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Selected Aspects of the English L2 of Grade 5 Learners in an Intensive Program

Leslie Paris

A Thesis

in

The TESL Centre

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Arts at
Concordia University
Montréal, Québec, Canada

March 1987

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ABSTRACT

Selected Aspects of the English L2 of Grade 5 Learners in an Intensive Program

Leslie Paris

The outcome of a "communicative" five-month intensive English as a second language (ESL) program in grade 5 in a French-speaking school was investigated in terms of several features of speech: accuracy, fluency, diversity, and rate. Overall proficiency and attitudes and expectations were also examined. For most features, comparisons were made with subjects comparable in native language, SES, total amount of ESL instruction, and exposure to English outside the classroom. Grammatical accuracy, in terms of suppliance of selected morphemes in obligatory contexts and in inappropriate contexts, was lower for the intensive program subjects but the accuracy order was nearly the same for the two groups and different from the "natural order" proposed by Krashen (1977, 1983). Rate did not differ for the two groups although this seemed to mask a difference in ease of delivery. The intensive program subjects produced more speech and more varied speech in terms of proportions of form classes employed. These subjects also showed considerable overall proficiency as measured by a traditional (vocabulary/grammatical structure) aural/written test in spite of the overt emphasis in their instruction on fluent rather than accurate speech. When re-tested one year later, they obtained significantly higher scores in spite of having received no special follow-up instruction, leading to the speculation that the intensive program had sufficiently equipped them

to take advantage of opportunities outside the classroom to develop their ESL proficiency. Finally, these subjects were found to have higher confidence in their present and future ability to speak English.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Like any work of its kind, this study is very much the result of a collaborative endeavor. It has benefitted from the input of several people, who have made unique intellectual and personal contributions and whose contributions warrant special acknowledgement.

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I wish to offer special thanks to my readers, Palmer Acheson and John Upshur, who contributed their time and expertise and certainly helped make this a better piece of work. In particular, thanks to Palmer for directing my reading, an activity which helped me define a framework in which to work and thanks to Jack for his help in refining the statistical procedures and analyses employed. I knew I was in good hands all along, but this was certainly confirmed when I handed each of them a completed draft and both said they looked forward to reading it - and meant it.

Iolanda Bolduc made a special contribution to this thesis. A teacher of rare gifts, she opened her classroom to me and even seemed to welcome the intrusion, in spite of the considerable inconvenience it often caused her. She is the kind of teacher that every parent dreams of for his or her child and that every child deserves - but that only a few are fortunate to have.

Thanks to Claude Hamel, who helped collect the oral data and performed the mundane but necessary task of verifying the transcripts of learner speech. Thanks also to the many friends and colleagues at the TESL Centre who kept tabs on my progress out of genuine concern and interest.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

When Quebec francophones who speak English fluently are asked where they acquired this ability, their answers rarely seem to include the second language instruction they received in school. Not uncommon responses are "with English friends," "on the street," "in Ontario" (or in other English speaking parts of Canada), "visiting relatives in the States," and "at an English university." For those francophone students in the public schools whose only, or virtually only, contact with English is in the English as a second language (ESL) classroom, there has been little occasion to inquire about their fluency. In spite of six or seven years of ESL instruction, many students show evidence of minimal proficiency in oral communication as well as in the more academic aspects of English grammatical structure and writing (Lightbown, 1983a, 1983b; Lightbown & Barkman, 1978; Lightbown & Malcolm, 1980; Lightbown & Spada, 1978; Lightbown, Spada, & Wallace, 1978).

However, recent developments in the province give students, teachers, and parents reason to anticipate change for the better. The Ministry of Education has begun to implement a new ESL curriculum in the elementary and secondary schools. One of its stated aims is to help students develop communicative competence, the ability to communicate and receive information in a natural interactive context (Gouvernement du Québec,

Ministère de l'Education, 1981, 1983). Another promising innovation is the establishment of a handful of ESL intensive programs, or bains linguistiques, by individual school boards which recognize that the very limited time normally allotted to ESL instruction is a major hindrance to achieving oral proficiency. In addition to offering the subjects required by the Ministry, these experimental programs have allotted a greatly increased number of hours to ESL instruction during the school year.

There has been, however, no formal evaluation of these programs to date[1] although informal preliminary reports have been optimistic.[2] Evaluation materials for the new ESL curriculum are not yet available from the Ministry, and even if they were, they would be of little or no relevance to these intensive programs, where students may receive approximately ten times as much ESL instruction (or more) than students in the regular non-intensive programs. The need for systematic evaluation is felt by teachers, specialists, and administrators in particular, who, having made tentative claims about the success of their programs, need to be able to substantiate

1. An exception to this is the evaluation of the "programme intensif d'anglais" (PIA) offered as an option by the Commission Scolaire Baldwin-Cartier in grades 6 and 7. The program evaluation found that the PIA had very positive effects on the English L2 of the students, on their French (native language) performance in the school setting, and on their scholastic performance in the school setting (Leblanc, Duplantie, & Monette, 1981). In order to conform to article 72 of Bill 101, the PIA was discontinued at the end of the 1983 school year because subjects other than ESL were being taught in English (Commission Scolaire Baldwin-Cartier, 1982). An optional "programme enrichi d'anglais" (PEA) was introduced in September, 1983 in grades 5, 6 and 7. This program was strictly limited to teaching ESL in English. Another exception is the internal evaluation of an ongoing intensive ESL program offered by the Commission Scolaire des Mille-Iles (Billy, 1980).

2. A pilot study was undertaken in 1985-86 by Lightbown & Paris (1986a, 1986b) in preparation for a longer term study, which is currently underway.

those claims. Also, given the increasing interest in alternatives to the regular ESL programs, the findings of such evaluations would be of interest to ESL professionals and parents elsewhere in the province.

The Present Study

A necessary first step in evaluating the results of innovative programs such as those referred to above is to describe the second language (L2) proficiency of the student learners. It is the purpose of this study to describe the results of a particular intensive ESL program implemented during the academic year 1984-1985 in a community just outside of Montreal. The study is not intended to formally evaluate the program, rather to indicate what can be accomplished in five months of intensive ESL instruction in terms of some important features of speech. The program is truly intensive; the students spend the entire school day with the ESL teacher for half of the school year, receiving French language instruction only for music, religion, and physical education. For the first two weeks, the language of instruction is frequently French - although it is used only when deemed necessary, and instructional materials are in English. Thereafter, instruction is in English with French available for those who require translation from time to time. If a student cannot express himself in English, French is tolerated; he is answered in English, however. There is a transition to English only as the language of instruction by the third month of the program, when the teacher claims to no longer understand French. The program is also communicative in design, providing rich, natural language input to the students, focusing on the transmission of information rather than on linguistic forms. Informal classroom observation

confirms that the program is in fact being implemented in a manner consistent with its aims.

This study addresses three characteristics of the English speech of children enrolled in this intensive program: accuracy in speech, fluency, and overall proficiency as measured by a group test (including listening comprehension and reading). In addition, learners' attitudes toward English, as well as the amount and kind of contact with English they have outside the classroom, are surveyed.

The issue of accuracy is investigated chiefly in terms of the acquisition of selected English grammatical morphemes, markers that modulate meanings. Although these markers are not frequently the focus of instruction and their misuse is rarely, if ever, overtly corrected, they nonetheless must be acquired by the learners because they are an integral part of the English language and, as such, are present in the language input to them. They must also be acquired by the learners in order to make their meanings precise and to conform to the standard of native-like speech.

The acquisition of English morphemes has been studied both for first language (L1) acquisition of English (Brown, 1973; deVilliers and deVilliers, 1973), where evidence for a uniform order of acquisition has been found, and for second language acquisition of English. Here the research findings are inconclusive. Although there is evidence for a uniform order of acquisition (Bailey, Madden, & Krashen, 1974; Dulay & Burt, 1974; Krashen, 1977; Larsen-Freeman, 1975), which is different from that of English L1 learners (indeed, this is asserted to be a "natural order" (Krashen, 1977) for all learners of ESL regardless of their native languages), a study of

francophone students in Quebec schools (Lightbown, 1983a; Lightbown & Malcolm, 1980) does not confirm this "natural order." However, this study cannot be said to disconfirm the "natural order" hypothesis because of differences in elicitation procedures and in the types of ESL instruction subjects received.

For the investigation of grammatical accuracy in the present study, a partial replication of the Lightbown & Malcolm (1980) study is undertaken; six grammatical morphemes are analyzed in speech samples elicited in an analogous manner. Results for both accuracy in obligatory contexts and overuse patterns are compared for two groups: the students in the intensive program, where there is little overt focus on these grammatical morphemes, and students in a program based on the previous Quebec Ministry of Education curriculum, where the focus of instruction was on precisely these grammatical forms, among others. The "natural order" hypothesis is then considered in terms of these findings.

