Helping each other along:
An investigation into how language learners can work together to increase language accuracy.

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Thesis Submitted to the University of Ottawa

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

Degree of Master of Arts in Bilingualism Studies

Faculty of Arts

Official Languages and Bilingualism Institute

University of Ottawa

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Abstract

This mixed-methods project was designed to answer four questions around the quality of oral production of French Immersion students: How does the nature of the interactions between intermediate-level FI students provide possibilities for them to engage in peer oral corrective feedback (OCF)? To what extent do students engage in peer OCF following targeted instruction in the technique? If peer OCF is taking place, to what extent is it having an impact on the accuracy of the targeted forms for correctors and correctees in terms of noticing and production? How comfortable (or willing) are students with providing and receiving OCF to and from their peers (both higher & lower proficiency)? A pre- & post-test, and questionnaire, format was used, and detailed analysis of participants in L2 interaction was carried out. The results indicated that the target structures and the OCF techniques may have been too cumbersome to elicit any improvement, or to elicit much peer OCF. However the conversation analysis indicated that in certain circumstances intermediate FI students could participate in sustained L2 interaction, and that within their interactions there were many openings for other forms of active assistance between learners.

Keywords: Interlanguage, French immersion, Oral corrective feedback

Résumé

Ce projet qui utilise des méthodes mixtes avait pour but de répondre à quatre questions sur la qualité de la production orale chez les étudiants en immersion française (IF): Comment la nature des interactions entre des élèves de niveau intermédiaire en IF leur offre-t-elle la possibilité de s'engager dans un processus de rétroaction corrective mutuelle? À quel point les étudiants s'engagent-ils dans un processus de rétroaction corrective mutuelle après avoir reçu un enseignement spécifique de la technique? Si la rétroaction corrective mutuelle est utilisée, à quel point a-t-elle un impact sur l'exactitude de l'utilisation des formes grammaticales visées chez les correcteurs et ceux les corrigés, tant au niveau de la perception que de la production? À quel point les élèves sont-ils à l'aise (ou prêts) à fournir et recevoir une rétroaction corrective (élèves ayant un niveau de compétence élevé ou bas)? Nous avons utilisé un pré-test, un post-test et un questionnaire; nous avons également réalisé une analyse détaillée des interactions des participants dans la L2. Les résultats indiquent que les structures visées ainsi que les techniques de rétroaction corrective mutuelle ont peut-être été trop complexes pour obtenir une

amélioration ou favoriser la rétroaction corrective mutuelle. Toutefois, l'analyse des conversations indique que, dans certaines circonstances, des élèves de niveau intermédiaire en IF pouvaient participer à des interactions soutenues en L2, et que, dans le cadre de ces interactions, il y avait plusieurs occasions d'utiliser d'autres formes d'aide entre les apprenants.

Mots clés : Interlangue, immersion française, rétroaction corrective orale

Acknowledgements

This project, in some small way, began many years ago when, as a newly qualified teacher, I took a course in applied linguistics. Some twenty years later, hungry for a similar challenge I discovered the newly launched Masters of Bilingualism Studies offered by ILOB, and it has been such a pleasure to expand my academic wings with this program, and I thank ILOB for the program which has led me to this point. In particular, of course, I would like to thank Dr. Beverly Baker for inspiring this particular project and for her expert guidance and support through the proposal, ethics application, research activities and writing. I have enjoyed each of our meetings and conversations, and have learned much in the process. Thank you. I would also like to thank the entire faculty in the MBIL program at ILOB for their support and interest throughout the program.

I would not have been able to carry out the project without the approval of the school board via the ethics committee, and I thank them for allowing me to bring a figurative microscope to one of their schools in order to examine this one aspect of French Immersion in Ontario. Very specifically I am very indebted to “Johanna” for having accepted to do this work for me, and for having done it with no hesitations and with as much enthusiasm and commitment as if it were her own project. Thank you, Johanna. Of course thanks are extended to Johanna’s students who agreed to participate, and record their voices for an unknown researcher for the possibility of improving French instruction in future classroom.

Being immersed in graduate work while working full time is time-consuming, and I am grateful to my husband Brad, and our daughters, Isabelle and Naomi for their unwavering support and encouragement.

At the intersection of the academic and personal I would like to extend my thanks to Naomi and her cousin Emma for their assistance, as well as to Lise for her contributions.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

French Immersion (FI) in the Canadian context is now just over 50 years old. Since its beginning, in spite of its successes in developing strong second language skills in its students, some shortcomings persist in their productive skills. As a Franco-Ontarian whose mixed-cultural parents chose French Immersion when it was brand new, and now as an experienced French Immersion practitioner, I have been particularly interested in exploring the oral language skills of current FI students. In this thesis, I have therefore undertaken a detailed exploration of these oral skills and the potential application of a particular instructional technique. In this report, I will first provide a short overview of FI programs as they have developed and as they exist today. I will describe some of the idiosyncrasies of the language FI students have developed, as these have been described in the literature. Also from the literature, I will identify the two theories which form the basis of this study; namely, sociocultural theory and cognitive theory, which may appear to be in opposition, but offer complementary analytical opportunities, especially as both value L2 interaction. I will describe the lenses through which they allow second language learning and L2 interaction to be viewed. The literature review also includes a discussion on the role of oral corrective feedback, and, more particularly, peer oral corrective feedback. In Chapter 3 I will outline the method of the research project. A mixed-methods research design was adopted. A mixed-methods approach best served the objectives of the project, as it fits with the pragmatist-pluralist inquiry worldview (DeCuir-Gunby & Schutz, 2017) in that it allows for multiple methods to address the problem of oral language production identified. Chapter 3 therefore will further detail this method and provide a full description of the data collection tools, techniques and analysis. Chapter 4 will outline the quantitative and qualitative results, including excerpts from the student recordings. These results and their implications will be discussed in Chapter 5, and conclusions, including recommendations to teachers, will be outlined in Chapter 6.

1.1 French Immersion: A snapshot

French Immersion (FI) programs were introduced for school-age children in the 1960s and early 1970s in Canada as a novel approach to second language learning. Unhappy with the

shortcomings of traditional French language instruction at the time, parents lobbied for a broader approach. French Immersion implemented a more communicative, or naturalistic, approach which relied on the same assumptions by which young children learned their first language in the home: by offering all instruction in French, students would be exposed to a great deal of positive evidence (examples of what it is permissible to do and say in the language), thus leading to language acquisition (Lambert and Tucker, 1972). By some measures this approach works, but by others the results are less than stellar. By grade 7 and 8, the intermediate grades, students have reached a fairly advanced level of comprehension, both in listening and reading (Baker, 2011; Swain, 1985). However their production appears far less sophisticated. Hammerly (1989) notably referred to it as "a faulty classroom pidgin" which he called Frenglish (p. 569), and Lyster (1998) also documented typical non-target uses. Although they rely on decades old data, Lyster and Tedick (2014) state that "even after many years of exposure to the immersion language, students exhibited lower-than-expected levels of grammatical accuracy, lexical variety and sociolinguistic competence" (p. 210). As recently as 2018, these same weaknesses were reiterated: "la production orale de ces derniers [élèves d'immersion française] est (a) moins précise pour la grammaire, (b) moins spécifique pour le lexique, (c) moins complexe pour la syntaxe et (d) socio linguistiquement moins appropriée" (Cammarata, Cavanagh, Blain & Sabatier, 2018, p. 105). It may not be so surprising that when learners are called upon to do something new, they rely on L1 structures, and on an interlanguage they co-construct with the other language learners in the class (Swain, 1998; see also Tarone, 2014, about the classroom as a speech community). Those in the field have come to the realisation that frequent exposure, and what Krashen called "comprehensible input" (Krashen, 1984) is insufficient. Comprehensible input may be insufficient for several reasons, including that the variety of input has been limited, focusing on school needs at the expense of learning vocabulary and sociopragmatics appropriate for a broader range of social interaction (Haj-Broussard, Olson Beal, & Boudreaux, 2017). Nagy, Blondeau and Auger (2003) demonstrated this in their study of one aspect of an informal grammatical variable evident in French native speakers in Montreal. They determined that the first generation of FI students did not use this variable unless they had spent time with native speakers. "Because this is not a feature of standard French, Anglophones who learned French primarily in school were not expected to exhibit it." (p. 73).

Recent data on FI production is hard to find. Consider the above example, where Lyster and Tedick, in 2014, are using decades-old data. If it is true, on the one hand, that the proficiency of FI students has not been closely examined in the last two decades, it also appears to be the case that FI pedagogy may not have evolved much in the intervening years. In their comprehensive review of FI teacher initial training and inservice training, Cammarata,et al., (2018) conclude that there has been little research into instructional methods of integrating language learning into content learning and that the situation is such that many FI teachers abandon the profession early in their careers because they do not feel adequately prepared for the task. Cammarata, et al., (2018) promote an increased use of teacher action research and professional learning communities (PLCs) for further development.

In this introductory chapter the debate about the shortcomings of FI will be presented, followed by a more detailed look at the roles of strategic competence and of languaging in the shaping of the language production in FI.

1.2 The Debate about the Shortcomings of French Immersion

The shortcomings listed above have led to a debate about the role of explicit language teaching versus implicit learning in the L2 classroom, especially about grammatical form. This debate about the effectiveness of explicitly teaching grammar or assuming it will be learned through exposure continues (VanPatten, 2014). Lyster (1987) challenged the acquisition notion which relied on implicit learning, suggesting that FI should be treated as a language *learning* format, which would require more explicit attention and specially designed materials and techniques, given that the assumptions of what students know need to be different from what a student will know in L1. Lyster and Mori (2006) further developed techniques for form-teaching in a content-based classroom with the "counterbalanced" approach. Dekeyser (1998) also made a similar differentiation between language learning and language acquisition.

1.2.1 Strategic Competence:

Kowal and Swain (1997) have used the concept of strategic competence to help explain the shortcomings of the oral French of grade 8 FI students. Strategic competence is indeed treated positively as a competence in the literature (see, for example, Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991, for instructions on how to actively teach it). When faced with communication breakdown, or a

language gap, strategic competence allows learners to use their skills in L2, L1, or socio-pragmatics to maintain communicative acts. In these instances they are able to successfully complete a communicative transaction but are not always provided with more target-like models to fill the gap. In this way, FI students who have been learning their L2 together for years have developed a common interlanguage which allows them to communicate their meaning successfully within the group and with the FI teachers, without requiring them to learn more advanced language features.

Tarone (2014) revisits the concept of interlanguage first presented by her mentor, Selinker, in 1972. According to Tarone (2014), the Interlanguage Hypothesis is best seen as questions and answers arising from this "foundational" question: "What if the language produced by second language learners is systematic?" (p. 23). In other words, is the language spoken by L2 learners "faulty" because it is in the process of creating an underlying system by way of the L1? Tarone, a long-time teacher of L2 teachers, became interested in teaching her students (and future researchers) to ask questions about learner interlanguage. Presumably this kind of investigation by FI teachers would contribute to their pedagogical decisions. The Interlanguage Hypothesis also raises questions about the "fossilization" of errors in L2 learners (mostly adult). Aspects of intermediate FI students' language may appear fossilized, but this so-called fossilization may actually be a result of the context where "they are seldom pushed to produce the TL[target language]" (Tarone p. 12), accurately, in any case.

To demonstrate the existence of an FI Interlanguage, one can consider the tendency of FI students to use a fairly narrow lexical range, overusing general-use verbs, or "to assume both meaning equivalence and identical syntactic patterning of lexical items across the LI and the L2" (Harley, 1993, p. 254). Their language thus may include anglicisms, false cognates and inconsistent application of grammatical conventions, and there "appears to be little social or cognitive pressure to produce language that reflects more appropriately or precisely their intended meaning: there is no push to be more comprehensible than they already are" (Swain, 1986, p. 133). Swain and Kowal (1997) repeat the same message a decade later stating that there is "little impetus for [students] to be more accurate in the form of the language they are using" (p. 285). I agree with the above ideas and suggest that FI intermediate students may be insensitive to the level of accuracy, since lack of accuracy does not contribute to any true communication

breakdown in their usual communicative environment, and this insensitivity contributes to the lack of motivation to repair.

1.2.2 Languaging

A strategic competence which relies on many inaccurate forms may be partly a result of the monolingualism traditionally favoured in FI classes, without encouraging students to think meta-cognitively about language. As described below, there is cautious encouragement for judicious use of L1 in FI classrooms. While L2 learners require a great deal of comprehensible input in their L2, as well as opportunities to use the language, or "comprehensible output," (Swain, 1986) there is increasing support for learners to mediate their learning through their L1 when needed (Cummins, 2014; Swain & Lapkin, 2013). This approach contrasts with the previous monolingual approach, and is not carte blanche for teachers and learners to speak English, but rather gives "permission" to use all of the resources a learner has to further their L2 learning. One of these resources is languaging–speaking to oneself or creating knowledge for oneself. Languaging is described as when language use "mediates —that is it functions to focus the attention of, to develop, to organize, to control—one's own higher mental functions" (Swain & Lapkin, 2013, p. 105). This type of talk has also been referred to as "language related episodes" (Swain, 1998), or mediation sequences (van Compernolle, 2016). As proficiency increases relative to the content of the task, the need for using L1 as a support measure should decrease. Unlike infants who learn their L1 by mediating language first through objects, learners of an L2 have more advanced cognitive skills. These allow them to access more complex ideas than they may be able to articulate in the L2. They thus have a need to fall back on using their L1 to explain, (to themselves or others) either content or meta-cognitively about the language. These authors all agree that this meta-linguistic behaviour is an important part of language learning.

Based on an assumption that intermediate students are insensitive to many of the errors they make or they hear in basic L2 forms, but have the meta-cognitive skills to reflect on language, this study is inspired by a motivation to develop a technique that could improve the oral output of FI students by increasing student L2 talk, L2 interaction and encouraging a noticing habit. This would be partly by increasing their sensitivity to errors they hear. To do this, it aims to better understand student L2 interactions in order to identify what opportunities exist for students to engage in (or avoid) peer oral corrective feedback and evaluate the effectiveness

of a peer oral corrective feedback (OCF) protocol on their ability to notice errors made by others. Students' receptiveness (or willingness) to engage in such an act (that is, peer OCF) will be considered. The possible impact on accuracy of these forms will also be explored. A necessary aspect of this study, then, is interaction in L2 between learners. Interaction will be the main theme in the Literature Review.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Chapter Overview

In this chapter, sociocultural theory and cognitive theory will be set up as forming the theoretical framework of the study. The role of interaction will then be shown to be central to both theories. Oral corrective feedback, and its sub-set, peer oral corrective feedback, will then be described as they are at the heart of the research questions, which are listed at the end of the chapter.

2.2 Theoretical framework

Two theoretical concepts frame this study. Feedback and peer interaction are most effectively viewed through the lens of sociocultural theory, and cognitive theory will be used to conceptualize the processes behind the language production and learning that emerge through interaction as they are observed in the classroom.

The main use of oral language is to engage, or interact, with others: "Both sociocultural and cognitive research have provided much evidence that peer interaction creates L2 learning opportunities" (Sato & Ballinger, 2012, p. 158). From a cognitive perspective, "interactional moves … are argued to trigger beneficial cognitive processing (Sato & Viveros, 2016, p. 92) and from a socio-cultural theory approach they may "substantiate scaffolding" (Sato & Viveros, 2016 p. 92).

This study of peer oral corrective feedback rests on interaction, which will be described first, as it is a key component in both the sociocultural and cognitive theories of second language learning. Due to the deliberate scaffolding that will be introduced, sociocultural theory (SCT) will be described, followed by cognitive theory, given that it informs focus on form and oral corrective feedback.

2.2.1 The role of interaction in the second language class.

Both sociocultural theory and cognitive theory recognize the importance of interaction in language learning. Sociocultural theorists propose that studies of interaction "need to take the social context into consideration, including the type of relationships formed and how language is

used in such interactions" (Storch, 2002, p. 306). The role of interaction, including interaction between learners as well as with native speakers or other high proficiency speakers, in the learning of languages, has also been much discussed and studied by cognitive theorists (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Jakonen & Morton, 2015; Mackey, 2007; Pica, 2013; Plonsky & Gass, 2011; Sato & Ballinger 2012; Sato & Ballinger, 2016; Sato & Viveros 2016; Scarino & Liddicoat, 2016; Mackey, Oliver & Leeman, 2003). As Tarone (2014) writes, "no individual uses language for meaning in a social vacuum" (P. 20). Storch (2002) picks up on the "interaction hypothesis" developed by Long, and succinctly defines it as the negotiation of meaning that occurs when "learners interact and encounter a communication breakdown, [and] engage in conversational modifications" (p. 306). Gass and Lewis (2007) state that "it is well established that through interaction, which includes feedback on erroneous forms, learners' attention is drawn to erroneous forms and they are pushed to make modifications" (p.79). Mackay (2007) discussed how interaction can "serve to draw learners' attention to form-meaning relationships and provide them with additional time to focus on encoding meaning" (p. 13). Mackey, Oliver and Leeman (2003) determine that children especially will provide negative feedback, the opportunity to modify output and incorporate modifications even in learner-learner dyads.

Despite the importance of interaction in second language learning, often insufficient class-time is allotted to it. As content becomes more complex, the teacher spends more time talking (Swain, 1985). Consequently, teachers inadvertently do not routinely allow students the time they need to develop fluency: "Classrooms tend to be places where teachers do most of the talking and students do most of the listening" (Met, 2008, p. 65). Students are not sufficiently provided with "the opportunity for meaningful use of one's linguistic resources" (Swain, 1986, p. 131) that could contribute to language development. Further, Swain (1991) points out that only 14% of the already limited time allotted to student talk is "sustained" (containing more than one clause) (Swain, 1991). Experienced FI teachers, especially at the intermediate grades, would add that most student-student talk in the classroom takes place in English, in spite of systems designed to encourage the use of French: "Research on students' language use within North American one-way and two-way immersion contexts reports that these students predominantly choose to speak English and resist speaking the non-English language with their peers, regardless of their first, or dominant, language" (Sato & Ballinger, 2012). One teacher mentioned how, early in her career, she had unsuccessfully tried (and subsequently abandoned) incentive systems

to encourage talk in French. She also shared that her mentor had once told her that grade four students were more keen to communicate in French than her intermediate students (Katherine Nix, personal communication). Therefore, not only must teachers provide more opportunities for sustained talk by students, but these opportunities must be designed in such a way that speaking French is the only option and they will be held accountable (Met, 2008). It cannot be assumed that left to their own choice the majority of students will choose to converse in French, whether in their social talk or, as labelled by Swain and Lapkin, (2013, p.109) "interpersonal interaction," or in carrying out the task. It further cannot be expected that students will engage in language feedback if they are not actually speaking the target language. Supporting the increased use of oral French between students does not preclude the "judicious use of L1" (Cummins, 2014) to mediate L2 learning, as discussed above. However, the predominant use of L1 as the main language of interaction between students, especially in social talk, is unlikely to help language learning.

Part of the resistance of students to speaking in their L2, or to paying attention to accuracy, may relate to the identities that they adopt in their classroom communities. An interesting aspect of oral interaction is the impact that it can have on the development of a communal interlanguage. Tarone (2014) discusses the impact of the speech community and asks whether "... we can also think of interlanguage as the construction of that community rather than that of an isolated individual" (p. 21). The class becomes a community which contains "...standard and non-standard language norms, prestige and vernacular speech styles, and in-group and out-group community members who have constructed identities that impact their language use: identities like 'geek', 'player' or 'hipster'" (p. 21). When considering the intermediate FI classroom, the possible impacts of the presence of such identities becomes potentially highly problematic if it means that certain "cool" groups might be resistant to instruction, or, as Tarone describes it, resistant to "change from above" (p. 21). Certain groups with greater social clout may discourage others from choosing language forms which may be more accurate or sophisticated, and may thus be at the forefront of the class interlanguage.

If interaction can lead to a particular interlanguage and speech community, it can also play a role in moving from the interlanguage to a more accurate language form when learners help each other identify gaps, and help to regulate each other's language, as described through a sociocultural theory lens. Sociocultural theory will be described in the next section.

2.2.2 Sociocultural Theory (SCT) and Second Language Learning

At its simplest, with respect to language learning, SCT can be "seen as the increasing ability to use the new language as a mediational tool, both socially and cognitively" (Gànem-Gutiérrez, 2013, p. 129). From an SCT perspective, learning is a process of moving from the regulation of activity by objects in the environment, through regulation by others to self-regulation, or independence in the activity in question. Praxis, in language learning, is practical activity which "guides L2 development by guiding the interaction between theoretical conceptual knowledge (e.g., grammar) and knowledge derived from our everyday experience" (Gànem-Gutiérrez, 2013, p. 130). In other words, sociocultural theorists would contend that without engaging in meaning-making activity with others (learners or experts), language learning will not take place. Breakdowns in communication lead to negotiation for a common resolution. The interaction with others that occurs in such breakdowns becomes a type of scaffolding where learners achieve something that they could not do on their own with the help of others. Van Compernolle (2015) describes these interactions in terms of co-regulation. Not only does the expert help regulate the novice's language, "the learner's behaviour, including faltering performance, mistakes, silences , and so on, also regulates the teacher's behaviour" (p. 64); that is, both interlocutors have agency. Additionally, by being an "active recipient," the recipient is actively engaged "in observing and attending to the talk-in-interaction, artifacts, and activities of others that are present in their environment" (van Compernolle, 2015, p. 113). With different types of responses, the "hearer" is actively participating in the interaction.

Learners rely on "scaffolding" to move from one type of regulation to the other. Scaffolding occurs when a learner is operating in a zone where they can carry out a task or activity with assistance, known as their zone of proximal development, as coined by Vygotsky. In this type of interaction they can accomplish more, through mediation, than they would have alone (Swain, Kinnear & Steinman, 2011). Donato (1994) further developed this concept by adding the idea of collective scaffolding, whereby learners can scaffold each other even though no individual in the group has significantly more knowledge. In terms of language learning, SCT can explain how language users might mediate the language to co-construct meaning when a communication breakdown has taken place. In studying learners of Japanese, Ohta (2001) noted that "when learners work together on a peer learning task, available cognitive resources are effectively doubled—what one student cannot notice, the interlocutor is often able to notice" (p.

87). She noticed that the student could often notice an error in the partner even if he or she had made the same error.

In SCT, because learning is a social activity relying on relationships, the nature of the relationship is key. Storch (2002) concluded that teachers must "monitor very closely the kind of relationships that are formed when students work in small group or pairs in the language classroom" (p. 318). It is in recognizing the need to create a collaborative environment that SCT forms a foundation of this study's theoretical framework. SCT allows for the examination of peer dynamics in a language classroom and how they relate to the provision of feedback, the dynamics of interaction and language learning.

Cognitive theory, which will be considered next, also rests on interaction between learners. Where SCT helps understand the social dynamics, cognitive theory, and more specifically skills acquisition theory, can better explain the language processes being considered in this research. Ultimately it helps explain what happens when the learners are self-regulating their language use; namely, the process from declarative to automatic knowledge. Cognitive theory will be elaborated next before turning to corrective feedback.

2.2.3 Cognitive Theory and Second Language Learning

Cognitive theory rests on the idea that language acquisition usually contains an element of declarative knowledge which becomes proceduralized before finally becoming automatic (DeKeyser, 1998). Skill acquisition is an important component of this approach. Skills acquisition theory (SAT) describes language learning as "a gradual transition from effortful use to more automatic use of the target language brought about through practice and feedback in meaningful contexts" (Lyster & Sato, 2013, p.71). Additionally, SAT positions language learning as a process through which "declarative knowledge can be formed into procedural knowledge through meaningful practice over many trials" (Lyster & Sato, 2013, p. 71). Tarone (2014) describes twin assumptions that inform this theory: first, that shifts between interlanguage and target language norms are the result of a shift of attention (depending on things such as task demands, or audience), and second, the assumption that there is an "interface" between explicit and implicit language knowledge. That is, that explicit knowledge leads to implicit knowledge, and therefore informs linguistic production (Schmidt, 2001; Tarone, 2014 asserts that there is no consensus on the interface position).

One cognitive approach that has been developed to counter the development of inaccurate interlanguage is a focus on form within a communicative approach (Dekeyser, 1997; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Long & Robinson, 1998; Valeo, 2013). Focus on form consists of an "occasional shift of attention" (Doughty and Williams, 1998, p. 3) from content and meaning to a particular syntactic feature, and rests on the assumptions described above (Tarone, 2014). Focus on form must "occur in conjunction with— but must not interrupt—communicative interaction" (Doughty & Verela, 1998). While learning a language is done through exposure to a great deal of input which provides "positive evidence" — i.e., what can be done and said in the language— this cognitive approach suggests that learners must also encounter "negative evidence," that is, explicit examples of what can't be said (Doughty and Verela, 1998; Pica, 2013; Sato & Lyster, 2012; Williams and Evans, 1998). When a teacher provides corrective feedback they are providing negative evidence to the addressee as well as any others listening to the interaction. Lyster and Mori, with their *counterbalance hypothesis* (2006), suggest that the shift from the usual mode of interaction focused on meaning to form may make it more salient. However, it seems likely that attention can only be paid to form when the content is easily understood (Swain, 1986).

Focus on form can take place in a formal lesson, designed by the teacher, or as a result of errors produced during interaction. During authentic interaction, the needs of the learner may become most apparent, creating opportunities for immediate, oral corrective feedback, which is the subject of the next section.

2.3 Oral Corrective Feedback

Oral corrective feedback (OCF) is a technique where a listener can draw the learner's attention to an error in form at the moment of its occurrence. It fits into both SCT and cognitive theory, as it is both a type of mediation of language assisted by another person, as well as a focus on form. Those taking a cognitive view in SLA (second language acquisition) would be more interested in the impact this has on the individual's language acquisition, whereas the SCT approach is more interested in the joint activity (van Compernolle, 2015). Corrective feedback illustrates the difference in focus of cognitive theory and SCT. "From the SCT perspective, providing support to a learner is not simply about correcting an error; rather, it entails being sensitive to a learner (sic) current needs, providing just enough assistance for the learner

to succeed without over-assisting the performance. Accordingly, error correction in the classroom is as much about what the learner is able to take responsibility for as it is about how a teacher intervenes" (van Compernolle, 2015, p. 31)

OCF itself can be delivered in a variety of ways, which are outlined later and in Figure 1. Underpinning OCF is the idea that learners need to notice the gap (difference between their production and L2) or hole (that they lack the form or lexical item needed) (Pica, 2013; Swain, 1998 also uses this terminology) in their production in order to develop or improve their language competence (Lyster, Saito & Sato 2013; Swain, 1998). Corrective feedback is explicitly mentioned within a cognitive interactionist perspective (Pica, 2013, Plonsky & Gass, 2011; Sato, 2013; Sato & Viveros, 2016).

More explicitly, OCF is assumed to help learners notice inaccurate utterances. Plonsky and Gass (2011) suggest that "noticing [has been] a construct that has proven slippery in the hands of SLA researchers" (p. 331). Uggen (2012) also illustrated the challenges of operationalizing this concept. Nevertheless, it is at the heart of the intention behind OCF; consider that "in the case in which a learner fails to edit the error on his or her own, CF substitutes the monitoring and helps the learner notice the gap" (Sato & Lyster, 2012, p. 595).

This concept of noticing, largely developed by Schmidt (1993, 2001), has been further considered in the literature by others who have tried to clarify or develop the concept. Schmidt (2001) worked with the assumption "that the objects of attention and noticing are elements of the surface structure of utterances in the input…" (p. 5). Tomlin and Villa (1994) have defined detection as the "cognitive registration of sensory stimuli" (p.192) and suggested "that Schmidt's (1990) idea of noticing can be recast as detection within selective attention" (p. 199). In this study, the noticing concept will be used in this way since Schmidt himself adopted Tomlin and Villa's (1994) terminology in his 2001 work. Specifically, to simplify the construct, I am particularly interested in the outward (and therefore conscious) manifestations of hearing a language mistake, specifically the action of correcting one's peer interlocutor.

As alluded to above, the language development of intermediate FI students may be moderated due to an overreliance on their interlanguage and strategic competence. Learners may not be noticing inaccurate language. There is no obvious need to focus on form without external pressure, and the very nature of the communicative approach may contribute as well. The communicative approach used in the FI system exposes learners to the whole language at once

(Lyster, 1987), and then often requires them to use complex structures they have not encountered previously. Erroneous "encodings [thus enter] the system in proceduralized form quickly [becoming] highly automized [*sic*]" (Johnson, 1996, p. 99). As stated elsewhere, students appear to be co-constructing their interlanguage, and these erroneous encodings get adopted by others, rather than noticed or corrected. Additionally, the communication breakdowns which can be key in encouraging language development do not exist in this context.

This study will examine the nature of learner interactions, highlighting evidence of noticing errors. It will also focus on how developing and adopting a protocol for peer oral corrective feedback might allow to enhance noticing, or detecting, of these non target-like utterances both in the recipients and providers of the feedback, and to what extent this may lead to increased accuracy in oral language production.

