatical LREs did not trigger other types of LREs, though this occurred infrequently. In fact, there were only two examples of this: one in which grammar led to a lexical search, followed by an orthographic negotiation, and an orthographic LRE that led to a grammatical one. That LREs were often negotiated together is not surprising, given not only the level of proficiency of students, but also the fact that they are primed to aspects of Spanish grammar such as number and gender of nouns and adjectives, and the various verb conjugations of each tense. As Spanish I and II students, L2Ls have not developed the automaticity of more advanced speakers, and as is evident from these interactions, they attempted to manipulate the language according to the rules they learned in class. Moreover, when L2Ls resolved a word search, they were conscious of the fact that they must also find its appropriate form within the context of the sentence.

There were other differences between HLL-HLL and L2L-L2L dyads. First, L2L-L2L dyads attended to language more than twice as often as HLL-HLL dyads. Though both dyads

attended to orthography in similar numbers (11 LREs in the HLL-HLL dyads and 13 LREs in the L2L-L2L dyads), L2L-L2L dyads attended to lexis and grammar about three times more often. With regard to lexical LREs, unlike the HLL-HLL dyads in which participants relied on their own intuition, L2L-L2L dyads relied heavily on the textbook, handouts, and dictionaries. This is, of course, not surprising given that, unlike HLLs, L2Ls do not possess an internalized grammar of Spanish from which to draw; therefore, in order to verify the correctness of their language, L2Ls must consult these sources. All of the grammatical LREs were instances in which L2Ls negotiated verb conjugations, and gender and number of nouns. In connection with orthographic LREs, L2Ls were more concerned with accent placement than HLLs; while there was only one example of HLLs discussing accent placement (shown in example 5.4), L2Ls focused on accent placement on five separate occasions, all of which took place in the female dyads.

While the dynamics of the HLL-HLL and L2L-L2L dyads were such that each partner participated in both initiating and resolving LREs, the dynamics in the mixed HLL-L2L dyads differed in this respect. There was a clear difference in proficiency between the HLL and the L2L in these dyads, and this difference served to establish the HLL as the expert and the L2L as the novice; and this power structure influenced the ways in which this dyad type initiated and resolved LREs. To begin with, L2Ls were the most likely to initiate the most common of the LRE types for this dyad—lexis. With lexical LREs, which usually took the form of a word search, L2Ls positioned themselves as not knowing. Even in instances in which they appeared to know the correct lexical item, they offered candidate answers with rising intonation, which then allowed the HLL partner to verify or correct the word. When HLLs initiated lexical LREs, on the other hand, they asked questions directed at themselves, thus reinforcing their position as expert. The HLLs' expert status was most evident in the grammatical LREs. In these instances, the HLL

partner initiated LREs in the form of corrections, often initiating and resolving them in one turn. In other cases, the HLL resolved grammatical LREs by translating from English to Spanish. There were instances in which the L2L initiated a grammatical repair (e.g. example 5.33), however, these initiations were heavily mitigated.

**Questions 3: What dyad type (HLL-HLL, L2L-L2L, HLL-L2L) is more successful in resolving language issues that arise?**

All dyad types were accurate in resolving LREs the majority of the time. Though HLL-HLL dyads had a higher accuracy rate with regard to lexical (100%) and grammatical (92%) LREs than the other two dyad types, they also had the lowest accuracy with orthographic LREs (73%). These numbers are not surprising given that HLLs often have a large lexicon and an internalized grammar that would enable them to successfully resolve word searches and grammatical structures they would need at this level. The lower orthographic accuracy is also not surprising. This is a reflection of these HLLs' lack of knowledge with regard to accent placement, and other spelling rules. When HLLs were paired with L2Ls, however, the orthographic accuracy increased. HLL-L2L dyads had the highest orthographic accuracy (94%) of the three dyad types. This seems to be due in large part to one particular dyad—Katarina and Kelly. Within this dyad, Kelly, the L2L, often initiated orthographic LREs, which Katarina, the HLL, often resolved by referring to the instructor's model. Unfortunately, because of the makeup of the classroom, it was not possible to video-record Katarina in an HLL-HLL dyad. It is difficult to tell the effect this may have had on the accuracy of these two dyad types.

Although the L2L-L2L dyads were less accurate than the HLL-HLL dyads, they were nonetheless accurate 78% overall. The most successful category for this dyad was the lexical category (89% accuracy). This high accuracy rate is due largely to the strategy this dyad type

employed of consulting outside sources for correct lexical items. Most interesting about this case is that the two incorrect resolutions of the lexical LREs were due to the dyad choosing the correct lexical item, but the wrong word form (i.e. the dyad used a verb form when they should have used the noun form). Also of note is that this dyad type was more successful than the HLL-HLL dyads concerning orthographic LREs (85% accurate). There were only two cases that were not successfully resolved; the first one was abandoned, and the second one did not have a correctly placed accent mark. Again, this high accuracy rate was largely the result of consulting the textbook, or other resources at their disposal. Though this dyad type was successful in resolving lexical and orthographic LREs, they were less accurate with grammar (63%). L2Ls often consulted their textbook and handouts when negotiating grammatical LREs, however, they were concerned primarily with conjugating verbs, and often ignored other issues such as word order, prepositions, and the like.

Overall, the HLL-L2L dyads were accurate 90% of the time. Lexical and orthographic LREs were both resolved with 94% accuracy. Though none of the lexical LREs were resolved incorrectly, two were abandoned and were therefore categorized as undetermined. There was one incorrectly resolved orthographic LRE, which was the result of lack of a written accent mark. The lowest accuracy for HLL-L2L dyads was with grammatical LREs. Of the 19 grammatical LREs that occurred in this dyad type, there were four examples that were unsuccessfully resolved: one was abandoned and three were incorrect. In all three cases, the HLL partner relied on her (all three instances occurred in female dyads) intuitions, which were, unfortunately, not successful.

**Question 4: To what extent does gender play a role in the way in which HLLs and L2Ls attend to language related episodes?**

Gender effected the interactions in every dyad type, though the effect was more prevalent in the HLL-HLL and L2L-L2L dyads. In the HLL-HLL and L2L-L2L dyads types, females tended to mitigate their statements far more often than the males did. When initiating and resolving LREs, females often posed questions and allowed their partners to contribute to the resolution of LREs. This is not to say that the males did not mitigate their statements, for instance, example 5.2 in the previous chapter shows Javier prefacing a correction with the agreement token, “yeah;” however, mitigation was much more common in the female exchanges. Participants in the HLL-L2L dyads also mitigated their statements, however, this did not appear to be a result of gender; rather, it resulted from the power dynamic of the dyad. In this dyad type, L2Ls of both genders often mitigated their statements. In addition to mitigation, males and females were inclined to focus more on different language issues. Within the HLL-HLL dyads, the males focused more on orthography than the females, and the females focused more on grammar than the males. In the L2L-L2L dyads, the females attended more often to accent placement and grammar than the males did. The males focused more on lexical items than the females.

**Cooperation within Each Dyad Type**

Though the research questions did not address cooperation specifically, the data suggest that the dyad type can effect collaboration. Dyads that shared a similar language background (i.e. HLL-HLL and L2L-L2L) were more cooperative in that they tended to develop their writing product collaboratively and negotiated language issues with relative frequency. Mixed dyads (i.e. HLL-L2L), on the other hand, were far less collaborative. Collaboration in these mixed dyads

consisted mainly of story development. The L2L gave input with regard to the direction of the story, while the HLL took charge of the formulation of language. Moreover, the dynamics of these dyads were such that they relied primarily on translation.