In addition to describing how well these learners speak in terms of accuracy of morpheme use, this study describes how well they speak in terms of fluency (amount and diversity of language) and rate of delivery. Again, a comparison is made with subjects from the Lightbown and Malcolm (1980) study, using the same speech samples referred to in the paragraph above.

A third focus of this study of ESL proficiency of students in an intensive program is how they perform on a "standard" evaluation, that is, a test representative of the kind traditionally used to evaluate proficiency in terms of knowledge of vocabulary, numbers, and grammatical structures, listening comprehension, and reading comprehension. A Montreal island

school board has made such a test available along with results for students tested within that school board. This test allows one to inquire how well students acquire structural knowledge in a program that focuses on the acquisition of communication skills.

The final area of investigation is in the domain of attitudes and motivation. An expectation that one might have of an intensive communicative program is that it results in a positive attitude toward learning and use of the L2 and increased use of the L2 outside the classroom. In order to investigate student attitudes and use, the students in the intensive program were asked to complete a questionnaire including items about amount of language contact prior to enrollment in the intensive course, use of the L2 outside the classroom, attitudes toward their proficiency in the L2, and expectations about L2 use.

Communicative Second Language Instruction

One of the salient characteristics of the innovative, intensive ESL program described in this study is the communicative nature of the syllabus which it follows. This is similar to, albeit expanded and enriched, the syllabus inventory which the Quebec Ministry of Education has recently implemented in elementary and secondary schools across the province although it was developed before the Ministry wrote its new program and was adapted, where necessary, to conform to that program. Concerned about the unsatisfactory communication abilities of francophone students using English outside the classroom, the Ministry undertook a review of ESL instruction in Quebec and, based on subsequent study, developed a new ESL program (Gouvernement du Québec, Ministère de l'Education, 1981, 1983).

The previous program had been based on the behaviorist model of language learning, which was realized in a structure- or form-focused approach to teaching and utilized the intensive drill and pattern-practice techniques characteristic of audio-lingual methodology.

The new program, in contrast, places emphasis on the transmission and reception of messages rather than on their forms and is based on the assumption that it is through language use that language is acquired. Language is viewed as a tool for communicating, a means rather than an end in itself. Drawing on research in L1 and L2 acquisition, the new program recognizes five principles, all of which have implications for language teaching methodology: 1) the importance of providing a rich linguistic environment in the classroom, one which exposes the learners to a diversity of lexical items, syntactic forms, and language styles; 2) the importance of providing for real, authentic communication, utilizing language like that used in everyday situations outside the classroom; 3) the priority of the message over its form, utilizing para- and extra-linguistic elements to help convey and receive messages; 4) the importance of tolerating errors of pronunciation and syntax when they do not hinder communication, and 5) the importance of providing access to listening, reading, and writing skills as well as speaking skills and of integrating the four skills in communication situations (Gouvernement du Québec, Ministère de l'Education, 1981, p. 18).

Recognizing that the time available for ESL instruction in school settings is limited,[3] the program nonetheless sets as its ultimate goals the achievement of a basic level of familiarity with English and basic skills so that learners can communicate their experiences in situations commensurate with their needs and interests. A concomitant goal is the achievement of learners' awareness of their connection to a social community which includes English speakers, and a positive attitude toward English and those who speak it. How well are learners expected to be able to communicate? Given the time (and other) constraints inherent in the school setting, learners are expected, upon completing secondary school, to be able to use English "de se tirer d'affaires," to manage, to shift for themselves, but not to be bilingual (Gouvernement du Québec, Ministère de l'Education, 1983, p. 18).

These goals and principles are based on ideas which can be collectively referred to as "communicative" language teaching (see Brumfit & Johnson, 1979; Littlewood, 1981; Widdowson, 1978). In Quebec, these goals and principles have been incorporated into a "functional" approach to ESL instruction, derived from the functional approaches developed chiefly in Britain and Europe (see Halliday, 1973; Johnson, 1982; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Wilkins, 1976), and the instructional program that has been developed to realize this approach is derived from the European "notional/functional" syllabuses. The principal elements of the program are functions, which

3. The Quebec Ministry of Education recommends that two hours per week be allotted for ESL instruction, but an informal survey of 67/124 school boards conducted by the Ministry in November, 1986 found that only 16.41% of school boards offer as many as two hours per week. The remainder offer from 40 minutes to two hours per week. A formal survey is underway (J. Jones, personal communication, February, 1987).

communicate the intentions of the speaker. These functions, for example "inviting" or "warning," can be expressed by a variety of linguistic realizations, which are specified in the program. The other important elements of the program are notions, which are the ideas and concepts underlying particular functions. A general notion underlying both "inviting" and "warning" is "future reference." This general notion incorporates specific notions having to do with time and place, for example (Gouvernement du Québec, Ministère de l'Education, 1981, pp. 87-89).

It is the intention of the new Quebec program, through communicative language teaching, to provide learners with basic English proficiency on which they can build according to their needs. Unlike traditional structure-based programs, which were based on the accurate use of the target language strictly controlled by the teacher, communicative programs are based on the fluent use of English and view students as having primary responsibilty for their own learning. According to Brumfit (1979), using fluency rather than accuracy as the basis for syllabus construction will "restore a genuine education perspective" to second language instruction in that it will allow learners to use the target language in "non-predictable" ways for their own cognitive, personal and social growth and not "in isolation from the cognitive and cultural processes in which it is embedded" (pp. 189-190).

Communicative language teaching, in name at least, has become the dominant approach to second language instruction in Europe and North America. An interesting variation, also born out of dissatisfaction with structure-based ESL teaching, is currently being implemented in India (Prabhu, 1982). The creators of this program, known informally as the

Bangalore Project, identified the major problem with traditional ESL instruction as its method rather than its content and rejected the notional/-functional syllabus as one which merely substituted control of the semantic system for control of the grammatical system. The problem with the (audio-lingual) method was that it did not take into account the generative nature of grammatical structure and the fact that grammatical structure might be acquired through communicative activity (Beretta, in press). "Grammar construction by the learner is an unconscious process which is best facilitated by bringing about in the learner a preoccupation with meaning, saying, or doing" (Prabhu, 1982, p. 2).

The approach is termed "communicational" rather than "communicative." It holds that form is best learned when the learner's attention is on meaning and so uses a ("procedural") syllabus which is comprised solely of problem-solving tasks and which specifies no linguistic forms or lexical items. Language control is provided by the teachers, who modify input to the learners according to the tasks at hand and on the basis of intuitive "rough tuning." Early evaluation of the project indicates that students in the communicational classes perform equally well or better than their peers in traditional (structure-based) classes on neutral measures of language <u>proficiency</u> and that each group performs better on measures of <u>achievement</u> designed especially for it (Beretta & Davies, 1985). (It should be noted that the students in the communicational classes had had prior structured instruction.) Specifically, on proficiency tests measuring peformance on contextualized grammar, dictation, and listening and reading comprehension tasks, nearly half of the communicational classes (seven out of twelve) performed better than the regular classes while the remaining classes performed equally well. On <u>achievement</u> tests measuring either

performance on communication tasks or on structural knowledge tasks, the communicational classes performed better on the communication skills tests, and the regular classes performed better on the structural knowledge tests.

The expectation for communicative or communicational language teaching is that by supplying the learner with rich, natural L2 input and by tolerating errors of form - and thus contributing to learner confidence and fostering a positive attitude toward learning the L2 - the L2 teacher can recreate in the classroom some of the important features thought to be operative in L1 acquisition and in informal L2 acquisition. Studies of learners who have acquired the L2 informally or who have had appreciable contact with the L2 outside the classroom have found that these learners demonstrate error patterns different from those of formally instructed learners (Pica, 1983), patterns that are more consistent with L1 acquirers (Spada, 1979), and that they rely less on intervention from native speaker interlocutors (Spada, 1979). In Thailand, Upshur & Palmer (1973) found that adult speakers who had acquired ESL "incidentally" were perceived by native speaker raters as having better grammar and pronunciation, and as being more fluent, more confident, more highly educated, and from families of higher social status than a comparable group of formally instructed ESL speakers even though the latter group were found to score higher on grammar tests, equally well on measures of pronunciation, and were, in fact, considerably better educated and from families of higher social status.