Whether or not to correct learner errors, and how, are surprisingly controversial questions in second language acquisition. Content-based language instruction, as it was applied to the Canadian French immersion project, was supposed to reproduce a family or home-like language acquisition context. That is, children were expected to learn French implicitly from their teachers, the way they had learned their first language, implicitly from their parents and other in their entourage. (Lyster, 1987). Lyster (1987) describes in detail the shortcomings of the FI interlanguage, and attributed teacher's reluctance to teach grammar systematically to Krashen, who was "influential in telling us that grammar instruction was virtually useless and perhaps even harmful" (Lyster, 1998, p. 54). According to Krashen (1984), and the communicative approach itself, learning should take place through comprehensible input. "In all successful methods, the focus is on the message and not the form… there is little emphasis on error correction and grammatical accuracy" (p. 62). It was feared, for example, that teaching form might inhibit learners from speaking by interrupting the flow of their message, or might lead to language anxiety (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). Additionally, there has been "concern that explicit attention to language [would] detract from attention to content" (Valeo, 2013, p. 128). Lyster and Mori's (2006) counterbalanced approach begins to address that concern. Tarone (2014) and Perpiñàn (2014) explain how there is no consensus on whether there is an interface between explicit and implicit language knowledge, therefore adding to the question of how useful it is to teach grammar explicitly.

These are legitimate concerns, given that socio-pragmatically, people do not generally correct one another in normal conversation. If communication breakdown occurs, there are various strategies that the speakers tend to adopt: they may ask for clarification through repetition or with a direct question; when speaking with a language learner, a proficient speaker may modify or simplify his or her statement; sometimes in an act of "solidarity" the proficient speaker may abandon a line of inquiry (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Gass and Selinker's (2008) description of "foreigner talk" (p. 306) contains many samples of output modification but no overt correction. Åhlund (2015) also stated that natural conversation usually excludes overt correction.

Teachers, especially those in communicative environments such as French Immersion, have long been challenged by how to actively teach the language, as opposed to relying on acquisition based on input through the subject area content. They appear to be informed by natural conversational strategies as well as the culture of a naturalistic approach, and thus feel constrained about overt correction. This may be due to holdover from the Krashen influence, to socio-pragmatic concerns or to teacher training. Cammarata and Tedick (2012) carried out a phenomenological study of three immersion teachers and identified several challenges facing immersion teachers, and immersion teaching. Immersion teachers often see themselves first as content teachers, believing that language learning would take care of itself; immersion teachers may have limited training in language teaching (as opposed to content teaching); they lack physical resources (such as appropriate textbooks) and feel constrained by time to cover content area curricular objectives. Even when they desire to focus on language, they report feeling that when they select language forms to focus on they are taking a "stab in the dark" (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012, p. 263). Harley (1989) observed that "it appears that immersion teachers, when focusing on subject matter content in oral activities, may not be aware of, or attend to, errors that students are making" (p. 356). Valeo (2013) continued the theme: "… a focus on form has not been widely adopted…[due to] concern that explicit attention to language will detract from attention to content" (p. 128). Indeed, language teachers have proven to be less willing to provide OCF than learners are to receive it (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). Åhlund (2015) contends that correction of errors is "relatively rare even in classroom contexts" (p. 67). SLA researchers also "have frequently disagreed about whether to correct errors, what errors to correct, how to correct them and when to correct them" (Ellis, 2009, p. 3). Some key questions that have been addressed

in these studies include: how do we measure its effectiveness? Does providing OCF impede the communication flow? Does it have a negative effect on learner affect?

The provision of OCF by teachers is part of a wider uncertainty about how to teach language form. Current teacher training of immersion teachers, as well as continuing education of immersion teachers in classrooms, continue to be mostly vague about how to teach language through content (Cammarata, et al., 2018). Additionally, current research in French Immersion classrooms is missing, with this author locating only one recent study, by Sato and Ballinger (2016) examining peer interaction in a grade 3 two-way immersion context. Sato and Ballinger (2016) also relied on proficiency data recorded from the 1980s. In developing their *Counterbalance Hypothesis*, Lyster and Mori used FI data collected in 1997 (Lyster & Mori, 2006). As part of a solution, Cammarata et al. (2018) call for increased teacher action-research and professional learning communities to begin to fill this void: These approaches are likely to be more motivating, they involve teachers in their own training, and they link theory to practice. As such they can effectively contribute to the professional development dialogue. (Cammarata et al., 2018).

Ultimately, Lyster, Saito and Sato's (2013) comprehensive review of oral corrective feedback literature concluded that "CF plays a pivotal role in the kind of scaffolding that teachers need to provide to individual learners to promote continuing L2 growth" (p. 1). Additionally, they found that "studies… consistently confirm that oral CF is significantly more effective than no CF" (p. 20). Lyster, Saito and Sato (2013) further conclude that although lab-based studies tend to produce better results than classroom studies, classroom studies may be more relevant, since they more effectively reflect the reality of L2 learning. Additionally, as described below, they found that different types of OCF may have different results for different learners. For example, in a communicative learning environment learners may be less attuned to the corrective nature of a simple recast than in a form-focused class. They also found evidence that, because they are more crucial to communicative success, lexical and phonological correction may lead to more improvement than correction of morphosyntactic errors. Additionally, greater salience (noticeability) leads to greater effects of CF.

OCF is not monolithic, and can be divided along four axes, as shown in Figure 1. On one axis we can place implicit vs. explicit feedback, and on the other axis prompts vs. recasts. Through recasts, positive and negative evidence can be provided to the learner. Positive evidence

can occur with recasts and with explicit correction, but not through prompts. All types of OCF can provide negative evidence; by nature of being corrected, learners are informed that what they said can't be said. However, there is the possibility of ambiguity with implicit recasts; the learner may misinterpret them as an alternative possibility rather than clear negative evidence (Lyster, 1998; Lyster, Sato & Saito, 2013).

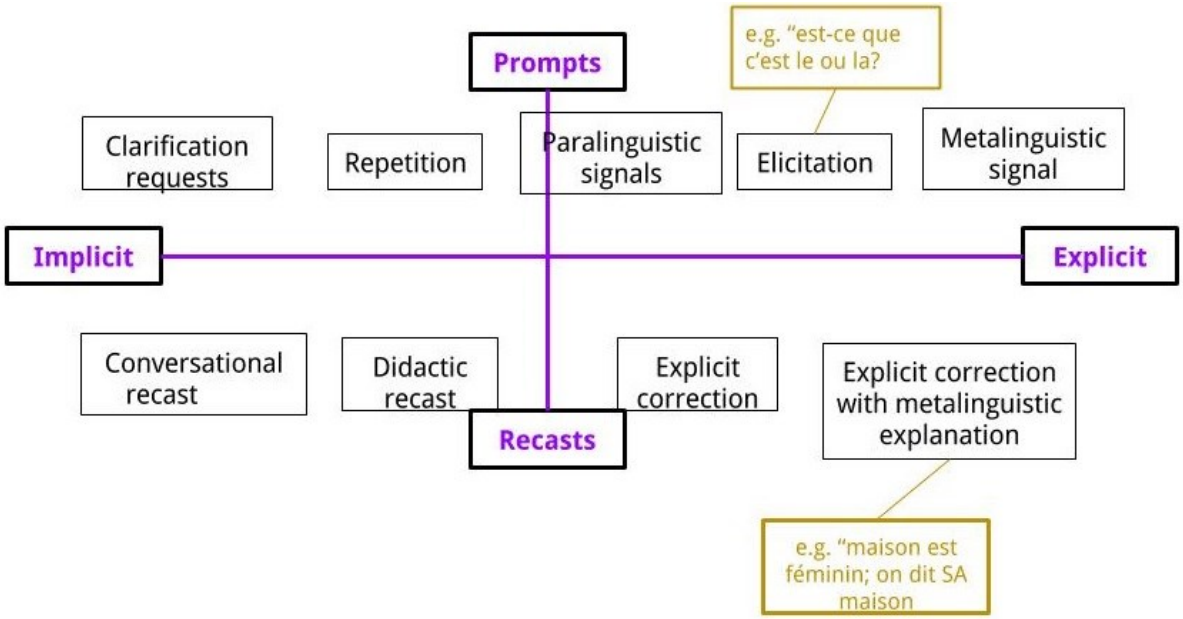

Figure 1: Four axes of oral corrective feedback, adapted from Lyster, Sato & Saito, 2013

Lyster, Saito and Sato (2013) conclude that OCF can be effective in improving L2 development, but that a number of learner factors and contexts must be taken into account when choosing what type of OCF to provide. For example, children appear to be more receptive to OCF than older learners, and also respond better than adults to prompts than recasts due to difference in maturity and cognitive awareness. Recasts may be ambiguous in a content-based language classroom, but are less so in a form-focused environment where learners are expecting to have language form attended to. Certain targets are also more amenable to correction than others, possibly due to salience. Lexical and phonological corrections through recasts are generally effective; grammatical corrections through recasts may be more successful for a more salient form than for a subtler form. These different results may also be due to the nature of the error; those that contribute to possible misunderstanding will be more salient than others (Lyster, Sato & Saito, 2012). A final factor that may determine the choice of OCF type would be if it is a

learned or new structure, the difference being that an error refers to something not yet learned and a mistake is a performance phenomenon (Ellis, 2009). There is no point in prompting a learner to self-correct if the structure is unknown, but providing an explicit recast may allow them to notice the gap in their knowledge. However, in the case of a mistake, prompts provide the opportunity for "pushed output" which suggests that "...learners remember information better when they take an active part in producing it, rather than having it provided by an external source" (Lyster, Sato & Saito, 2013, p. 11). Presumably too, recasts will be more effective when the speaker is aware of the gap or hole.

Where prompts allow learners to produce modified output, the question of simple learner uptake (following a recast) is inconclusive in that uptake alone does not indicate acquisition (Lyster, Sato & Saito, 2013). Conversely, the absence of uptake does not indicate no noticing or learning of the feature, but "to notice the mismatch, learners would need, first, to know that their output was indeed nontargetlike and, second, to intentionally hold the nontargetlike utterance in memory long enough to make a cognitive comparison" (Lyster, 1998, p. 63; see also Sato & Lyster, 2012). Noticing without uptake is difficult to measure.

Given the conclusion that OCF can be an effective strategy for improving target language learning when well done, a teacher may consider OCF as an effective way to shift from a focus on meaning to a focus on form, based on the immediate needs of the learner. It conforms to SAT's reliance on instruction and feedback, in context, and the development of "transfer appropriate processing" (Sato & Lyster, 2013, p. 80; Sato, 2013). That is, OCF occurs in situations that resemble the real-world situations in which the knowledge will be used, making it suitable in communicative or task-based approaches.

Lyster, Saito and Sato (2013) conclude that most effective teachers use a wide range of CF types. It would likely be impossible, and possibly unhelpful, to determine that one particular OCF type is the best. Ellis (2009) spelled it out this way:

> The teacher has to select both the particular strategy to use in response to a learner error and the specific linguistic devices for realizing that strategy. This calls for considerable pragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence and it is likely that teachers respond intuitively to particular errors committed by individual students rather than knowingly in accordance with some predetermined error-correction policy (p. 9).

2.3.1 Peer Oral Corrective Feedback

Typically, it would be the classroom teacher who, as the language expert, would provide OCF. However, although learners will not have the competence described by Ellis above, "peer interaction offers a context where learners produce interactional moves that are arguably conducive to L2 development" (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013, p. 27), and this interaction can contain OCF.

There are potential pitfalls with peer corrective feedback: teachers may worry about their loss of control over the corrections as the expert; learners may not trust their own expertise and conversely may mistrust their peers' expertise; and learners may be reluctant to engage in face-threatening actions (Sato, 2013). Regardless, there are several reasons to focus on peer oral corrective feedback in a classroom setting. In many L2 classrooms there is but one teacher, usually presumed to be the model and sole proficient speaker, and more than 20 learners (if not close to 30, in the Ontario context). If those learners are to rely solely on corrective feedback from the teacher, they will have infrequent opportunities to receive such feedback. Students do benefit from witnessing feedback provided to a third party, since their cognitive load is lighter than the speaker (Van Patten, 2000, cited in Sato & Lyster, 2012), but also need to put this learning in action. Secondly, if students are instructed in a peer OCF protocol they may be trained to notice negative evidence. Given that, from an SAT perspective, noticing is a key feature of language learning, it can be hypothesized that noticing the errors or mistakes of others can lead to noticing (and repair of) one's own errors and mistakes and to monitoring of language use more carefully (both their own and their peers). "This is because a learner has to *notice an error* in their classmate's production to give CF...it can be claimed that improvement in the learners' *monitoring system*, involving their language awareness, can be observed from two directions" (Sato & Ballinger, 2012, p. 171). Thirdly, from a socio-cultural theory lens it can also be theorized that by mediating the language amongst themselves, such corrections will be meaningful to their language learning.

As discussed above, peer interaction is an accepted component of second language acquisition (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Lyster & Sato, 2013; Pica, 2013). On its own, "classroom peer interaction lacks several important elements to be conducive to L2 development: (a) autonomous attention to linguistic forms, (b) quantity and quality in feedback, and (c) positive perceptions of peer interaction itself" (Sato & Lyster, 2012, p. 598). Studies of peer oral

corrective feedback are fairly limited in number but can be seen to begin to address these shortcomings. Existing research demonstrates that peer OCF can be effective under certain conditions. Key is the frontloading: creating a collaborative mindset and teaching the learners how to provide the feedback. The teacher must create a suitable environment where learners *expect* to give and receive corrective feedback as a normal part of language learning. (Sato, 2013; Lyster, 1998). Additionally it is "vital (...) for the teacher to construct an environment where [learners] feel like engaging in communicative tasks" (Sato, 2013, p.620).

Sato and Lyster, separately, together, or with others, are responsible for a number of studies of peer-OCF (Sato & Ballinger, 2012; Sato & Lyster, 2012; Sato & Lyster, 2013; Sato & Viveros, 2016), all of which highlight in some way, as stated above, the importance of some form of collaborative mindset. Explicitly teaching OCF techniques and how to use them is one component of creating such a mindset. Without creating an appropriate, collaborative mindset and environment one risks setting up confrontational power dynamics between students. Langer-Osuna (2016) addressed directly the issue of power dynamics amongst children in pair-work, albeit in a math classroom. She posited that "too little is known about authority relationships among students, and how to mitigate problems that arise when students are asked to take on positions of power, typically embodied only in the teacher, in relation to their peers" (p. 110). Langer-Osuna developed the idea of "directive authority," which is "the authority to issue directives to peers in the management of group dynamics" (p. 109). In her study, the teacher inadvertently supplied one student with intellectual and directive authority through her actions and interactions, which thus diminished the input of the other student. "Teacher evaluations of on- and off-task behaviors (social merit) affected subsequent peer interactions around directive authority" (p.114). The student with the directive authority was thus able to have her erroneous assumptions adopted by her partner. Kuiken and Vedder (2002) also remarked on the possible impact of social power dynamics on receptiveness to correction. A student with more social status may similarly make his or her incorrect utterances accepted by virtue of social status.

Ballinger (2013) found a similar power imbalance in her study of elementary two-way immersion students. She observed that students who provided more CF (as opposed to other strategies such as asking for assistance) tended to be less collaborative; this was in spite of explicit teaching of reciprocal strategies. By pairing a novice and expert together, this study set up one member of the pair with what Langer-Osuna (2016) termed as the "intellectual authority."

Students did not seem to regard each other as equal "learning resources but as deficient and in need of correction" (Sato & Ballinger, 2012, p. 171). This may be a difficult barrier to cross. Without the teacher imparting intellectual authority on students, they already know who knows what: Jakonen and Morton (2015) acknowledge that "...students are attuned to each other's states of knowledge" (p. 82).

This may have contributed to the conflictual interactions observed in Ballinger (2013), and serves as a cautionary note. Ballinger's study of OCF between grade 3 French Immersion students therefore confirmed the importance of a collaborative mindset: "[I]t can be said that the potential for CF provision to facilitate language awareness development is crucially affected by collaboration patterns" (Sato & Ballinger, 2012, p. 171). Learners in a classroom where peer-OCF is to be provided need to recognize each other's capacity to provide feedback. It might even be that pairing similar proficiency learners together might force them to work together rather than allow lower proficiency individuals to lean on the higher proficiency partners. During a previous action-research project exploring group-work carried out by myself, I noticed that putting two lower-achieving students together seemed to force the two students to collaborate and take ownership of the task. The fear here, of course, is that students can reinforce errors. Ohta (2001) found that such errors were infrequent, and that the advantages of peer feedback were greater than these possible pitfalls: "the potential harm that might be caused by learners "picking up" each other's errors is far outweighed by the benefit of peer interaction" (p. 116). Ohta's classroom study results differed from prior studies in lab settings, and she attributes this to a different context; namely lower proficiency learners, focused on a language learning task with relevant material to draw on at hand and visible on the walls.

Sato and Lyster (2012) carried out a semester-long experimental study of peer interaction and two types of peer OCF with Japanese L1 learners of English L2 at a university. They concluded that fluency improved in the three experimental groups, and that both OCF groups improved in accuracy compared to the peer-interaction only and control groups. They used a modeling, practice, and use-in-context sequence to teach the peer-OCF technique, which included role-plays for demonstrating how to give the OCF. They pre-and post tested spontaneous production, and post-tested and compared interactional patterns. To summarize the study conclusion, "CF embedded in peer interaction has positive impacts on accuracy development" (Sato & Lyster, 2012, p. 310).

Sato and Viveros (2016) considered the question of peer OCF and peer interaction from the point of view of the learners' proficiency level. Contrary to prior assumptions that lower proficiency learners would be unwilling to provide OCF (or to modify output), they found that the lower proficiency group had in fact benefited more from the intervention than the higher proficiency group. Proficiency level was not seen to be the cause of more or less OCF provision. Rather, this difference, measured by differences in the type of collaborative moves, was deemed to be due to other differences, such as teacher influence and task-completion mindset. Similarly, Åhlund (2015) noticed (in a Swedish immersion class for immigrants) participation in error correction by lower proficiency speakers. These corrections were of various types--vicarious responses, choral responses, corrective recasts. Sometimes they were more socio-pragmatic, including giggling.

Taking these research findings into account, research questions for the present study were developed based on the following assumptions:

- peer interaction is an important part of language learning;
- FI students may not have sufficient opportunities to engage in such interaction;
- FI teachers require knowledge about successful techniques to better merge the teaching of language-form and content in order to help their intermediate students develop language skills beyond their current interlanguage;
- OCF has been shown generally to be successful; in some contexts peer-OCF has seen success.

Not enough is known about the comfort levels of students engaging in peer OCF, especially in light of the issue of power dynamics, including those that emerge from the existence of the classroom as a community which contains "members who have constructed identities that impact their language use" (Tarone, 2014, p. 21) some of whom may be resistant to "change from above" (Tarone, 2014, p. 21).

More research needs to be carried out in different contexts to better understand the phenomenon of the continued existence of an inaccurate language production amongst young learners of French in a French Immersion context. Building on the promising research in the field of peer oral corrective feedback, this research will add to our understanding of how to address this problem. If it can be shown that youngsters can effectively contribute to each other's language improvement, teachers can be provided with tools to strategically and deliberately work

this into their practice. Identifying patterns of interaction among these students may also provide insight into other avenues for peer assistance in language learning Therefore, the following research questions have been developed for this study.

2.4 Research questions

Given, then, the phenomenon of an automated interlanguage containing errors in frequently used patterns, and the demonstrated positive impact of OCF as well as the less-studied potential positive impact of peer-OCF on accuracy, the following research questions form the focus of this study:

1. How does the nature of the interactions between intermediate-level FI students provide possibilities for them to engage in peer oral corrective feedback?
2. To what extent do students engage in peer OCF following targeted instruction in the technique?
3. If peer OCF is taking place, to what extent is it having an impact on the accuracy of the targeted forms for correctors and correctees in terms of noticing and production?
4. How comfortable (or willing) are students with providing and receiving OCF to their peers (both higher & lower proficiency)?

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter is divided into two main sections: Research Design and Methodology. In the Research Design section the selected mixed methods research design will be outlined and defended. The Methodology section is further divided into the following subsections: after describing the context and participants, the data collection tools will be outlined. The third subsection, Procedures, is itself further divided. First the ethics approval process is detailed, then the data collection steps are explained. These are followed by a description of the data analysis methods. The final subsection of the Methodology section will be a summary, with a visual representation, of the procedures.

3.2 Mixed Methods Research Design

This study was designed as a mixed-methods, quasi-experimental, convergent-explanatory (QUAN+QUAL) design with intervention (Creswell, 2015), in order to most appropriately address the research questions. A mixed-methods design was selected for this study to allow for a broad understanding of how intermediate students could engage in peer correction for improved language production. Specifically, an assumption was made that the problem of FI oral production could best be addressed by quantifying certain aspects of production and of noticing, and by examining in a qualitative manner the interactions between speakers. Given that one of the purposes of mixed methods is "to achieve a fuller understanding of a target phenomenon" and that, particularly in "a complex educational or social context," it can provide an "expansion function," (Dörnyei, 2007, pp. 164-165) this approach is particularly appropriate. Indeed "most classroom researchers place [prominence] on conducting mixed methods research to be able to understand the intricate tapestry of classroom events" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 176). In this study, quantitative data were collected and provide an overview of the situation; qualitative data were collected and analysed, as well as quantified, in order to justify the identification of certain themes. In this way, they were merged (Creswell, 2015) and represent a convergent design. This approach is also referred to as convergent parallel (DeCuir-Gunby & Schutz, 2017) due to the fact that both quantitative and qualitative data are collected,

simultaneously, and analysed concurrently. In this study, the quantitative aspect is included to answer the question of whether there was any change in noticing of a target structure, as well as to quantify and justify the themes which emerged for qualitative analysis. The quantifying of certain themes also encouraged a return to the data for more detailed qualitative analysis about how students are engaging in L2 interaction, and assess how this might contribute to their adopting, or not, the peer-OCF strategy under study. Qualitative analysis also permitted triangulation of data. (Figure 4, in the summary of the Procedures section, provides an overview of the procedures). The qualitative analysis in this case occurred after the intervention period was over, to "follow up on the outcomes and help explain them in more detail than the statistical results alone yield" (Creswell, 2015, p. 43).

Demonstrating the importance of triangulation of data to look more deeply into the impact of an intervention, Kuiken and Vedder (2002) found that though their post-test revealed no significant improvement in noticing of a target structure, qualitative analysis of interactions demonstrated that discussion (ergo noticing) of the structure occurred. Storch (2002) also emphasized "the importance of qualitative approaches to research on peer interaction" (p. 316). Additionally, "qualitative research is uniquely capable of documenting and analysing the situated, contextual influences on language acquisition and use, as well as the subtle variations in learner and teacher identities that emerge during the language learning/teaching process" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 154). Qualitative analysis may permit for the development of pedagogical tasks which orient more to the task-in-process (Seedhouse, 2004). Further, qualitative analysis can illuminate the many ways that L2 learner interaction contributes to language development.

To address these questions, the intervention was designed to maximise sustained student interaction in both groups, thereby creating opportunities for the production of rich data. To this end, quantitative and qualitative analysis was carried out on transcriptions made of recordings of semi-spontaneous sustained speech as well as of unprepared interactions in both groups. Figure 2, below, illustrates the convergent intervention design.

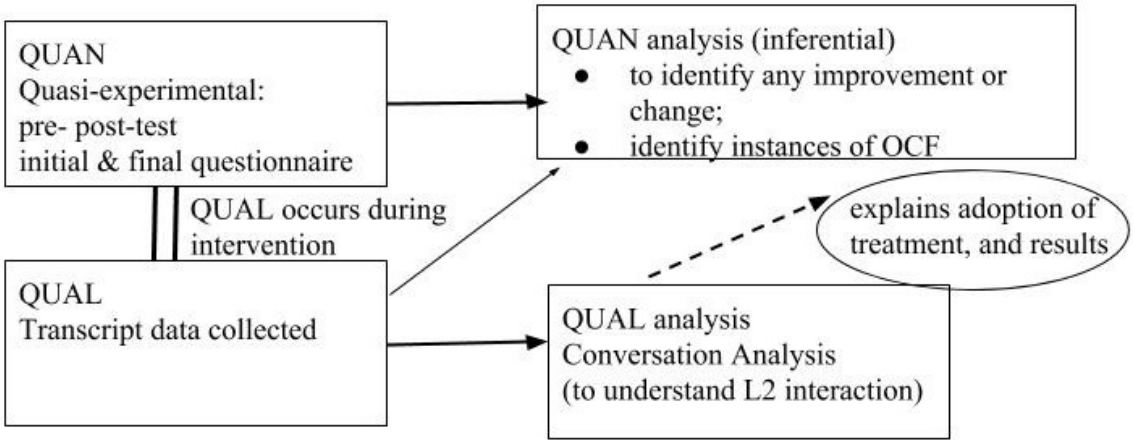

Figure 2: Convergent intervention design

3.2.1 Quasi-experimental studies

Quasi-experimental studies, which forego the purely random participant selection required for a full experimental study, are highly suitable for classroom research. They can avoid the "artificial frameworks in laboratory conditions which reduce external validity, (i.e. the generalizability of the study)," (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 120) but augment internal validity. Both Seedhouse (2004) and Sato (2013) suggest that studies in intact classes, as opposed to lab settings, lend ecological validity to this type of study, and, as mentioned above, make up for perceived deficiencies in non-random sampling. Language teaching often takes place in classes; therefore, interventions tested in classroom environments are particularly pertinent in informing practice. Using intact FI classes was particularly pertinent in this study which aimed to study language production and improvement specifically within FI classrooms.

Two ready-made groups (intact classes) served as a basis from which to test the impact of a treatment on one (the experimental) group, and the pre-, post-test model was used. Between-group differences were minimized by the fact that they were two classes at the same school who were taught all of their French subjects by the same teacher. What follows is an overview of procedures that are described more fully later. The groups were compared at the outset, and

again at the end, with a pre-, post-test design; both groups were provided with parallel instruction except for the particular treatment. An initial and final (identical) questionnaire was also administered to all participants to investigate attitude, and change in attitude, towards the treatment in addition to the effect of the treatment. In this study, additional qualitative data were collected to investigate the application, or not, of the practice introduced in the intervention, namely peer OCF. Some of the qualitative data were quantified to provide some descriptive statistical information.

3.2.1.2 Qualitative conversation analysis. The qualitative analysis for this study is based on conversation analysis (CA). Pure CA uses conversations to explore relationships between individuals and thus has a very intricate coding system that goes beyond the requirements of this study. Therefore, in this study, the premises of CA will be used where they help answer the question, without relying on the entire coding system, nor a sociological analysis of the interactions. However, the data will be explored in order to begin to understand why students are making certain language choices. In addition to considering frequency of certain behaviours, the analysis will also look at how the language is being used in conversation. Analysis of the conversation topics themselves will not be done, except in certain specific instances, such as interference, or talk about the task. Justification for the coding choices appears later in this chapter in the data analysis section. Another reason to adopt CA as described by Seedhouse (2004) is his characterization of "classroom communication [as] a variety of institutional discourse" (p. 77) and this characterization will be adopted: that is, while recognizing that the tasks created for the learners, and the language required for their completion, are not self-selected, they form part of the expected institutional discourse of the French Immersion class, and are in fact what is under study. These conversations are thus considered natural, or organic, for this particular institutional discourse. Analysis of the audio and transcripts will help to explain the pre-, post test results, and to generalize the types of interactions in this context. This in turn helps demonstrate the distance which can occur between "task-as-workplan" to the "task-in-process" (Seedhouse, 2004 p.93). That is, in interaction the learners orient themselves to their perception of the task expectations, which may differ from the pedagogical expectations established by the teacher or researcher. For example, there may be a focus on task-completion by participants, versus a focus on quality of language planned by the researcher.

3.3 Methodology

The methodology has been divided into five sections. First the context and participants are described, as is the relationship and method of communication with the teacher who carried out the activities in her class. In the next section the data collection tools are all described. This section is followed by the data collection procedures, then a description of data analysis. A summary of these procedures concludes the chapter.

3.3.1 Context and participants

As discussed in the literature review, most research on peer OCF has been in university classes, with exceptions such as Ballinger (2012), who investigated a two-way immersion class. Additionally, as alluded to in the introduction, there is little current data available about FI proficiency and interaction. As an experienced FI teacher in intermediate grades, I had noticed some tendencies for students to engage in peer-correction in my own classes. I had also noticed a certain resistance to engage in peer-peer interaction in French. This made the recruitment of intermediate classes particularly suitable. This study was carried out in an Ontario public school with grade 7 students (11/12 years old). The original plan was to recruit two Early French Immersion classes, but changes to class composition meant that the classes were mixed Early and Middle French immersion (EFI and MFI respectively; these differences are described later). Informed consent was obtained from parents as per requirements of the University of Ottawa Research Ethics Board and the school board ethics committee. Informed assent from the students themselves was also obtained. The researcher assigned pseudonyms to each of the participants and these pseudonyms are used consistently throughout the text and appendices.

Sampling decisions were mainly pragmatically determined. Because the study was carried out in intact classes, and a minimum of two classes was required (one experimental, one control), two classes taught by the same teacher were chosen. I recruited a willing teacher from within my network of professional acquaintances who, conveniently, taught the same subjects to two classes. The assumptions for analysis of these samples are described in the analysis section.