### **Pedagogical Implications**

The observed interactions in these three dyad types, HLL-HLL, L2L-L2L, and HLL-L2L, suggest that the dyads most conducive to learning are those in which participants share a similar language background (i.e. HLL-HLL and L2L-L2L). Not only do these dyads attend to language issues, participants do so in such a way that each partner contributes to the formulation of language. When one partner initiates an LRE, the other typically helps in its resolution. Ultimately, both partners agree and express understanding with regard to their answer. Therefore, rather than simply correcting each other, HLL-HLL and L2L-L2L dyads tend to negotiate LREs. The literature in second language acquisition has demonstrated the benefits of negotiation for language acquisition (Gass et al., 1998; Gass, 1997; Long & Porter, 1985; Long, 1983a, 1996; Pica & Doughty, 1985; Pica, 1994; Swain, 1985, 1995; White, 1987), and the fact that these dyads negotiate more often than mixed dyads (i.e. HLL-L2L) speaks to their benefits. Observations with regard to HLL-L2L dyads indicate that these were less conducive to learning based on what the literature argues is optimal for language acquisition (i.e. negotiation). Although HLL-L2L dyads attended to language, a large portion of these LREs took the form of repair with little to no negotiation. This meant that when L2Ls offered candidate answers that were incorrect in some way, HLLs often replaced these with the correct form with no need for the L2Ls to make further modifications. This is not to say that L2Ls do not benefit to some degree. They are, after all, exposed to pragmatically appropriate language (Long, 1981), and they do receive immediate feedback with regard to the correctness of the language they produce.

What is lacking, however, is the need to modify their output. Swain (1985, 1995) has argued that input is not enough for language acquisition to take place. Rather, learners must also produce language and this study indicates that in mixed dyads, L2L output is diminished.

In their examination of native speaker-non-native speaker (what I term L2Ls) and non-native speaker-non-native speaker (what I term L2L-L2L) interactions, Varonis and Gass (1985) demonstrated that the most frequent negotiations happen in dyads in which proficiency among the dyad differs. Although it stands to reason that HLL-L2L dyads could also lead to frequent negotiations, the results of this investigation suggest otherwise. It should be noted that were various differences between this study and that of Varonis and Gass that may explain the different findings. The interactions in their study were purely conversational and the aim was communication. The present study, however, required learners to produce a collaboratively designed writing product for which both were responsible and for which both would be graded. Given this difference, learners in the present study appeared to be more invested in the outcome. Another difference is that the Varonis and Gass' study was done within an English as a second language context in which native speakers were monolingual speakers of English and learners' native languages varied; therefore, not all dyads had the option to revert to a common language to resolve misunderstandings as they did in the present study. This was likely a factor in their willingness to negotiate language.

The mixed dyads (HLL-L2L) in this study did not negotiate with as much frequency as the non-mixed dyads (HLL-HLL and L2L-L2L), and mixed-dyad participants were focused almost exclusively on the story telling. This is not to say that story telling was not a factor in the HLL-HLL and L2L-L2L dyads, but in the mixed dyads content took precedence over issues of form. In HLL-HLL and L2L-L2L dyads, participants' knowledge sets were similar and learners



appeared to see each other as equals; thus, when they encountered a language issue they were quick to negotiate. In the mixed dyads, the HLLs tended to position themselves as the experts, and therefore rarely consulted their partners. L2Ls seemed to agree that the HLL was indeed the expert and they deferred to the HLL's presumed authority. Also, most HLLs did not attend to grammatical structure. As previously mentioned, HLLs repeatedly used past tense verbs even after explicit instruction not to do so. This is likely due to their lack of knowledge of formal grammar in Spanish. Nonetheless, each dyad was given a list of verbs studied thus far in the course, with sample conjugation for students to refer to (Appendix A, page X) as well as a model to follow. This highlighted the tense they were expected to use. However, there are few examples of students using the model provided by the instructor. One exception is example 4.8 where Delia, an HLL, originally formulates the imperfect tense of *pensar* (to think), but after consulting her notes, successfully uses the present tense as students were instructed to do. Unfortunately, this was not a collaborative effort by both participants in the dyad.

These findings emphasize the need for foreign language teachers to stress the importance of grammar and knowledge of the metalanguage to all students. Though L2Ls often understand this need, HLLs may feel that they already know the language and do not need to put further effort into labeling grammatical structures. As teachers we cannot assume that students, particularly HLLs, understand or see the value in learning the metalanguage, unless they are properly socialized into the process through explicit instruction. This implies that we as instructors have a responsibility to hone and develop students' understanding of the need to be able to talk about language. This is true regardless of the dyad type in which they participate.

That HLL-L2L dyads negotiated language less often does not mean that this dyad type should be abandoned. There were advantages for both the HLL and the L2L participant in these

interactions. Each participant brings different knowledge sets to the interaction, which could be extremely beneficial for both parties. HLLs for example, tend to have a larger lexicon and better fluency than L2Ls. As a result, when paired with an HLL partner, L2Ls receive input that is, in general, grammatically accurate. Though L2Ls do not have extensive opportunities to negotiate the language in this dyad type, the L2Ls do nevertheless test their hypotheses when offering candidate answers. Furthermore, HLLs' negative feedback, in the form of corrections, could promote noticing and reformulation of those hypotheses. Hence, according to the literature (i.e. Long, 1996; Swain, 1985, 1995), these dyads create conditions that promote language acquisition. There are also benefits for the HLLs. Swain (2001) has argued that the use of metalanguage promotes the cognitive processes that lead to language learning. In this study, though HLLs attempted to employ the metalanguage, they clearly struggled with it. L2Ls, however, tend to have a far better grasp of the metalanguage and thus provide HLLs with better access to it. Consequently, each partner could potentially add to the other partner's linguistic repertoire. In this way, each partner provides scaffolding for the other. Each supports the others' weaknesses. The advantages of the HLL-L2L dyad are evidenced by their successes with regard to accuracy of LREs. In relation to the L2L-L2L dyads, the HLL-L2L dyads improved their accuracy in every category. This dyad type also accurately resolved orthographic LREs more often than the HLL-HLL dyads. Given that LaPierre (1994) demonstrated that learners internalize collaboratively composed language, these results bode well for this dyad type.

Nonetheless, the fact that HLL-HLL and L2L-L2L dyads are more cooperative and negotiate language more frequently than HLL-L2L dyads, suggests that learners might be better served if they were in courses specifically designed to meet their needs. However, as mentioned in chapter 1, the instructional reality is that most colleges and universities do not have a separate

track for HLLs. Mixed classes, and therefore mixed dyads, are common throughout the US, the HLL-L2L dyad is not likely to disappear in the near future. Therefore, finding a way in which these dyads can be more productive is an important task.