While it is commonly accepted that the nature (formality/informality) of the L2 learning environment accounts for some of the variation in learners' speech, a recent and widely discussed theory of L2 acquisition posits a mechanism for explaining this variation. The Monitor

Model (Krashen, 1976, 1977, 1981; Krashen & Terrell, 1983) is based on the claim that the internalization of the grammatical structure of second languages takes place via two independent processes, acquisition and learning. Acquisition is an unconscious process, similar to that by which first languages are acquired by children, whereas learning is a conscious process. Acquisition takes place in situations where the focus is on meaning, not on language per se, and learning takes place when the focus is on grammatical form, as it often is in the traditional L2 classroom. Acquisition, then, is knowing the language; learning is knowing about the language.

The acquired system is said to be the source for all spontaneous linguistic production. The function of the learned system is limited to "monitoring" linguistic production in situations which require attention to correctness of form rather than to meaning, such as during a discrete-point grammar test or during pattern practice and drill. Krashen claims that it is the acquired system, the basis for spontaneous, unmonitored speech, which produces consistency across learners acquiring the same L2 and that some variation across learners can be explained by "the intrusion of conscious grammar in situations where students are deliberately focused on correctness" (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 31).

Support for this claim comes from a number of studies of the acquisition of grammatical morphemes by language learners. Brown (1973), in a longitudinal study of children acquiring English L1, found that there was a very high degree of correlation in the orders in which certain grammatical morphemes were acquired by his subjects. A subsequent cross-sectional study (de Villiers & de Villiers, 1973) found an accuracy order

consistent with Brown's acquisition order. Several studies of learners acquiring English as a second language have reported finding a morpheme accuracy (or difficulty) order which differs in some respects from the English L1 order but which is consistent across subjects regardless of L1 or age (Bailey, Madden, & Krashen, 1974; Dulay & Burt, 1974; Larsen-Freeman, 1976). Krashen (1977) has averaged the orders found in these studies and claimed that that exists a "natural order" of morpheme acquisition for all L2 learners of English and that this order appears under conditions in which the acquired system, not the learned system, is operating.

Other studies, however, have found variation in this "natural order" (Hakuta, 1974: Rosansky, 1975). Krashen (1977) claims that variation is due to the nature of the elicitation tasks used. Tasks which tap the acquired system yield the "natural order" whereas tasks which tap the learned system yield an "unnatural order." However, others (Larsen-Freeman, 1975; Porter, 1977) have suggested that the "natural order" itself is due in part to bias introduced by the Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM) (Burt, Dulay, & Hernandez, 1973), the elicitation instrument used in the studies cited by Krashen (1977). Other researchers (Rosansky, 1975) have questioned the statistical procedures used for analysis in these studies. The usefulness of the methodology employed in these studies has also been questioned as one limited to calculating accuracy in obligatory contexts, a methodology which only partially investigates accuracy because it does not take into account morpheme suppliance in inappropriate contexts (morpheme overuse) and therefore misrepresents learner competence (Andersen, 1977; Hatch, 1978).

A further question regarding the claim for a "natural order" of English L2 morpheme acquisition is centered on the equation of accuracy order with

acquisition order, that is, with making a claim for a longitudinal process based on cross-sectional findings (Hakuta, 1974; Larsen-Freeman, 1975; Rosansky, 1976). In a large scale study of English L2 acquisition by French-speaking school children in Quebec, a study which incorporated both longitudinal and cross-sectional methods and which investigated, among other things, morpheme use in obligatory contexts as well as morpheme overuse, Lightbown (1983a, 1983b) found that morpheme acquisition was by no means linear for her subjects. A form which appeared to be used with relative accuracy one year could be frequently omitted the next or used with a much lower degree of accuracy. For certain morphemes, accuracy fluctuated over several years, sometimes reattaining levels similar to those found for the first year after five or six years of ESL instruction. For other morphemes, there was little or virtually no change in accuracy over time.

A second important finding was that even when analyzed cross-sectionally, the accuracy order for these subjects did not confirm the "natural order." The elicitation task used was an interactive task which focused on communication of information, not correctness of grammatical form, and so could be said to tap the acquired system. Unlike the BSM, this task required very few linguistic cues from the interviewer and so minimized the introduction of bias. An apparent explanation for the acquisition order implicated the L1 of the subjects, who were native French speakers whereas the subjects in the studies cited by Krashen (1977) were speakers of Spanish, Chinese, and many other languages (although not French). However, Lightbown was unable to make the case that the L1 of the learners accounted for the difference in order, and so disconfirm the "natural order," because of a confounding fact. The type of ESL instruction

that her subjects had received was very different from that of the subjects in previous studies, who although they were receiving ESL instruction, were also exposed to informal input in English because they were residents of the United States. Lightbown's subjects had virtually no contact with English outside the ESL classroom, and furthermore, the type of instruction they had undergone had exposed them to a "distorted version of the English language" (1983a, p. 116). In their ESL classrooms, contrastive use of grammatical forms was absent, so that the functions associated with various forms could not easily be differentiated. Furthermore, they were required to practice and repeat utterances of grammatical complexity far beyond their spontaneous production ability.

One of the purposes of the present study is to address the "natural order" hypothesis by partially replicating Lightbown's work. Because the intensive program subjects in this study have been exposed to English L2 in a communicative classroom setting that provided them with a rich, natural language model and considerable opportunity to take risks in attempting to express themselves in English, they can be compared and contrasted with subjects in previous studies in terms of language learning experience and with Lightbown's subjects in terms of native language and type of instruction.

Intensive Second Language Instruction

The innovative program described in this study offers students English L2 instruction that, in addition to being communicative and fluency-based, is truly intensive. With the exception of a few hours per week set aside for French-language instruction in religion, music, and physical education,

these students spend the entire school day in English, five days a week, for five months of the school year. Although intensive ESL instruction is an innovation in the French-language public schools in Quebec,[4] intensive language teaching has been employed in various places and times in the history of second/foreign language instruction in programs based on diverse approaches and employing a wide variety of teaching methods.

As Hawkins (Hawkins & Perren, 1978) notes, "'Intensive' or 'immersion' methods are no new invention. Mackey (1965) has pointed out that in Roman times, immersion was the rule, when the prestigious foreign language, Greek, was learnt in the home by well-born Roman children in dialogue with an educated Greek (slave) tutor" (p. 10). Although there are other instances of intensive foreign language teaching in ancient and pre-modern times, it was not until the decade of World War II that specialized intensive language courses had a widespread impact on foreign/second language teaching, particularly in the United States (Frink, 1967).

During the early 1940's, due to military and diplomatic exigencies rather than to pedagogic considerations, large-scale intensive language training programs were established in the United States. Among these, the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) was established in 1943 in order to equip large numbers of soldiers to communicate directly with native speakers in the colloquial spoken form of various languages in as short a time as possible (Angiolillo, 1947; Lind, 1948). Prominent linguists

4. An exception to this is the Commission Scolaire des Mille-Iles, located just outside of the Montreal metropolitan area, which began offering a "bain linguistique" program in ESL several of its schools in 1976 (Billy, 1980; Billy, Lemieux-Nieger, & Labelle, 1976). Another intensive program (referred to in footnote 1), has been discontinued.

(Bloomfield, in particular) were called upon to design the program, and as a result, many of the principles and descriptive techniques they had developed for the study of languages were applied to the ASTP, which came to represent an outlook on language teaching that was profoundly different from that held by most American schools (Moulton, 1963). Chief among these principles were the primacy of speech over writing, the importance of teaching the language rather than teaching about the language, the importance of using native speaker informants as the source of information about a language, the belief that language is a set of habits, and the idea that languages are, in significant ways, different from each other. This last idea pointed to the limited usefulness of traditional Latin and Greek grammatical paradigms for analyzing language structures as well as to the limits inherent in translating from many languages, particularly non-European languages, into English.

These principles and the teaching materials and techniques that were developed to realize them actually had been implemented for several years prior to World War II in the experimental programs of the Intensive Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies (ACLS). These experimental programs used intensive methods and focused on the acquisition of oral skills. Both these programs and the ASTP which emerged from them required that serious consideration be given to the amount of time required to learn a foreign language. Prior to World War II, language courses were considered like any other courses and offered in 40 to 50 minute periods three to five times a week in most schools and universitites. In contrast, the ACLS usually ran two or three six-week sessions in which students had as many as 15 hours of classroom instruction, 15 hours of drill with a native speaker, and 20 to 30 hours of individual

preparation per week. Despite considerable diversity across courses, the ASTP classes generally met for three 12-week terms, with one week between terms, for the basic phase and then four terms for the advanced phase, upon completion of which most students were expected to achieve the required level of competence (Darian, 1972).