Twenty students out of a class of twenty-seven consented to participate in the control group-class, and twenty-two out of twenty-six students consented to participate in the experimental group. As noted above, both classes were taught by the same teacher for their French and some French content classes. School administration creates the classes randomly

within the student population, ensuring only that boys and girls are fairly evenly distributed. As a rule, the EFI students have had a majority of their instruction in French (L2) since kindergarten (5 years old), and MFI had limited FSL instruction until grade three, and in grade four began receiving a majority of their instruction in French. Recent changes to the distribution of French instructional minutes in this school board in recent years make it difficult to be more precise. In the midst of their primary and elementary schooling, some subjects were switched from French to English and it is not always clear when that was or what subjects changed without access to confidential student records. The context is English-dominant (within the school and the community), and few students have much exposure to French outside of school. However, many of their subject areas have been taught in French, in a content-based approach, for either six or three years, depending on the program. By grade seven, English is seldom used by the teachers within the French (language or subject area) classes. As discussed in the introduction, these students typically need no English instruction from the French teacher, and can communicate their ideas in French. Many of them will ultimately take the DELF French language exam (the *Centre international d'études pédagogiques' Diplôme d'études en langue française*) at the end of grade 12, typically aiming for a B2 qualification. The school board advertises an 83% participation rate in this exam by grade 12 students enrolled in French (this would include Immersion as well as Core French) and a 93% success rate trough the three levels tested (A2, B1, B2).

3.3.1.1 The participating teacher. Prior to the intervention, an overview of the project was presented to the class teacher, whose pseudonym is Johanna. This presentation included a summary of different forms of OCF, the potential benefits of peer-OCF, presentation of the methodology and Johanna's expected role. Johanna is a German immigrant, who speaks both English and French with a very high proficiency, in addition to her mother tongue. She is a fairly recently certified teacher (having qualified in Ontario three years prior to the study in 2015), and obtained a Master's Degree in Education the year prior to the study (2017).

Communication between Johanna and me was frequent. Materials were delivered to me as they became available either through internal board mail, or hand delivered to me by Johanna. We were in frequent contact during this period by email and personal meetings.

3.3.2 Data collection tools

The data collection tools consisted of an identical pre- and post-test, an identical initial and final questionnaire and several structured pair activities eliciting participant oral interaction which was audio-recorded. These are detailed in the following sections.

3.3.2.1 Pre- and post-test. In order to establish a base measure for equivalence between groups, the suitability of the target structure, and to ascertain if improvements were made on the target structure, an instrument was designed to be administered to both groups to be used as both a pre- and post-test. In order to ensure validity of the test instrument, the same test was used as a pre- and post-test, and was not corrected with the students in the interim.

The target feature chosen to assess question 3 (whether peer-OCF as it was carried out in the class was having an impact) was a set of frequently used idiomatic expressions based around the verb *avoir* and its use as an auxiliary verb. I selected a form which I had noticed through my teaching experience was problematic for intermediate level FI students. This is backed up by Harley, (1993) who explains the difficulty English L1 learners of French have with *avoir* and *être*: "AVOIR is … required in some contexts where in English BE is used and, vice versa, ÊTRE is required in some contexts where in English HAVE is used" (p. 253). Consider expressions such as *avoir* + *âge* (*il a neuf ans*) or *avoir* + *peur* (*nous avions peur quand…*) which are both expressions using the verb "to be" in English. As a result, these are often used incorrectly, possibly originally as a result of L1 interference, but subsequently out of a habit developed within the speech community. These terms are at the interface of morphosyntax and lexical use, and OCF was determined by Lyster, Sato and Saito (2012) to be most effective for lexical (and phonological) errors. Concentrating on the use of *avoir* was therefore identified as an ideal structure to use for this study.

The test was designed to assess noticing of the target structures, similar to the type of noticing that was hoped for in peer interaction. A script was written by me, recreating a natural interaction where twenty-four instances of the target expressions (used incorrectly) were worked into the conversation (Appendix 1). One high-proficiency French Immersion high school student and one high-proficiency recent French Immersion graduate were recruited to read and record the script. The premise of the dialogue was to find the differences in two drawings. This recording lasted about three and a half minutes. The fact that the readers were FI graduates made their accent closer to the accent students would eventually be asked to correct during peer-OCF.

It would be unfeasible to ask students to list the mistakes and listen simultaneously, so they were instructed to mark the language errors they heard (in the audio recording) on an accompanying, literacized, transcript (Davidson, 2009).

This test was adapted from a test designed and previously used in in my own classes, prior to the study. At that time I had noticed that students had trouble discerning audible errors from written errors. I noticed that students were indicating elements they thought were errors (such as missed capital letters), but which they could not have heard as an error. As a result, during this study I asked Johanna to be very explicit about this difference. She was asked to emphasize to participants that the script was verbatim; they would see what they heard. Thus they should only mark errors that they could hear, ignoring what they thought might be mistakes in spelling or punctuation, for example.

3.3.2.2 Questionnaire. A questionnaire was deemed to be an ideal tool to address the fourth question, both quantitatively and qualitatively, about attitudes and self-perception. The fifteen-question questionnaire was designed to obtain a quantitative and qualitative assessment of the participants' receptiveness towards correction from their teacher and from their peers, their perception of their language level and the extent to which they noticed the quality of their peers' L2 use (see Appendix 2). Specifically, with regards to their perception of their language use, questions asked about perception of their own pronunciation and intonation, grammar and vocabulary. Assumptions were made as to the participants' understanding of the terms grammar, pronunciation, intonation and vocabulary, as these would be words used by their teachers. Two questions referred to each of the sub-topics, (intonation, grammar, vocabulary, importance of speaking well and feelings about being corrected). The intensity of answers to the second question each time was reversed to force the respondents to read more carefully, instead of just quickly providing the same response for every question. The questionnaire contained multiple choice questions, Likert-scale type questions and open questions. A questionnaire is an efficient method of gathering the same information from a larger number of people without incurring the time required when conducting personal interviews. Additionally, all respondents answer the same questions, with no variation that could be introduced by an interviewer (Fortin & Gagnon, 2016). This questionnaire thus permitted the collection of the participants' perceptions of their language skills and their feelings towards being corrected. The items are described next.

The participants' perception of their intonation and pronunciation, their grammar and their vocabulary were each assessed with two questions; The first question in each case was to choose the statement that best fit from a graduated continuum (from strongest to weakest) and the second was to choose on a scale from 1 - 4, with one being weakest. Four-point scales were selected to force respondents to choose in one direction. An even number of choices allowed me to know if respondents thought they were more on the strong or the weak side; it allowed for direction as well as some intensity (Alwin, 1992). Question 14 was a multiple choice question which asked students how they felt when they were corrected by a classmate. The answers provided were based on observations I had made in my own teaching about different reactions. These responses did not lend themselves to a linear progression, since, for example, *je me fâche* is not necessarily the opposite of *je me sens gênée* which is not the opposite of *j'aime beaucoup l'aide*. Additionally, there was allowance for neutrality in this question since it is entirely feasible that they do not react at all. Open questions provided opportunities to elaborate on each category.

3.3.2.3 Participant production in interactive tasks. In order to answer research questions one (about student interaction) and two (about student OCF), audio recordings of the participants in interaction and in structured but spontaneous production were planned to assess the nature of their interactions, and to measure the frequency of peer OCF, following the intervention. Incidents of modified output or self-correction, and accuracy in production of the target feature were all targeted. The audio-recordings were designed to provide both quantitative (e.g., how many corrections were made) and qualitative (e.g., tone of voice) data. Tasks were designed to elicit maximal sustained talk in French as well as interaction, and are described next.

3.3.2.3.1 Information-gap activities (Tasks 1 and 3). These two tasks were two-way information-gap activities similar to the dialogue in the pre-test recording. Like Fujii, Ziegler, and Mackey (2016), who were studying the effect of metacognitive instruction on peer interaction in a university setting, these drawings were also taken from Ur (1981). Although these images contained some possibly anachronistic elements (such as a typewriter or a cuckoo clock) they contained enough variety to allow participants to engage in conversation. While the telephone was an old-fashioned model, the concept, and the word "*téléphone,*" would be familiar. The elements for which the vocabulary in French might be unknown presented opportunities for paraphrasing, or peer-assistance. These tasks were chosen because two-way information-gap

activities, by design, elicit interactional moves (Fujii, Ziegler and Mckey, 2016). Doughty and Pica (1986) discovered that simple group decision-making activities "did not require an exchange of information and thus resulted in a small number of confirmation and comprehension checks and clarification requests, all of which are believed to be vital to second language acquisition" (p. 308). However, in two-way information gap activities "the total amount of speech increased when the exchange of information was required" (p. 319). This prior research shows that such activities lead to more conversational modification.

Pairs were provided with two nearly identical, black and white drawings which they had to discuss in order to find the differences without looking at each other's picture. This task demanded a great deal of interaction between the pair-members, where they asked each other questions, responded to questions and described what they saw. Task 1 (T1) was a scene in a park, and Task 3 (T3), significantly more detailed and complex than T1, was a messy room. Three pairs used a different drawing in T3 because technical difficulties meant that their original attempt was not successfully recorded. This alternate drawing was located by the classroom teacher online (Activity Village). This drawing also depicted a room with a variety of objects.

3.3.2.3.2 Mini-discours (Tasks 2 and 4). These two tasks followed the "mini-discours' format previously created by me in my own classes. These talks are designed to allow for sustained talk and critical thinking within a content area. Students are given a topic, given some time (usually about ten minutes) to prepare, and then are asked to talk, one at a time, for about 90 seconds in a structured and coherent manner to the other member(s) of the group. Students were also encouraged to engage in dialogue on this topic following the sustained speaking. This kind of task was deemed suitable since it allows for student talk and interaction in a content-focused situation. Both topics were loosely linked to the technology component of the Health curriculum. The subject for Task 2 (T2) was a comparison between an episode of Black Mirror (Jones, Schnur, Wright, 2016) which the class had studied, and a so-called "social credit" system being introduced in China which had been the topic of a French listening comprehension exercise (Lovette, Védeilhé, Yu, & Wang, 2018). The subject of Task 4 (T4) was to discuss their reaction to a reading prompt about a robot being launched in China designed to assist parents to look after and teach their small children (Association France Presse, 2018). Unless students engage in the post-*discours* talk, this type of task contains less interaction, but allows for a more sustained turn than the information gap activity.

3.3.3 Data Collection Procedures

Figure 3 provides an overview of the final timeline of the events as they relate to data collection. It was planned that this study would take place over most of a school year. This would have allowed for the data collection process to last about six months, including the intervention period. The school year is ten months; six months would have allowed the project to last much of the school year with flex time for unexpected events. The use of (nearly) a full school-year would allow time for improvements in language production. However, delayed ethics approval from the school board meant that the project was not approved until February (the sixth month of the school year).

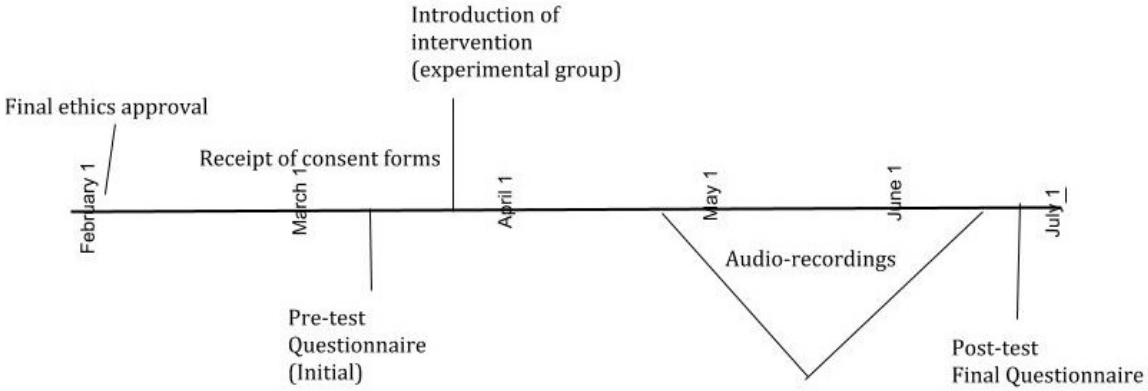

Figure 3: Overview of timeline

3.3.3.1 Ethics Application Process. The ethics approval process for this study was more cumbersome than anticipated. The initial application through the University of Ottawa was done through the summer months, and approved, with small changes and clarifications, in time to submit the project to the school board ethics committee for its August intake date. A response was expected mid-October.

The project was originally conceived of as an action-research project in my own classroom. However, I was informed that, as this project was being undertaken as a requirement for my Master's degree, it could not fall into the action-research category. The project was thus designed to be carried out by another teacher, in my own school. The initial submission was denied, with no mechanism provided for amendments. When requested, a list of concerns was

provided, and I was informed that I could re-submit for the next intake date, in January. This process would have delayed recruitment of participants until March, significantly reducing the intervention time and compromising the integrity of the study. An arrangement was made to accommodate my request and evaluate the amendments prior to the next committee meeting. Significantly delayed in any case, the project was approved mid-January. One of the amendments was to carry out the project in another school, in order to avoid any apparent conflict of interest. Another amendment was to reduce the number of recordings, which were deemed to be too cumbersome. The impact of this decision was to make it impossible for me to visit the school or the students where the study was being carried out.

The revised timeline, therefore, indicates final ethics approval for the project at the end of January 2018. The classroom teacher in the study is a colleague from a different school and had already expressed an interest in the project and in carrying it out; she therefore acted as an intermediary with the school administration who subsequently gave their permission by email on February 1. Both Ethics Approval letters are included in Appendix 3.

3.3.3.2 Preparation for intervention. Johanna reported that she had worked to create a collaborative class culture by introducing a variety of group activities, such as writing group "graffitis," making posters, or research. I presented the Johnson & Johnson (2009) tenets of effective group-work (listed below), and encouraged Johanna to use them to further contribute to a classroom environment where students work together collaboratively in small groups in various contexts (e.g., creating posters or skits, reading texts and answering questions, etc.). These tenets include positive interdependence, individual accountability & personal responsibility, promotive interaction, appropriate use of social skills and group processing. Johanna told me that she had also made it clear that the French class was a space where she expected students would make language errors and that students could expect to have these corrected. Although only consenting participants were to be studied, all students in the class participated in the intervention as it represents informed teaching practice. Teachers continuously experiment with different ways to improve their practice, including encouraging students to collaborate—and in FI classes, to interact in French—using a variety of tools to improve their production.

3.3.3.4 Recruitment of participants. Johanna presented the information to her students, explaining that the decision to participate in the study was a decision to be made with their parents. She also explained that the activities were typical classroom activities and that as such

students would take part whether or not their data was part of the study; she also made it clear that only the data of consenting participants would be used in the study. She further explained other aspects of the recruitment letter and consent forms, including that students' identities would remain confidential. The teacher distributed a recruitment letter, consent forms and student assent forms to all of the students, and I made myself available for an information meeting. Some parents confirmed with the teacher that the project had been properly approved, but none wished to attend an information meeting. Students returned consent forms and assent forms to their teacher, who then passed them on to the researcher by March 1st.

3.3.3.5 Intervention activities. To answer research questions one and two, it was necessary to create occasions where students engaged in sustained interaction in pairs. To answer question two, the experimental class was taught about OCF (from teachers and peers). The descriptions of classroom activities below are based on reports from the teacher through our regular communications.

In late March and early April, prior to the intervention, all students in both classes were given an overview of the target expressions. Johanna explicitly presented the target structures by having students in both classes complete a personal reference sheet (see Appendix 4; all pedagogical activities are included in the appendices). To practise, each class collectively created horror stories focusing on the expressions.

The first step of the intervention itself was to teach the experimental group about oral corrective feedback. The teacher presented a lesson provided by me (Appendix 5). She thus first presented the general concept of OCF to the experimental class. She asked them to brainstorm about what their teachers did when they made errors in oral French. As a full class they then compiled these ideas, and the teacher presented a slide show overview of the concept that I had prepared (Appendix 6). This overview also introduced the idea of peer OCF, and contained information about how and when to correct peers as well as what not to do, and how to react when corrected. Johanna reported that, as requested, she modelled, with students, in front of the class, examples of peer-OCF. The lesson plan and student overview are included as appendices 5 and 6.

This instruction continued with the model of preparation, practice and expansion used by Sato and Lyster (2012). Johanna reported that she repeated these instructions prior to activities involving oral peer interaction, namely about once a week, in order to reinforce the adoption of

peer-OCF by members of the class. Following Sato and Lyster (2012), three weeks were expected to allow for the peer OCF process to establish itself in the experimental group with regular review and modelling by the classroom teacher before beginning the data collection.

In preparation for sustained interaction, both classes did the same oral activity, designed to introduce the idea of group talk, in French, as well as to practise peer-OCF with the experimental group. The activity, adapted and translated from Ur (1981), was to re-design a zoo according to certain criteria (See Appendix 7 for activity overview). One person in each group in the experimental class was given some sentences to say containing errors, in order to elicit peer OCF (*e.g.*, *Les enfants sont peurs des crocodiles*). Following the activity, the teacher debriefed with the experimental class by discussing what errors were corrected, and also had the sentences read to the class and practised correcting them in the class setting. Because these were activities that had been previously carried out in my own classes, I was thus able to predict some of the difficulties and to fine-tune instructions for the students of the teacher in the study.

Johanna reported that she followed my instructions. No recordings were made of these instructions as they were repeated at various times during regular classroom interactions, as well as prior to specific activities. As a highly educated professional, Johanna was trusted to report accurately on her classroom activities. Namely, all students in the experimental group were encouraged to use both implicit and explicit forms of OCF as well as prompts and recasts, depending on the particular interaction during group work. They were to be instructed to listen for uses of the target-language feature (correctly or incorrectly used) and to indicate to the speaker, using learned OCF techniques, if and when they have made a mistake. Johanna was asked to emphasize with participants the need for collaborative interaction, given that Ballinger (2013) had observed that OCF between expert and novice participants of the same age was often conflictual. More proficient speakers were encouraged to create opportunities for other students to notice or to verbalize and model self-corrections. In the introduction to peer OCF, students had been told that they could opt to modify output or not, depending on the circumstances and the type of OCF used.

Johanna reported that, as instructed, both classes received some focus-on-form, with her drawing students' attention to the target structures through instruction, and providing OCF as needed in both classes. Throughout the intervention Johanna reported that she continued to remind the experimental class to engage in peer-OCF prior to oral-interactive activities.

3.3.3.6 Pre-test. Johanna administered the pre-test to all students in the second week of March to use in her own assessment, and only the participants' tests were provided to me. The test, assessing participants' noticing of the target structure (*expressions avec avoir*) in a scripted, audio-recorded dialogue, took one class period (40 minutes) to administer in each class.

3.3.3.7 Questionnaire (Initial). The initial questionnaire, as described in the Data Collection Tools above, was administered to participants only, in the second week of March. Participants filled out paper copies and I input these using google forms from my own account with an ID number for each participant rather than personal details. Anonymity of responders can contribute to more truthful responses and help avoid compromise due to "social desirability" (that is, the desire to give the right answer) (McLeod, 2008). However, in this study these were not anonymous because it was relevant to the research questions to be able to match responses of individuals to their behaviour in the recorded conversations and other data collected. The questions to which the answer was to select a statement rather than numerical scale were converted to a 1 - 4 scale in order to facilitate comparison.

3.3.3.8 Audio-recordings of students in interaction. A series of four audio recordings was made of structured pair work in both classes in order to gather information about use of the target structure, peer-correction, and information about the nature of peer-interaction amongst these participants. Task one was recorded on April 23, (both groups), Task two May 31 (control) and June 5 (experimental), Task three June 5 (control) and June 14 (experimental), and Task four June 20 (both groups). The pair-talk activities listed below were recorded in both classes, and full transcriptions were made of these four sets of recorded activities for ease of analysis. Where a non-participant was in conversation with a participant, only the participant's utterances were transcribed and used for analysis. In such cases, the non-participant's utterances were indicated by "other" and ellipses. Further details are discussed in the Data Analysis section. A total of 85 conversations lasting 407 minutes and 50 seconds were recorded and transcribed. See table 1 for a breakdown by task and group.

Table 1: Breakdown of tasks by group

	1st task	2nd task	3rd task	4th task	total
Control	10 conversations; 71 min 58 sec	10 conversations; 31 min 15	12 conversations; 74 min	11 conversations; 34min 30	211 min 45 sec
Experimental	8 conversations 45 min	12 pairs 30min 10	10 79 min 20 sec	12 42min35	197 min 5 sec

For this structured pair work, I provided the class teacher, Johanna, with some role-plays and discussion prompts, and others were initiated by her after discussion with me. Johanna located recording equipment at the school, and therefore did not require the equipment I could provide. She organised the recordings by class and task, and saved them to USB sticks which were delivered to me. Students were provided with a prompt, reminding them to state their name and the date before beginning the discussion. The pair-talk activities used during these sessions were described in the Data collection tools section.

3.3.3.9 Post-test. Johanna administered the post-test, in the middle of June. The post-test was identical to the pre-test, took one 40 minute class session to administer, and was administered to all students. She was able to use the results in her own assessment, but again, only the participants' tests were provided to me.

3.3.3.10 Questionnaire (Final). In the middle of June, after all recording activities and the post-test were completed, the initial questionnaire was re-administered as a final questionnaire using all of the same procedures described above. The questionnaire was administered during one 40 minute class session. The data was digitized in the same way as the initial questionnaire, by me.

3.3.3.11 Absence of a delayed post-test. While desirable, it was not possible within the scope of the project to implement a delayed post-test. Timing did not allow for a meaningful delay before administering a delayed post-test. Due to the school board's ethics procedures, it is not possible for a study to span two school years, so access to the participants in a further year, when they would be in a new classroom setting and distanced from the intervention, is not possible.

3.3.4 Data Analysis

Data analysis was done in July and August of the same year. What follows is a description of the analytical procedures presented in the order in which they were analysed. The final section will describe how quantitative and qualitative data were integrated for analytical purposes.

3.3.4.1 Pre-test and post-test. The pre- and post-test were designed to assess noticing of the targeted structures, and any impact of the intervention on noticing in the experimental group. The participants were asked to identify errors in the use of the target structure on a written transcript of a scripted audio-recording (appendix 1). There were 24 such errors. A total of 42 participants (20 in the control group and 22 in the experimental group) were tested. The pre-test results allowed me to determine if the target structure was suitable for the study (i.e., not well-mastered) and if the two groups were equivalent in its mastery. The results were subjected to the following quantitative analysis: They were first assessed for normal distribution using the indicators described by Holmes, Moody, Dine and Trueman (2016); that is, by examining skewness (between -2 and 2), kurtosis (between -2 and 2) and near-equivalence between mean and median. As shown in Table 2, requirements were not met to apply a t-test, and it was judged that the Mann-Whitney u-test would be preferable for determining equivalence of the groups.

The post-test, identical to the pre-test, was administered in the middle of June. Using the same assessments as for the pre-test, it was determined that the Mann-Whitney u-test would be preferable for comparing the two groups with each other, as well as to determine if any change had occurred in either group between the pre- and post-tests.

Table 2 Statistical results pre and post test

	PRE-TEST Control group	**PRE-TEST Experimental group**	**POST-TEST control**	**POST-TEST - Experimental**
Kurtosis	1.38	3.03	2.16	0.91
Skewness	1.28	1.90	1.54	1.46
Mean	4.89	3.65	4.21	3.95
Median	4.00	1.50	3.00	2.00

3.3.4.2 Questionnaire (Initial vs Final). The questionnaire results allowed a comparison of attitudes between those who received instruction on peer OCF and those who did not. The Likert-type items on the questionnaire (see Appendix 2) were compared by mode and frequency distribution and compared within groups and between groups to establish whether or not OCF instruction had an impact on respondents' attitudes to this technique.

In addition, the potential link between the provision of feedback and attitudes towards feedback was explored. I compared the answers to questions 13, 14 and 15 of the participants who provided more explicit corrective feedback to see if they demonstrated a more positive attitude to receiving feedback following the intervention. The qualitative analysis focused on the questions about student attitudes towards peer feedback. The personal comments made by individuals in response to the invitation to elaborate on this question: "Comment tu te sens quand les amis de la classe te corrigent?" were regrouped and subjected to an initial overall analysis to determine if the comments revealed an overall positive, negative or neutral attitude, and to determine if the instruction in OCF appeared to have made a difference in their attitude towards error correction. In this process, some discrepancies were noted between selected (canned) comments and their elaboration in their own words. It was felt that the three original categories – positive, neutral and negative – did not capture the nuances of these discrepancies, and so a "neutral plus" category was added to reflect these discrepancies. In order to establish inter-rater reliability, a retired French language teaching professional was asked for her input. She was provided with the raw data (anonymized responses to the two questions being considered). She also saw the need for a neutral-plus category as well a neutral-minus category. I came up with the final assessments following discussion with her and comparison of our answers. The same qualitative analysis was done on the final questionnaire as had been done on the initial questionnaire in order to compare the two.

3.3.4.3 Analysis of participant production in interactive tasks . In order to answer the question about how the nature of the interactions between intermediate-level FI students provides possibilities for them to engage in peer oral corrective feedback, the recorded conversations were transcribed and analysed by myself as the researcher. The transcription process formed the first step of the data analysis. As previously discussed, this analysis was a qualitative approach informed by conversation analysis (CA), especially as described by Seedhouse (2004). Seedhouse (2004) describes how the qualitative practice of CA can be used to provide, among

other things, "methodology for analyzing and ensuring the construct validity (in a quantitative paradigm) of discoursal data prior to quantification" (p. 252). Additionally, as in this study, it can provide "a methodology for the analysis of L2 classroom discourse" (p. 252) and "an emic methodology to determine learners' focus, which is vital for the FFI project," (form focused instruction; p. 252) and "description of the interactional organization of L2 classroom discourse" (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 252). Therefore, these analytical tools contribute to the investigation of the research questions of this study. Examining the interactions amongst learners can help illustrate the factors at play within the learner (emic factors) as they use their L2. Seedhouse (2004) concludes that CA is of particular use in studying recasts and FFI. He cautions that the term conversation analysis itself has been used too broadly, and that the term "linguistic conversation analysis" (Seedhouse, 2005, p. 52) should be used by those who wish to use the coding parameters without necessarily engaging in its more nuanced analytical components (presumably referring to the use of the coding parameters for quantification only.) In the course of this study, CA was used in this way to explain the results of the pre and post-test, and to describe how the participants interacted in their L2, including shedding light on their focus, as well as to analyse the quality of their L2 production, while permitting the interpretations described in the results.

As mentioned above, Seedhouse (2004) cautions against the superficial adoption of the term conversation analysis as a means to simply quantify aspects of language use. While the primary and original purpose of analysing audio-recordings of participants in interaction was indeed more of a linguistic CA, my analysis evolved to resemble (but not replicate) certain aspects of ethnomethodological CA. In trying to understand when and why students did or did not engage in the correction techniques taught to them, it was important for me to consider aspects about, as Seedhouse words it, "task-in-process" (Seedhouse, 2004, p.93). Methods of coding were therefore inspired by CA practices, and evolved along with repeated exposure to the recordings to reflect what was being heard. Conclusions about the nature of relationships between interlocutors, as well as tentative explanations for language choices were made during this analysis.

The student responses (audio-recordings and the transcripts) were thus analysed qualitatively and quantitatively to assess the nature of the interactions, the nature of the language used and the frequency of peer OCF in both groups. All incidents of interactions that could be

considered corrective feedback were noted, as described below. Additionally, other features of interaction, as well as of speech patterns, as described below, were documented.

Fundamental to CA is a reliance on the recorded data, with the transcription being an "aide-mémoire and a guide to others" (Sidnell, 2010, p. 34). Keeping in mind that transcriptions of audio recordings are at best approximate representations of what was said, (Davidson, 2009; Green, Franquiz & Dixon, 1997; Mondada, 2000; Muëller & Damico, 2002) as they are informed by the theoretical orientation, experience, training, and competence of the transcriber, (Muëller & Damico, 2002) the audio recordings were transcribed by myself, using a considered approach "where standardization is valued but not mandatory" (Stelma & Cameron, 2007, p. 363). The fact that I transcribed the conversations myself gave me an additional familiarity with the audio material, making it truly an *aide-mémoire*, not an isolated document. Sidnell (2011) remarks that in "making or working closely with a transcript one comes to hear details of the talk that otherwise remain inaccessible" (p. 34). The steps described in this section are likewise based on this premise that the process of transcribing the data is part of the analysis, and not a prior or preparatory step.

Transcription was part of the first step the data analysis. Analysis began during the multi-step transcription process, and analysis and transcription occurred simultaneously. Transcription techniques were informed by the following factors. O'Connell and Kowal (2004) denounce the idea of one ideal transcription method and suggest, instead, that "the ideal transcription is the one that best serves the purposes—however modest—of the researcher" (p. 104). They propose a set of guiding principles of notation, which were adapted (but not wholly adopted) in this study. These principles are the unitary function of notation (i.e. one symbol is equivalent to one meaning); the integrity of word units (not adding symbols within a word); description of nonphonological phenomena (e.g. "(laughing)"); avoiding pseudo-exactitude in one's measurement; parsimony (including only what is necessary for one's research.) These may not be universal, (see O'Connell & Kowal, 2004, pp. 102-103 for an opposing viewpoint) and differ significantly from the fairly rigid coding conventions in CA, (Sidnell, 2010). However, these alternative principals provide a reasonable guide to the newcomer to this type of analysis.

With these considerations in mind, the following transcription practices were followed; they are described more fully in the next paragraphs.