How might collaborative activities be designed to encourage negotiation? It may be necessary to manage learners' time for them. It may be more productive to give students five to ten minutes to brainstorm their story before they actually begin to write. This would ensure that the pair knows the direction of the story and would hopefully leave them free to focus on the language needed to express that direction. It may also be useful to have them pick the verbs they will be using in their story during this prewriting activity. Again, in this way students could focus on the correct verb conjugations and verb tenses once they begin writing. After the writing activity, the instructor might give the students another five to ten minutes to edit for language, including grammar and spelling. Once students have edited their own compositions, engaging in peer feedback in which pairs exchange compositions with another dyad may give them further opportunity to focus on form. This may be especially useful if students were given a list of grammatical features to look for. In Spanish I classes, for instance, students might be asked to label verbs that were in the present tense. Because L2Ls would presumably not recognize past tense verbs, asking them to highlight verb conjugations they are not familiar with may prompt HLLs to notice that these particular forms do not adhere to the assignment. Not only would this give each dyad additional feedback with regard to their language, it would also hold class members accountable to the task.

It may also be helpful for the instructor to designate each partner's role. For example, in the HLL-L2L dyads, in all but one of these dyads (Katarina [HLL] and Kelly [L2L]), the HLL did the typing. If the roles were reversed, and the weaker of the two students, in this case the

L2L, were required to do the typing, learners might negotiate language more frequently. Again, in a Spanish I context, if L2Ls did the typing and HLLs offered a past tense verb, the L2L, not knowing what it means, might bring attention to it. This might force HLL-L2L dyads to engage in language negotiation more frequently. After all, Katarina and Kelly were among the dyads that attended to language most often.

Another solution may be to give each student a list of words that he/she may not share with his/her partner, but he/she must incorporate into the story. This would encourage both parties to attend to both the story and the construction of the language, given that each learner would need to create a context in which the assigned words would be relevant to their story, thus focusing on form as well as content. This would also insure that each partner contributed to both the creation of the story and at least some of the language. A demonstration for the class may also be necessary, followed by a discussion of the successes of that interaction, as well as what can be done to improve upon it. This would show learners what is expected of them in each group, and possibly highlight the importance of the process as well as the outcome. Furthermore, student ideologies may also be an important factor, and although this topic deserves further study, it is beyond the scope of this dissertation. Nevertheless, a discussion about the strengths of each partner and the benefits to working with someone with a different language background might help to ameliorate the power dynamic in these interactions.

It should be noted here that because students share English in common, preventing them from reverting to translation may be a difficult task as it appears to be the dynamic most comfortable for these learners. This speaks to the importance of the classroom culture and the language policies enforced in class; however, it may be impossible to prevent all dyads from

reverting to this dynamic. Once instructors are out of earshot, and allow learners to begin their collaboration, they may resort to the easiest tactic available to them.

### **Limitations of the Study and Directions for Future Research**

Although this investigation yielded a considerable body of data, there were limitations. First, the analysis relied on the patterns that emerged in HLL-HLL, L2L-L2L, and HLL-L2L dyads. Though the 16 dyads in this study generated substantial language negotiations, an even larger sample size could produce additional patterns or further substantiate the ones presented here. Therefore, future studies should aim to include a much larger participant pool. A second consideration is that because of the make-up of the classrooms, it was not always possible to video-record each participant in two dyad-types (i.e. HLL-HLL or L2L-L2L and HLL-L2L). This may have caused higher numbers of certain LREs within specific dyads. For example, as mentioned in Chapter 5, Katarina often referred to the teacher's example when resolving orthographic issues. Had she been video recorded in an HLL-HLL dyad, this dyad may have had a higher success rate with regard to orthography. Unfortunately, this particular problem is difficult to solve given the unpredictability of the make-up of the classroom. Finally, as previously mentioned, the present study controlled for gender. That is, in addition to pairing learners by language background, all dyads were either all female or all male. Though this tactic yielded interesting differences, dyads with a male and female partner are also a pedagogical reality that was not investigated in this study. Therefore, a study that included mixed genders in dyads could introduce further implications for these interactions.

## APPENDICES

### Appendix A-I—Spanish I Grammar Handouts

#### Conjugaciones de los verbos regulares en el presente

-AR			
			<i>nosotras</i>
<i>yo</i>	<b>-o</b>	<b>-amos</b>	<i>nosotras</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
<i>tú</i>	<b>-as</b>	<b>-áis</b>	<i>vosotras</i>
<i>él, ella,</i>			<i>ellos (as),</i>
<i>usted</i>	<b>-a</b>	<b>-an</b>	<i>ustedes</i>

-ER			
			<i>nosotras</i>
<i>yo</i>	<b>-o</b>	<b>-emos</b>	<i>nosotras</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
<i>tú</i>	<b>-es</b>	<b>-éis</b>	<i>vosotras</i>
<i>él, ella,</i>			<i>ellos (as),</i>
<i>usted</i>	<b>-e</b>	<b>-en</b>	<i>ustedes</i>

-IR			
			<i>nosotras</i>
<i>yo</i>	<b>-o</b>	<b>-imos</b>	<i>nosotras</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
<i>tú</i>	<b>-es</b>	<b>-ís</b>	<i>vosotras</i>
<i>él, ella,</i>			<i>ellos (as),</i>
<i>usted</i>	<b>-e</b>	<b>-en</b>	<i>ustedes</i>

#### Otros verbos regulares

abrir	cocinar	descansar	lavar	pasar	textear
acampar	coincidir	diseñar	leer	pasear	tocar
andar	comer	entrevistar	levantar	preparar	tomar
asistir a	completar	escribir	limpiar	presentar	tomar
bailar	comprar	escuchar	llamar	recibir	trabajar
beber	consultar	esperar	llegar	recibir	trotar
bostezar	contestar	esquiar	llevar	regresar	viajar
caminar	conversar	exhibir	llorar	reparar	visitar
celebrar	correr	explorar	mandar	rezar	
cenar	corresponder	gritar	manejar	sacar fotos	
charlar	coser	hablar	mirar	saludar	
chatear	desayunar	invitar	montar	surfear	

#### Verbos que cambian de raíz

ALMORZAR			
			<i>nosotras</i>
<i>yo</i>	alm <u>uerzo</u>	almorzamos	<i>nosotras</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
<i>tú</i>	alm <u>uerzas</u>	almorzáis	<i>vosotras</i>
<i>él, ella,</i>			<i>ellos (as),</i>
<i>usted</i>	alm <u>uerza</u>	alm <u>uerzan</u>	<i>ustedes</i>

QUERER			
			<i>nosotras</i>
<i>yo</i>	qu <u>iero</u>	queremos	<i>nosotras</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
<i>tú</i>	qu <u>ieres</u>	queréis	<i>vosotras</i>
<i>él, ella,</i>			<i>ellos (as),</i>
<i>usted</i>	qu <u>iere</u>	qu <u>ieren</u>	<i>ustedes</i>

PREFERIR			
			<i>nosotras</i>
<i>yo</i>	pref <u>iero</u>	preferimos	<i>nosotras</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
<i>tú</i>	pref <u>ieres</u>	preferís	<i>vosotras</i>
<i>él, ella,</i>			<i>ellos (as),</i>
<i>usted</i>	pref <u>iere</u>	pref <u>ieren</u>	<i>ustedes</i>

#### Otros verbos que cambian de raíz

cerrar (ie)	encontrar (ue)	sonreír (i)
dormir (ue)	jugar (ue)	soñar (ue)
empezar (ie)	merendar (ie)	volar (ue)
encender (ie)	pedir (i)	volver (ue)