These programs were generally considered to be highly successful (although not entirely uncontroversial), and consequently, they had a profound influence on post-war language instruction in the United States and elsewhere. They demonstrated the effectiveness of emphasizing the acquisition of speaking skills as well as the advantage of teaching languages intensively, and their principles and methods of instruction (particularly the audio-lingual method) were widely adopted by schools and universities. Although it was difficult to incorporate the intensive instruction component into standard school and university teaching timetables, intensive language training was adopted by business and government. Stern (1985) notes that the Canadian public service allows employees a maximum of 1,560 hours of L2 training and an additional 780 hours, if a higher level of proficiency is required for a particular job. In recognition of the unrealistically small amount of time allotted to foreign language teaching in American public schools, the foreign languages in the elementary school (FLES) movement was begun in the 1950's. However, although it had been demonstrated by the ACLS and ASTP programs that language learning required considerably more time than had previously been recognized, much post-war language training did not distinguish between the effect of <u>total</u> amount of time devoted to language training and <u>distribution</u> of that time.

Only recently have these two aspects of the time factor been studied as separate but interdependent variables affecting the outcome of L2 instruction. Carroll (1967) found a positive correlation between total amount of time given to foreign language instruction and proficiency level achieved. Stern et al. (1976) report similar findings for the Canadian Ottawa French Project, in which the time allotted for French second language study in "core," "extended," and "immersion" programs ranged from 20 to 300 minutes per school day. A study confirming these findings at the university level was conducted in the United States. Benseler & Schulz (1979) examined variations in distribution of time in language courses and found that small daily amounts of time over a long period of instruction were less effective than large daily amounts over more compact periods of instruction. Support for the superior effectiveness of intensive language teaching in a variety of British foreign language courses, ranging from "sections bilingues" in schools to one or two-day intensive courses at "external centres," is reported by Hawkins & Perren (1978).

In Quebec, intensive L2 instruction has been limited in the public schools, for the most part, to teaching French in immersion programs in English-language schools (Genesee, 1978; Lambert & Tucker, 1972). In these programs, all instruction is offered in French beginning in kindergarten (or grade 1); English language arts instruction is introduced in grades 2 or 3. In a study of early French immersion in the English language schools in Montreal, Genesee (1978) reports findings consistent with those for other early immersion programs. Immersion students demonstrate considerable competence in French language skills by the end of elementary school (grade 6) although regarding speaking skills they do not rate as high on most dimensions tested (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary,

communicativeness) as native speaker French controls. (They do rate significantly higher than native English speakers in regular French L2 programs.) There is no evidence that the acquisition of interpersonal communication skills in French varies with IQ while there is evidence that the acquisition of literacy and academic linguistic skills does. This is, again, a finding consistent with those for other early immersion programs (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). There is a lag in English language skills followed by a quick recovery of these skills one year after the introduction of English language arts (although difficulty in learning English spelling patterns is somewhat "protracted"). Finally, there is no evidence that academic achievement is impaired by the immersion experience; that is, below-average IQ immersion students perform at the same level as below-average IQ students in the regular (non-immersion) program.

In Quebec, French is the majority (and sole official) language, and immersion programs have been undertaken in order to equip minority (English) language students with the ability to live in the majority language, in other words, to make them functionally bilingual. In Europe, where foreign rather than second language learning is the concern of most students, a different approach to intensifying language instruction has been taken in the form of "compact" language courses (Hawkins & Perren, 1978). These courses are designed to meet the time constraints imposed by the regular school schedule. Because the total time allowed for foreign language teaching is reduced, the distribution of that time has been "compacted" for maximum effectiveness. Stern (1985) reports that

> Since compact courses were envisaged...within a <u>system</u> of such courses or a broader scheme of language education, it is possible to think of single compact courses as "modules" which emphasize limited

aspects of the language curriculum...and within this kind of modular program, in subsequent courses, to shift the emphasis deliberately to other aspects (p. 23).

Allotting adequate time for language instruction and/or intensifying instruction are demonstrated ways to address the failure of so many foreign and second language programs to bring their students to adequate levels of proficiency. Experience and some correlative research has allowed educators to realistically estimate the total time required for language learning, taking into account proficiency objectives, language learning aptitude, and the degree of relatedness between the target language and the native language of the learner (Cleveland, Mangone, & Adams, 1960; Omaggio, 1986). The age of the learner is another important factor that is not independent from time considerations. There is evidence that intensive instruction may be more effective for older, more experienced, more advanced learners (Hawkins, 1981; Swain, 1981a, 1981b). There is also evidence that younger learners may benefit from courses that allow for more intuitive or natural ways of learning, such as interactive fluency-based courses, and that older learners may have an advantage in more academically based courses (Swain, 1981a, 1981b). Although amount and distribution of time may be important factors, even the primary factors affecting the outcome of second or foreign language instruction, other factors which interact with them must be taken into consideration when planning and evaluating language programs.

CHAPTER II

SUBJECTS AND PROCEDURES

Subjects

The subjects in this study are all 26 students enrolled in a single, intensive ESL class in grade 5 of an elementary school comprising grades 3 through 6 (and some kindergarten classes) in a Montreal South Shore community. The families of the students are generally from the working and middle classes; in many of the families both parents are employed. For 23 of the 26 subjects, French is the language spoken with their parents; the remaining three speak Spanish, Spanish and French, and English and French with their parents. Of the 24 subjects who have siblings, 22 speak French with their siblings, and the remaining two speak Spanish and French.

The intensive ESL class met for five months, from September, 1984 to February, 1985. Most of the subjects were 10 years old when they began the intensive course. They were all selected at random from approximately 150 applicants. Students who were already fluent in English or who exhibited "severe" emotional or learning disabilities were not supposed to be eligible. All students had received one hour per week of ESL instruction from grades 1 through 4 for a total of about 140 hours. This instruction was their primary exposure to English. Two of the students, however, had received other instruction in English: one had attended an English language school for three years in grades 1 through 3, and the other, at the age of three, had attended an English language pre-school for one year. With the

exception of these two, all students had received a total of approximately 540 hours of ESL instruction at the completion of the intensive course.

A comparison group of ESL learners consists of the 32 francophone subjects in grade 10 who, among others, participated in a research project which investigated the learning of ESL by students in two French language schools outside Montreal (Lightbown 1983a, 1983b; Lightbown & Barkman, 1978; Lightbown & Malcolm, 1980). These 32 subjects are from a socio-economic and linguistic milieu comparable to that of the intensive program subjects. They received two hours per week of ESL instruction in grades 5 and 6 and approximately three and one-half hours per week in grades 7 through 10. This instruction was based on the regular ESL curriculum employed throughout Quebec at that time, a structural curriculum that focused on language forms through drill and pattern practice.

Assessments of the ESL proficiency of these comparison subjects were made in grades 8, 9, and 10. For this study, analyses were performed on samples of their speech obtained in November of grade 10, when they had received approximately 540 hours of ESL instruction, a total ESL instruction time equivalent to that for the grade 5 intensive program subjects at the end of their five-month program.

Procedures

Data Collection

The Picture Card Game. Speech samples from all subjects were obtained by means of the Picture Card Game (PCG), an oral communication task designed to elicit comparable samples of spontaneous speech from learners

with fairly low levels of English proficiency (Lightbown & Barkman, 1978). It is based on the "screen tasks" used in studies of cognitive development (e.g., Glucksberg, Krauss, & Weisberg, 1966) and also in some second language tests of oral proficiency (Upshur, 1971). The PCG was administered individually to the 26 intensive program subjects approximately one to two weeks following completion of the intensive program. (Four subjects, who were absent during this time, were recorded one week later, i.e. three weeks after completing the intensive ESL program.) The PCG was administered individually to all 32 comparison subjects within a two-day period, as mentioned above, in November of grade 10.

Although the PCG was designed to create contexts appropriate for the use of some particular grammatical forms, it requires that ESL learners communicate information about a series of pictures to an interviewer. In order to "play" the PCG, a subject begins by choosing one of four picture cards presented to him face down. An interviewer explains that he has an identical set of four, arranged in front of him so that their faces cannot be seen by the subject. The subject is told that his task is to describe his picture so that the interviewer can determine which of the four he has chosen. Instructions to the subject usually consist of a brief sentence or two like, "Tell me about your picture, and I'll try to guess which one it is." The subject then describes his picture, and the interviewer is usually able to identify it. All speech is tape recorded.