- some traditional conversation analysis symbols were adapted;

- common spellings were employed;
- some phonological information was included;
- English or French pronunciation were indicated where ambiguous;
- word units were mostly left whole (with hesitations included);
- non-phonological phenomena were indicated in brackets;
- turn-taking was indicated by paragraphs.

Where symbols were needed to transcribe non-word phenomena such as pauses, pronunciation deviations or laughter, for example, some traditional conversation analysis symbols (Sidnell, 2010) were adapted. Conversations were transcribed using common spellings. The "trucage d'orthographe*"* described by Mondado (2000) were mostly avoided, as they can impart judgement by being too literal in an attempt to capture phonological nuance. However, as pronunciation was an interesting aspect of the transcripts, some phonological information was indicated (see list, below). The majority of the recordings were in French, so, where it might be ambiguous, (cognates, for example) words said in English were indicated with an abbreviation afterwards. Anglicisms pronounced in the participant's usual French pronunciation were indicated with an abbreviation in brackets following the word written in normal script. (For example, "Le gouvernement les rate(fr)" where the English word "rate" is transferred to sound French). Additionally some verb endings, as well as the feminine form, were altered because errors in conjugation made it difficult to be precise. (Consider *il peuve*, for example, an apparent cross between singular and plural which was used instead of *il peut*, or *le porte est fermé* where *fermé* should be feminine). Because prior research (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013) suggests that phonological errors might be particularly receptive to corrective feedback, selected phonological irregularities were transcribed due to frequency. Phonetic transcription was not used. Pronunciation was not a major focus of the study, and phonetic transcription would make the text cumbersome to read for the uninitiated. Using a modified system as I have done allows these irregularities to stand out without taking away from readability. Word units have normally been left in their integrity. However, mid-word hesitations and pauses were noted, since they were often signs of self-repair, modified-output, or some other feature of noticing. Sometimes words were split with an oblique symbol used within them to indicate a particular phonological aspect, such as segmentalisation. Other non-phonological phenomena were described in brackets. Pauses

which felt longer (judged by me) were indicated by the word "pause" in brackets, while shorter pauses were indicated by an ellipsis. For subsequent analysis, it was not the exact length of a pause that would be meaningful, but the fact that there was a pause. As for parsimony, a prior decision to transcribe only other-correction was overridden during the listening in favour of transcribing the entire recorded data as a rich source of evidence of the nature of interaction. Mondada (2000) indicates that structuring turn-taking as paragraphs in transcription can limit flexibility in terms of simultaneous utterances. However, in order to contribute to legibility, paragraphs were used to indicate turn taking; however, given their relevance, interruptions and simultaneous utterances were not omitted. They were dutifully described with square brackets. These decisions are all based on what was needed for this study.

I used oTranscribe to facilitate the transcription process. OTranscribe allows the user to operate the audio with keyboard controls on the same page where she is transcribing the information. It rewinds a few words when paused, and allows speed to be adjusted, as well as timestamps to be inserted. With respect to confidentiality, oTranscribe does not upload the material to the internet, but operates directly on the device being used and simply plays the audio in real-time from its location (USB stick in this case). As I listened to the recordings during the transcription process certain themes emerged, allowing me to develop certain codes as referred to above. In the first round I mainly transcribed who said what, following traditional spelling. As I transcribed and noticed themes I wanted to track I would note them, and in subsequent listenings be sure to incorporate them from the beginning. Through the various listenings further analysis, and more coding decisions were made.

Careful sentence analysis of the recordings and reading of the transcripts enabled a qualitative analysis of the nature of peer-interaction (question 1), including instances of OCF (question 2). This process allowed me to determine to what extent participants were speaking the target language, as time for talk (in the L2) had been identified in the literature as one possible factor in proficiency development. It also allowed me to identify certain aspects of the students' interlanguage which could be targets of peer-OCF. These included how they dealt with lack of vocabulary, and with communication breakdowns, as well as how students tend to mimic some of each other's language uses (incorporation). It also allowed for the inventorying of certain pronunciation patterns (as suggested by Trofimovich, Kennedy, & Blanchet, 2017 and Racine & Detey, 2017) which could have an impact on how well they make themselves understood in

situations outside of this particular speech community. This CA-type analysis, (as discussed more fully above) allowed for the identification of possible factors affecting language accuracy, language use in general and orientation to the target language (that is, aspects that might reflect the speech community rather than language ability) and the identification of potential targets of peer-OCF for the future.

The following tables list details of the interaction that were deemed relevant to code and collate due to their relevance to the research questions. As mentioned above, some are adapted from traditional conversation analysis (Sidnell, 2010). Table 3 lists details that were transcribed, and Table 4 lists the type of information that was colour-coded onto the paper transcripts.

Tally charts, organised by pair conversation, were composed from the coded transcripts. English or made-up words, missed *liaisons*, missed *élisions*, segmental errors, and ambiguous pronunciation were counted. Additionally the other items were listed verbatim. For example, when incorporation was noted, the word was listed. Each of these categories was totalled for each task, for each group and compared between groups. Because it was a targeted structure the data on the *expressions avec avoir* was described as totals, but also by distribution between pairs.

When it became apparent that the type of information was becoming cumbersome to work with, Sidnell's (2010) system for organizing material into themes was adopted. Electronic documents (rather than the index cards that Sidnell suggests) were created to sort and gather samples of the following features: Self-correction, Conversational recasts (covert), Overt OCF or other-assistance, Communication breakdown, Paraphrase and Interference.

Table 3: In-text transcription codes

code	**explanation**
(engl) or (angl)	after a word indicates pronunciation was English; only indicated where there might be ambiguity.
(fr) or (Franc) or (french)	after a word indicates the pronunciation was french, or francicised; indicated if there could be ambiguity; for example: an English word pronounced in 'french', a cognate,
(hyphen immediately after a word) (eg. cr-)	indicates the word was cut off

. (period)	falling intonation - traditional end of sentence sound. Usually followed by a clear beginning of sentence intonation.
? (question mark)	rising indication, as in question sound.
, (comma)	continuing intonation, a bit dragged out.
[words]	square brackets following square brackets indicate simultaneous utterances
(sic)	used to indicate that it was indeed written as pronounced and not a typing error
/un/ /le/	the pronunciation of this word was ambiguous, more like anglo an (eg an apple), or shwa sound
/../ eg. /s/ OR eg. /é/ instead of c'es/t/ avant	segmental error (pronounced when it should not have been, for ex. usually in les, ils, des, for ex. or tout, masculin). or pronounced as is typed, (without making the liaison)
(whispered)	refers to the next word or words
/en/ (etc)	(eg in citoy/en/ = pronounced the "n", almost as in féminin
nota:	did not indicate the pronunciation of the 'e' caduc (over-pronunciation of e)

The above codes were noted in the transcriptions themselves and are visible in the transcript excerpts found in the Results section. Further coding was done with highlighting on paper copies during two full read-throughs. The following items (Table 4) were colour-coded according to groupings that had become apparent in the first few listening rounds. The excerpts that contained them were then gathered into the electronic documents for each theme, or they were counted and recorded in spreadsheets.

Table 4: Description of information coded and included in tally-charts

Type of feature	**Description**	**Rationale**
Target expressions	*correct use of *expressions avec avoir* *incorrect use of *expressions avec avoir*	Relevance due to the fact that the intervention was built around these expressions.
Self-correction	*usually beginning syllable cut off, or full word said and then new word said	With self-correction students are demonstrating some awareness of their language use, 'noticing.' This was described earlier as being an important component of language development, and of being a component of successful peer-OCF.
Other correction	This was broadly defined to include both overt/deliberate correction such as providing a word during a hesitation or at a request, and incidental correction - conversational recasts, when a word was correctly used by the partner following an 'error'	This is the main purpose of the study.
Impact of partner on speaker	*"incorporation" (adapted from Mackey, Oliver & Leeman, 2003): repeating partner's error or English word;	This can highlight the co-construction of interlanguage, and general language skills by demonstrating reliance on each

	*"uptake" (defined as immediate repetition of a correction or subsequent use of a 'good' word by the second partner such words other groups had mostly misused)	other
Communication breakdown	*defined as deliberate asking for clarification, or other confusion	This is seen as a key impetus to corrective feedback and self or other correction.
Coping with lack of vocabulary/ uncertainty	*English words *made-up or obviously misused words or English words pronounced in 'French' *ambiguous pronunciation of indefinite article un/une (sounded like English "an") or definite article le/la (sounding like "luh")	These can be seen as areas of need and potentially ideal areas for peer-OCF; They can also be seen as creating or reflecting the speech community
Pronunciation issues	*missed obligatory liaisons (e.g. l/é/ enfants instead of le/s/ enfants) *segmental errors ('forbidden' vowels or consonants pronounced) (le/s/ parents instead of l/é/ parents) *missed obligatory elision (eg. "le enfant")	Pronunciation is one of the areas identified in the literature as responsive to OCF.
Languaging (Mediation sequences)	Any talk showing thinking about language (such as asking for a word)	This demonstrates orally some of the thinking processes and, like self-correction, is part of noticing.
Talk about the	(eg. "How does this work?")	Pair-culture; object of focus

task		
Talk not about the task	Interference and general silliness (funny noises; asking about non-related information)	class-culture; the type of interference can have an impact on the likelihood that they will pay attention to language

One aspect that was observed but not transcribed was a great deal of interpersonal talk in English in the background by other people, which was not deemed relevant to the study. It was not possible to include these partly because the speakers were not known to be consenting study participants. Additionally, I was interested in the assigned tasks, not necessarily in the class dynamics, which would make for an interesting, but different study.

The following system of coding is used for identifying conversations:

- the number after the T is the task number;
- the letter C or E following the task number indicates Control Group or Experimental group;
- the number after the decimal point is the pair number in the order it appears in the recordings and transcripts.

(For example, T2E.3 is Task 2, Experimental group, 3rd pair).

3.3.4.3.1 Explanation for the inclusion of certain themes. In this section I will explain the inclusion of pronunciation, incorporation, rate of English word use, as well as how the use of corrective feedback was analysed.

The decision to include the analysis of pronunciation issues is justified here. The ambiguous pronunciation of indefinite and definite articles can be described as an aspect of strategic competence: where students are unsure of the gender of the word, they ultimately refuse to declare themselves, and use a sound that is somewhere between *un* and *une*. The fact that they often otherwise randomly select articles when they pronounce them clearly, suggests that the ambiguous pronunciation mentioned is a grammatical form issue rather than a pronunciation or articulation issue.

Accurate *liaison* use may or may not be an important aspect of pronunciation in French L2 speakers. Although both Lappin-Fortin (2018), and Trofimovich, Kennedy, and Blanchet

(2017) conclude that inaccurate *liaison* use in itself was not an important factor in the rating of comprehensibility nor of fluency of L2 speakers by native speakers, Racine and Detey (2017) argue for their importance. The Lappin-Fortin (2018) study was based on the reading of a short excerpt from Camus, and read by intermediate and more advanced University students of L2 French. It therefore provides little insight into the impact of *liaison* misuse in a more common register by less advanced L2 speakers. The Trofimovich, Kennedy, and Blanchet (2017) study, for its part, also concluded that *liaison* use had little impact on comprehension by native speakers. It nevertheless concludes further that there is relevance in teaching various aspects of communication, including "connected speech processes, such as liaison and enchaînement" (p. 46) because such "focused phonetics instruction [seems to have] an impact beyond specific aspects of L2 speech, contributing to listeners' global judgments of L2 French speech" (Trofimovich, Kennedy & Blanchet, 2017, p. 43). Further, the *liaison* should be considered an important component of language learning in that it is one form of the *enchaînement* between words that distinguishes French intonation from English. Consequently, this contributes to comprehensibility: "...more fluent and comprehensible L2 output was related to intonation" (Trofimovich, Kennedy & Blanchet, 2017, p. 43). *Liaison* use can also be an important marker of grammatical and contextual information (plural vs. singular), and occurs frequently in oral French: between one in ten or one in sixteen words. It can thus be an important socio-linguistic indicator (Racine & Detey, 2017). It is likely that the type of *liaisons* that FI students are missing have a greater impact on their comprehensibility and their fluency than those targeted in higher register texts as in the Lappin-Fortin study, and provide opportunities for peer correction.

Regarding the decision to examine the incorporation of the words of others, Ohta (2001) notes that it is not possible to know with certainty if incorporation was initiated by the other speaker or if the speaker would have uttered that word in any case. Nevertheless, given the patterns of incorporation that began to emerge, lexical and phrasal incorporation is counted here, especially when a pattern has been noted in comparison with other dyads. Grammatical incorporation was not considered unless it was related to a lexical incorporation or unusual construct because "for indefinite article and plural use, in fact, in other studies it was actually more common for learners to make errors than to use either correctly" (Ohta, 2001, p. 114). In the current study, these types of errors were so frequent (random use of un/une, for example) that it would not have been possible to state the source of the error with any confidence.

Some of the coded information was further quantified where it would provide further insight and was meaningful: English words per minute helps to highlight frequency of this behaviour; use of ambiguous /*un*/ and /*le*/ pronunciation compared to total uses of *un, une* and *le, la* also shows the frequency relative to overall unambiguous pronunciation of these words. Counting non-segmentalized words or uttered liaisons would have proven to be very cumbersome without adding significant insight. For qualitative analysis, these were also described verbally in order to provide context and to demonstrate what was going on beyond the frequencies. This was particularly relevant with respect to communication breakdowns, talk about the task, and talk or behaviour not related to the task.

The transcripts, and the transcription process, also contributed to answering question two more specifically. The tallied data directly relating to instances of corrective feedback were examined, to see how the feedback is being accomplished, with particular attention paid to the targeted expressions. Descriptive statistical analysis was used to compare the two groups to see if the targeted instruction had an impact on their general use of corrective feedback. Finally, the transcription process allowed an analysis of the tone of corrective feedback. Explicit correction, that is correction that was not simply conversational recast and task continuation, were assessed for tone. In these cases where judgements about the tone of voice were made, a recent FI graduate was recruited for inter-rater reliability. As a young FI graduate, this listener would be attuned to the speaking patterns she was listening to. Both raters listened to the audio segment, and described the tone in general terms such as conversational, annoyed, helpful, neutral, coming to consensus about how to describe the segment.

Finally, the transcript data was used to identify uses and misuses of, and missed chances to use, the target structure in conversation, and to identify incidents of correction, in each group. These items were subsequently compared between groups.

3.3.4.4 Data integration. An explanatory model was used in the design of this mixed methods study. Both types of data are integrated in the following ways. As is typical in the convergent-explanatory model, all data were collected simultaneously and their analysis has no bearing on further action within the study. All analysis took place after the study. The pre- and post-test results provided a quantitative measure of improvement (or lack of improvement) in noticing of the target structure. The analysis of the participant interaction provided insight about why there was or was not any change in noticing by demonstrating how the target structures are

used in conversation, and how the listener reacts when these structures are misused. Additionally, the student conversations allowed me to quantify occurrences of peer corrective feedback and to refer back to those moments to understand why they were occurring, as well as to understand why they might not be occurring when it would be suitable. A narrative structure is used in the description of the results, supported with conversation extracts and charts.

3.3.5 Summary of Procedures.

Figure 4, below, provides an overview of the study procedure. The study lasted approximately four months (from receipt of consent forms), somewhat less than the original plan. All participants first completed a questionnaire about their attitude, as well as a pre-test assessing proficiency in the target structure. They were all then instructed in the target structure (*expressions idiomatiques avec avoir)* as well as provided with some practice of L2 interaction. The experimental group was further provided with instruction in oral corrective feedback, and encouraged to use OCF with each other during interaction. A series of audio-recordings were made of pair-interaction in both the control group and the experimental group. All participants then repeated the attitude questionnaire and a post-test (these were both identical to the initial instruments used). Once all data collection was complete, data analysis took place.

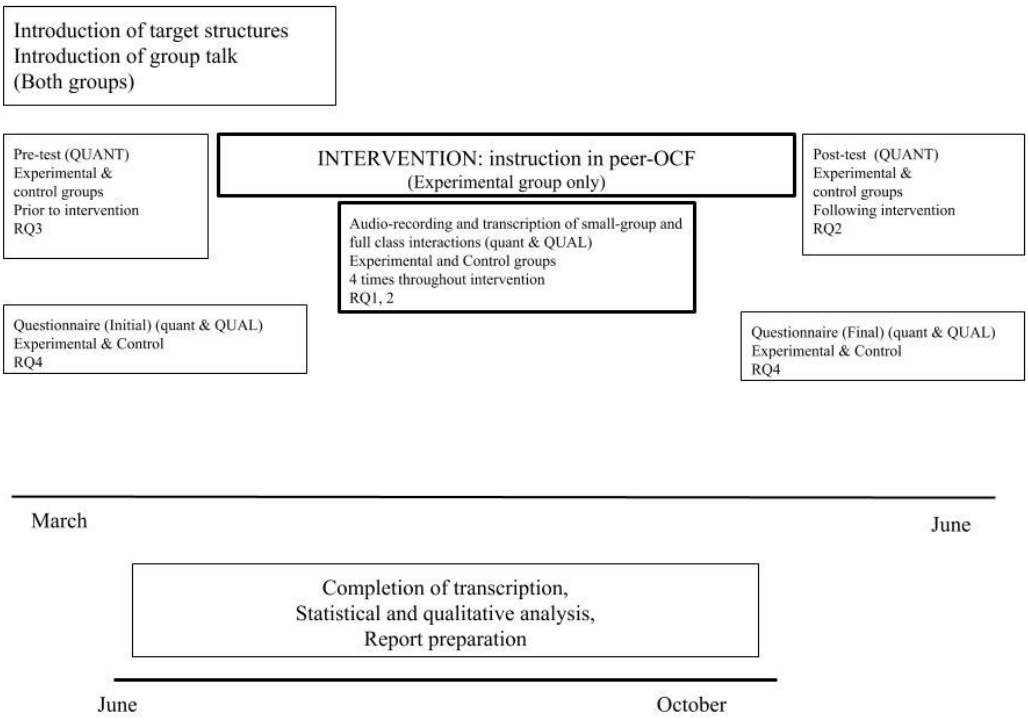

Figure 4: Summary of Procedures

3.4 Summary: how the method feeds the questions

This chapter justified the selection of a mixed-methods research design and described how a quasi-experimental study was used to collect data in a control and experimental group. The data collection tools consisted of pre- and post-tests, and initial and final questionnaires used to compare the quantitative results of the two groups, as well as to measure the effect of the intervention. Participant oral-production data was collected to permit a more nuanced, qualitative analysis of participants in institutionally authentic L2 oral interaction. All ethical guidelines were adhered to, and robust care was used in the creation of the tools and in their analysis. These all contribute to explaining how peer interactions taking place in intermediate FI situations could speak to the potential for the implementation of peer OCF strategies. These data also will contribute to the effectiveness of peer interaction in general and the peer-OCF strategy in particular in improving noticing and production of a selected target structure. Finally these data will be used to help understand the comfort level and willingness of this age group vis-à-vis peer correction. Chapter four will present the results of this analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Chapter overview

In this chapter the results will be presented in three broad sections. First the pre-test results will be presented, comparing the "mastery" of the target expressions between the two groups, and the pre-test and post-test results will be compared. Secondly, the audio-recordings (and transcripts) are discussed, always using pseudonyms, in sections addressing themes that emerged during the qualitative analysis of the interactive tasks. These themes are the following: sustained conversation, lack of vocabulary, self-correction, communication breakdown, incorporation, pronunciation, oral corrective feedback and the use of targeted expressions. Thirdly the questionnaire results relating to attitude are presented, first between groups for the initial responses, and then between initial and final questionnaire responses.

4.2 Pre-test and Post-test

As previously discussed, although the pre-test results for the control group appeared to meet criteria for normal distribution, the experimental group's results did not. The experimental group was outside the commonly accepted parameters for kurtosis (greater than 2) and also the mean and median were quite different. Therefore a Mann-Whitney U test was used to assess equivalence between both groups at the outset of the study. Criteria were met to perform this test: the data (test scores) can be ranked, the data are independent of each other, the sample size for both groups together is greater than twenty (n1 + n2 = 39), and histograms show a similar distribution. As outlined in Table 5, the Mann-Whitney test indicated that at the outset of the intervention there was no significant difference between the control group (Mdn = 4.00) and the experimental group *(*Mdn = 1.50), U = 144, p = 119, r = -0.193.

Given that the control group and experimental group showed no significant difference in the pre-test scores, I determined that these two groups could be safely considered equivalent with respect to mastery of the targeted expressions identified for particular study. Additionally, because the mean scores in both groups were low, I confirmed that the targeted expressions were an area of linguistic developmental need in both groups.

The post-test results for both groups, like the pre-tests, were also not normally distributed. Table 5 shows that the control group's mean and median scores were dissimilar, and kurtosis for the control group was greater than 2. The experimental group was within the parameters for both kurtosis and skewness (between -2 and 2 in both cases) but the mean and median were dissimilar. Therefore, Mann-Whitney U tests were used to assess significant difference between groups at the end of the experiment, as well as any change between the beginning and end of the intervention within each group. Criteria, as described above, were met to perform this test.

The Mann-Whitney test indicated that after the intervention there was no significant difference between the control group (*Mdn* = 3.00) and the experimental group *(Mdn* = 2.00), *U* = 161, *p* = .42372, *r* = -0.128. Additional analysis also showed that neither group showed any significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test. These results are presented below in Table 5.

Table 5: Pre- and post-test Mann-Whitney results

	Control Group (pre-post)	**Experimental Group (pre-post)**	**Control vs Experimental (post-test)**
Number	38	40	39
Median	3	2	2
U	157.5	190.5	161
p value	0.50926	0.81034	0.12372
r	0.107	0.039	-0.128

These results indicate that although the target structure was equally poorly mastered in both groups at the beginning of the intervention, it remained so at the end, suggesting that the intervention had no discernable impact on students' mastery of the target structures or that the test was not able to capture any improvement that might have been made.

4.3 Participant production in interactive tasks.

The analysis of the participants' oral production during the interactive task provided data relating to the first two research questions; namely, understanding how the nature of the interactions between intermediate-level FI students might provide possibilities for them to

engage in peer oral corrective feedback, and the extent to which they engage in peer OCF following targeted instruction in the technique.

4.3.1 Characteristics of Participant Interaction

The themes that emerged during the transcription and analysis process will be summarized here and below. Firstly, analysis revealed that under the circumstances created, participants could indeed carry on the **sustained conversations** in L2 needed to provide the foundation for peer corrective feedback. Secondly, analysis of the student interactive tasks also demonstrated that, within this French (L2) framework, participants had a variety of coping strategies to deal with **lack of vocabulary**, from the arbitrary use of English vocabulary to active searching for translations of unknown words. These strategies sometimes included accepting peer corrective feedback. **Thirdly, communication breakdowns**, often considered as an important event leading to negotiation of meaning or form, and thus the genesis of L2 learning, were fairly rare and never a barrier to interaction or communication, and thus provided few opportunities for peer OCF. Fourthly, a tendency to incorporate their **partner's words** verbatim was noted, even when there were errors, and thus presented missed opportunities for corrective feedback. Finally, certain **pronunciation** issues, an ideal target for OCF, were identified as being frequent. These are outlined in tables and described in greater detail below. Specific incidents of oral corrective feedback, and use of the targeted expressions in interaction, will also be provided in separate sections. In the excerpts bold type is used to visually emphasize topics under discussion.

4.3.1.1 Sustained conversation. The first observation is that with few exceptions students conversed in a sustained manner in the target language and remained on task. Table 6 shows the incidence of talk **about** the task (in English and French). The actual talk **on task** was occasionally interrupted for talk about the task, such as checking if the recorder was working, or checking the elapsed time. These were generally very brief. Some of these utterances were not transcribed because students appeared to turn away from the mike, thus obscuring not only what was said, but the language in which it was said. It is presumed that these were English, which is the reason for speaking away from the mike. There were nearly twice as many such incidents in the Experimental group (46 vs. 25). In both cases a significant majority of the occasions occurred in English (Control, 76%, Experimental, 83%). Some of these interactions were a mix of English

and French. Given 86 total conversations and a total of 71 such incidents, this means that on average, pairs were confused about the task or a task-related issue less than once per pair, again confirming that the time-on-task in French was maximal.

These interactions included comments such as:

T3E.10 (conversation number)

TAMMY: (softly) yeah, me too.

JENNY: We have two minutes of nothing.

TAMMY: Jus just go

Table 6: Talk about the task

Talk ABOUT the task	Talk about task, engl	Talk about task, fr (incidents)	Talk about task, mixed (incidents)	totals interactions about the task (incidents)
TOTAL CONTROL	19	3	3	25
TOTAL EXPERIMENTAL	39	5	3	47

Conversely, interference or other examples of non-sustained talk were fairly infrequent. Interference was broadly defined, and consisted, for example, of moments where a student blew loudly into the microphone, where a student from another group asked an unrelated question, a student snorted, or spoke in an artificially stilted, or robotic, accent, for comic effect. The latter was considered interference because of its potential impact on the concentration of the partner. There were fewer incidents of this type of talk that was *neither* on task nor about the task than of talk about the task. Some of these cases were actually interruptions from another group. The incidence of interference, or talk off task, is fairly infrequent, with occurrences in 36 out of 87 groupings. Given the social nature of students this age, this can be considered infrequent. Although a great deal of English could be heard in the background, as could the French being spoken by other students in the process of recording their conversations, there was fairly little use of English for more than lexical items, by participants during their own recordings. This suggests that when not held accountable by the fact of recording, and absent a structured conversation, students were not motivated to speak in the target language. Pausing did not have a great impact on sustained conversation; there were some pauses, usually indicating thinking and

preparing to talk. Generally participants filled pauses audibly, with variations on ‘uh’ and ‘umm’ or by extending a syllable. These observations indicate that a vast majority of the conversations were on task and in the target language, in spite of English insertions.

4.3.1.2 Strategies for coping with a lack of vocabulary. Table 7 shows the frequency with which participants coped with lack of vocabulary by inserting an English word, or by making up a French word - either by francizing the sound of an English word, by altering a French word (referred to in the table as “made-up word”), or by somehow describing the word (paraphrase).

Table 7: Strategies for coping with lack of vocabulary

	use of English words: instances	use of 'made-up words' Engl with French pronunciation, or very mispronounced French: instances	Paraphrases
Control	305	105	49
Experimental	414	105	29

The use of English vocabulary is fairly prevalent. An examination of how English vocabulary is used is instructive. As outlined in Table 7, on average the control class used an English word more than once every minute, (1.39 English words per minute) and the experimental class used an English word every half-minute (1.94 English words per minute). These words were generally inserted into sentences within the student’s usual French grammar (in other words they were not speaking English), and often they were words that students could be expected to know in French due to their simplicity and likely frequent contact (e.g., desk or cup). These words were often introduced with a paralinguistic cue the first time (a rising pitch, for example), and then re-used, either by the same speaker or the partner, as if the word had now been accepted into the lexicon (of this pair for this conversation); another way that English words might be introduced was with a variation of “comment dit-on.” The following example illustrates the incorporation of English vocabulary into the student’s usual French syntax:

T2C.6 (Task 2, Control group 6th pair)

(As stated in Chapter 3, all names have been changed)

HELPING EACH OTHER ALONG

Clark: Je/s/ pense que c'est peut être bon et aussi pas bonne parce que pour le parce que si c'/é/ évalué par le gouvernement, ça peut été plus **fair** (angl) parce que si c'était par le /h/omme, les, les personnes autour de tu, tout le monde peut été le plus bonne et il va juste donner toi /un/ mauvais **rating** (angl). Mais ça peut être pas bonne aussi parce que si tu es vraiment **smart** mais tu as pas /un/ bon **rating** (angl) tu peux pas entre dans le **job** (fr), mais tu es très **smart** alors ton **studying** va être **wasted** et ça va pas être bien. Aussi ça peut être pas, ça peut être bonne tuu, **too**, et je pense que ça peut être bonne parce que si les bonnes personnes a, doit été **rewarded** parce que les mauvais personnes je vois qu'il a beaucoup mais il des mauvais personnes avoir (unclear) de choses.

In this next example, Oliver introduces his English word with repeated "le", while Ian incorporates it as is.

T3E.3

Oliver: oui, oui, il y a le le le outlet aussi; et aah, sur il y /un/ fenêtre, et le um window, le fenêtre la glace sont brisé, et il y a /un/ plante à côté de la fenêtre qui est uuh, le pot (angl) est craqué? brisé? um il y a /un/ half-eaten sandwich sur le, à côté de **le le le le le typewriter.**

Ian: oh. Um est-ce que tu as du ah, comme du texte sur ton **typewriter,** sur le sur le feuille?

There were also several other strategies students used when they were looking for words they were not familiar with. As an example, one strategy observed was looking up words while the task was being carried out. T3C.1 and T3C.8 both exhibited this behaviour. (There were hints, such as certain pauses, that other pairs may have also been discreetly searching for words). These two pairs were particularly engaged in their task, discussing the words as they found them, and using them later in the conversation. In one case Jennifer says (obviously playfully) that it is her favourite word.

T3C.8

Jennifer: plein de papiers

Lori: yeah, qui, oui, mais c'est pas le mot que je voulais (***typing sound)*** um, oui,

Jennifer: il y a beaucoup de papiers qui

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Lori: qui ah qui débordent

Jennifer: ah oui débordent

Lori: débordent, débordent avec des papiers

Jennifer: mon préféré mot

T3C.1

Janet: Oui, mais nonon, il y a aussi un un **um leash**

Anna: oh! oh! um un comme ssss wuh comme un um (***typing sound***)

Janet: **laisse un laisse**

Anna: **un laisse** pour le chien. Est-ce que tu as comme beaucoup de comme cabinets?