#### Verbos reflexivos

SECARSE			
			<i>nosotras</i>
<i>yo</i>	me <u>seco</u>	nos <u>secamos</u>	<i>nosotras</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
<i>tú</i>	te <u>secas</u>	os <u>secáis</u>	<i>vosotras</i>
<i>él, ella,</i>			<i>ellos (as),</i>
<i>usted</i>	se <u>seca</u>	se <u>secan</u>	<i>ustedes</i>

#### Otros verbos reflexivos

acostarse	despertarse (ie)	llamarse	quedarse
afeitarse	ducharse	maquillarse	quitarse
arreglarse	esconderse	peinarse	reunirse
bañarse	lavarse	ponerse	secarse
comerse	levantarse	ponerse	vestirse

**Verbos irregulares**

SER			
			<i>nosotras</i>
yo	<b>soy</b>	<b>somos</b>	<i>nosotros</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
tú	<b>eres</b>	<b>sois</b>	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella,			<i>ellos (as),</i>
usted	<b>es</b>	<b>son</b>	<i>ustedes</i>

ESTAR			
			<i>nosotras</i>
yo	<b>estoy</b>	<b>estamos</b>	<i>nosotros</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
tú	<b>estás</b>	<b>estáis</b>	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella,			<i>ellos (as),</i>
usted	<b>está</b>	<b>están</b>	<i>ustedes</i>

IR			
			<i>nosotras</i>
yo	<b>voy</b>	<b>vamos</b>	<i>nosotros</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
tú	<b>vas</b>	<b>vais</b>	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella,			<i>ellos (as),</i>
usted	<b>van</b>	<b>van</b>	<i>ustedes</i>

DAR			
			<i>nosotras</i>
yo	<b>doy</b>	<b>damos</b>	<i>nosotros</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
tú	<b>das</b>	<b>dais</b>	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella,			<i>ellos (as),</i>
usted	<b>da</b>	<b>dan</b>	<i>ustedes</i>

**Verbos que son irregulares en la primera personal singular (yo)**

**Verbos que toman g**

TENER			
			<i>nosotras</i>
yo	<b>ten<u>go</u></b>	<b>ten<u>emos</u></b>	<i>nosotros</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
tú	<b>ten<u>es</u></b>	<b>ten<u>éis</u></b>	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella,			<i>ellos (as),</i>
usted	<b>ten<u>e</u></b>	<b>ten<u>en</u></b>	<i>ustedes</i>

SALIR			
			<i>nosotras</i>
yo	<b>sal<u>go</u></b>	<b>sal<u>imos</u></b>	<i>nosotros</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
tú	<b>sal<u>es</u></b>	<b>sal<u>ís</u></b>	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella,			<i>ellos (as),</i>
usted	<b>sal<u>e</u></b>	<b>sal<u>en</u></b>	<i>ustedes</i>

**Otros verbos**

- venir (ie)
- poner
- hacer
- decir (i)

**Verbos que toman g más otro cambio ortográfico**

TRAER			
			<i>nosotras</i>
yo	<b>tra<u>igo</u></b>	<b>tra<u>emos</u></b>	<i>nosotros</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
tú	<b>tra<u>es</u></b>	<b>tra<u>éis</u></b>	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella,			<i>ellos (as),</i>
usted	<b>tra<u>e</u></b>	<b>tra<u>en</u></b>	<i>ustedes</i>

OÍR			
			<i>nosotras</i>
yo	<b>o<u>igo</u></b>	<b>o<u>ímos</u></b>	<i>nosotros</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
tú	<b>o<u>yes</u></b>	<b>o<u>ís</u></b>	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella,			<i>ellos (as),</i>
usted	<b>o<u>ye</u></b>	<b>o<u>yen</u></b>	<i>ustedes</i>

**Verbos que toman zc y sc**

NACER			
			<i>nosotras</i>
yo	<b>na<u>zco</u></b>	<b>na<u>cemos</u></b>	<i>nosotros</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
tú	<b>na<u>ces</u></b>	<b>na<u>céis</u></b>	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella,			<i>ellos (as),</i>
usted	<b>na<u>ce</u></b>	<b>na<u>cen</u></b>	<i>ustedes</i>

OFRECER			
			<i>nosotras</i>
yo	<b>ofre<u>sc</u>o</b>	<b>ofre<u>ce</u>mos</b>	<i>nosotros</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
tú	<b>ofre<u>ce</u>s</b>	<b>ofre<u>ce</u>ís</b>	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella,			<i>ellos (as),</i>
usted	<b>ofre<u>ce</u></b>	<b>ofre<u>ce</u>n</b>	<i>ustedes</i>

**Actions in Progress: Present Progressive**

**ESTAR + -ando/iendo**

ESTAR			
yo	estoy	estamos	<i>nosotras</i> <i>nosotros</i>
tú	estás	estáis	<i>vosotras</i> <i>ellos (as),</i>
él, ella, ud.	está	están	<i>ustedes</i>

-ar            -er/-ir

-ando        -iendo

dormir > durmiendo      leer > leyendo

**Expressing Abilities**

**Saber/Poder + [infinitivo]**

ESTAR			
yo	sé	sabemos	<i>nosotras</i> <i>nosotros</i>
tú	sabes	sabéis	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella, ud.	sabe	saben	<i>ellos (as),</i> <i>ustedes</i>

PODER			
yo	puedo	podemos	<i>nosotras</i> <i>nosotros</i>
tú	puedes	podéis	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella, ud.	puede	pueden	<i>ellos (as),</i> <i>ustedes</i>

**Expressing Obligation and Duty**

tener que  
deber  
necesitar  
} + [infinitivo]

hay que  
es necesario  
}

**Expressing Plans and Desires**

pensar (ie)  
quisiera  
me gustaría  
tener ganas de  
} + [infinitivo]

TENER			
yo	tengo	tenemos	<i>nosotras</i> <i>nosotros</i>
tú	tienes	tenéis	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella, ud.	tiene	tienen	<i>ellos (as),</i> <i>ustedes</i>

PENSAR			
yo	pienso	pensamos	<i>nosotras</i> <i>nosotros</i>
tú	piensas	pensáis	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella, ud.	piensa	piensan	<i>ellos (as),</i> <i>ustedes</i>

DEBER			
yo	debo	debemos	<i>nosotras</i> <i>nosotros</i>
tú	debes	debéis	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella, ud.	debe	debe	<i>ellos (as),</i> <i>ustedes</i>

QUISIERA			
yo	quisiera	quisiéramos	<i>nosotras</i> <i>nosotros</i>
tú	quisieras	quisieráis	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella, ud.	quisiera	quisieran	<i>ellos (as),</i> <i>ustedes</i>

NECESITAR			
yo	necesito	necesitamos	<i>nosotras</i> <i>nosotros</i>
tú	necesitas	necesitáis	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella, ud.	necesita	necesitan	<i>ellos (as),</i> <i>ustedes</i>

GUSTARÍA			
yo	me gustaría	nos gustaría	<i>nosotras</i> <i>nosotros</i>
tú	te gustaría	os gustaría	<i>vosotras</i>
él, ella, ud.	le gustaría	les gustaría	<i>ellos (as),</i> <i>ustedes</i>