The four pictures in a set are fairly similar, differing in details like the color of clothing, the number of children present, or the shape and size of a gift. Sample pictures are shown in Appendix A. The subjects, of course, are unaware of the exact amount of detail necessary to the

interviewer and so vary in the amount of detail they supply, according to how they perceive the task and how proficient they are in English. If the interviewer is unable to identify a picture, he urges the subject to tell him more, if possible. The interviewer should speak as little as possible so as not to provide the subject with input that could serve as a model for grammatical morphemes, syntactic structures, or vocabulary. Selected samples of transcribed speech elicited from both intensive program and comparison subjects are reproduced in Appendix B. After the interviewer successfully identifies a subject's picture, he offers him a new set of four, and the task continues.

This original version of the PCG was simple in design, intended for students, like the comparison subjects, who had little, if any, practice in extended speech. In fact, a subject could successfully "play" the game by merely producing a lexical list of some of the items in his picture without joining the words in syntactic structures. Because it was anticipated that the intensive program subjects would be relatively fluent speakers of English and that speech elicited by the simple, stick-figure pictures would not sufficiently represent their proficiency, two sets (of four) complex pictures, rich in narrative content and detail, were added to the eight original picture sets. This was not possible for the comparison subjects as the PCG had been administered to them several years earlier. Therefore, all comparisons made between them and the intensive program subjects were based on analyses of the eight original pictures plus the "Little Boy" pictures (described below). Speech elicited by the two sets of complex pictures was treated separately.

Both the intensive program students and the comparison students participated in an additional task, the "Little Boy" pictures, after they had completed the PCG. In administering this task, an interviewer says that he has five pictures of a little boy who does the same thing every day. As he shows a subject the first picture (of a little boy waking up), he asks, "What does he do first?" With each successive picture he asks an appropriate question like, "What does he do next?" or, "What does he do in the summer?" The subjects' responses are tape recorded.

For the comparison subjects, transcriptions of their PCG sessions were already available. Acceptable levels of reliability for these transcriptions had also already been established. For the intensive program subjects, each administration of the PCG was tape recorded and transcribed in full according to the transcription conventions established by Barkman in the Lightbown et al. project (Lightbown & Barkman, 1978). A copy of these conventions is included in Appendix C. An informal reliability check was performed by a second party on transcriptions of speech elicited by two randomly selected pictures for each subject. Reliability was found to be very high; no major discrepancies were found, and the very few minor discrepancies found were resolved upon further listening to the tapes.

ESL Placement Test. In order to determine how the intensive program students compare in ESL placement with comparable students in Quebec public schools, the Test de classement en anglais developed by the Commission Scolaire Baldwin-Cartier, a Montreal island French-language school board, was administered. In the Baldwin-Cartier schools, which have a sizeable enrollment of both bilingual and native English-speaking students, this test is administered at the end of grade 3 (in May) in order to place

students in classes appropriate to their levels of English proficiency in grade 4, their first year of ESL instruction. (Other versions of the test have been constructed for students completing grades 6 and 9.) Baldwin-Cartier is one of the very few school boards in the Montreal area that offers different proficiency levels of ESL classes at each grade, grades 4 through 11. The placement test is designed to identify three groups: native speakers of English, monolingual French speakers, and moderately fluent speakers of ESL. Because one of its purposes is to separate out native English speakers, the difficulty level of the test is very high relative to placement tests targeted for non-native speakers. The intensive program teacher was consulted in order to determine which level of the test she considered at an appropriate level of difficulty for her students. The grade 3 level test has been administered to a very large number of Baldwin-Cartier students, for whom norms have been defined. The test was administered to the intensive program subjects to determine how, after five-months of intensive ESL instruction, they would be placed in the Baldwin-Cartier schools. The same test was administered approximately one year later when the subjects were in grade 6.

The test consists of 70 pencil-and-paper items in two parts: a 35-item listening comprehension sub-test and a 35-item reading comprehension sub-test. The items test knowledge of English vocabulary and grammatical structure and the ability to answer questions of fact and inference. Forty-five minutes are allotted to complete both parts, 16 minutes for listening comprehension and 29 minutes for reading comprehension. A copy of the test, a script of the listening comprehension part, a description of the test contents, and directions for its administration and scoring can be found in Appendix D.

Language Contact and Attitude Questionnaire. In order to assess attitudes and expectations about English as well as amount and kind of contact with English outside the classroom, a 20-item questionnaire was administered to the intensive program students at the completion of their five-month ESL program. Each question required subjects to choose one of the response alternatives presented. In order to facilitate student responding, the questionnaire was written in French. A questionnaire comprising 17 of these 20 questions had already been administered to the comparison subjects. This questionnaire was also written in French. Copies of these questionnaires can be found in Appendix E.

Data Analysis

Morpheme Accuracy. An analysis of morpheme accuracy using the obligatory contexts methodology described by Brown (1973) was performed on all the speech elicited by the PCG for each of the 26 intensive program subjects. The obligatory context methodology requires that a particular grammatical morpheme(s) be present in order for an utterance to be considered grammatically well formed and contextually appropriate. A context for a particular morpheme can be created by the learner's language itself, as in the utterance "He have three ball", where the presence of the numeral creates a requirement for the plural form (which the speaker has failed to supply). An obligatory context for a morpheme can also be created by the referent for a particular utterance. For example, in the case of the PCG, a student describing a picture of two trees and two houses would be required to supply the plural form. An utterance like "There's tree and house" would be considered inaccurate for the plural form,

Finally, an obligatory context for a grammatical morpheme can be created by the form of a question to the learner. For example, for the "Little Boy" series, the question "What does he do in the winter?" creates an obligatory context for the third person singular simple present tense form "He skates." Although "He is skating" is grammatically well formed, it is considered an error in an obligatory context for the third person singular simple present since the progressive aspect is inappropriate.

Six grammatical morphemes were analyzed for accuracy in obligatory contexts:

copula is and contracted copula -'s
auxiliary is and contracted auxiliary -'s
present progressive -ing
plural -s
third person singular simple present -s
possessive -'s.

At the outset of the analysis, it became clear that not every obligatory context could be unambiguously identified, so the following set of protocols was developed to ensure that sensible and consistent criteria were applied to identifying obligatory contexts. When the full form of the copula occurred with a plural complement, as in "There is two green trees", it was not counted as an obligatory context for the copula. However, when the contracted form occurred in the same environment, as in "There's two green trees", it was counted as an obligatory context for the copula on the grounds that native speakers of English commonly use this construction.

For both the copula and the auxiliary, the frequency of occurrence for the full and the contracted forms was observed and recorded.

Lightbown and Malcolm (1980) treated as obligatory contexts for the auxiliary only those occasions when the verb marked with the progressive

form -ing was present with a third person singular subject, for example "He __ taking...." They reasoned that an utterance like "He __ take..." or "He's take..." could not be regarded as providing an obligatory context for the auxiliary form (even though the picture being described required suppliance of the present progressive structure) because they had found extensive overuse (that is, inappropriate use) of the contracted auxiliary 's, in particular with clause-initial nouns and even sometimes preceding stative verbs like want, see, and have.[5] If they accepted that the contracted BE copula created an obligatory context for the auxiliary (and, therefore, the full progressive structure), then they would have to accept ungrammatical utterances like "*He's wanting a cookie" or "*She's having long hair." Lightbown and Malcolm, however, did treat an utterance like "He __ take..." as creating an obligatory context for the progressive -ing form on the grounds that -ing appears earlier than the auxiliary in present progressive structures for both first and second language learners.

Because morpheme accuracy scores were already available for the comparison subjects from the Lightbown et al. project, the criteria described above were adopted in analyzing the auxiliary and -ing forms for the intensive program subjects in order to make comparisons possible. In addition, because very few instances of s-overuse were encountered for the intensive program subjects (and virtually none with stative verbs), a second analysis was undertaken using a different set of criteria for identifying obligatory contexts for the auxiliary and the -ing forms: an obligatory

5. Their grade 6 subjects "added 's or is (either correctly or incorrectly) to 89% of the pronouns and 78% of the singular nouns in clause-initial position" (p. 46).

context for the present progressive auxiliary form was created by suppliance of a verb with or without the -ing morpheme and/or by suppliance of the auxiliary where the situation created by the picture card itself or the broader linguistic context suggested that the present progressive form was required.

A few invariant plural forms, such as glasses, jeans, shorts, and pants, occurred in the subjects' speech. At first, these were eliminated from analysis of the plural form, as they could have been learned as single morphemes that did not require application of the plural rule. However, because many instances were encountered of these forms without the final -s, they were ultimately included in the analysis of plural morpheme use.