In this case, the cooperation between the two participants is evident. Janet requires the word for leash, introduced by "um", Anna enthusiastically searches for it, Janet reads and repeats it, and then Anna incorporates it.

Another strategy for coping with lack of vocabulary which was occasionally used was paraphrasing. These paraphrases were not as effective as one might expect. While many groups used the English word "hoola hoop" liberally, two participants (T1C.8 and T1E.5) paraphrased, and said *cercle chose.* Four pairs used the word *cerceau*, and in T1C.3 the partner picked up and used the word *cerceau* as well.

T1C.3

Zoe: um il y a /un/ peti/t/ garçon qui joue avec une ballon et une **cercle chose**.

In fact the word *chose* was used fairly often as filler or as a fall-back. Without counting the use of *quelque chose,* the word *chose* was used 235 times (see Table 8). Often this use might be legitimate (*une autre chose)*, but often it was done when the speaker did not seem certain of the word they were using. Zoe in TE3.5 uses *chose* frequently in situations such as *typewriter chose* or *yarn chose.* Its use, even where "legitimate," demonstrates a lack of lexical richness, both in the vocabulary needed to be specific and in vocabulary used to paraphrase. For example, in the following example Sylvie can't find the word for flower pot *(pot de fleurs)* and uses the word *chose.* This is acceptable and understandable. She could, however, have used the word *contenant* or *récipient* or even *pot* on its own to insert more lexical variety into the conversation.

Lizzy does not provide any of these alternatives, but carries on the conversation, a type of action that is further discussed elsewhere.

T3C.12

Sylvie: d'accord, deux différences. um Est-ce que um, le um **chose** que la pl plante est dans est brisé?

Lizzy: oui, c'est brisé.

Some paraphrasing was more sophisticated than other attempts. Sometimes the paraphrase successfully consisted of combining other well-chosen words to explain the intended meaning. The verb *nourrir* was familiar to some participants, but not to others, and the paraphrase *donner de la nourriture* was substituted on several occasions, like Anna, T1C.1 below:

T1C.1

Anna: Est-ce que /le/ fille **donne de la nourriture** à l'oiseau?

Another "filler word" was the expression *comment dit-on* (and variations), often without waiting for an answer. This appeared to be an indication to the partner that they knew they did not have the correct word. In the example below, Lizzy says *comment dit on kettle* at the end of her turn. Sylvie answers the main question without demonstrating that she recognized the *comment dit on* AS a question, and Lizzy carries on with the conversation, without insisting on an answer.

T3C.12

Lizzy: uh, oui, il y a . Est-ce que, près de cette cloche, est-ce que il y a un um, **comment dit-on** kettle?

Sylvie: oui, oui.

Lizzy: avec /le/ corde qui /é/ attachée au outlet?

In the next example, Zoe inserts "*comment dit on* stripe." John does not address the question but accepts the use of stripe as is, and simply incorporates it in his turn. It is as though there is some agreement reached with the introduction of the unknown word by *comment dit on*.

T1E.5

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Zoe: il a un chapeau avec une um, -comment dit on stripe - est-ce que tu as ça?

John: uh, j'ai umm, mon homme, non, n'a pas /un/ stripe.

In the following example Karla demonstrates how in some cases the words become almost unintelligible, in a way that goes beyond the *enchaînement* that is typical of French intonation (this term is discussed further in the section on pronunciation).

T1E.4

Karla: Uh. il y a aussi derrière cet homme. il y a un arbre avec les, um, les fleurs, au dess-en dessous et puis c'est **commentditon** 'groomed'?

Ernie: Dans le centre de le page il y a d/é/ oiseaux qui mangent les choses. Est ce qu'il y, tu as ça?

Karla and Ernie use the term fairly frequently (seven times), and Ernie is actually rewarded with an acknowledgement (if not the needed vocabulary) on one occasion:

T1E.4

Ernie: Je a ça aussi. Je aussi a /un/ garçon um, juste derrière de les femmes qui chercher /un/ **comment dit-on** "hoop"? en français?

Kim: je ne sais pas

Table 8: Use of the word chose by group

	use of word *chose* not counting *quelque chose*
Total Control	93
Total Experimental	142
Total	235

Another strategy for coping with the lack of vocabulary was to pronounce an English word in French, apparently hoping it might be a cognate. Including the fewer instances of words apparently made up or significantly mispronounced, there were 210 instances of this. The English word “rate” for example, was relevant to Task 4. Some students were able to find the word *évalué* or *noté* (they were used 74 times) whereas others either said “rate” in English, or

pronounced it in French (used 24 times). A partner's inability to find a word, or misuse of a word provides missed opportunities for peer feedback. Unlike a grammatical error, providing a word to a partner in need may involve less loss of face than the correction of a grammatical error which did not lead to any communication breakdown.

In this example, Bart, like Lizzy, also demonstrates various techniques: use of English vocabulary inserted as is into his talk, (rate), *chose* used to cover lack of vocabulary, and the invention of a word, based on an English word (*compète*). The *mini-discours* design of tasks 2 and 4 did not set students up very well to provide feedback, due to its more oratory nature. Indeed, Igor provided no feedback to Bart in the following excerpt where several opportunities existed:

T2C.5

Bart: … Um, et c'est le même car, c'est comme le, tou/t/ le monde **compète** pour une bonne **rate** (angl) parce que si tu as une mauvaise uh, comme, une mauvaise **chose**

The next example features Oliver in two non-sequential turns; he struggles with the word for tape in French. In the first instance he simply says it as if it were a French word, but immediately repeats it in English; in the second instance he says it first in English and then tries the francized version. He has also francized the word "roll" (as in a roll of tape), to *roule* - a word that exists in French, in a different context, and is close to the correct word *rouleau*.

T3E.4

Oliver: okay il y a um de de deux livres uh blancs, deux livres noirs, um sur le livre blanc à côté de le le le cup, um il y a comme de de de de le **ta/p/**(fr) le tape (angl) sur et /un/ noir bouton, à côté?

Oliver: aaaaah, oui. Est-ce que /le/ tasse. /Le/ tasse est juste blanc, et, et il a /un/ **roule** de tape, (angl) **ta/p/** (fr)?

Surprisingly, a number of the English words used were simple words, such as desk, or cup. Even more striking was the rate at which these were picked up by their partners, a fact which is discussed below.

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4.3.1.3 Self-correction. Also demonstrating reflection about language, and possible opportunities for other correction, were different types of self-correction. Hesitation and repetition were frequent. Hesitation often indicated thinking, and was heard through sounds like "uh" which could indicate thinking about what to say next (content) or how to say it (vocabulary or form). Thinking sounds were not counted as self-correction, but examples where a word was uttered, or partly uttered, and then changed, were counted. Sometimes the student uttered a word in French, and re-uttered in English, as if to make sure their partner understood, or perhaps because they were unsure if they were using the correct word such as when Lizzy (T1C.10) says: "c'est oui, umm. Est-ce que dans ton photo, est-ce qu'il y a un umm, **clôture, comme un fence**"? These were counted because they indicate thinking about the language. In this next sample, Zoe (T1E.5) audibly demonstrates that she is searching for the word ***robe "*** est-ce que le stripe sur **le uh robe** a comme est comme colorié." There were 129 instances of various types of self-corrections.

Lizzy and Adam demonstrate self-correction in the following excerpts. In the first excerpt Lizzy corrects her choice of gender for the possessive adjective she uses (creating, as it turns out, an error). She begins to say *ta photo*, stops and repeats with a change to *ton*

T1C.10

Lizzy: uh oui. même pour moi. Umm oui, umm est-ce que dans **ta ph- ton** photo, est-ce qu'il y a umm /un/ statue d'un personne sur un umm cheval?

Adam: uh, oui, et /le/ personne a /un/ chapeau?

In this next example of self-correction, Lizzy uses a combination of techniques to cope with lack of vocabulary: English plus *chose*, making a type of paraphrase (*wand stick chose*). Her partner begins to answer, and Lizzy self-corrects, comes up with a good word (*bâton*). Not the exact word for wand, but the correct translation for stick and a suitable paraphrase, which her partner accepts by repetition (without actually responding to the question about it).

T1C.10

Lizzy: ah oui le même path que le um, le personne qui chasse les hoola hoop a. est-ce que la personne dans ta photo? la personne qui chasse le hoola hoop, est-ce qu'il a un, comme, **wand-stick chose**?

Adam: oui il y a le

Lizzy: **bâton**.

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Adam: **bâton**. ummm Quelque oiseau es tu en total dans /le/ photo

As can be seen, participants, during sustained French talk, used their strategic competence to deal in various ways with lack of vocabulary. While some of these techniques would not work in other contexts, leading to communication breakdown, there were few instances of communication breakdown in the conversations taped for this study, as will be discussed next.

4.3.1.4 Communication breakdown. Communication breakdown is considered in the literature (Long & Robinson, 1998; Storch, 2002; Mackey, 2007, Sato & Lyster, 2012; Pica, 2013) to be the source of negotiation for meaning and negotiation for form, and thus a building block for language development. Table 9 breaks down the incidents of communication breakdown in these data. It also shows that breakdowns were more frequent in some groups.

Table 9: Communication breakdown by group and task

	Control group	**Experimental group**
Task 1	6 breakdowns in 5 groups	3 breakdowns total
Task 2	1 breakdown total	0 breakdowns total
Task 3	12 breakdowns in 4 groups	2 breakdowns total
Task 4	0	1 breakdowns total
TOTALS	19 breakdowns in 10 groups	6 breakdowns in 6 groups

Given the fact that FI students share a dominant language, and, presumably, a common interlanguage, there are few instances of true communication breakdown where interlocutors must find solutions in the L2. In fact communication breakdowns, identified in this study as moments where one partner asks for clarification (e.g., “quoi?”), were fairly rare (observed in 16 pairs). These were solved very quickly with a repetition in French, or else an explanation in English. For example, in the next excerpt Pete mistakes the word *image* for *nuage*. This is an interesting error, made presumably because they rhyme, but he is not able to find the word in French when asked for clarification. Sandra responds by providing the correct translation and moving on.

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T1C.9

Pete: Est-ce que dans ton image as tu des images?

Sandra: qu'est ce que tu veux dire ?

Pete: oh je veux dire les, les, les clouds?

Sandra: oh oui il y a des nuages um, il y a trois.

Pete: Moi aussi

In the next example, it seems as though Clark's question about *du bouton* is too vague for Bart who asks *le quoi?* Clark clarifies easily by adding more detail which allows Bart to locate the buttons. It is difficult to know if Bart has buttons or not (*n'a les*) and whether or not they have found a difference. If Bart is saying the girl with the Afro in his drawing has buttons and Clark that his does not, then they have indeed identified a difference. So while the two participants have clarified their communication breakdown I did not understand their conclusion, as an outsider listening in. There was no evidence of unresolved communication breakdown in any of the conversations where, for example, a topic was discontinued.

T1C.2

Clark: Est-ce que le uuh, les filles que tu vois a du bouton?

Bart: Le quoi?

Clark: sur ton, sur les filles qui est dans le gauche, est-ce qu'il a du bouton sur[...]

Bart: [oh oui]) les filles, ah, /le/ l'un avec le afro n'a a les boutons, mais je ne peux pas voir est- si l'un avec le afro blond a des.

Clark: oh, ça c'est.. mon a pas; ça c'est un (unclear - cool?)

4.3.1.5 Incorporation. In this study I am using the concept of incorporation to mean when one speaker uses a word that their partner had used, when they might have been expected to use a different word, ostensibly influenced by their partner's word choice. The term "incorporation" is adopted from Mackey, Oliver & Leeman (2003) in spite of Ohta's (2011) preference for what she sees as the more neutral "repetition." The idea of incorporation involves not only the use of a more appropriate language choice than they might have used themselves, but also the incorporation of a variety of less appropriate language choices. Sometimes, but not always, it follows active corrective feedback by a partner, which is often referred to as uptake in

the literature. Table 10 outlines the numbers of instances of incorporation in the recorded data. Incorporation can be seen in this example where neither partner uses the word *cravate*:

T1C.1

Anna: Est-ce que le homme qui comme donne nourriture aux oiseaux a, **un, tie**?

Avril: **/un/ tie**? oh; oui.

Through the analysis of the transcripts it became apparent that students were often using the same word as their partner had used. As can be seen in table 10, it occurred a total of 274 times that could be confidently identified as such. In the two groups together, it occurred evenly for appropriate and less appropriate words. In many cases it cannot be assumed that these were conscious. Ohta convincingly suggests that it is nearly impossible to determine if the errors would have been made anyway: "With developmental errors such as these, it is difficult to determine causality when one learner makes a similar mistake after another learner has made the same error" (p. 123). However, there is nevertheless reason to believe that there is reciprocity in these occurrences. While trying to determine if a speaker used the word because they just heard it or because they would have used it anyway, is subjective, my qualitative analysis led me to make these determinations based on factors such as the following: is it reasonable to assume that they would know the correct word? What word was used more consistently in other pairs? Had the speaker used a different word prior to this utterance (or later)?

Table 10: Instance of incorporation

	incorporation of more appropriate words	**incorporation** of less appropriate words	**totals**
Control group	**83**	**60**	**143**
Experimental group	**52**	**79**	**131**
Total two groups	**135**	**139**	**274**

The following example (pair T1E.2) is illustrative of this phenomenon. In this excerpt, Bernard says *cheveuil* instead of *cheval*, and his partner repeats this word, though he

demonstrates later in the text that he not only knows the correct word, he seems familiar with the less frequent word *chevreuil*.

T1E.2

Bernard: oui, dans le milieu il y /un/ grand **cheveuil** 01:09

Andrew: oui il y a un **cheveuil** avec un homme dessus ...

LATER:

Andrew: s- il y a /un/ autre maison apr.. uh, à le gauche.. à le droite de l'homme sur le **chevreuil - le cheval** 03:50 - et il y a 10 fenêtres et un porte.

Five turns later, Bernard himself appears to pick up on the correction. The long pause before he says *sur mon cheval* suggests some internal thought about choice of word has occurred:

Bernard: oui, moi aussi hmmmm (long pause) sur mon **cheval** oh ça regarde comme il a pas de/s/ yeux.

Some pairs had trouble with the translation of "feeding" (as in feeding the birds). They might adequately paraphrase the word *nourrir* with *donner la nourriture aux oiseaux*, for example. In the six pairs where one partner used the verb *nourrir*, the other partner incorporated it in four of the pairs, meaning that they likely said it because their partner said it. Below, in T1E.6, Graydon uses it exactly the way Bill had just before (incorrectly incorporating the grammar error).

T1E.6

Bill: est-ce que tu as um, un homme qui **nourrisse** d/eu/ oiseaux?

Graydon: oui j'ai un homme qui **nourrisse** d/eu/ oiseaux.

In the next example Sandra uses the infinitive, then self-corrects. Pete uses the verb, correctly conjugated, not in the immediate next turn, but appears to keep it in his memory after he and Sandra have both had a turn.

T1C.9

Sandra: Je vais commencer. En premi/er/ il y a 2 femmes qui s'assoient sur un banc. qui **nourrir, nourri**t, d/é/ oiseaux.

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Pete: Est-ce que il y a seulement une oiseau?

Sandra: oui il y a seulement un oiseau sur le bl- banc, mais il y a tr/oi/ oiseaux à côté des femmes.

Pete: Moi aussi. Est-ce que il y a un petit garçon au côté **qui nourrit** les oiseaux? nourrit deu/ oiseaux?

Another example of the way participants seemed to build on each other's vocabulary choices is to look at the word "hoola hoop." The French word for "hoola hoop," *cerceau,* is a word that participants may have been somewhat familiar with from their physical education classes. A hoola hoop appeared in the Task 1 picture and provides some thought-provoking observations. The English term "hoop" (or "hoola hoop") was used a total of 37 times (both groups together) and the French word *cerceau* was used six. The term "hoop" (or "hoola hoop") was repeated by a partner in 10 of the 18 pairs where it was used. In the cases where it was not repeated, there was no corrective recast where an alternate word was used or provided. In other words, when "hoola hoop" was used there was never any corrective feedback. In one case where the word *cerceau* was used, it was incorporated by a partner one time. There were no examples of a student saying "hoola hoop" after his or her partner had said *cerceau*. That is, in spite of the prevalence of the word "hoola hoop" elsewhere it was not used AFTER hearing a more accurate word.

This kind of incorporation occurred frequently, even for very common words that participants would be reasonably expected to know. Many students had trouble with cuckoo clock, as well. Although most should be familiar with the common word *horloge*, many translated cuckoo clock as *coucou cloche*. The word *cloche* was used in 14 different utterances instead of *horloge*. In some cases it was done with apparent awareness that the word did not sound quite right, such as in the following example where it is accompanied by laughter. Anna and Janet are one of the pairs identified earlier as using a computer to look up vocabulary. It is unclear why they did not look up cuckoo clock. It may be that speakers could not quite figure out why this word was wrong, given the similarity between clock and cloche, or that they enjoyed the sound of cuckoo cloche!

T3C.1

Anna: oui. um, est-ce que tu as comme un cloche - coucou cloche?

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Janet: oui il y a un coucou cloche et dans

Anna: laugh - coucou cloche

Janet: et dans le coin de cette coucou cloche est le (laugh) il y a un un nid de araignée

There are various other examples of unexpected incorporations. In T1E.6 Graydon can't seem to find the word for the verb to fly (*voler*), and so paraphrases by saying *en voyage*. His partner picks it up verbatim, even though it is doubtful that this is a term often (or ever) used in this way by his classmates.

Graydon: non je parle à propos l'un que le oiseau est **en voyage**.

Bill: j'ai pas de oiseau **en voyage**.

An example of where a participant incorporates a rather sophisticated word occurs with the use of *plutôt*, below:

T3E.2

Colin: Est-ce que c'est **plutôt** blanc ou plutôt noir?

Bill: C'est **plutôt** noir.

These observations of incorporation, both accurate and inaccurate, may challenge the classic "error-OCF-uptake" formula often discussed in SLA research. In fact, there may also be a feed-forward situation where the student hears and incorporates positive evidence, thereby avoiding an error they might have made. The fact that no students used the English "hoola-hoop" after their partner had said *cerceau* or *cloche* after *horloge* provides some evidence in that direction, as is the incorporation of (the nearly correct) *enversé* when so many had said "spilled" or *tombé*. The use of *plutôt* by Bill above also serves as an example.

4.3.1.6 Pronunciation. During the listening and transcription process, pronunciation emerged as an area of opportunity for peer correction and feedback. Lyster, Saito and Sato (2013) pointed out that, given its saliency, pronunciation is an ideal target of OCF, and thus analysis of pronunciation trends can be a relevant avenue of exploration. Additionally, based on Racine and Detey (2017), pronunciation is an important factor in efficient French communication. Unlike the Lappin-Fortin (2018) study, which determined that liaison use was

relatively unimportant based on the reading of a sophisticated text containing few common liaisons, the participants' lexical use, and the resulting errors or mistakes in *liaison* use, were basic and can be deemed significant aspects of communication. Whether these incorrect uses are errors (unlearned) or mistakes (performance phenomena), they provide opportunities for salient correction. (For simplicity, they will be uniformly referred to as errors). Consider TC2.10, for example, "c'/é/ un enfant" and "c'/é/ aussi" and TC2.9 "l/é/ enfants" and "l/é/ avions." Many instances of *l/é/ oiseaux* were heard in Task 1. A frequent segmental error was the pronunciation of /s/ at the end of plural articles and pronouns (*le/s/ professeurs*, for example in T4C.4). Other examples are given in more detail and context below.

The most frequent and basic of pronunciation errors were selected and documented. An occasional mis-pronunciation within a more sophisticated expression can easily be overlooked, but the frequent repetition of basic errors has an obvious effect on fluency and communication, as outlined in the method with reference to Trofimovich, Kennedy & Blanchet (2017). Thus, missed *liaisons*, missed *élisions*, ambiguous pronunciation of *un/une* and *le/la* and segmentalization were all counted. Additionally, frequency of ambiguous pronunciation of articles were compared to total use to document the extent of this phenomenon. The data summarized in Table 11 show that these types of phonological errors relating to *enchaînement* are fairly frequent, except for the missed élision (e.g., *le enfant*).

Table 11: Pronunciation irregularities

	ambiguous pronunciation of /*un*/	%where /*un*/ was used	ambiguous pronunciation of *le*	total use of *le* & *la* & /*le*/	where /*le*/ was used	missed obligatory *liaison*	segmentalization error	missed *élision*
Control	209	30%	63	818	7%	160	151	17
Experimental	244	42%	50	851	6%	144	122	6
Total both groups	453	35%	113	1669	7%	304	273	23

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In the analysis of pronunciation, no attempt was made to assess the accuracy of gender assignment to nouns, although during transcription a high error frequency was noticed, as was random gender assignment. By random gender assignment this means the switching from *un* to *une,* for example, in the same utterance for the same noun. It is beyond the scope of the study to examine gender assignment, as it calls into play a vast array of language production issues (article choice, adjective accord, consistency, etc.). Consider, though, as an example, Bernard (T1E.2). He says ***un*** *chapeau* and then later in the dialogue says ***une*** *chapeau*. He also says "**un** autre différence*"* and six turns later says "C'est **une** autre différence." Some other examples: T1C.9 ***une*** *oiseau*; T1E.2 ***une*** *garçon,* T1E.8 "sur **une cheval** et il y la écriture sur un plaque au deho - en dessous de **le cheval**." There is the possibility that for some students the use of */un/* is instead an actual mis-pronunciation of nasalized vowels, but this was not explored as it would require too systematic a look at individual pronunciations and a greater familiarity with the individuals and was beyond the scope of the study. These errors do, however, point to possibilities for OCF in instances where the interlocutor is confident enough of the noun's gender. Additionally, most instances of conversational recasts that might have occurred with respect to this error are too subtle to be counted as OCF, given their volatile nature. Consider this example by T3C.7 where the English word "mug" is assigned ambiguous gender by Jerome, and then feminine by Pete. It would be questionable to claim that Pete's use of *une* was corrective feedback rather than random selection. (NB: A reminder that in the text above and below the bold type is visual marker for emphasis.)

Jerome: uh, oui, j'ai ça aussi. Um Est-ce qu'il ya /**un**/ mug, um, sur ton? Sur ta, ta uh pupitre? en coin?

Pete: le avec le voiture dessus?

Jerome: ah oui,

Pete: ah il y a **une** mug qui est tombé.

There were very infrequent examples of gender being meaningfully corrected, such as this example by T3C.8:

Jennifer: et il y a des nombreuses uh papiers sur ce rebord de fenêtre. [avec un cou-]

Lori: [et il y a aussi **un** tasse]

Jennifer: **une** tasse

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Lori: **une** tasse de thé

However, Jennifer, who made the correction, uses *un* for tasse nine turns later:

Jennifer: Et au-dessus de ce casier il y a ... uh, il y a **un tasse** umm qui est aaa renversée

As shown in Table 11, the technique for avoiding absolute masculine or feminine seems to be used in approximately one third of cases for indefinite articles, and much less frequently for definite articles.

Missed obligatory *liaisons* and inappropriate *segmentalization* were observed frequently, as outlined in Table 11. One particularly frequent example was in Task one with the plural of *oiseaux:* as illustrated here. In T1C.1 Anna omits the *liaison* between *les* and *oiseaux*, although her partner Avril had in fact used it for *des oiseaux*.

T1C.1

Anna: le homme qui donne la nourriture à **l/é/** oiseaux a /un/ sac.

Her partner Avril, however, was not consistent, and also added extra segmental errors, as seen below: (recall that oblique symbols highlight a pronunciation; so /s/ means the s was pronounced, for example)

Avril: oui. Il y a aussi **tr/oi/** autre oiseaux à côté de une banc. où il y a deu/x/ filles je pense et /un/ oiseau sur son lap.

Later:

Avril: ya. Il y a aussi **des** oiseaux dans le (pause) bottom left coin de la image.

In T1E.1 both Andrew and Bernard omit the *liaison* with *oiseau:*

Andrew: oui il y a **l/é/ oiseaux** qui mangent la nourriture sur le plancher

Later:

Bernard: oh, dans le ciel il y a les clouds avec **l/é/ oiseaux** qui volent

An example of a typical segmental error can be seen in T2C.4:

Danielle: …. Dans Nosedive **il/s/** donnent les points aux personnes de comment **bon/s/** il est ah, tu peux avoir des bons points ….

The fact that these errors, while fairly frequent, are not made for every occurrence suggests that these forms are susceptible to influence. In the same turn she says bon/s/ and bons

(without the segmental error). Also, later in this conversation she says *les billets d'avion* and not *le/s/ billets*,

Another frequent pronunciation error is the missing *liaison* between *c'est* and a vowel, for example:

T3E.3

Mo: Okay, d'accord. um, Est-ce que ça **c'/é/ une** différence?

An interesting example of the interplay between the language use of two speakers can be seen here where Adam incorporates Clark's missing liaison between *deux* and *étoiles* in the following turn, but corrects it eight turns later. Like with gender assignment, these pronunciation issues can be fairly random, making them more suitable for a fine-tuned analysis in a smaller sample than in this study.

T3C.2

Clark: et **d/eu/** étoiles et une lune.

Adam: non. Il y a **d/eu/** étoiles une lune et une soleil.

Clark: Mon a pas.

Adam: oh. c'/é/ un.

Clark: oh, est-ce que tu dis ça?

Adam: non non quoi (unclear)

Clark: I don't think that can hear you

Adam: à côté de la miroir?

Clark: oui, oui.

Adam: il y un, un soleil, les **deu/x/** étoiles, et... une lune

This analysis of the characteristics of participant interaction and sustained talk has outlined many possible openings for peer oral corrective feedback. In the next section acts of OCF will be presented.

4.3.2 Oral Corrective Feedback

One of the primary questions of this study was to explore how intermediate students could engage in peer oral corrective feedback. In describing other areas of interaction in Section

4.3.1 there was some discussion of characteristics of the student interaction that could lend themselves to corrective feedback or of other assistance. OCF will be further described and analysed more fully in this section. Table 12 outlines raw instances of overt correction, covert, or conversational, recasts, and clarification requests.

Table 12: Instances of Oral corrective feedback

	Overt corrections & other assistance	Covert recasts (conversational)	Clarification requests via communication breakdown	totals
Control	40	13	19 times in 10 groups	72
Experimental	32	13	6	51
	72	26	25	123

In contrast to overt corrections, and in light of the observations made about frequent incorporation of errors, uses of a more appropriate word in a subsequent utterance without explicit acknowledgement that a correction is being made were counted as conversational recasts, even if they did not seem intentional. That is, when a participant did not incorporate an error, but made a subtle correction, it is considered a recast. In both groups together there were 123 observed instances of other correction, more in the control group (72) than in the experimental group (51). This includes conversational recasts, providing a word, or making other types of corrections such as an overt pronunciation correction.

Only one instance of explicit peer-OCF of the target features was identified, and this was in the control group (the interaction described below, T1C.3 starting with "*nous sommes fini*"). Different examples of feedback are described in the following paragraphs.

In the next example, Bernard uses what can only be called a wrong word; no other student made this error, although Bernard did it again (even after the recast). Andrew provides a conversational recast in his turn and there is no overt (or audible) acknowledgement that this is a correction. Bernard does not incorporate the correction when he repeats the error 24 turns later, suggesting a certain randomness or unconsciousness to these corrections.

T1E.2

Bernard: oui et aussi il y a une garçon qui **fait la nourriture à l/é/** oiseaux.

HELPING EACH OTHER ALONG

Andrew: Oui j'ai, je vois un homme qui **donne de la nourriture à** de oiseaux.

….(24 turns)

Bernard: Oui. ... Sur l'homme qui **fait l/é/ oiseaux nourriture**, il y a comme une chapeau avec une ligne.

In pair T3E.6, there appeared to be an expert-novice dynamic with Grace, appearing to be the stronger partner, by providing several conscious recasts to help her partner John express himself. The English influence is audibly more pronounced in John's speaking than in most other students.

T3E.6

John: um, oui, il a y de/s/ spider webs pour moi. Est-ce que tu as de/**S/** binder/**S/** à ton shelf au /**H**/aut

Grace: (softly:)en **haut**? oui. j'ai des binders dans mon shelf en **haut**

It appears that Grace is helping to correct the incorrect aspiration of the "H" which should be silent, and does so once deliberately, and then uses it in her sentence. John also had occasion to correct Grace, using an annoyed voice, when she could not find a very basic word in French. His use of an annoyed tone contrasts with the instruction that this group had received to correct kindly and respectfully, whereas Grace's corrections always seemed gentle.

T3E.6

Grace: um. Next to le comptoir, (laugh) il y a

John: à côté (with an annoyed tone)

Grace: à côté du comptoir il y a un poubelle.

Conversation T3E.4 between Ian and Oliver lasted longer than nearly all other conversations, at over twelve minutes. This conversation began with a pronunciation correction. This was done with a forceful recast, with uptake (two times) and topic continuation.

T3E.4

Oliver: Aujourd'hui c'est le ah, 14 ah c'est le 14 de jin (*sic*)

Ian: JUIN (corrected pronunciation)

Oliver: juin, juin am, je m'appelle Oliver

Ian: et je suis Ian.