## Appendix A-2—Spanish II Grammar Handouts

### Conjugaciones de los verbos en el imperfecto

-AR			
			<i>nosotras</i>
<i>yo</i>	<b>-aba</b>	<b>-ábamos</b>	<i>nosotras</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
<i>tú</i>	<b>-abas</b>	<b>-abais</b>	<i>vosotras</i>
			<i>ellos (as),</i>
<i>él, ella,</i> <i>usted</i>	<b>-aba</b>	<b>-aban</b>	<i>ustedes</i>

-ER/-ER			
			<i>nosotras</i>
<i>yo</i>	<b>-ía</b>	<b>-íamos</b>	<i>nosotras</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
<i>tú</i>	<b>-ías</b>	<b>-íais</b>	<i>vosotras</i>
			<i>ellos (as),</i>
<i>él, ella,</i> <i>usted</i>	<b>-ía</b>	<b>-ían</b>	<i>ustedes</i>

### Verbos irregulares

IR			
			<i>nosotras</i>
<i>yo</i>	<b>iba</b>	<b>íbamos</b>	<i>nosotras</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
<i>tú</i>	<b>ibas</b>	<b>ibais</b>	<i>vosotras</i>
			<i>ellos (as),</i>
<i>él, ella,</i> <i>usted</i>	<b>iba</b>	<b>iban</b>	<i>ustedes</i>

SER			
			<i>nosotras</i>
<i>yo</i>	<b>era</b>	<b>éramos</b>	<i>nosotras</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
<i>tú</i>	<b>eras</b>	<b>erais</b>	<i>vosotras</i>
			<i>ellos (as),</i>
<i>él, ella,</i> <i>usted</i>	<b>era</b>	<b>eran</b>	<i>ustedes</i>

VER			
			<i>nosotras</i>
<i>yo</i>	<b>veía</b>	<b>veíamos</b>	<i>nosotras</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
<i>tú</i>	<b>veías</b>	<b>veíais</b>	<i>vosotras</i>
			<i>ellos (as),</i>
<i>él, ella,</i> <i>usted</i>	<b>veía</b>	<b>veían</b>	<i>ustedes</i>

### Los usos de imperfecto

- ★ Acciones que se repiten en forma habitual en el pasado

*Mi abuelo nos visitaba.*

My grandparents used to visit us.

*Mi sobrina y yo íbamos al parque.*

My niece and I would go to the park.

- ★ Acciones que ocurrían al mismo tiempo sin precisar la duración

*Mis primas y yo jugábamos mientras nuestros  
padres hablaban.*

My cousins and I would play while our parents talked.

- ★ Estados mentales generales

*Mia creía que era muy buena futbolista.*

Mia thought she was a good soccer player.

*Yo quería mucho a mi familia.*

I really loved my family.

- ★ La hora y la edad en el pasado

*Eran las ocho de la noche cuando se tomó  
esta foto.*

It was eight o'clock in the evening when this picture  
was taken.

*Yo tenía siete años*

I was seven years old.

## El Presente Perfecto

**HABER + participio pasado (e.g. habla, comido, abierto, etc.)**

HABER			
			<i>nosotras</i>
<i>yo</i>	he	hemos	<i>nosotros</i>
			<i>vosotros</i>
<i>tú</i>	has	habéis	<i>vosotras</i>
<i>él, ella,</i>			<i>ellos (as),</i>
<i>ud.</i>	ha	han	<i>ustedes</i>

-ar → -ado *hablado, comprado*  
 +  
 -er/ir → -ido *comido, perdido*

### Participios Irregulares

★ Participios que terminan en -to

abrir → abierto	romper → roto
cubrir → cubierto	morir → muerto
escribir → escrito	poner → puesto
freír → frito	ver → visto
resolver → resuelto	volver → vuelto

★ Participios que terminan en -cho

decir → dicho  
 hacer → hecho  
 satisfacer → satisfecho

### Exemplos

(Él) **ha caminado** más de diez millas.

He **has walked** more than ten miles.

(Yo) **he hecho** muchas cosas.

I **have done** many things.

## Appendix B—Handout: How to Insert Accents and Other Spanish Characters into a Composition

### Spanish Accents and Quotation Marks on Macintosh

á, é, í, ó, ú:	Press <i>option</i> and hit “e”. Release both keys and type “a”, “e”, “i”, or “u”
ü:	Press <i>option</i> hit “u” key. Release both keys and type “u”
ñ:	Press <i>Option</i> and “n”, Release both keys and type “n”
¡:	Press <i>Option</i> and “I”
¿:	Press <i>Option, shift</i> and “?”

### Spanish Accents and Quotation Marks on the PC

Foreign accents on a PC can usually be accessed through the *alt* key; but these can be customized by the user by calling the special accent sheet. All command keys can then be reassigned.

á, é, í, ó, ú:	Press <i>Ctrl</i> and hit ‘ (apostrophe). Release both keys and type “a”, “e”, “i”, or “u”
ü:	Press <i>Ctrl</i> hit ”(quotes) key. Release both keys and type “u”
ñ:	Press <i>Ctrl, Shift</i> and ~, Release keys and type “n”
¡:	Press <i>Ctrl, Shift</i> and !
¿:	Press <i>Ctrl, Shift</i> and “?”

you can always type in the following codes:

á = Alt + 0225  
é = Alt + 0233  
í = Alt + 0237  
ó = Alt + 0243  
ú = Alt + 0250  
ñ = Alt + 0241  
ü = Alt + 0252  
¡ = Alt + 0161  
¿ = Alt + 0191

When using this system, there are two important things to remember. First, when you type in the numbers, some keyboards require that you use the "numeric keypad" located to the side, rather than the numbers along the top. Second, on some keyboards, only one of the two Alt keys will work for this.

**Appendix C—Pictures used by each dyad**

All pictures were downloaded from Flickr.com



Figure C.1: Picture used by Sabrina (HLL) and Angie (HLL)



Figure C.2: Picture used by two dyads: 1) Delia (HLL) and Mayra (HLL); and 2) Javier (HLL) and Keith (L2L)



Figure C.3: Picture used by Diego (HLL) and Javier (HLL)



Figure C.4: Picture used by Manuel (HLL) and Gabriel (HLL)



Figure C.5: Picture used by Sandra (L2L) and Sara (L2L)



Figure C.6: Picture used by two dyads: 1) Sophia (L2L) and Adel (L2L); and 2) Manuel (HLL) and Stanley (L2L)



Figure C.7: Picture used by Joel (L2L) and Sharif (L2L)



Figure C.8: Picture used by Sabrina (HLL) and Petra (L2L)



Figure C.9: Picture used by Katrina (HLL) and Kelly (L2L)



Figure C.10: Picture used by Delia (HLL) and Sophia (L2L)





Figure C.11: Picture used by Mayra (HLL) and Adel (L2L)



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Figure C.12: Picture used by Diego (HLL) and Jesse (L2L)



Figure C.13: Picture used by Isaac (HLL) and Joel (L2L)

## Appendix D—Models

### Model 1: Used with Spanish I students after studying holidays.

**Me gusta** mucho el Día de los Muertos. **Es** mi día favorito de todo el año. Este día mi familia y yo **visitamos** el cementerio para honrar a nuestros difuntos. También, mi Tía Pilar **hace** un altar para su madre. Ella **pone** ofrendas, o sea las comidas favoritas de la difunta. Algunos de nosotros **nos pintamos** la cara de calavera. **Es** un día muy divertido.