Initial analysis of the third person singular present tense -s revealed that three rather different uses of this morpheme appeared to occur. The verb have seemed to be under separate control from other verbs. Specifically, has seemed to be frequently and correctly supplied by many of the intensive program subjects whereas other verbs rarely seemed to be marked at all for the third person singular. Therefore, separate analyses were undertaken for have and for other verbs (excluding, of course, the BE copula). In addition, it was noticed that many subjects introduced their utterances with the odd construction "He has..." or "It has...," as in "It has a little girl with three balloons." This is likely based on the French introducer il y a. Instances of have as introducer were counted separately from instances of have as main verb.

Sometimes subjects repeated an utterance. If the repetition was immediate and exact, for example "There is there is a bureau...," then it was counted only once as creating an obligatory context(s). When a subject

self-corrected, only the corrected version was counted, even if it was incorrect.

Percent mean accuracy scores were computed for each of the six morphemes. As mentioned earlier, scores were already available for the comparison subjects. In order to obtain comparable scores for the intensive program subjects, means were obtained by dividing the total number of forms supplied by the total number of obligatory contexts for each morpheme. In addition, mean accuracy scores were calculated to give equal weight to each subject's score, as the number of obligatory contexts for each of the six morphemes varied widely both within subject for the different morphemes and across subjects for the same morpheme. A mean percent accuracy score for each morpheme for each subject was calculated; these scores were totalled, and the sum was divided by the number of subjects.

S-overuse. Application of the obligatory context methodology allows researchers to calculate grammatical accuracy only in cases where the suppliance of a particular morpheme is required for an utterance to be grammatically correct and contextually appropriate. It does not provide a full picture of a learner's mastery of these grammatical forms. A learner may be overusing one or more forms, that is, inserting them in places where they are neither obligatory nor appropriate and so would not be counted using the obligatory context methodology. S-overuse can occur in many environments other than with clause-initial noun phrases, as referred to on page 30. Some examples of s-overuse are, "*Four people has hats on," "*He's get up" (rather than "He gets up."), and "*One girls (girl's) have

a pink shirt." (In these last two examples there is also a requirement for the third person singular present -s, which has not been supplied.) All instances of s-overuse for the intensive program subjects were noted. Data on s-overuse for the comparison subjects were already available.

Fluency. Fluency was analyzed by examining the amount, diversity, and rate of speech.

Amount of speech. The mean number of words elicited for all eight pictures in the PCG and for the five "Little Boy" pictures was determined for the intensive program subjects and the comparison subjects. In addition, the mean number of words elicited for each of the two added complex pictures was determined for the intensive program subjects. All words were counted with a few exceptions. Uninterpretable, incomplete, or French words were excluded. These three categories accounted for a negligible number of words. As in the accuracy analysis, when subjects occcasionally corrected their speech, the replacement versions only were counted, even if they were incorrect, and exact, immediate repetitions were counted only once. Contractions were counted as components of the words they were adjoined to, as it was not always possible to distinguish a contracted form from an instance of s-overuse. A problem occurred in determining how to count the indefinite article, which could often not be distinguished from the ubiquitous utterance uh (indicating hesitation). A protocol was adopted to count only those clearly unambiguous occurences of the indefinite article and only single occurences of /ə/ immediately preceding nouns. Mean scores were compared for the intensive program and the comparison subjects. In addition, the amount of speech elicited by the eight simple

picture cards was compared to that elicited by the two added complex pictures.

A test was performed to investigate the possiblility that the comparison subjects, being older than the intensive program subjects, might have been bored with the PCG task and therefore produced significantly fewer words on the average than the younger subjects. In the course of the Lightbown et al. project, the PCG had been administered in a control condition to a group of 14 grade 9 to 11 native speakers of English. Transcribed speech for this group was available, and the mean number of words for one picture was calculated for the native-speaker subjects. Scores for this picture were compared for the comparison subjects and the native speakers and for the intensive program subjects and the native speakers.

Diversity. One picture (mentioned in the paragraph above) was chosen for more fine-grained analysis. This picture had elicited more speech than any other picture for the intensive program subjects and was virtually tied with one other picture for the most speech elicited for the comparison subjects. For this picture, a mean type/token ratio was determined for each group by dividing the total number of unique words by the total number of words for each subject and then averaging these scores. Since type/token ratios are not independent of the amount of speech produced, they can be misleading as measures of linguistic diversity (vocabulary depth). To determine if a relationship did indeed exist between amount of speech and type/token ratio, a Pearson product-moment coefficient of correlation was calculated.

Despite its wide use as an indicator of vocabulary depth, variety, or richness, the type/token ratio provides incomplete information if looked at alone. Therefore, additional measures of vocabulary depth were obtained. For the same picture, ratios were calculated for the mean number of content words to total words, the mean number of nouns to total words, the mean number of verbs to total words, the mean number of adjectives to total words, and the mean number of adverbs to total words for each group of subjects. Each of these five pairs of scores were compared for the two groups of subjects.

Rate. The same picture chosen for the analysis of diversity was used to calculate the rate of delivery in words per minute for the intensive program and the comparison subjects. A rate was calculated for each subject, and then the mean rate was calculated for each group. To ensure reliability, each count was repeated; if a discrepancy occurred, then a third count was undertaken. This sufficed to resolve any discrepancies. A t-test was performed to compare the mean rates for the two groups of subjects.

Correlations between measures. For the intensive program subjects, in order to determine whether a relationship existed among certain measures of accuracy, fluency, and teacher's end-of-program grade, several correlation coefficients were obtained using the Pearson product-moment correlation and the Spearman rank correlation. First, mean percent accuracy scores for each subject across all six morphemes were obtained. These were then

correlated with fluency scores based on the mean number of words elicited per picture for each of the same subjects.

To determine whether a relationship existed between the teacher's grades and these measures of accuracy and fluency, the teacher's end-of-program (letter) grades were obtained, transformed into a composite grade, and mapped onto a numerical scale. These grades were then correlated with the mean accuracy scores and with the mean number-of-word (fluency) scores.

ESL Placement Test. Mean percent scores were calculated for all 70 items of the Baldwin-Cartier Placement Test and for the 35-item listening comprehension and the 35-item reading comprehension sub-tests. Sub-test score comparisons were made, and total scores were examined using the placement criterion scores employed by the Baldwin-Cartier School Board. The same test was administered to the intensive program subjects approximately one year later, when they were in grade 6. Mean percent scores were calculated and compared with the grade 5 scores. In addition, to examine consistency of performance within subjects, the two sets of scores were correlated.

Language Contact, Use, and Attitude Questionnaire. For all questions, the percent response frequency for each response alternative was calculated for the intensive program subjects. These scores were already available for the comparison subjects. For the 17 questions common to both questionnaires, comparisons were made. In addition, weights were assigned to the response alternatives and indices of exposure and of attitudes to English were calculated for the intensive program and the comparison subjects.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Morpheme Accuracy

The Six Morphemes

Mean percent accuracy scores for each of the six morphemes for the comparison subjects and the intensive program subjects are presented in Figure 1. The same results in numerical form are presented in Table 1. Note that for the third person singular morpheme (-s), the mean accuracy score for the comparison subjects was calculated based on the PCG only; a separate score was calculated based on the "Little Boy" task, designed specifically to elicit this morpheme. Accordingly, the same procedure was followed for the intensive program subjects.

Because no individual scores were available for the comparison group, statistical comparisons between pairs of mean percent accuracy scores for the six morphemes could not be undertaken. This, unfortunately, limits the conclusions that can be drawn about differences in performance between the two groups of subjects, however an informal comparison is not without

There do appear to be both strong similarities and differences in group performance. For both groups accuracy with respect to the BE copula is very high, and accuracy with respect to the possessive form is very low. Neither of these findings is surprising, as they are consistent with other