HELPING EACH OTHER ALONG

The analysis of this conversation shows a great deal of apparently careless English (58 instances). The term careless is used because many of the words are simple, common words which should have been very familiar to these students. For example: (English in bold)

T3E.4

Oliver: Um sur la sur la um sur le le le le autre chose avec le **car**(angl) le camion um le **desk** avec le camion il y a uh, comme /un/ /un/ **coffee mug** qui est **spillé** et comme

In this instance Ian then proposes a good French word as a question ("renversé?"), Oliver answers *oui* and carries on, but uptake (incorporation) occurs 13 turns later when he uses an adaptation of *renversé (versé*).

Oliver: okay autre différence. um Okay. uummm il y a de/s/ livres sur mon um, sur le le le le, le shelf, et unh, um aussi il y aussi /un/ banane sur la la la tapis à côté de la tapis. Um sur la sur la um sur le le le le autre chose avec le car(angl) le camion? um le desk avec le camion, il y a uh, comme /un/ /un/ coffee mug qui est **spillé** et comme

Ian: **renversé?**

Oliver: oui, et ah un autre,

… **(11 turns)**

Ian: uh il y a um /un/, je pense que c'est un milk jug, une uh bouteille de m, lait qui s'est versé sur /le/ plancher.

Oliver: oh ou. il y a trois, oui. un qui est **versé** et deux qui est

While superficially Oliver's sentence above (with the numerous English words) appears unmotivated, or even lazy, there are other signs that some attention is being paid to language. These include instances of self correction (mouse hole became *trou de souris* in a further turn, for example), and there were hesitations while he searched for a word.

Overall 13 individuals in the control group and 11 in the experimental group engaged in either oral corrective feedback or in other-assistance. In the section where the questionnaire results are reported, the reported attitudes of those who provided feedback will be more closely examined.

4.3.2.1 Conversational recasts. Conversational recasts are a more subtle, and more usual, form of corrective feedback. Because it occurs naturally within the conversation itself, it is hard to assess if it is deliberate or coincidental (by the corrector), and its impact on the correctee is not guaranteed; the speaker who makes an error may not hear the difference in the recast (depending,

for example, on its salience), or may see it is an alternative utterance, rather than "negative evidence" (that is, an indication of what cannot be said in the L2). As noted in Table 12 above fewer instances of conversational recasts were recorded than overt correction or assistance. In some instances incorporation was recorded, and in those cases we can make assumptions about noticing. For example, in the next excerpt Jennifer correct *un tasse* and Lori incorporates it.

T3C.8
Lori: [et il y a aussi un tasse]
Jennifer: une tasse
Lori: une tasse de thé,

Other examples of conversational recasts include the following:
T3E.1
Bernard: oui. et. en over ça il y a **un calendar**. ... dans le mur. à côté d'une credit card je pense...
Andrew: Oui, il y a **un calendrier**. Sur /le/ /le/ OWW Sur le shelf uh au dessus du table il ya

T1E.3
Grace : oh. est-ce que c'/é/ **un cheminie** (mix engl fre pronunciation)?
Elinor: je pense,
Grace: je n'ai pas de **cheminée** sur mon maison.

Sometimes there is back and forth: a recast followed by incorporation of the original error as in this example with *pièce* and *morceau*:

T1C.7
Danielle: Combien de **pièces** est-ce que le garçon donne au oiseaux qui est encore sur dans l'air?
Sonia: neuf.
Danielle: (pause) Oh, je pense que j'ai juste 8. (pause)
Sonia: (whispers)

HELPING EACH OTHER ALONG

Danielle: nine oh j'ai neuf.

Sonia: um, combien de **morceaux** est sur le le le de plancher?

(but she goes back to saying pièces 10 turns later)

later...

Sonia: ça c'/é/ une autre différence. ..(unclear) les femmes est-ce qu'il y a (soft counting) 5 **pièces** de nourriture?

4.3.3 Use of targeted expressions

While a number of instances of peer oral corrective feedback were observed, only one instance of OCF was witnessed vis à vis the targeted expressions, and this in the control group. In the next section the participants' uses of the targeted expressions will be described.

4.3.3.1 Use of target expressions in the recordings. What is obvious from the overall test results is that, as expected from the literature review and the researcher's teaching experience, these expressions are not very well mastered. Very low scores for both groups in the pre-test did not improve for either group by the post-test. The following expressions were attempted or used, or were needed but not used, on at least one occasion: *il y a; avoir l'air; avoir besoin, avoir fini, avoir raison, avoir tort, avoir peur, avoir raison* and *n'avoir qu'à*.

In spite of between three and six years of prior FI instruction, some students are still in the process of committing the simple use and conjugation of *avoir* to their automatic processing. Overall, the verb was either incorrectly conjugated or omitted altogether at least once in five different pairs, for a total of 12 errors of this type. In one pair, the verb itself was omitted six times: *ne pas* instead of *n'a pas;* and there were two different instances of *je a* instead of *j'ai.* The verb ê*tre* and *avoir* were mixed up at least once in seven different pairs, for a total of 15 errors. For example T2C.11 *tu as mauvaise* instead of *tu es mauvaise.* It is not possible to assess in this example if this was overapplication of the *expressions avec avoir*, or lack of attention being paid to form.

Most students had mastered the use of *il y a*, although there were some situations where *il a* was used instead. This expression was very frequently used in tasks one and three (T1 and T3) where participants were describing what was in the picture. In task one, control group (T1C) there were seven uses of *il a* for *il y a*, and four of these by one person. In the other control group

recordings, *il est* was once used for *il y a*; in the experimental group there was only one instance of this expression being misused.

Another frequently needed expression was *avoir l'air/ avoir l'air de.* Many students in FI tend to literally translate "looks like" as *regarde comme* as part of their interlanguage. The correct expression *avoir l'air* was used once in the conversations recorded for this study (T4C.6). Students appeared sensitized to this error, with eight pairs avoiding the frequent *regarde comme* by using some version of *semble* or *ressemble*, rather than the targeted expression *avoir l'air/ avoir l'air de.* For example in discussion T1E.6 Graydon says: "oui ça **semble** comme, il y a." Pete, in T3E.7 says "Est-ce que tu as une plante, um, une plante qui **ressemble comme** il est noir um en avant du fenêtre?"

Two of those pairs repeated this alternate phrase within a conversation. The incorrect *regarde comme* was used by twelve pairs, a total of 21 times. In one instance (T1E.4) the second partner also used the expression, as if mentally primed to use it after hearing it.

T1E.4

Karla: okay. j'ai d/eu/ oiseaux là, alors ça c'est la deuxième différence. um, j'ai, il y a aussi la deuxième arbre sur l'autre côté de la page de l'autre arbre sur la droite? c'est, **ça regarde comme** le même. tu as ça?

Ernie: oui.

Karla: okay; et j'ai trois nuages.

Ernie: qu'est ce que c'est ça?

Karla: um, cloud.

Ernie: oui, moi aussi. ummm, en le derrière je a ... uh six maisons en le derrière de la page.

Karla: oui moi aussi il y a 6 maisons, et,

Ernie: le garçon qui uh chercher le hoop **a regardé comme** il ne pas le/s/ umm souliers.

In the following cases, where engagement in the language task had been observed, it did not transfer to gains in the target structure. Both pairs did have occasion to use one expression (*avoir l'air*) but said *regarde comme*. Anna appears focused on task achievement and continues her questioning rather than reacting to her partner's error. This highlights the complexity of combining meaning-making and form that is highlighted by Valeo (2013), for example, who

describes a "limited capacity model" in which "learners can pay attention to form when they are familiar with the content" (p.129).

T3C.1:

Anna: est-ce que il y a un tapis en dessous du chaise?

Jessica: uh, oui, mon tapis est blanc. Mais **ça ne regarde pas** vraiment bon. Comme cette maison ou cette

Anna: est-ce que tu il y a du laine sur le gauche en bas côté?

The same type of interchange occurs in T3C.8:

Jennifer: aussi il y a ce qui **regarde comme** unnnnn, laisse, pour unnnn chien

Lori: un animau?

Jennifer: ou un animau sur le côté du bureau.

Lori: oui, moi aussi j'ai ça. Et aussi à côté du laisse il y a uh, une boule de

The expression *avoir besoin* was used several times; four times incorrectly, as a verb, without the verb *avoir* (e.g., *les personnes besoin* T4E.5), and four times correctly. In fact, one of the correct uses was an unprompted self-correction *les enfants bes- a besoin* (T4E.4). This student added the verb, but did not conjugate it correctly, demonstrating that it might in fact be challenging to pay attention to more than one non-automatized feature at a time, in the same way that learners can only pay attention to form if the content is familiar, as discussed by Swain (1986).

One speaker, Ian, (in T3E.4) missed an opportunity to use *avoir raison,* saying the more awkward *c'est correct* instead: "oui Oliver, ça c'est correct." In the excerpt below, Zoe missed a chance to use the more complex *n'avoir qu'à* (T4E.9) to express the idea that you just need to not have kids.

T3E.4

Zoe: oui um aussi, si comme c'est comme ch-, c'est plus cher et si tu n'as p/a/ assez de temps et tu as un enfant ça va le dépriver de la contact humai/n/ si tu juste veux qu'il socialise avec /le/ robot et si tu n'as pas le temps comme Lexi a dit un fois how do you say **just don't get kids**?

Lexi: (not very audible,) je ne sais pas

Zoe: **juste ne pas avoir** l/é/ enfants.

One pair (T2C.7) showed more mastery of a variety of expressions. In this pair, the first partner awkwardly used the expression *a eu tort*. Jennifer says *"*Cet mouvement a eu tort*"*. During her turn over a minute later, Lori more correctly says *ils ont tort* talking about people who believe the world is not already like the Black Mirror episode they were discussing. Whether her use was primed by her partner or not is not verifiable, and actually appears to demonstrate her stronger grasp of the expressions, given that she also used *a pas envie*, *ont raison* and *avoir peur*. This student demonstrated a higher mastery of these expressions in her pre-test and post-test scores which, at 13 and 17 respectively, were well above the class average.

The only other expression to make an appearance is *avoir fini*, or its more frequent error *être fini*. The latter (with *je suis* or *nous sommes*) was used four times, but self-corrected very overtly in one case, possibly with Ella's help (her utterance is not audible):

T1C.3

Ella: okay - je pense que nous sommes finis

Denise: d'accord. Nous sommes finis

Ella: (mumble)

Denise: non nous ne sommes pas finis, nous AVONS fini (laughing)

In another case (T3C.7) the student missed the verb, and said simply "on fini."

It is unsurprising that these expressions were not well used in the participants' oral production, given that their "noticing' of errors in these expressions was generally low, as evidenced by the pre- and post-test results. In addition to a task-completion mentality, participants may not be aware of their own weaknesses in these, and other, factors of oral production. This question is addressed, along with attitudes towards peer correction, in the next section.

4.4 Questionnaire: initial and final

Table 13 shows a quantitative summary of a qualitative analysis of the comments regarding the two questions on the questionnaire related to the students' attitude to being corrected by peers. As described in the Method, a neutral-plus and a neutral-negative category were added to account for the fact that some participants indicated a neutral position in their selected response, but their personal comment leaned one way or another. For example, one

responder chose this neutral response: “Je n’ai aucune réaction.” However, this person added the following comment which is deemed to be somewhat positive: “Quand un élève me corrige je n'ais pas de réaction et corrige mon faute.”

In the initial questionnaire, there were more negative comments in the experimental group (6, or 30%) than in the control group (2, or 13%). By the final questionnaire, these numbers were more or less reversed, with the experimental group at 20% negative and the control group at 27% negative. In terms of positive responses the control group remained the same in absolute numbers (9) but more participants answered this question in the final, so there is a decline from 60% to 50% in relative positive attitude to being corrected by peers in this group.

In the experimental group there is a jump from 35% to 50% in absolute positive attitude. Statistical analysis of these results does not reveal any significant change, possibly due to the small sample size. However, there is an indication that following instruction in peer-corrective feedback there might be more positive attitude and this would need further investigation.

Analysis of student comments reveals that some of the attitudes in the control group were qualified by who made the correction, that is, the relationship with that person to the student (2), and there were also comments about the attitude of the person making the correction. For example one participant wrote: “Il y a des personnes qui juge à propos, qui question est correct ou pas c'est que je n'aime pas beaucoup.” Another response in the final survey (control group) wrote “J'aime pas trop parce que il peut aider ils va corriger faut” (meaning they will falsely corect), demonstrating a certain mistrust of their peers. From the experimental group come the following positive responses: “J'aime quand mes amis me corrigent car ça c'est comment je peux améliorer,” and “J'aime quand les personnes ont correcté ma fautes parce qu'il peut aide moi.” However, even at the end of the intervention some responders still felt there could be an element of disrespect or judgement in peer correction: “Quand les amis dans la classe me corrige la plupart du temps ils sont disrespectueux," and “Il y a des personnes qui juge à propos, qui question est correct ou pas c'est que je n'aime pas beaucoup.” Consider also Lexi, (in the experimental group) whose attitude remained unchanged: in her initial comment she said "Je n'aime pas être corrigé par mes amis dans un façon disrespectueuse (il arrive souvent); Je n'aime pas quand mes camarades sont méchants." She says much the same thing in her final statement:

"Quand les amis dans la classe me corrige la plupart du temps ils sont disrespectueux." Lexi did not provide any overt feedback nor any conversational recasts.

While the analysis of the comments regarding peer corrective feedback indicates a potential shift to a more positive attitude, analysis of the numerical responses to a question about attitude largely stayed the same in spite of the instruction. Overall in this experimental group, a comparison of the numerical assessments individuals made between the initial and final surveys indicate mostly no change in attitude. Four increased their assessment, ten remained the same and five reduced it. The instruction in peer OCF did not seem to have much of an impact on attitude when considering responses as provided on a scale.

Overall, though, given that more responses are on the positive side of the scale than the negative, these results demonstrate that peer oral corrective feedback has potential to be viable tool in the classroom. Less than one third are opposed, and more than half are in favour of receiving this kind of feedback.

Table 13: Raw Results of Initial and Final Questionnaires

	Comment tu te sens quand un ami te corrige?					
		Initial (*n= 15)*	Final (*n=18)*		Initial *(n=16)*	Final (*n=20)*
Control Group	Positive	9	9	Experimental Group	7	10
	Neutral plus		1		1	4
	Neutral	4	3		2	1
	Neutral Neg					1
	Negative	2	5		6	4

4.4.1 Who gave feedback?

There appears to be little relationship between attitude to peer corrective feedback and provision, even though, as in Lexi's case (described above), a student who more or less disliked correction by her peers provided none, (as could be expected). In the control group, all three

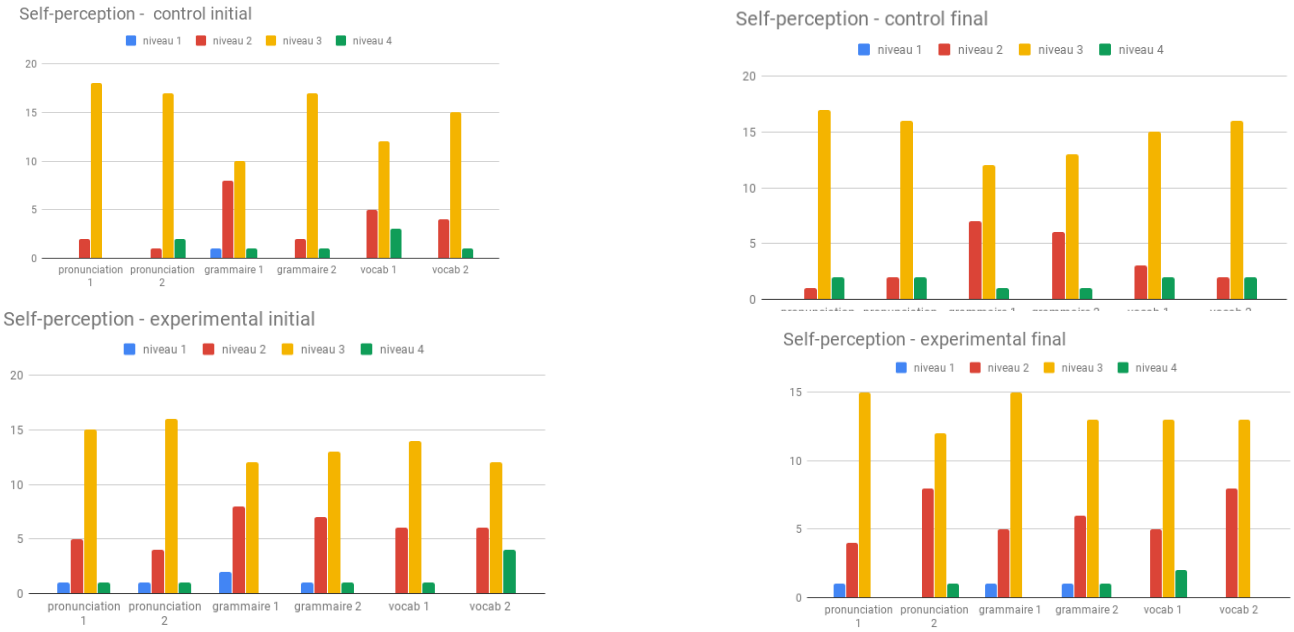
respondents who gave a level one (dislike of being corrected by peers) actually engaged in peer correction, two of them quite keenly (Lori and Janet). Lori's attitude improved slightly on the post-test (2) whereas Janet's and the other respondent who had given a level 1 both remained at one. Unsurprisingly, Janet had indicated that she was mostly against being corrected by someone she did not trust. In her recorded interactions she appeared to be in collaborative pairs, thus probably in a situation of trust. In the experimental group, the two respondents who had provided some overt corrective feedback, but who had given a level one for that question in the initial survey, also gave it a level one in the final survey, and one respondent who had provided feedback went from four to one.

It was not possible to determine if there was any relationship between self-perception and provision of feedback. For most categories a large majority chose the level or statement placing them at a "level 3" (somewhat better than average). It is possible that participants may have had a more nuanced self-perception if the terms (grammar, pronunciation, intonation and vocabulary) had been more explicitly defined prior to administering the questionnaire. There is insufficient distribution of self-perception to make a link with provision of feedback or assistance.

Overall, on the scale of 1 - 4, with 1 being "weakest," most participants gave themselves a level three, meaning that they thought their performance in these categories was a little bit strong. For all six questions pertaining to these three skills the level 3 was selected more than the combination of other selections (see Figure 5 below). There were very few level 4s (very strong) overall; and with two exceptions, never more than one level 4 for one question. The exceptions both related to vocabulary. In the experimental group four individuals selected the statement related to excellent for vocabulary, and in the control group three individuals assessed themselves as excellent according to the numerical scale. Otherwise the "other" choices were either level 2 or 1. It seems that in general, participants have a fairly high level of confidence in their level of French production, with some doubts appearing in their numerical scale assessment of grammatical production. This doubt is less evident when it comes to the statement "Ma grammaire ...est adéquate: je connais assez bien ma grammaire de base, mais je ne fais pas toujours attention (ex. j'oublie des fois de conjuguer mes verbes au pluriel, ou je fais des fautes de masculin et féminin, ou l'ordre des mots n'est pas toujours exact)."

Following this trend to assess themselves at level 3, those who provided feedback also assessed themselves as level 3, except for one occurrence of a level 4 by one provider of feedback in the experimental group.

Figure 5: Summary of self-assessment in production



4.5 Results Summary

In summary, the results revealed that the participants in both groups had equal proficiency of the target structure at both the beginning at the end of the study, indicating that no change with respect to this language skill had taken place in either group as a result of the intervention. The results also illustrated that sustained talk in L2 could occur between learners, which allowed for the observation and inventorying of a certain number of patterns and features in their interaction. These features include the use of strategies for coping with a lack of vocabulary, instances of self-correction and communication breakdown, incorporation of vocabulary from interlocutors, and pronunciation characteristics including errors in liaisons and ambiguous pronunciations. More specifically the results also demonstrated some ways in which oral corrective feedback was and was not taking place, with, and without explicit instruction. Finally, the questionnaire results allowed for student attitudes towards their perceived

competence as well as towards peer correction to be explored. These revealed a tendency towards a generous self-perception and a mainly positive attitude towards peer correction. The implications of these results will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 Exploring the research questions

This chapter will return to the research questions to explore the extent to which they were answered with this study. Each of the questions will be discussed in turn, starting with the nature of peer interaction, followed secondly by participant engagement in peer oral corrective feedback. Thirdly, the question about the impact of OCF on accuracy will be examined and fourthly, participants' comfort and willingness to engage in peer OCF will be considered. The chapter will conclude by looking beyond the research questions.

5.1.1 Question 1: Peer interaction.

The first question, an exploration of students in L2 interaction, was designed to discover if there were opportunities for students to engage in peer corrective feedback during their interactions, or to see if, instead, their interactions would be more likely to lead to avoidance of other-correction.

As previously mentioned, a search of the literature for analysis of the quality of French immersion students' L2 oral production yielded no recent results. A series of studies done in the late 1980s and early 1990s, such as that funded by the Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project to Swain, Allen, Cummins and Mugeon (Swain, 1985) do not appear to have been followed up in recent years. Swain, 1998, reviews some of these studies done until 1991. Some of the authors previously interested in French immersion proficiency results have shifted their focus, and have written about issues such as the use of L1 in L2 development (Cummins, 2014, Swain & Lapkin, 2013).

The potential outcome of this study was dependent on L2 interaction by the participants, and this has been successfully achieved. That is, the tasks designed to elicit sustained French conversation did so, overcoming the potential obstacles described next. Notwithstanding the "French only zone" imposed in many FI classrooms, anecdotal discussions with colleagues, and my own experience, suggest that students in intermediate grades rarely follow this rule. This is especially so during interpersonal talk, i.e., the social talk that often takes place while students

are working on other tasks, or while they organize their work. This can be confirmed by listening to the background talk in the study recordings. Some literature suggests that students don't have the language skills to engage in social talk in their L2, given that their language instruction is focused on academic content (see Cammarata & Tedick, 2012). The lack of peer models using modern and colloquial language may also be a contributing factor. One might also posit that their motivation to speak French is not always high. Firstly, there is something artificial about speaking one's L2 French when it is more natural to speak the dominant language. English is, for most students, their stronger language, and is the language of the environment. So while it is normal in a French language class to speak French some of the time, that is usually reserved for talk with the teacher, or specific activities. Additionally, the social interactions that they may be discussing have actually taken place (or will take place) in English, after all. This social talk is different from the judicious use of L1 for languaging that, for example, Swain and Lapkin (2013) present as useful to language learning. Therefore, given the general use of English amongst themselves, the quantity of French interaction recorded in the study is a significant achievement. While it can be surmised that the very act of recording the conversations prompted a sense of accountability, it is clear that a structured conversational task was also a key factor in providing a framework for interaction in French. Overall, French was used consistently, even if some students used English words in their French sentences, and some off-tape talk about the task (e.g., "How do I turn this off"?) occurred in English.

While the quantity of French interaction was high, judging from the analysis of the recordings made for this study, the quality of oral output of these intermediate school students exhibits the same immersion interlanguage characteristics that was discussed and fiercely debated (Allen, Cummins, Harley, Lapkin, & Swain, 1989; Hammerly, 1989a, b) in the 1980s. Some of these tendencies may result from the co-creation of language solutions that exist when authentic (or accurate) input is fairly limited, and strategic competence is sufficient to make oneself understood. The frequent incorporation of the errors of others, or of quality vocabulary, speaks to the nature of this co-creation. For example, in task 1 (where this word was relevant) 13 out of 18 pairs used the English "hoola hoop." In the other cases, while only one of the partners repeated *cerceau*, none of them used hoola hoop, or *cercle-chose* after hearing *cerceau.* This suggests strongly that interaction is feeding the students' production, as well as the creation of their interlanguage.

The phenomenon of incorporation could be explained using communication accommodation theory (CAT). At its simplest, CAT postulates that consciously or unconsciously "people adapt their verbal and nonverbal behavior in context" (Gasoriek, 2016, p. 13), and this serves cognitive and affective functions. That is, communication accommodation allows "coherent interaction" to take place and helps "manage social distance between individuals, and individuals as members of groups" (Gasoriek, 2016, p. 25). Additionally, interactional behaviour often "occurs as a direct response to the behavior of another person" (Jones, Gallois, Callan, & Barker, 1999 p.127) and it is most often not deliberate (Gasoriek, 2016). CAT addresses far more than lexical or syntactic choices, such as non-verbal behaviour, accent, pronunciation, and speech rate. CAT can therefore be useful in gaining insight into the FI interlanguage, including its particular accent. CAT explores the adjustments made in interlocutors' speech and interaction patterns during conversation. Accepting that "communicative adjustment is ubiquitous and constitutes a fundamental, and arguably necessary, part of successful social interaction" (Dragojevic, Gasiorek, & Giles, 2016, p. 36), it is possible that in conversation FI students are adjusting their vocabulary choices to mimic their interlocutors for the positive outcome of group cohesion, and more importantly, for their own personal sense of group inclusion. For combined affective and cognitive reasons they (likely unconsciously) choose such "convergence" instead of the "divergence" which would occur by selecting more sophisticated vocabulary which could both isolate them, and possibly contribute to lack of comprehension. Stimulated recall with participants following this type of activity could possibly provide some insight into why they selected certain words at certain moments, but might be fruitless because these behaviours are likely unconscious.

CAT can also help provide a possible explanation for the phenomenon of the general ignoring of what, on the surface, appear to be regular appeals for help by several interlocutors (*comment dit-on*, which went unanswered). Note that convergence appeared to happen in both directions; that is, students were observed incorporating both errors and more advanced or appropriate vocabulary. The desire to mimic one's interlocutor appears to trump being distinct and correct. An unanswered question is: to what extent is the mimicker aware that they are incorporating an error?

The analysis of these conversations highlights the tremendous potential for interaction between learners to shape their language development. As was discussed, interaction and the co-

development of interlanguage can lead to both target-like and untarget-like development. Understanding more finely the nature of intermediate FI students' interaction and their actual language use can help determine next steps for pedagogy. Seeing that students do pick up both the correct and erroneous words of others can help inform how peer oral corrective feedback protocols could work. As will be discussed in more detail later in addressing Question four, the questionnaire results indicate that there is not an overwhelming aversion to providing or receiving peer feedback, if it is done with respect, so it is worth considering other ways that students can provide feedback that differs from the oral corrective feedback that is highlighted in the literature and summarized in Figure 1.

Additionally, an examination of the conversational formats reveals some differences in language production and interaction. The *mini-discours* task was able to solicit sustained talk, but did not encourage as much interaction, and peer corrective feedback that was hoped for, nor that which was seen in the information gap activities. In fact, in some cases it is clear that the participant who could be providing the feedback is not even listening to their partner speak (e.g., during conversation T2E.9 when one participant uses a screamy voice to entreat her partner to pay attention and begin her turn). A structured feedback session whereby each partner is required to give feedback has seen some success in my own classes, and could have provided some rich data. However, interrupting others during a "formal" sustained "speech" such as the *mini-discours* was not easily adopted, in which case a nonverbal cue might be incorporated for the purposes of feedback in the future. Doughty and Pica (1986) also observed the importance of a two-way format, noting that tasks which "did not require an exchange of information (...) resulted in a small number of confirmation and comprehension checks and clarification requests, all of which are believed to be vital to second language acquisition" (p. 308).

An aspect of the students' oral production which deserves particular attention is pronunciation, which in many cases appears ripe for improvement. Pronunciation norms in this speech community can be assumed to also be a product of the FI interlanguage, and subject to the same pressures mentioned above, such as the desire to fit-in with the group. In particular in this study, poorly uttered *enchaînements* and *liaisons,* were described. CAT can help researchers understand why these issues are resistant to change. If, as Gasiorek (2016) describes, mimicry is mostly unconscious and a mechanism for social identity, many intermediate students will lack both the affective motivation and cognitive capacity to change without intense intervention.

HELPING EACH OTHER ALONG

As was discussed elsewhere, poor pronunciation can be a detriment to effective communication. Consider the DELF oral exam criteria, for example. In levels B1 and B2, 13% of the total is devoted to "maîtrise du système phonologique." In B1 they are looking for "une prononciation claire et intelligible malgré des erreurs ponctuelles," and in B2 "a acquis une prononciation et une intonation claires et naturelles." While in neither case are they looking for native fluency, there can be some expectation that certain rules of pronunciation are being followed. The high level of missing *liaisons* and segmentalization witnessed in this study can be considered "unnatural." While DELF results are notably broad, with success being defined as 50% overall and a minimum 5/25 in each competency test, one can assume that participants generally want to achieve the highest score possible. Given that pronunciation has been shown to be a very suitable target for corrective feedback, there might be opportunity for students to work together with peer OCF to improve in this area, especially if the convergence that students have been engaging in can be harnessed. The challenge, of course, is to encourage students to converge towards accuracy, and possible techniques to achieve this will be discussed in the conclusion.