*Translation:*

*I really like the Day of the Dead. It is my favorite day of the year. My family and I visit the cemetery on this day in order to honor our ancestors. Also, my aunt Pilar creates an altar for her mother. She includes things my grandmother enjoyed, like her favorite foods. Some of us also paint our faces. It is a very fun day.*

### Model 2: Used with Spanish I students after studying holidays.

Para el Día de las Brujas **me gusta decorar** mi casa. Este día los niños **vienen** a mi casa y **piden** dulces. Los niños **se disfrazan** de brujas, esqueletos, fantasmas y otros monstruos espantosos. Yo también **llevo** disfraz. Normalmente, **me disfrazo** de calabaza.

*Translation:*

*I like to decorate my house for Halloween. Children come to my house and ask for candy on this day. They dress up as witches, skeletons, ghosts and other scary monsters. I also dress up. Normally, I wear a pumpkin costume.*

**Model 3: Used with Spanish II students after studying the imperfect tense.**

Cada verano, Marisol **iba** a la playa con sus amigas Josefina, Isabel y Valentina. Su amiga Isabel **era** muy presumida, y le **gustaba** llevar su traje de baño favorito. **Era** un traje azul y escotado. La madre de Isabel siempre **insistía** que **tenía** que llevar a su hermano menor, Pablo. Por eso Pablo también **iba**. En la playa se **encontraban** con otros amigos. Allí **nadaban** y **jugaban** varios juegos. **Pasaban** todo el día en la playa, y por eso siempre **traían** comida y **merendaban** cuando **tenían** hambre.

Translation:

*Every summer, Marisol used to go to the beach with her friends Josefina, Isabel and Valentina. Isabel was beautiful and she knew it, so she always wore her favorite low-cut blue bathing suit. Marisol's mother always insisted that she take her little brother, Pablo, which is why he always came. At the beach, they would run into other friends. There, they would swim and play. Because they would spend the whole day at the beach, they always brought food so that they could eat when they got hungry.*

**Model 4: Used with Spanish II students after studying the present perfect.**

El día de los muertos se **ha celebrado** por siglos. Es un día en donde se honra la familia que **ha muerto**. De niña yo pensaba que era una costumbre extraña, así que yo no siempre **he tomado** parte en las celebraciones. Sólo es ahora que me doy cuenta de la importancia de acordar a los difuntos.

*Translation*

*The Day of the Dead has been celebrated for centuries. One this day, one honors one's ancestors. As I child, I thought it was a strange custom, so I didn't always take part. As an adult, I now recognize the importance of honoring one's dead.*



Figure D.1: Picture used with Models 1 and 4 to demonstrate to students the type of story they might create



Figure D.2: Picture used with Model 2 to pattern the use of the present tense and vocabulary



Figure D.3: Picture used with Model 3 to demonstrate the use of the present perfect

## Appendix E-1—Spanish I Compositions

### HLL-HLL Dyad: Delia and Mayra

Mariko es una niña de seis años. Ella tiene mucha hambre. Su mama piensa a cocinarle verduras. Pero a Mariko le gustaría comer sopa. Quisiera jugar fútbol, pero si no se come sus verduras, Mariko no puede salir a jugar. Finalmente, su mama decidió dejarla comer sopa.

*Translation:*

*Mariko is six years old. She is very hungry. Her mother plans to cook vegetables but Mariko would rather have soup. She would like to play soccer, but if she doesn't eat her vegetables, Mariko cannot go out to play. Finally, her mother decided to let her eat soup.*

### HLL-HLL Dyad: Manuel and Gabriel

En el día de acción de gracias en mi casa nosotros horneamos un par de pavos para la cena. Pero antes de la cena para conseguir los pavos fue muy difícil porque fue al último minuto. Las filas del Mercado estaban largas y los pavos estaban escasos. Cuando llegué al frente de la línea ya no habían pavos, me asusté. Me dijeron que iban a chequear detrás y después de diez minutos regresaron para decirnos que ya no habían pavos y me fui para el carro. Cuando iba caminando hacia el carro al lado de mi carro había un pavo vivo. Me alegré y decidí capturarlo. Era muy rápido. De repente se metió al bosque y decidí seguirlo. De repente habían seis pavos y logré capturarlo dos de ellos. Muy contento yo llevaba mis dos pavos vivos. Qué buen triunfo! Pero cuando llevaba los pavos a mi carro pensé como voy a matar esos pavos. Yo muy triste porque nunca e matado o desplumado un pavo iba en mi carro pensando y pensando. Al fin llegué a mi casa y en la puerta estaba mi padre y yo llevaba en mis manos los pavos. Me preguntó mi padre

Laura Walls

que si sabia yo matar un pavo. Yo le dije que no. el me dijo que el lo iba hacer. En la noche cuando era el tiempo de la cena de accion de gracia los pavos estaban horneados. Mission cumplida!

*Translation:*

*On Thanksgiving Day we bake a couple of turkeys for dinner. But getting the turkey was difficult because we waited to the last minute. The grocery store lines were long and there were few turkeys. When I got to the front of the line, the turkeys had run out. I was surprised. They told me they were going to check in the back, and after ten minutes, they returned to say that they were out of turkeys, and I returned to my car. I walked back to my car and saw a live turkey beside it. It made me happy, and I decided to capture it. It happened quickly. All of a sudden he returned to the forest and I decided to follow him. All of a sudden there were six turkeys, and I was able to capture two of them. Happily, I carried my two live turkeys. What a triumph! But when I returned to my car, I realized that I was going to kill those turkeys. I was very sad because as I walked to my car I was thinking that I have never killed a turkey or removed its feathers. My father asked me if I knew how to kill a turkey. I told him I didn't. He told me that he would do it. That evening at dinner, the turkey had been baked. Mission accomplished!*

### **L2L-L2L Dyad: Sandra and Sarah**

En el Día de Gracias, salimos a la casa de mi abuelos. Mi abuela prepara mucha comida. Mi madre y mis tias cocinan también. Cocinamos el pavo, papas, maíz, relleno, ensalada, pan, y huevos. Sentamos juntos a la mesa. Mi abuelo diga reza antes comemos.

*Translation:*

Laura Walls

*On Thanksgiving Day we go to my grandmother's house. My grandmother prepares a lot of food. My mother and my aunts also cook. We cook turkey, potatoes, corn, stuffing, salad, bread, and eggs. We sit together at the table. My grandfather prays before we eat.*

### **L2L-L2L Dyad: Sophia and Adel**

Mis amigas y yo estamos muy athletías. Nos gustaría jugar mucho deporte fin de semana. Pensamos hacer jugar al fútbol en esté viernes. En el sábado pensamos hacer jugar al tenis. En el domingos mis amigos y yo estamos planeando jugar al basquetbol. Tenemos que duchar necesario despues de jugar. Despues jugamos es probable que se ganas de comer. Durante de semana no praticar deportista.