FIGURE 1. MORPHEME ACCURACY

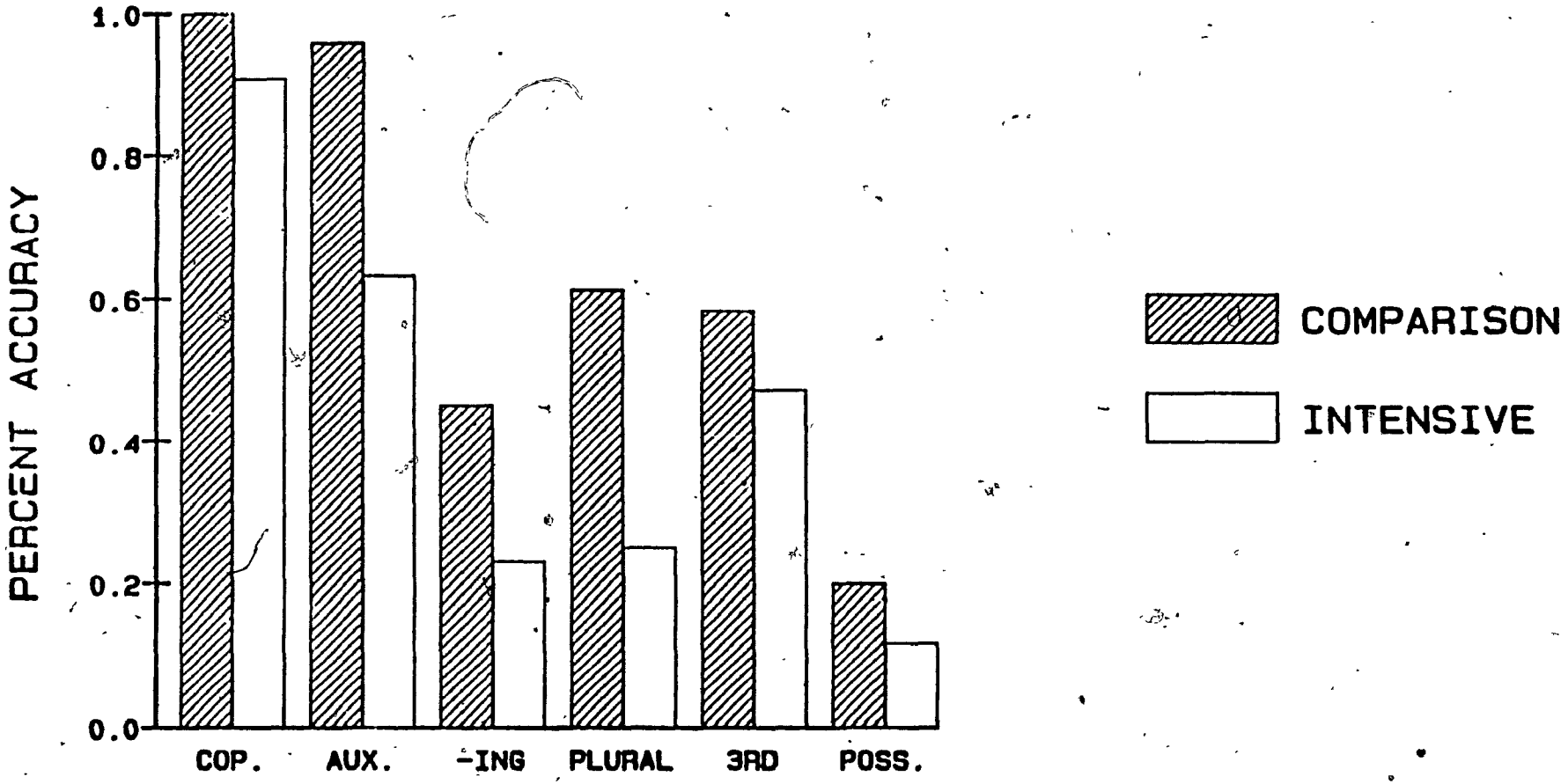


Table 1. Mean Percent Accuracy Scores[1] for Morphemes in Obligatory Contexts

morpheme	comparison subjects[2] n=32	intensive program subjects n=26
copula is, -'s	100	91
auxiliary is, -'s	96	67[3]
progressive -ing	45	26
plural -s	61	24
3rd person singular -s[4]	58	54
possessive -'s	20	11[5]

1. To make mean percent accuracy scores comparable for the two groups of subjects, scores for the intensive program subjects were obtained using the same calculation as for the comparison subjects. These scores were not corrected for the different frequencies of obligatory contexts for the six morphemes across subjects. For each of the six morphemes, the total number of forms supplied was divided by the total number of obligatory contexts.

2. These mean percent scores are best estimates of the results presented in bar graph form (Lightbown 1983a).

3. N=18. For eight subjects there were no obligatory contexts for either the full or the contracted form of the progressive auxiliary morpheme.

4. These scores were calculated for the PCG only; separate scores were calculated for the "Little Boy" task. For that task, mean percent accuracy was 34% for the comparison subjects and 4% for the intensive program subjects.

5. N=21. For five subjects, there were no obligatory contexts for the possessive morpheme.

findings reported in the L2 acquisition literature (Bailey, Madden, & Krashen, 1974; Dulay & Burt, 1974; Krashen, 1977; Lightbown, 1983a; Pica, 1983). The BE copula appears to be an early acquired form and the possessive a relatively late acquired one. What is surprising to this researcher, who informally observed the intensive program subjects in class and administered the PCG and all other instruments used in this study, and to others who have informally observed the same subjects, is their relatively low accuracy with respect to the other morphemes: the progressive auxiliary and -ing, the plural, and the third person present singular.

One reason that this relatively low accuracy is surprising is that the intensive program students, as a group, give the impression of having attained a fairly high level of ESL proficiency. They appear confident, at ease, eager, and fluent. They seem to have no trouble getting their messages across in English. Indeed, it was extremely rare for these subjects to use French during administration of the PCG, intentionally or not, and because they are such successful communicators, one tends not to notice the missing forms.

The differences in accuracy between the two groups are also surprising given the expectations that some researchers have about the effectiveness of teaching second languages in interactive settings where the emphasis is on achieving fluency rather than correctness of grammatical form. Krashen (1983) says that

> If the Input Hypothesis is correct, on the other hand, ..., providing comprehensible input in sufficient quantity will automatically deliver the right grammar; i + 1 will automatically be present. Thus, one

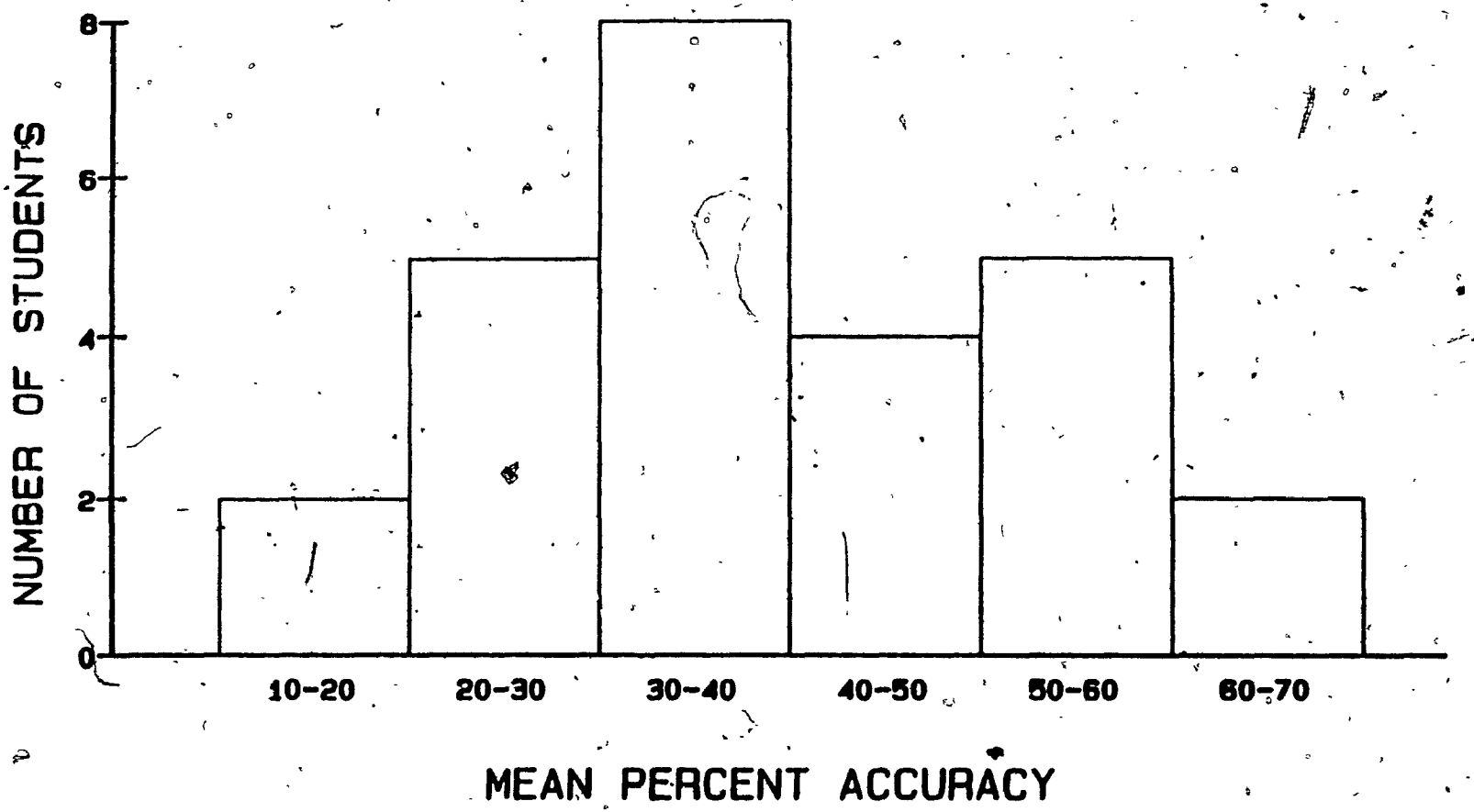
needs only to create a syllabus based on communicative goals and sequencing of grammatical rules will take care of itself. (p. 175)

The intensive program subjects were exposed to a considerable quantity of comprehensible input (approximately 400 hours of classroom exposure within a five-month period) within the framework of a syllabus based on communicative goals. Yet there is no evidence that this exposure was sufficient for them to acquire the grammatical rules governing use of the morphemes studied here, with the exception of the BE copula.