Additionally, it can be surmised, based on previous research, that students likely have not had sufficient occasion in the past to engage in sustained L2 interaction (Swain, 1991; Lyster & Mori, 2006). In the literature review, we saw that Met (2008) concludes that immersion teachers must provide more time for sustained talk. There is a tendency, due partly to the tension between content and language development, for FI teachers to do most of the talking, and not provide much time for student talk (Swain, 1991); Lyster's study (2006) showed that only 5% of the time in his participant class was devoted to student talk (and this included choral responses). There is also the lack of pedagogical attention to the vocabulary and idioms for social talk in the L2. The importance of talk for language learning is elegantly summarized this way: "It is not that you learn something and then you use it; neither is it that you use something and then you learn it. Instead, it is in the using that you learn—they are inseparable" (Larsen-Freeman, 2007, p. 782). This study demonstrated that it is possible to successfully integrate student talk into the FI classroom. The qualitative analysis of the student talk confirmed older research that the quality of the interlanguage being used is fairly mediocre. It is possible that increased opportunities to engage in L2 interaction could contribute to the development of greater comfort and fluidity, which could, in turn, lead to greater cognitive ability to systematically attend to the target

expressions and to other-correction, while carrying out a content-related task. Currently, if engaging in sustained talk has not been a frequent behaviour, the cognitive load of this sustained talk might be so great as to contribute to a nearly unconscious incorporation of both errors and "better" words.

If immersion classes have traditionally been meaning-focused, this can help explain the focus on task completion that was observed, making the wholesale repetition of one's interlocutor the most economical option. Repetition, both other- and self-repetition, in a variety of forms, can serve a number of different functions, including an orientation toward production (Norrick, 1987) when a speaker "eagerly accepts a tailor-made formulation from someone else" (Norrick, 1987. p. 251). In fact, analysis of the way many of these often simple words were adopted, suggests that a focus on task completion may keep these speakers from paying attention (noticing) vocabulary or other errors. Sato & Lyster (2012) make a similar assertion. As a result, students use the most readily available, or recent, word they heard, rather than pause to use a more appropriate word; quality of language is not their priority. More importantly, when they listen to their peers, they are not engaging in feedback to get their partner to pause and select a different word. It is also likely that there is some communication accommodation at play here too, as alluded to above. Rather than critiquing the language use, and setting themselves up to diverge, they converge. If, for a variety of reasons, participants are not actively noticing the quality of their or their partners' language use, or if they are unwilling to diverge, it is unlikely that they can engage in peer oral corrective feedback, which is addressed next.

5.1.2 Question 2: Engaging in peer oral corrective feedback.

The second question of the study asked to what extent students engaged in peer OCF following targeted instruction in the technique. The observations relating to peer interaction suggest that there is a great deal of opportunity for FI intermediate students to engage in peer OCF during structured L2 interactive activities. The insertion of simple English vocabulary into conversation, the frequent use of (and ignoring of) *comment dit-on*, the random assignment of gender to nouns, the missed *liaisons* and *elisions*, as well as the misuse of the *expressions avec avoir* all could provide opportunities for student interlocutors to make use of various corrective feedback techniques.

However, in terms of actively engaging in peer oral corrective feedback after instruction, the results of this study were disappointing. Very little overt corrective feedback was done, with only one instance on the targeted structure. Therefore, there is insufficient data to be able to claim whether or not implementing a peer oral corrective feedback protocol, as adapted from Sato and Lyster's (2012) university student study, could work in an intermediate FI classroom for *expressions avec avoir*. It may have been overly ambitious to believe that a protocol developed for the university context would see similar results in an intermediate classroom.

Despite this lack of overt correction on the targeted forms, participants did regularly provide assistance, sometimes in the form of overt recasts, and also, somewhat less regularly, in the form of conversational recasts. As mentioned, it was not always evident if the latter were deliberate or unconscious. Surprisingly, the control group, which received no instruction in OCF, engaged in more provision of correction (both overt and conversational), and I did not detect any difference in the manner of the feedback between the groups. This calls into question the limits of the targeted instruction in providing OCF; factors beyond instruction will play a role, such as class culture or student readiness to correct. Although a pre-test on language form equivalence was carried out at the outset, there was no assessment of class dynamic. That is the kind of assessment that would best be done qualitatively, perhaps by the teacher herself. The teacher was encouraged to ensure an environment conducive to collaboration, but an assessment of the level of collaboration relied upon Johanna's (the classroom teacher) professional appraisal. The questionnaire provides some insight into attitudes towards peer feedback, but not into the maturity, motivation to learn and behaviour of the students. It is interesting to note that the experimental class had a great deal more instances of interference than the control class, and this could be a factor in how well a class adopts a peer-OCF strategy. Johanna confirmed that the Experimental class was indeed a more challenging class in terms of attention and behaviour. If interference is an indication of motivation to learn, it could be that the experimental class also paid less attention during instructional time, thus not fully absorbing the instruction on corrective feedback. Conversely, if the control class was, in general, more motivated to learn, enough students in that group may have adopted these corrective behaviours incidentally through their years of schooling.

Partner selection or assignment may also have an important role in determining peer feedback. In the case of what I assessed as a mismatched ability pair (T3E.6, as determined by

the conversation), a higher proficiency student provided more frequent feedback (11 instances of overt and conversational corrective feedback combined; no other group came close to this). When both partners trust each other, we may also see increased collaboration. In addition to trust, collaboration may be influenced by factors such as identity and motivation. This can be observed by the collaboration between Jennifer and Lori (T3C.8). When both partners are motivated to speak well there is a great deal of collaboration, and the adoption of a variety of techniques to help each other. While their identity might well be the "language geek," (Tarone, 2014) as demonstrated by their keenness to look up words in an online dictionary as they spoke, we see a similar, if less evident sharing of identity between Oliver and Ian (T3E.3) who seem like jokers, but who also in their way show a willingness to live up to each other's language expectations, as they engage in various forms of peer feedback and self-correction.

Beyond the issues of class and pair dynamics, the intervention may have introduced too broad a selection of OCF techniques for students to attend to. In addition to having too many structures to try to listen for, there was too much openness left to participants as to how to provide feedback. Therefore in early stages of OCF instruction, it might be useful to suggest only one specific technique, such as an audible or visual cue to the speaker. Given that many of the overt corrections were responses to subtle or overt requests for help (rather than correction of an error) the most potential for peer feedback could be in harnessing the unanswered "calls for help" that learners insert into their oral production. In keeping with the SCT concept of co-regulation, students could be primed to listen for and respond to these requests, be they actual requests (*comment dit-on*), hesitations and attempted self-corrections, or use of English vocabulary, to name a few. The concept of active reception referred to earlier can be applied not only to the speaker responding to assistance, but the listener providing that assistance.

Another factor which may have an impact on attention to language, and therefore on the provision of corrective feedback, is mindset, that is their assumptions and processes regarding the task. As mentioned above, as a result of their usual classroom focus and their different personalities, participants may have adopted a task-completion mindset, and even competitiveness (which was noticed when they counted the differences they could identify in the information gap activities). This makes language use and accuracy secondary to the actual task. This may not be surprising, given the priority traditionally given to content in FI classes. In Sato and Lyster's (2012) successful peer OCF intervention the participants were in a language class

and thus attuned to language use. It also speaks to the changes that occur when an activity goes from task-as-workplan, as envisioned by the teacher, to task-in-progress, as enacted by the learner (Seedhouse, 2004 p. 93).

It is also informative to compare these findings with those of Sato and Viveros (2016) who, in their small study in a Chilean high school, found (possibly coincidentally) that their higher proficiency groups had more task-related collaboration than the lower proficiency groups who, in turn, demonstrated far more instances of language collaboration. This may have been due to teacher influence, but suggests that as learners become more comfortable in their L2 they may focus less on language than on what they are doing with the language. In this study, a basic level of communicative proficiency was assumed, based on an understanding of the FI system and previous, if dated, assessments (Baker, 2011), and it was hoped that with specific instruction of the target structures participants would have the language skills to notice errors in their use. Even if relatively little peer OCF is occurring, the next question is what impact such correction is having on accuracy, which is the subject of the next section.

5.1.3 Question 3: Impact of OCF on accuracy.

This question of impact on accuracy first of all addressed the impact peer OCF would have on a targeted structure, and secondly its more general impact. It was believed that the process of being made aware of these structures, and being instructed to listen for them in conversation and to correct them, would lead to improvements in noticing these errors in the post-test. This research question was designed to consider the impact peer OCF would have on both the corrector and the correctee. There was nearly no evidence of peer OCF on a targeted structure, and the one correction that occurred was in the control group. There was also no improvement in noticing of the target structure in either group between the pre- and post-tests.

This could be due to a variety of different factors, including differences in developmental maturity, motivation, grammatical readiness and context (in an FI classroom students are responsible for much more than language learning). It could equally be due to the difficulty of transferring the instructional model to the classroom teacher. The latter point will be discussed further in the Limitations section.

Maturity or readiness of learners, and context, are important considerations in the application of any teaching technique. This is one reason that classroom studies are so valuable.

Sato and Lyster's (2012) study, upon which the intervention for this study was based, was with University students in an English L2 class. Fujii, Ziegler, and Mackey's (2016) study likewise investigated university students in an English L2 situation. These both represent a different age group, as well as a different context compared to the current study. The fact that those participants were more mature, had probably chosen to be in a language learning class, and were indeed in a class focused on language features, all represent differences from the participants and context of this study. The studies reported in Sato and Ballinger (2012), and Sato and Viveros (2016) both dealt with school children, but examined the nature of corrective moves, rather than the impact on a targeted structure.

Examining the use and improvement in a targeted structure within conversations presents certain challenges; namely, that in allowing natural conversation to occur it is difficult to predict what language structures will be used. It is also difficult to direct conversations to specific structures without creating an artificial interaction. This was particularly true in this situation where there was a fairly large number of expressions to consider and where the technique itself (provision of OCF) was new. Focusing on only one high-frequency error (such as *avoir l'air*) might have seen more success. There may have been enough obligatory contexts for the use of *avoir l'air* in the information gap activities to have made it a more suitable target. However, reducing the number of target structures could also have resulted in even fewer instances of its use.

It is possible, too, that the majority of the participants were not quite ready to notice and correct errors for this series of target structures; there were too many, and they were not all salient to the participants. As in the selection of only one or two techniques, it seems that learners should be encouraged to focus only on a limited number of error types. The choice of this series of structures for this study was informed by Harley's (1993) elaboration of the challenges posed by them and my own personal experience. Pre-tests confirmed a lack of mastery with noticing when these structures were misused, and in general their use in conversation was limited, even after form-focussed instruction. The exception to this was the use of *il y a* (frequently used, mostly correctly), and several instances where *avoir l'air, avoir fini*, or *avoir besoin de* were used or needed. Otherwise, there was little requirement in the recorded data for using these expressions. The need for authentic requirement for the language feature, and learner cognitive and meta-linguistic readiness are discussed as well by Cammarata & Tedic

(2012). Of course, it is impossible to put participants in a situation where only one possibility exists; so while opportunities to use a structure may be created they are rarely the only option.

Mackey and Philp (1998) conclude that "in terms of production of higher-level structures, developmentally more advanced learners who received recasts were able to sustain an increase of more advanced structures, whereas the other groups did not show a corresponding increase" (p352). Nassaji, (2016) likewise concludes that "feedback has been shown to be beneficial if it targets language forms for which learners are developmentally ready or have a sufficient level of language proficiency" (p. 554). A lack of recent, accessible, qualitative and quantitative analysis on the proficiency of FI elementary students means that there is undeveloped understanding of their readiness for different structures beyond the individual experiences of teachers. However, this also underscores the importance of an SCT approach, as described by van Compernolle (2015) which places value on capturing the learning process "in flight" through micro-discourse analysis, similar to what was attempted in this study.

Whether or not these learners could be expected to notice errors in structures they could not themselves use is another relevant question. Some research demonstrates how, through scaffolding, learners together have more knowledge than they do individually. Ohta (2001) documented examples of students noticing when their partner made an error that they themselves had made but had not seemed to notice. In the present study, as previously discussed, it seems that a focus on task completion may have discouraged participants from reacting to most errors, or responding to "appeals for help." In conversation T1C.7, Sonia might be demonstrating this phenomenon. She offers *morceau* in a conversational recast, but then uses the anglicism that her partner had used, *pièces*, a number of turns later. Is it that when her partner had used the word she heard it as an error, and corrected it, but in the lapse of time before she came back to it, she was in production mode rather than reactive, or noticing mode? In this case Sonia was an active participant in the conversation, but may have been able to dissociate herself briefly from her active role. In addition to the people directly involved in a conversation, Ohta (2001) refers to different members of an audience, including auditors, those who are not being directly addressed, but who are active listeners. The idea of formally appointing "auditors" as a possible response to challenges of attention will be detailed further when discussing future avenues for research.

Measuring the impact of peer OCF on language use not assessed in the pre- and post-test is more problematic. There is no consensus on whether uptake following correction is a reliable

measure. Uptake may occur mechanically, with no longer-term incorporation, and, conversely, uptake may not occur, yet the correction noted for future use. However, as stated earlier, during peer interaction there is regular incorporation of each other's utterances, be it for richer vocabulary, errors in usage, or English words. These sometimes occurred as a result of feedback (such as a conversational recast), sometimes as a natural part of the conversation. It can be assumed that any learning as a result of these interactions will be dependent on the learner's readiness to learn that particular feature. It may also be dependent on the relationship between the partners. Sato and Ballinger (2012) observed that in conflictual, or non-collaborative, relationships, corrective feedback was sometimes overtly refused, but in collaborative relationships more often accepted and incorporated. In my study, Oliver accepts the correction of his pronunciation by his partner, Ian (*jin - juin*), not only demonstrating uptake, but repeating it again, as if to solidify or emphasize the correction. Their entire conversation contained a certain playfulness that suggested mutual trust. Readiness may be announced by the learner's own verbal expression, which will be discussed next, and relationship will be further addressed in the discussion of research question 4.

In spite of the lack of overt other-correction, participants did indeed appear to notice and be aware of their limitations, especially with respect to lexical items, and to noun-gender. They often gave cues during their utterances that they knew they were using an incorrect word, or that they were searching for a word. These moments were frequently ignored by the interlocutor. The gender uncertainty was indicated by the use of an ambiguous sounding /*un*/ or /*le*/. Sophisticated paraphrasing was infrequent, but the word *chose* was fairly often inserted as a pseudo-paraphrase, as were made-up adaptations. Regular self-correction, as well, suggests an attention to language that can be overlooked when one considers only the grammatical inconsistencies, or the insertion of English words. Harnessing this attention within the framework of peer OCF might be one key to improved success. For example, instead of only teaching students to notice their partners' errors, specifically, they could be taught to respond to their more (and less) subtle cues that they require assistance. This will be considered further in the Conclusion. First, however, the comfort and willingness of participants to engage in peer OCF will be discussed.

5.1.4 Question 4: Comfort and willingness in provision and receiving of OCF to peers.

Participants may have demonstrated limited use of peer oral corrective feedback, yet this is not necessarily an indication of an unwillingness to do so. I have discussed above that the reasons for this may have more to do with other factors such as a focus on non-language features during interaction. It is therefore necessary to consider the fourth question–about the comfort level and willingness of both higher and lower proficiency intermediate-grade French Immersion students to provide OCF to their peers–from the questionnaire data as well as through an interpretation of their interactions. The questionnaire data will be considered first.

The questionnaire data indicated that, in general, there was no overwhelming opposition to peer corrective feedback, even at the outset of the study. Rather, there is mostly positive reaction or ambivalence. Additionally, there was some qualification on the basis of tone of voice or relationship with the corrector. This speaks to the collaborative mindset, as discussed by Sato and Ballinger (2012) and Sato and Viveros (2016), that is deemed to be essential for effective collaboration, and thus successful peer OCF. Janet (in the control group) articulates the importance of collaboration: “Si c'est un de mes amis où le prof je l'aime parce que je les fait confience (I trust them) Quand c'est quelqun d'autre je me fâche un peu parce que je ne les pas fais confience (I don't trust them).” In both the initial and the final questionnaire Janet chose level 1 to answer the question of how much she liked to be corrected by her peers. Janet’s behaviour appears to contrast with her stated opinion, in that she engaged in much collaborative correction and assistance with her partner in spite of not liking it. Janet also seems to be working with a trusted partner, as well, which was one of the conditions she preferred. In spite of instruction in peer-OCF to the experimental group, which included the positive possible benefits, there was no observable difference in attitude between the two groups. While the dynamics of the intermediate classroom are often challenging, these observations speak to the need to continue finding mechanisms to build collegiality and a sense of collaboration and trust within the class.

Most students assessed themselves as adequate in terms of their French production. Provision of feedback was not dependent on a higher self-assessment of ability. This is consistent with observations made by Sato & Viveros (2016) and by Åhlund & Aronsson (2015), where lower proficiency students provided various forms of feedback and assistance. While self-perception is not synonymous with proficiency, these observations suggest that mastery, actual

or perceived, is not a necessary precondition to helping one's peers. Participants' generous self-perception did not seem to influence their noticing of errors, nor did it lead to any incorrect correcting. In addition to discussing the four research questions, several broader issues emerged, and will lead to the conclusion of this chapter.

5.2 Beyond the Research Questions

In retrospect, the discrepancy between the offering of OCF that I had witnessed prior to this study and its absence in the conditions of this study can be easily explained. Students listening to a full-class discussion are not being called upon to interact at each turn. Their attentional resources then can be freed up to notice errors in form made by others. In the study, participants actively involved in the interaction were being asked to give their attention to task completion and preparing their own utterances as well as other-correction. Ohta's (2001) typology of listeners is useful to consider here. In a full class discussion most individuals are auditors, thus available to notice form. In a two-person discussion both are addressees by turn, making it more difficult to attend to form. This dilemma will be addressed in a practical way in the Conclusion.

The overall results must also be considered within the timeline of the study. It is possible that the reduced timeline available for the project had an impact on these results. Due to delays in the approval at the school-board level, instead of having six or seven months available for the recruitment and intervention, only about three months were available. There was less time available for students to acquire the target structure or to practise peer correction. Additionally, these three months were those at the end of the year, when there are traditionally various interruptions to class activities, and the attention of students is beginning to wane.

5.3 Chapter summary

In this chapter, the results were analysed with respect to the research questions and some explanations for the results were offered. The participants engaged in sustained interaction and talk, as requested by the teacher, and in this oral production many opportunities for peer corrective feedback occurred, but few instances were observed. A number of tendencies in

interaction were discussed, namely frequent incorporation of the partner's words, pronunciation irregularities and subtle appeals for assistance. Communication accommodation theory was used to help explain the reasons that these aspects of the FI interlanguage exist. In the next and final chapter, concluding remarks will be made regarding the contributions of the study, its limitations, and future research questions.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

6.1 Contributions of this study

As an experienced intermediate FI teacher, I had previously witnessed spontaneous peer corrective feedback in my own classes during full class discussions. The aggressive nature of some of these interactions concerned me and provided a rationale to explore meta-cognitive instruction of peer OCF. It was hoped that Sato and Lyster's (2012) success in implementing peer OCF in a university level language class could be replicated to some extent in an intermediate French immersion class. This was not to be the case; as noted in the results and discussion, overt peer OCF was limited. However, a number of discoveries and observations about peer interaction and the potential for a more refined, or targeted peer OCF approach, were made. Additionally, some of the conditions that would contribute to more use of peer OCF were also revealed.

Firstly, the analysis of FI students in interaction makes a contribution to a gap in contemporary research of FI students identified by Cammarata, et al., (2018). There was nearly no available data from the 21st century containing information about proficiency or recent analysis of actual practice by FI teachers. Earlier research has suggested that one weakness in FI classrooms was insufficient time to talk (by students), as well as a predominance of English usage. If it is true that in intermediate FI classes teachers orchestrate most of the talking and that L2 interaction between learners is fairly rare, it can be concluded that a necessary first step in the development of interactional strategies is to cultivate opportunities for more sustained talk. This study demonstrated that it is possible to have students do this. Conditions conducive to L2 interaction include accountability (established in this case by the recording process) and tasks designed to elicit talk and interaction in French. This means highly structured information-gap conversations with specific outcomes. The fact that these seemed to contribute to a focus on task completion rather than language features is a challenge that can be addressed by asking students to focus on specific types of errors such as those observed in this study.

The close study of the students' language use in interaction also revealed some aspects of how the FI interlanguage is built and sustained. It may not only be strategic competence that structures how they speak, but also a high sensitivity to the competence of their speaking

partners. The extent to which the participants incorporated their partners' utterances, and ignored their possible appeals for help, can be understood from the point of view of communication accommodation theory, as described previously. Understanding that L2 learners of this age may be converging their language can help understand the challenge of progressing beyond the interlanguage. Given these patterns of communication accommodation, it may be necessary to reframe somewhat the corrective feedback discussion in terms of active assistance rather than corrective feedback as it has been presented in the literature. That is, rather than listening for errors, students could be encouraged to listen for, and respond to, these appeals for help.

Indeed, it was observed that, even if FI students seemed to have a fairly generous self-perception, they nevertheless appear to be aware of their limitations, and are emitting subtle, and less subtle, requests for assistance which are currently being ignored. This knowledge can help teachers and researchers identify a starting point for effective collaboration in FI interaction, and can help get beyond the constraints that both strategic competence and communication accommodation may be imposing. The analysis of the participants' language production itself also highlights certain shortcomings of the FI interlanguage. These include a lack of lexical richness, certain pronunciation errors, and grammatical gaps. While these may come as no surprise to practitioners in the FI field, this systematic assessment provides something of a baseline from which to create language related learning goals.

Finally, the mostly positive questionnaire results suggest that some form of peer OCF can be introduced to intermediate FI students with buy-in from the students. With no intervention, the attitude to being corrected by peers was mostly positive or neutral. That there was no change in attitude as a result of the intervention might be explained by some of the limitations, discussed in a later section.

6.1.1 Teaching recommendations.

The contributions listed in the previous section lend themselves to some recommendations for teachers. While these may or may not be the recommendations expected at the outset of the study, they are nevertheless complementary to them.

The first recommendation is to provide frequent opportunities for guided interaction. This interaction must be highly structured, usually with activities where success cannot be achieved without interaction. Students appeared to enjoy the slightly competitive and challenging nature

of the "find the difference" activities, and were thus motivated to participate. Recording conversations was one way of creating accountability. There may be no need to listen to all of the recordings, but the process of making them may keep students on-task and in the target language.

In order to balance the task-completion mentality (Seedhouse's 2004 task-in process) with the teacher's language instruction goals (task-as-workplan), it may be reasonable to identify only one target structure that students should correct with their peers. This would be a structure that the teacher has identified as ripe for correction: some learners are using it well some of the time, it is fairly salient, and for other reasons deemed pertinent by the teacher (see Lyster, 1998, for a summary). In the same vein it would be sensible to introduce only one correction technique. This paring down of target structure and response would free up cognitive resources to allow students to keep these in mind while they also participate in the task-completion.

Additionally, groups of three could be formed, with one member adopting the role of language monitor. This person would act as the auditor, as described by Ohta (2001), and as they are not required to respond, they may be less focused on the task completion and can consequently focus on language more freely.

Possibly the most fruitful technique would be to coach students, especially the designated auditor, to notice and respond to their partners' requests for assistance, to build stronger active reception. These cues are already in the interaction. Teachers could instruct students to listen for vocalized requests (*comment dit-on*) and then pause in order to try to answer it together. They could then work on the other cues, introducing them one at a time: English words, pauses, vocal hesitations, etc. In my experience, students laugh when presented with an exaggerated, artificial anglo-accent, suggesting that in certain contexts they are attuned to pronunciation issues. Teachers could "model" poor pronunciation with the aim of making correct pronunciation more desirable.

The final recommendation would be to adopt (and adapt) with caution, activities studied in different contexts. Young adolescent students do not always have the maturity to adopt techniques that studies may have shown to work well in older students. Additionally, the particular context of French immersion, a content-based framework means that learners may not have the same attentiveness to language form that is seen in upper level language classes; thus,

what works well elsewhere may not work as well. These recommendations have been developed keeping in mind the study limitations, as discussed in the next section.

6.2 Limitations

As in any study of this nature, there are several limitations to the conclusions that can be drawn: the small-scale, localized, nature of the participant groups; the reduced time-frame of the data collection period; and certain requirements of the school board's ethics governing group.

As with other quasi-experimental studies, this one is limited by the relatively small sample size and the non-random assignment of participants, and its limitation to one cohort in one school. Students had been more or less randomly assigned to classes, and had come from more than one school (in the previous year) but there may nevertheless have been a certain homogeneity to the participants' background that is not representative of a broader clientèle. As discussed elsewhere, these conditions are representative of real-world contexts, and thus potentially provide a more authentic framework. Experienced teachers can attest to the fact that every class has its own culture, made up of different personalities who bring their individual motivation, attitudes, charisma to the group, all of which can have an impact on any instruction. Therefore, testing new ideas on intact classes provides the best semblance of authenticity. The non-random creation of groups is, nevertheless, one aspect that must temper the conclusions.

Such real-world classes, which encompass a multitude of characteristics, have an impact on teaching and learning that can affect the best-laid plans of even the best teachers. These factors often mean that teaching takes more time than anticipated. Being cognizant of this, I planned my study to cover nearly an entire school year. This timeframe would have allowed for a more spread-out instruction of the target-structures as well as of the OCF techniques. It would have also allowed the recordings to be more spread out. These factors may have allowed more time for acquisition of the target structures and of the OCF techniques by the students and thus may have led to more overt peer correction and to improvement in the target structure as a result. However, factors related to the ethics approval process delayed the project so that the time available was significantly less than originally planned, and it remains unknown how much this may have impacted the study results.

The school board's ethics approval process had an impact not only on the timing, but on other aspects of the project. The challenges of ethics applications are often glossed over in the literature, to the point where Schachter & Gass (1996) write that papers generally make "no indication of the blood, sweat, and tears that go into getting permission to undertake the project, that go into actual data collection, that go into transcription, and so forth" (p. viii). The original, and ideal, plan would have been to carry out the project in my own classes, as a type of action-research project. Dörnyei (2007) comments on the failure of action-research to take hold in the applied linguistics field, seeing it as a dichotomy between the academic rigour of the research field, and the various constraints of being a teacher. He says that "the challenge is to find some doable forms of teacher-researcher partnership between these two extremes that is embraced (and supported!) by educational managers and which teachers will not consider merely an additional burden on their already busy daily lives" (2007, p. 194). In this case, the researcher was a teacher wanting to do this work, regardless of the additional demands it placed on her limited time. However the school board's ethics requirements expressly forbid teachers to carry out research in their own classrooms, except in the case of action-research.

Thus, as stated in the description of the methodology for this study, this project could not qualify as an action-research project since it was a requirement for a degree. The decision to exclude projects such as this one from the action-research classification is mystifying and regrettable. The study could be construed as falling within a teacher's regular duties and, if done in her own classroom, is typical of action-research. Additionally, there is a need for active professional development of French immersion teachers, both pre-service and in-service. In their literature review synthesising the state of FI teacher education and training since 2004, (Cammarata, et al., 2018) call for increased use of action research and of professional learning communities.

Because the study was done in a different school from the one where I am a full-time teacher, I was not able to visit the classes and relied on the (albeit very competent) services of a colleague. This meant that I was not able to ascertain that all protocols were implemented as designed. Transferring a teaching model from a distance introduces variation in implementation that I was not able to truly follow. I relied on Johanna's reporting of, for example, how often she modelled corrective feedback, or how often she reminded students to engage in peer OCF. I was also not able to judge first-hand the dynamics of each class, dynamics which may have had an

impact on the adoption of peer OCF techniques. The literature review emphasized the need for a collaborative class culture, and I was not able to assess this. I could not ascertain personally if, for example, the larger number of interference in the experimental class was typical of the class dynamics. Additionally, my understanding of the students behind the voices and their interactions was limited by not knowing the students personally. For example, it was not possible for me to assess "directive-authority" (Langer Osuna, 2016, see literature review) from a distance. A teacher in his or her own class could add knowledge about who in a pair has directive authority and consider if and how it might affect the provision of corrective feedback. In a truly (traditional) qualitative analysis, a closer interaction, in person, would be more desirable, and allow for some more subtle understanding of the participants' behaviour.

Finally, an "exploratory-sequential" design (Creswell, 2015 p. 39) might have permitted the development of a more tailored intervention, as it would have permitted the identification of target structures that emerged from the participants' own interactions. It is not guaranteed, however, that choosing a structure after initial recordings would have led to the selection of a more amenable structure. I had based this selection partly on my own experience, and very well might have made the same selection following an exploration of the study participants' language use. While the selected target-structure series was an unmastered structure, as well as a fairly basic one, it may not have been one that students were ready to work on. Language use can be very unpredictable, especially when one is attempting to foster organic, natural interactions. In any case, pre- and post-test instruments were required by the school board prior to ethics approval, so an informed selection was made based on the literature and the researcher's own experience. These limitations may be addressed in future research, which is described in the next section.

6.3 Future Research

The limitations listed above, the contributions of this study to the field, and the general observations made lead to several avenues for future research. These include:

- increasing research into the language production in FI classes, preferably led by classroom teachers as action-research projects;
- investigating the social aspects of L2 interaction in FI classes, including the tension between task-completion focus and language focus;

- further investigating of the cues students are making to solicit assistance; and
- studying the potential role of a language monitor within a peer interaction and further research on active peer OCF fine-tuning the structures and techniques taught.

These will be discussed in turn in this section.