*Translation:*

*My friends and I are very athletic. We would like to play a lot of sports on the weekends. We plan to play soccer this Friday. On Saturday we plan to play tennis. On Sunday my friends and I are planning to play basketball. We have to shower after playing. After playing we might be hungry. During the week, we don't play sports.*

### **HLL-L2L Dyad: Katarina and Kelly**

A [Kelly] y [Katarina] les gusta mucho el día de Pascua. A nosotras nos gusta juntarnos con la familia y amigos para celebrar. Es muy divertido. En el día de Pascua los niños y nosotras decoramos los huevos. El conejito esconde los huevos y nosotras los encontramos y los ponemos en nuestras canastas. Vamos al parque a buscar huevos reyenados con chocolate. Nos gusta comer mucho chocolate es delisioso.



Laura Walls

Translation:

*Kelly and Katarina love Easter. We like to gather with family and friends to celebrate. It is very fun. On Easter day, we decorate the eggs. The little bunny hides the eggs and we find them and put them in our baskets. We go to the park to find chocolate filled eggs. We like to eat delicious chocolate.*

### **HLL-L2L Dyad: Delia and Sophia**

Hay unos hermanos, que se llaman Lee y Tran. A Lee y Tran les gustaría ir al parque. Piensan que va ser un día divertido. Quisieran correr y jugar. Primero, necesitan poner sus chaquetas. Va estar frío porque es el invierno. Finalmente, la mama de ellos los llevo al parque. Jugaron por tres horas. Siempre se diviertan mucho en el parque.

Translation:

*Lee and Tran are brother and sister. Lee and Tran like to go to the park. They think it will be a fun day. They would like to run and play. First, they have to put on their jackets. It will be cold because it is winter. Finally, their mother takes them to the park. They played for three hours. They always have fun at the park.*

### **HLL-L2L Dyad: Mayra and Adel**

Estoy planeando mi vacación para este invierno. Pienso en ir a un lugar divertido. Me gustaría ir a las montañas. Tengo muchas ganas de esquiar. Quisiera invitar a mis amigos, pero necesitan que trabajar. Me gustaría ser cuidada porque no me gustaría lastimar me. Después de esquiar, pienso que voy estar dolorida.

Translation:

Laura Walls

*I am planning my next winter vacation. I plan to go somewhere fun. I would like to go to the mountains. I feel like skiing. I would like to invite my friends, but they have to work. I would like to be careful because I do not want to get hurt. After skiing I think I am going to be sore.*

**HLL-L2L Dyad: Manuel and Stanley**

En la primavera las chicas juegan el futbol. Los juegos empiezan en el mes de abril. Las chicas son muy atleticas y son muy buenas corredoras. Saben dominar la pelota y son buenas. Cada equipo tiene once jugadoras y cada juego toma noventa minutos. Excelentes jugadores hacen mas dinero por cada juego. Estas personas profesionales pueden hasta llegar a jugar en los juegos olimpicos o para la copa mundial.

*Translation:*

*In the springtime the girls play soccer. The games begin in April. The girls are very athletic and excellent runners. They are very good with the ball. Each team has eleven players and each game lasts ninety minutes. Excellent players make more money per game. These professionals can even play in the Olympics or at the World Cup.*

## Appendix E-2—Spanish II Compositions

### **HLL-HLL Dyad: Diego and Javier**

Por el fin de semana Juana es la Reyna del surf en la playa de Huntington Beach, California. Ella se levanta temprano como a la 4:00 A.m. para llegar a las 4:30 a la playa. Empieza con olas chicas para calentar y cuando agarra ritmo empieza a esperar las olas más grandes. Después de quince minutos empieza a nadar más hondo para agarrar una ventaja. El Domingo rompió un record de permanecer en una ola de quince pies y salió al frente de una revista muy famosa de deportes extremos. Después de esa revista se hizo famosa y la gente del sur de California la comienza a reconocer.

*Translation:*

*This weekend Juana is the queen of the surf at Huntington Beach, California this weekend. She wakes up at 4:00 a.m. in order to get to the beach by 4:30. She begins by warming up on the small waves and works up to the big ones. After fifteen minutes, she swims into deeper water. On Sunday she broke a record for riding a fifteen-foot wave and her picture appeared on the front cover a famous sports magazine. After that interview she became famous and people in southern California began to recognize her*

### **L2L-L2L Dyad: Jessie and Keith**

Un día soleado, una niña de nombre a Clara era surfeando en San Clemente. En este día, ella se despierto a la seis de la mañana para coger una gran ola. Después despierta comió desayuno de cereal porque es su desayuno favorito antes de surfear. Pero ella no visto a reloj y ella fue tarde para la clase de Español. Cuando ella llego a la clase su profesora no la dejo entrar. Ella lloro

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mucho. Después diez minutos de llorar, la profesora se permito entrar la clase, pero la clase había terminado. Entonces, ella fue surfear un tiempo más.

*Translation:*

*One sunny day, a girl named Clara was surfing in San Clemente. On this day, she woke up at six in the morning in order to catch a big wave. After waking up, she ate cereal for breakfast because it is her favorite. But she did not see the clock, and she arrived late to her Spanish class. When she got to class, the professor would not let her in. She cried a lot. After ten minutes of crying, the professor let her in, but class was over. Then she went surfing again.*

### **HLL-L2L Dyad: Diego and Jessie**

George estaba jugando futbol con su equipo el sábado por la mañana. George tiene el balón por el lado derecho del campo de futbol atrás de el lo persigue Miguel y enfrente de el lo espera Pablo para robarle el balón. George logra vencer a Pablo con el balón y entra al area Del portero y mete UN gol que le da la Victoria a su equipo. Después de ganar George y sus amigos van a Chuck E. Cheese y comen pizza. Juega con su amigo Andy en los tubos que te llevan a la res baladilla.

*Translation:*

*George was playing soccer with his team on Saturday morning. George has the ball on the right side of the field. Miguel is chasing him from behind, and Pablo is waiting in front of him to steal the ball away. George manages to get by Pablo and makes the winning goal. After winning, George and his friends go to Chuck E. Cheese and eat pizza. He plays with his friend Andy as they make their way to the slide.*

**HLL-L2L Dyad: Javier and Keith**

Había una niña con el nombre de Josefina que le gustaba mucho la sopa. Cuando estaba enferma ella no podía comer nada. Su mamá le dijo que para mejorarse tenía que comer algo. Josefina no quería pero su mamá logro convencerla. Su mamá le pregunto si quería una hamburguesa pero ella dijo que no tenía apetito. Trato de comer pizza pero no pudo. Finalmente su mamá le hizo sopa de fideo. Sus ojos se engrandecieron de la emocion porque era su comida favorita. Despues de eso ella se sintio mucho mejor.

*Translation:*

*There was a girl named Josefina who liked to eat soup. When she was sick, she could not eat anything. Her mother told her that she would have to eat if she was going to get better. Josefina did not want to, but her mother managed to convince her. Her mother asked her if she wanted a hamburger, but she said she wasn't hungry. She tried to eat pizza but was unable to. Finally, her mother made her noodle soup. Her eyes widened from the emotion because it was her favorite food. After that she felt much better.*

### Appendix E-3—Spanish II Honors Compositions

#### **HLL-HLL Dyad: Sabrina and Angie**

El invierno pasado Ana y Guillermo fueron a patina en el hielo en Los Angeles. Ana tenia mucho frio y se puso un gorro rojo para mantenerla caliente. Su novio Guillermo no sabia como patinar en el hielo y se caia frecuentemente. Le dolia mucho su espalda despues de solo media hora. Ana es patinadora professional a ella le encanta patinar todos los fines de semana. Ella le gustaria mudarse a Canada para poder patinar mas.

#### *Translation*

*Last winter Ana and Guillermo went ice skating in Los Angeles. Ana was cold, so she put on a red hat to stay warm. Her boyfriend, Guillermo, did not know how to ice skate and so he frequently fell. His back hurt after only a half hour. Ana is a professional skater and she loved to skate every weekend. She would love to move to Canada so that she could skate more often.*

#### **L2L-L2L Dyad: Joel and Sharif**

Cuando era un hombre esta vayando en un restaurant e le gusta a ir a ardar en patineta. Hombre es un cocinero y el es muy activo. Le gusta andar en patineta, bicicleta y corer, tambien. El no tiene un coche pero no es una problema porque el no es tacano. Prefiere el aire libre no le gustan los autobuses o trenes. A veces el se cae, pero no es una problema pero es importante que se levanter. No puede tener mideo cuando se esta andando en patineta. Ese hombre nunca tinene miedo y siempre se levanta cuando se cae.

Laura Walls

*Translation:*

*A man was on his way to a restaurant on his skateboard ((?)) The man is a cook, and he is very active. He likes to ride his skateboard, his bicycle, and he likes to run also. He does not have a car but that is not a problem because he is cheap. He prefers the outdoors. He doesn't like busses or trains. Sometimes he falls, but that is not a problem. But it is important that he get up. He cannot be scared when he rides his skateboard. That man is never scared, and always gets up when he falls.*

### **HLL-L2L Dyad: Sabrina and Petra**

Ayer estuve en la Montana con mi amiga [Petra]. Cuando paso una avalanche me pregunta “ Donde esta [Sabrina]? SOCORRO!” y me contesto “ Aqui, auxillo” . Despues un perro grande vino a ayudarnos. El le mordio el pelo a [sabrina] y la saco del hueco. Despues [Petra] dijo “ Vamos a esquiar abajo” . Entonces todos fuimos a esquiar y lluegemos a la casa de Papa Noel. Papa Noel nos dio unos regalos y galletas con leche. Las galletitas eran muy sabrosas. Que dia tan fantastico !

*Translation:*

*I was on the mountain with my friend Petra yesterday. When an avalanche occurred, she asked me “Where is Sabrina? Help!” and she responded to me, “Here, help.” Then a big dog came to help us. He grabbed Sabrina's hair and got her out of the hole. Then Petra said, “let's ski down.” Then we all went skiing and we arrived at Santa Claus' house. San Claus gave us gifts and cookies and milk. The cookies were delicious. What a great day!*

Laura Walls

### **HLL-L2L Dyad: Isaac and Joel**

Un día caluroso, [Joel] y yo decidimos pasear sobre la costa en nuestro barco. Nos dio ganas de bucear y decidimos acerlo en el océano había muchos peces de todos tipos. Despues decidimos explorar mas lejos y notamos que nos perdimos en medio de la península . Despues decidimos explorar el bosque. El bosque estaba lleno de muchas plantas y animales salvajes. Notamos que el sol estaba bajando y se hacia mas obscuras. En ese momento escuchamos ahullidos de lobos y aves. Los arboles eran muy altos y no nos permitían mirar hacia donde estaba el barco. Nunca hemos estado tan asustados como este dia. Era un dia que nos causo mucho pánico al estar en ese bosque perdidos sin ayuda. Despues de varios momentos escuchamos una lancha que venia a ayudarnos. Tuvimos que gritar para que nos encontraran y terminaron ayudandonos y llevándonos a nuestras casas. Fue un dia de terror.

*Translation:*

*One hot day, Joel and I decided to take a boat ride along the coast. We wanted to snorkel so we decided to do it in the ocean. There were many kinds of fish. Then, we decided to explore more when I realized we were lost in the middle of the peninsula. Then we decided to explore the forest. The forest was full of plants and wild animals. We realized that the sun was setting and the sky was darkening. At that moment we heard wolves howl and birds. The trees were very tall and we could not see the boat through them. We have never been more scared that we were that day. We panicked because we were lost and nobody was around to help. After a few minutes we heard a boat that had come to help us. We had to yell in order for them to hear us and help us. It was a terrifying day.*



### Appendix F—Transcription Conventions

Symbol	Gloss
?	A question mark represents marked upward intonation at the end of a word or phrase. It does not necessarily indicate a question.
.	Periods mark falling intonation. They do not mark grammatical sentences.
,	A comma represents rising-falling (continuing) intonation.
^	A caret indicates a marked pitch rise.
(.8)	Numbers in parenthesis indicate the duration of a pause in tenths of a second.
(.)	A period enclosed in parenthesis indicates a one tenth of a second pause.
:	Lengthening
-	A hyphen indicates cut-off speech.
—	Indicates an emphasis on the underlined part of a word
=	Equal signs indicate latched utterances; utterances without a pause or gap.
(h)	H's within parenthesis mark speech infiltrated by laughter
*hh	A star followed by "h" represents an audible in-breath.
° °	Degree signs around an utterance indicate that it is spoken at a lower volume than the surrounding talk.
CAPS	Capital letters indicate high volume.
> <	Utterances within inequality signs facing inward indicate rapid speech.
< >	Utterances within inequality signs facing outward indicate slow speech.
( )	Empty parenthesis indicates that the speech is too obscure to transcribe. Words within parenthesis are the transcriber's best attempt to estimate speech.
(( ))	Double parenthesis indicates transcriber's comments.
[	Left side bracket marks the beginning of overlapping speech
]	Right side bracket marks the end of overlapping speech

### Appendix G—Demographic Questionnaire

1. Name (Names will be replaced with coded pseudonyms. This is strictly to match survey answers with video recordings.)
2. Age
3. *What language(s) did you grow up speaking at home or with other family members (e.g. grandparents, aunts and uncles, etc.)?*  
 English  
 Spanish  
 Other
4. If you speak a language other than English, with whom do you speak it? How often? And for what purposes?
5. If you speak a language other than English, what do you consider your strongest language? Explain.
6. Describe the types of Spanish classes you have taken (e.g. level and content prior to Spring/Fall 2012) and where (i.e. high school, college, etc.).
7. What are your motivations for for taking Spanish 180/185/185 Honors?
8. In the future, do you expect to make professional use of your Spanish-language skills? If so, how?

*Only students who answered Spanish to Question 3 responded to Questions 9—12*

9. Where were you born?\*
- US (skip question 11)
- Other (skip question 10)

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10. If you were born in the US, where were your parents born?
11. If you were NOT born in the US, how old were you when you arrived in the US?
12. What language do you use in the following situations.  
[English] [Spanish] [both English and Spanish] [Other] [Not applicable]
13. With parents?
14. With siblings
15. With children
16. With grandparents
17. With extended family
18. With friends
19. At work?
20. Other social occasions. Explain.
21. Did you watch Spanish language television growing up?
22. Do you watch Spanish language television now? If so, how often?
23. Did you listen to Spanish language radio growing up?
24. Do you listen to Spanish language radio now? If so, how often?
25. Do you read any of the following in Spanish? If so, how often?  
 Magazines  
 Newspapers  
 Novels  
 Short Stories  
 None

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