As noted elsewhere, much of the baseline information about the production of FI students is fairly dated. This study suggests that many of the previously described phenomena continue to exist. It would be informative to know if other described aspects of the FI classroom continue to prevail, such as who does most of the talking, and how grammar is taught. Longitudinal studies examining language production, as well as the development and evolution of immersion interlanguage through interaction, seem necessary. Further fine-grained analysis of students' oral production features (including pronunciation, gender assignment, and vocabulary) which were beyond the scope of this study would also be an ideal area for teacher action research. Active facilitation of teacher action research by education authorities would help teachers understand more closely the needs of their students. It would also help involved teachers self-evaluate their practice. This would also include analysis of FI student language production, and help teachers develop effective instructional techniques which they could then share with colleagues, or develop further in Professional Learning Communities as encouraged by Cammarata et al. (2018). Participation by some teachers in action research might in itself lead to increased time-to-talk for students, as teachers studying students in interaction would necessarily make time for it to happen, and possibly share these activities with colleagues.

Such teacher action research could also focus on the social aspects of FI students in L2 interaction, including studies of the classroom speech community and partner selection. In the case of the classroom speech community, one could investigate the extent to which students might be resistant to "changes from above" and possibly hanging on to their errors deliberately as an aspect of identity. To what extent does the identity of the FI speech community, and the personal identities of the individuals within that speech community, dictate the interlanguage, and how can these be exploited in the interest of language development?

Related to this is the impact of partner selection, which can be considered more deliberately. The question of random assignment of partner, as opposed to students selecting their friend as partner, or of the teacher assigning partners by ability, could be investigated. This can be done within the context of identity within the speech community. Studies in partnering

could also explore directive authority and how it might contribute to or take away from the positive effects of peer feedback, providing valuable insight into the accuracy of peer OCF. It was seen in the study that incorporation of errors as well as of quality language use occurred; it would be instructive to see if there are patterns in who is providing the language and who is incorporating it.

Social conventions are particularly strong in this age group. Some students may not want to show their skills and others may not want to show their weaknesses. Both of these factors affect the use of interruption necessary for many forms of OCF. Also, these students seemed highly focused on task achievement rather than how they carried out the task. This may be linked to certain flaws in the assumptions of this study; namely, an assumption that students could attend to task completion as well as language monitoring at the same time. To address these two related factors, it might be necessary to incorporate a third party within an interaction, a "language monitor," or auditor, whose task is to keep notes, or listen only for the target form or for appeals for help and provide feedback. Because this person's explicit job is to do this, it might take away from any stigma associated with it, and also frees up this person's mind for noticing of errors without being required to contribute to the conversation. Studying the impact of such a role on corrective behaviour could be considered in future research.

These questions of identity and social convention may have an impact on the motivation of students to speak well, and what inhibitions they may have in speaking French with Francophones in authentic situations. In the future it would be constructive, possibly within a framework of communication accommodation theory, to investigate these questions.

Notwithstanding the social implications referred to above, it is also possible to consider more explicitly the feedback acts that could be studied. Considering that, as van Compernolle (2015) describes, there are multiple roles for both hearer and speaker, participants' demonstrated awareness of their limitations could be harnessed: adding *chose* after a word they are unsure about, pausing before using a new word or a wrong word, the use of *comment dit-on* and its variations (without waiting for an answer). Focusing corrections on those moments that may be ripe for self-correction might be more productive in terms of peer OCF. While peer correction may be an awkward act, providing assistance seemed more acceptable. Investigating how students can be coached to recognize a variety of requests for assistance and actually respond to them might be an appropriate avenue for instructed peer feedback in the intermediate FI

classroom. As mentioned above, this "active assistance" approach may end up being a more appropriate model for this context than traditional oral corrective feedback.

Finally, it was also assumed that because the target expressions were frequently needed and unmastered that they would be suitable for study. Many of the expressions may not have been particularly useful in the participants' lexicon, and so their selection did not consider the readiness, nor the cognitive burden of listening for a whole range of possibly irrelevant errors. The same can be said for introducing a wide range of correction techniques and assuming students could choose one at will. Future studies could narrow down the target expressions, perhaps selecting an expression after analysis of recorded interaction, and also introduce only one or two corrective techniques.

A target structure ideal for peer oral corrective feedback could also be pronunciation; recorded data and transcripts, similar to the ones obtained in this study, could be used to analyse a greater variety of *enchaînements*, for example, or the other phonological factors studied by Trofimovich, Kennedy and Blanchet (2017) to better understand typical immersion usage. These pronunciation errors may be a suitable target for peer OCF, given that phonological corrections are salient enough to be noticed through recasts (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013) and that recasts (deliberate or otherwise) were the most frequent form of correction noticed.

6.4 Concluding Reflections

As happens in many studies, the intervention for this study did not result in the expected behaviour. That is, the participants did not engage in the amount of peer corrective feedback hoped for following instruction, nor was there an improvement in mastery of the target structure. Nevertheless, the scrutinizing of the participants in interaction revealed a number of patterns which I had not discovered in the literature, and which may provide a rich potential for further exploration of peer assistance, as well as for the development of teacher practices. I have made discoveries which I will be able to use in my own teaching practice, as well as share with colleagues.

Of particular note was my discovery of the tendency of students to acknowledge their weaknesses and needs, without acknowledging the weaknesses and needs of their conversational partners. Drawing this behaviour to the attention of colleagues, researchers and the students themselves could provide an important shift in the interaction between students and the

development of their interlanguage. Being aware of these tendencies, teachers can explicitly instruct students to provide assistance when their interlocutor sends out conscious or unconscious signals requesting help.

In a broader sense, the research process itself has been enlightening. The research process is, necessarily, a rigorous and tightly controlled process from beginning to end, requiring not only literature review in the subject being studied, but also in the various methods and techniques being used. This means that it is not as linear a process as expected. Additionally, when the research did not yield the anticipated results, new questions emerged, requiring yet more research of the literature. Paradoxically, this left me wishing I had known at the outset what I know at the end, as this might have led me to a different set of research questions. The most exacting step was the ethics approval, or ethics approvals, having to submit to two bodies. The bureaucratic hurdles that were part of the ethics approval procedures that slowed down this project were discouraging. I hope that my project can prove the value of this kind of class-based language teaching research, and even provide the stimulus to be more open and encouraging to teacher action research, even if within the parameters of their self-directed, higher education.

As an experienced FI educator, I finish this project with a renewed enthusiasm for working with my students in the development of their oral production. In designing the tasks for the intervention I had the opportunity to examine some of the activities I already do, and to introduce new ones into my repertoire. I have begun to examine more systematically my own practice, being more mindful of including sufficient time for talk (interaction), and developing techniques allowing students to collaborate in their oral development. In my teaching I am now more observant, and I can use a researcher's eye to assess student interactions, and to consider the effectiveness of the techniques I implement.

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APPENDIX 1: Pre- and Post-test

DIALOGUE - VERSION B
(*picture difference*, p. 54, Discussions that Work, Ur)

**Please note that students' version will not have errors in bold!*

S'il vous plaît, écoutez le dialogue et suivez le texte. Quand vous entendez (lisez) une faute d'usage, s'il-vous plaît encerclez-le. Écrivez aussi votre correction à côté.

PHOTO A: Bon, alors **nous besoin** de commencer. Ma photo se situe dans une gare, je crois. **C'est** cinq personnes.

PHOTO B: Oui, moi aussi. **C'est** cinq personnes. Une des personnes est un enfant. Je crois qu**'il est environ six ans** et il porte un chandail rayé. Je pense qu'il **est peur** parce qu'il est seul, et il regarde le plancher.

PHOTO A: Oui **tu es correct** il **regarde peur**; peut être il a perdu sa mère! Mais dans ma photo il porte un chandail blanc, donc c'est une différence. Ce garçon est au milieu, devant une grande fenêtre. Le mot 'buffet' est écrit sur la fenêtre.

PHOTO B: Dans ma photo aussi il est au milieu, devant une fenêtre. Mais c'est une autre différence - *il n'y a* rien d'écrit sur la fenêtre. Si c'est le buffet peut être qu'il ***n'est pas peur*** , peut être qu'il **est mal à l'estomac** parce qu'il **est faim** et il veut de l'argent. Mais ça fait deux différences.

PHOTO A: À côté de la fenêtre *il y a* une porte, et un homme sort en courant. Il doit être en retard pour son train… Je pense qu'il **sera honte** s'il le rate!

PHOTO B: Oui il est dans ma photo aussi; il porte un habit, avec une cravate noire, et il a un sac dans les mains…. C'est quoi il le rate?

PHOTO A: Ça veut dire qu'il n'arrive pas à temps pour le train. Mais oui, c'est pareil dans ma photo. On peut voir derrière lui le dos d'une personne avec des cheveux longs.

PHOTO B: Non, dans ma photo cette personne **est les cheveux** courts. Devant la fenêtre on voit un monsieur qui **était soif** - il boit un café dans une tasse noire..

PHOTO A: Voilà une autre différence; il est là mais sa tasse est blanche. Est-ce que tu penses qu'i**l est fini** son café?

PHOTO B : presque - mais la tasse est à côté de sa bouche… Une autre personne est dans ma photo. Une vieille dame en avant. Je pense qu'**elle est froide** parce qu'elle porte un chapeau, et un long manteau blanc. Elle **regarde inquiète** parce qu'elle regarde le monsieur qui est en retard ou bien le petit garçon. Elle regarde à sa droite.

PHOTO A: oui, elle est dans ma photo aussi. Il y a un bouton de son manteau qu'elle a perdu… le deuxième.

PHOTO B: Non - ma dame a tous ses boutons! Voilà une autre différence. Elle porte une jupe, et des souliers, et elle a un sac à main avec un motif qui **regarde presque comme** un léopard… mais pas vraiment.

PHOTO A: hmmm quoi d'autre. Dans ma photo **c'est** un horloge en haut de la porte et il est 10h00.

PHOTO B: oui, l'horloge est là, mais il est 12h00 maintenant **nous a** 6 différences.

PHOTO A: non - **tu n'as pas correct** - c'est 5 différences. Sur le mur je vois des affiches de publicité. Je ne peux pas vraiment voir l'affiche à gauche, mais la première à droite est pour 'motorail Z' et *il y a* des montagnes derrière des arbres.

PHOTO B: oui l'affiche à droite est difficile à lire. Oui je vois l'affiche avec les montagnes. L'autre est coupée aussi, mais *il y a* un homme.

PHOTO A: Un homme et un enfant.

PHOTO B: non- pas d'enfant; une autre différence. 6 maintenant. Est-ce qu'on **est fini**?

PHOTO A: non, je ne pense pas! Est-ce que tu as une valise sur le plancher en dessous des affiches? Avec un parapluie? Une valise blanche et un parapluie noir?

PHOTO B: C'est ça; sur la valise je vois une étiquette qui dit 'London'.

PHOTO A: Sept! **je** pas l'étiquette. Oh - je vois un papier ou quelque chose sur le plancher devant le petit garçon. Pourquoi ses parents n'arrivent pas?!

PHOTO B: Huit - je n'ai pas le papier sur le plancher. (BAILLE)

PHOTO A: tu **as fatigué**?

PHOTO B: non - **je suis chaud** ici, c'est tout. Est-ce que tu as des affiches de direction en haut des affiches? 'way out' Toilets' et "Buffet'?

PHOTO A: Oui; le way out et les toilettes sont à droite, et le buffet est à gauche.

PHOTO B: tu vois des flèches sur les trois?

PHOTO A : Oui.

PHOTO B: alors bon, c'est 9 - je ne vois pas de flèche à côté de 'buffet'.

PHOTO A: Je pense que c’est assez - on peut arrêter.

PHOTO B: oui, neuf c’est beaucoup. Veux-tu voir ma photo?

CORRECTION

Combien d’erreurs indiquées qui sont des erreurs.
combien d’erreurs indiquées qui ne sont pas des erreurs.

Combien d’erreurs bien corrigées (phonétique; orthographe pas évalué)
Liste des fausses corrections (soit il n’y avait pas de faute ou bien c’est mal corrigé)

24 erreurs

APPENDIX 2: Questionnaire

Auto-évaluation français oral (postétude)

Dans les questions choix-multiples suivantes, choisis la réponse qui te convient le mieux. Certaines questions te demande une courte réponse ou une réponse un peu plus longue.

* Required

---

1. **Quel est ton nom et ta classe?** *

2. **1) Je crois que ma prononciation et mon intonation sont (coche à la bonne place selon l'échelle):**
   Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
Assez faible	◯	◯	◯	◯	Excellente

3. **2) Ma prononciation et mon intonation: Quand je parle français ma prononciation et mon intonation sont**
   Mark only one oval.

   ◯ ... très naturelles et c'est facile à me comprendre.

   ◯ ... influencées par ma langue maternelle (par ex. l'anglais) mais tout le monde peut me comprendre.

   ◯ ...assez influencées par ma langue maternelle (par ex. l'anglais) et des fois c'est difficile (surtout pour les francophones) à me comprendre.

   ◯ ... très influencées par ma langue maternelle (par ex. l'anglais) et c'est difficile pour les personnes de la classe et francophones de me comprendre.

Grammaire:

4. **3) Je pense que ma grammaire est (coche à la bonne place selon l'échelle)**
   Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
Assez faible	◯	◯	◯	◯	Excellente

5. **4) Quand je parle français ma grammaire ...**
   Mark only one oval.

   ◯ ...est excellente : je fais très peu de fautes de grammaire de base (c'est à dire que je conjugue bien mes verbes au pluriel et au singulier, que je choisis le bon temps, je fais attention au masculin et féminin, l'ordre de mes mots est correct, etc.) Des fois j'utilise aussi des structures plus avancées.

   ◯ ...est adéquate: je connais assez bien ma grammaire de base, mais je ne fais pas toujours attention (ex. j'oublie des fois de conjuguer mes verbes au pluriel, ou je fais des fautes de masculin et féminin, ou l'ordre des mots n'est pas toujours exacte).

   ◯ ...pourrait être mieux: je fais souvent des fautes avec la grammaire de base (ex. je ne conjugue pas mes verbes avec attention, j'ignore souvent le masculin et féminin, je ne sais pas toujours l'ordre correct des mots, etc.; mon professeur doit me corriger assez souvent.)

   ◯ ...est assez faible: je fais beaucoup de fautes de grammaire, et les gens ont de la difficulté à me comprendre (ex. je ne conjugue pas bien mes verbes; je ne connais pas le masculin et le féminin, je ne sais pas en quel ordre mettre les mots. Mon professeur doit me corriger souvent.)

Vocabulaire:

6. **5) Je pense que mon vocabulaire est (coche à la bonne place selon l'échelle)**
   Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
Assez faible	◯	◯	◯	◯	Excellente

7. **6) Mon vocabulaire. Quand je parle français**
   Mark only one oval.

   ◯ .... j'utilise un vocabulaire correct et varié.

   ◯ ... j'utilise normalement un vocabulaire correct et varié, mais des fois j'oublie le mot que je cherche, et je dois l'expliquer avec des paraphrases.

   ◯ ... j'utilise un vocabulaire de base: je répète souvent les mots et quand je ne sais pas un mot des fois je l'invente; par exemple j'utilise ou j'adapte un mot anglais.

   ◯ ... souvent je ne trouve pas mes mots, et j'utilise beaucoup de mots anglais, ou je ne parle pas.

8. **7) Pourquoi as tu fais les choix que tu as faits dans les questions ci-haut? (Peut-être tu peux donner des exemples)**

9. **8) Choisis l'énoncé qui convient le mieux:**
   Mark only one oval.

   ◯ Bien parler, sans faire trop de fautes est très important pour moi. Je veux beaucoup m'améliorer.
   ◯ Bien parler, sans faire trop de fautes, est un peu important pour moi. J'aimerais m'améliorer.
   ◯ Bien parler n'est pas très important si les gens peuvent me comprendre assez bien.
   ◯ Bien parler n'est pas important si les gens peuvent me comprendre assez bien.

10. **9) Choisis l'énoncé qui convient le mieux: Quand j'écoute mes amis de classe je...**
    Mark only one oval.

    ◯ ...ne fais jamais attention à la qualité de leur français.
    ◯ ... ne fais pas normalement attention à la qualité de leur français si je comprends assez bien ce qu'ils disent.
    ◯ ... remarque des fois s'ils parlent sans faire beaucoup de fautes ou je remarque les fautes qu'ils font.
    ◯ ... remarque souvent s'ils parlent sans faire beaucoup de fautes ou je remarque beaucoup de leurs fautes.

11. **10) Quelles techniques de correction est-ce que tu trouves les plus efficaces pour t'aider à améliorer ton français oral?**

12. **11) Qu'est-ce que tu fais pour améliorer ton français oral?**

13. **12) Jusqu'à quel point es-tu d'accord avec cet énoncé: J'aime quand le professeur corrige mes fautes en français.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
Pas du tout	◯	◯	◯	◯	Beaucoup

14. **13) Jusqu'à quel point es-tu d'accord avec cet énoncé: J'aime quand les autres élèves de la classe corrigent mes fautes en français.**
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	
Pas du tout	◯	◯	◯	◯	Beaucoup

15. **14) Comment tu te sens quand les amis de la classe te corrigent?**
Mark only one oval.

- ◯ J'aime beaucoup l'aide.
- ◯ Je me sens gêné(e) d'avoir fait une faute.
- ◯ Je ne remarque pas
- ◯ Je me fâche.
- ◯ Je n'ai aucune réaction
- ◯ Je préfère ne pas répondre
- ◯ Other: _____

16. **15) SVP élabore un peu ta réponse à la question précédente.**

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

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APPENDIX 3a: Ethics Approval Letters

File Number: 05-17-12 **Date (mm/dd/yyyy):** 03/27/2018

Université d'Ottawa University of Ottawa
Bureau d'éthique et d'intégrité de la recherche Office of Research Ethics and Integrity

Ethics Approval Notice

Social Sciences and Humanities REB

Principal Investigator / Supervisor / Co-investigator(s) / Student(s)

First Name	Last Name	Affiliation	Role
Beverly	Baker	Arts / Second Language Institute	Supervisor
Danielle	Takoff	Arts / Second Language Institute	Student Researcher

File Number: 05-17-12

Type of Project: Master's Thesis

Title: An investigation into how language learners can work together in order to increase language accuracy

Approval Date (mm/dd/yyyy)	Expiry Date (mm/dd/yyyy)	Approval Type
01/18/2018	01/17/2019	Approval

Special Conditions / Comments:
N/A

550, rue Cumberland, pièce 154 550 Cumberland Street, room 154
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APPENDIX 3b: Ethics Approval letters

OTTAWA CATHOLIC SCHOOL BOARD

OTTAWA-CARLETON DISTRICT SCHOOL BOARD

Ottawa-Carleton Research and Evaluation Advisory Committee (OCREAC)

January 18, 2018

Danielle Takoff
[redacted]

Re: An investigation into how language learners can work together in order to increase language accuracy

Dear Ms. Takoff,

The Ottawa-Carleton Research and Evaluation Advisory Committee (OCREAC) has reviewed the revisions made to your research application and is granting you **approval** to conduct research in the [redacted] However, the final approval to participate in the study must come from the school principal. You are reminded to submit a 1 page summary of your final report at the end of your research study.

The committee requests that at all times in which you are conducting your research to always have a copy of this letter of approval in your possession and show it to the school staff.

Should you have any questions regarding this letter, please contact me directly. On behalf of the [redacted] thank you for approaching the [redacted] boards as venues for your study and we wish you success in your research study.

Sincerely,

[redacted]
Research Officer, Quality Assurance
[redacted]

On behalf of the Ottawa-Carleton Research and Evaluation Advisory Committee

APPENDIX 4: Student reference sheet, *expressions avec avoir*

EXPRESSIONS IDIOMATIQUES AVEC AVOIR - il faut conjuguer le verbe avoir avec ton sujet!

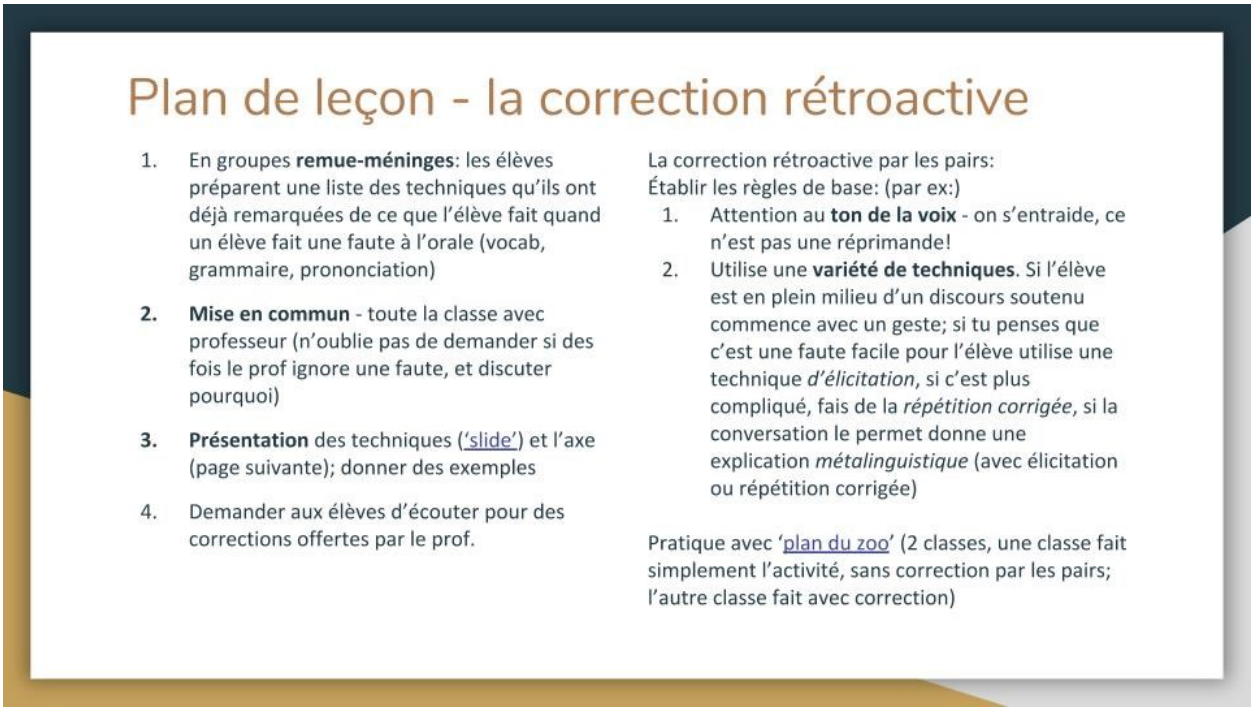
avoir _____ ans	avoir fini	avoir besoin de	avoir chaud	avoir de la chance
avoir envie de	avoir faim	avoir soif	avoir honte	avoir froid

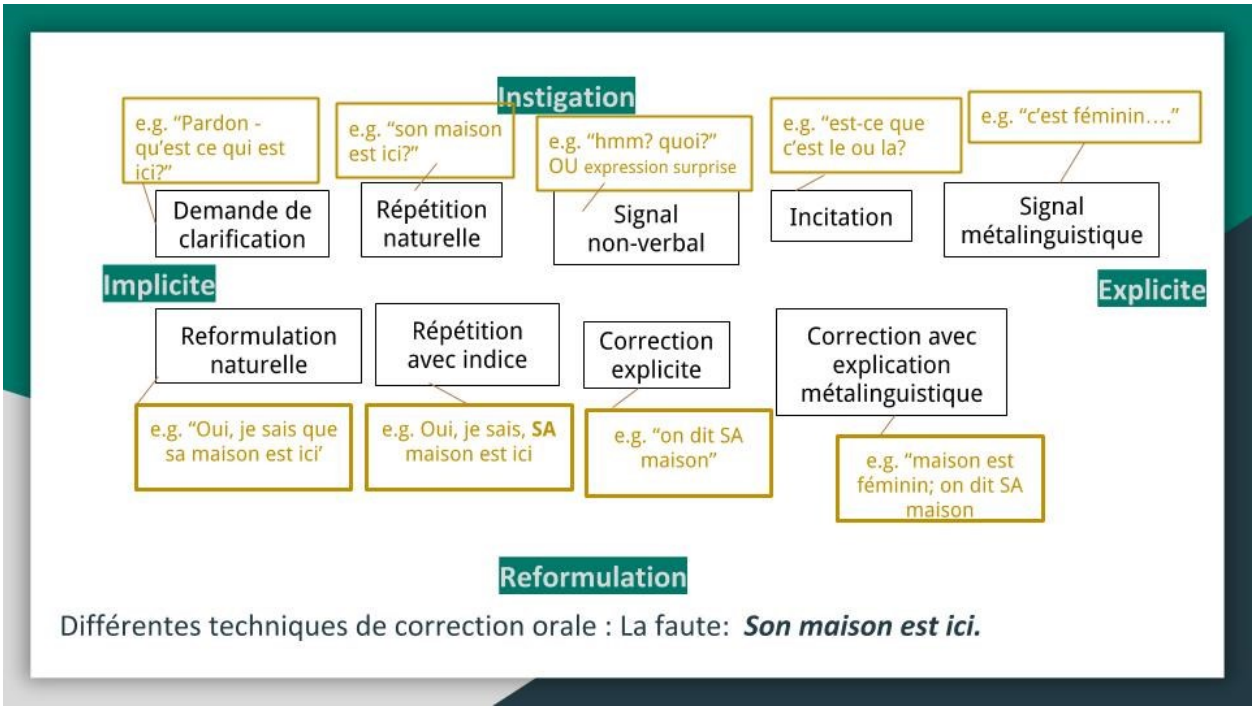
HELPING EACH OTHER ALONG

(IL Y A ….)

avoir l'air (+ adjectif)	avoir l'air de (+ nom)	avoir l'intention de	avoir mal à la tête (à l'estomac…)	avoir sommeil
avoir mal au cœur	avoir peur de	avoir raison	avoir tort	n'avoir qu'à

APPENDIX 5: Lesson Plan, Oral Corrective Feedback





APPENDIX 6: Student Presentation, Oral Corrective Feedback

Rétroaction corrective orale

Cheat sheet (antisèche)

Types de correction à l'oral:

SUSCITATION

Quand on encourage l'autre de se corriger avec un indice

METALINGUISTIC CUES (Qs)

(Signal métalinguistique)

Si on leur donne un indice grammatical

DEMANDE DE CLARIFICATION

Quand on dit que ce n'est pas clair et la personne doit se corriger.

CORRECTION (Recast) 'AVEC RÉTROACTION EXPLICITE

On corrige ET explique pourquoi

EXAGÉRATION DE LA FAUTE

(pour susciter le bon usage)

Est-ce qu'on peut corriger ses amis?

Quand?

- Quand il ou elle fait une faute évidente
- Quand il ou elle parle en petit groupe
- Quand la faute rend la compréhension difficile
- On peut attendre qu'il ou elle fini sa phrase ou son discours

Le 'comment' peut être différent selon le 'quand'; par ex - si la personne fait un discours formel on peut faire un geste, ou attendre la fin.

Comment? *Dépend un peu sur le contexte:*

- On peut répéter avec la correction
- On peut répéter tel-quel avec une question?
- On peut dire 'je pense qu'on dit ....'
- On peut faire un signal gestuel (avec le doigt levé, par exemple)

Est-ce qu'on peut corriger ses amis?

Ce qu'on doit **ÉVITER.**

Le jugement (on reconnaît que nous sommes tous des apprenants qui peuvent faire différentes fautes selon notre niveau).

L'embarras on choisit notre méthode de correction pour être le moins gênant possible

Qu'est ce que je fais quand on me corrige?

- Tu peux répéter la correction
- Tu peux hocher la tête
- Tu peux discuter - demande une explication ou dire que tu n'es pas d'accord
- Tu peux ignorer!

Qu'est ce que je fais quand mon partenaire dit 'comment dit on' ou hésite?

- J'essaie de répondre
- J'essaie de donner le mot

APPENDIX 7: Group Activity, Renovation at the Zoo

RÉNOVATION AU ZOO

Où placer les animaux?

Votre groupe doit évaluer la situation, et, en considérant les contraintes données, proposer un nouvel emplacement des animaux.

Quel groupe peut proposer l'emplacement le plus convaincant pour le "juge?"

Quel groupe peut incorporer tous les membres le mieux?

CE QU'ON DOIT GARDER EN TÊTE...

- la girafe va bientôt accoucher
- un des lions est décédé
- les petits enfants sont mal-à-l'aise de voir les crocodiles en face en arrivant au zoo
- le zoo a récemment reçu en cadeau un nouveau (2e) panda
- les singes sont très bruyants et dérangent les autres animaux
- le chameau pu un peu!
- tous les enclos doivent être remplis
- les animaux plus dociles (ex. herbivores…) ne devraient pas être à côté des prédateurs
- le zoo doit décider d'acheter soit:
  - deux loups
  - quatre flamants roses
  - une pair de chevreuils

PHRASES À INCLURE (AVEC ERREUR)

DONNER CETTE PAGE À UN ÉLÈVE PAR GROUPE SEULEMENT DANS UNE CLASSE POUR INSTIGUER LA CORRECTION PAR LES PAIRS

- Les enfants sont peurs des crocodiles.
- La girafe besoin d'être un peu seule
- Quand le loup est faim il veut manger un zèbre!
- Je pense que le nouveau est jeune, peut être il est 1 an?!
- Si les singes sont à côté du chameau le sing va mal de tête à cause de l'odeur, et le chameau mal de tête à cause du bruit!