It is important to repeat that the data presented in Figure 1 and Table 1 are mean scores. With the exception of performance on the copula, there is considerable variance within the intensive program group, but although some subjects show high accuracy in the use of some morphemes, no subjects show overall high accuracy across morphemes. Mean percent accuracy scores for all six morphemes were calculated within subject for the intensive program group. These results are presented in Figure 2, where the independent axis indicates the number of students and the dependent axis the accuracy scores arranged in intervals of 10. As can be seen, eight (of the 26) subjects fall within 30-40% overall accuracy, five each within 20-30% and 50-60%, four within 40-50%, and two each within 10-20% and 60-70%.

Although the accuracy for these subjects is low relative to that of the comparison subjects, accuracy for those subjects is also low for all morphemes save the copula, particularly given that their ESL instruction focused precisely on "morpheme-perfect" performance rather than on fluency. In discussing this low accuracy and the lack of visible improvement over time for all of the longitudinal subjects in her study,

FIGURE 2. DISTRIBUTION OF ACCURACY SCORES

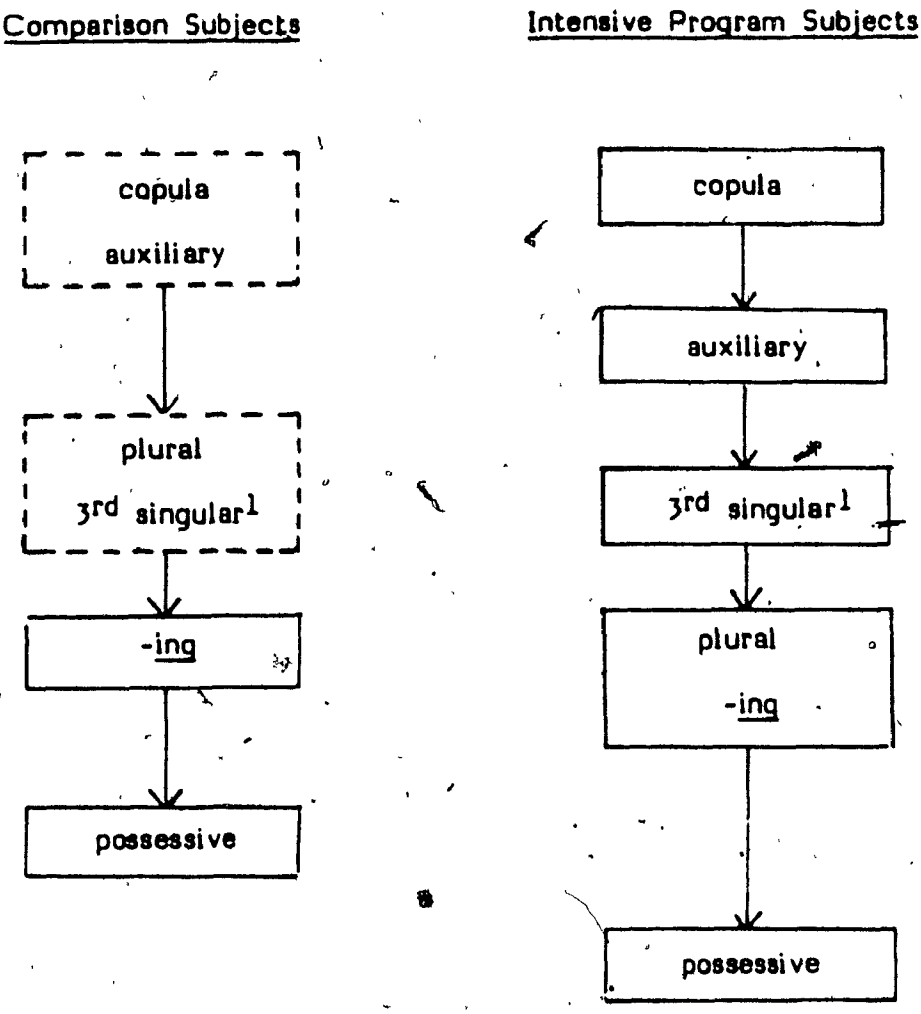


Lightbown (1983a, 1983b) says that instruction consisting largely of intensive drill on isolated grammatical forms at the early stages of acquisition may actually interfere with natural acquisition processes and fail to accomplish its own end. This kind of instruction may lead to overlearning of forms in an environment where the meanings associated with grammatical forms, such as the various functions of the -s morphemes, are not made clear to learners because there is no contrastive use of the forms presented - each is presented and drilled in isolation.

Figure 3 shows the six morphemes ranked for order of accuracy for the comparison and intensive program groups. For the comparison group, morphemes which appear not to differ from each other in accuracy are enclosed in broken-line boxes. The results presented in Table 1 suggest that there may be no difference in scores between the copula and the auxiliary forms and between the plural and the third person present singular forms. However, there is no statistical evidence to substantiate this, as neither individual scores nor precise group scores were available for analysis.

For the intensive program group, an analysis of variance showed no significant difference between scores for the plural and progressive -ing forms ($F = 0.13$, $p = 0.724$, $df = 1, 50$). Thus, these two forms have been enclosed in a box, indicating no difference in relative order. In addition, when accuracy for the third person present singular form was calculated based on the PCG and the "Little Boy" task combined (28%), the analysis of variance showed no significant difference between scores for this form, the plural -s, and the progressive -ing form ($F = 0.26$, $p = 0.773$, $df = 2, 75$).

Figure 3. Rank Accuracy Order for the Six Morphemes

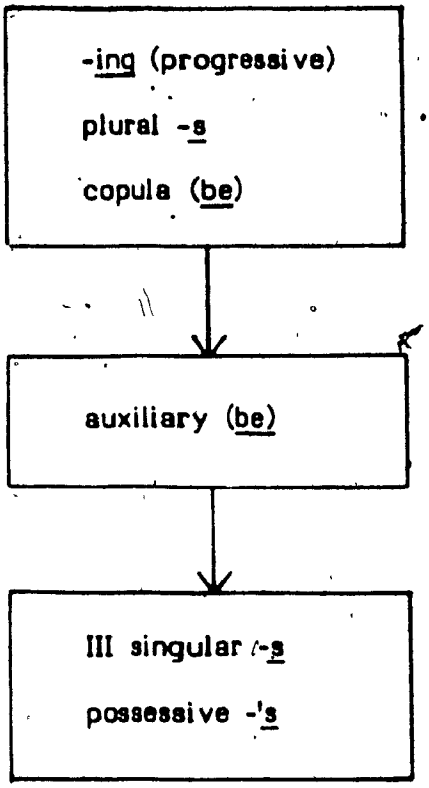


1. The third singular does not include the "Little Boy" task.

It is interesting that in spite of the very different types of instruction these two groups of students were exposed to, their rank orders for accuracy are so similar (rho = .829, $p <= .05$). Only the position of the plural form, lower by one rank for the intensive program subjects, differentiates them. In discussing the difference between the rank order of accuracy for her subjects and the so-called "natural order" (see Figure 4) for which Krashen (1977, 1983) claims to have strong evidence, Lightbown (1983a) points out that the order she found neither supports nor disconfirms the "natural order" hypothesis. The order she found could be due, in fact, to her subjects' kind of exposure "to a distorted version of the English language" and to "the fact that they were required to repeat and practice sentences containing grammatical complexity far beyond what they would have included in their speech if they had been acquiring English through more communicative interaction involving more varied natural language." (p. 116)

In addressing differences in the acquisition orders that Larsen-Freeman (1975) found between language samples based on different elicitation procedures, Krashen (1977) suggested that the order Larsen-Freeman found that was consistent with the "natural order" was one elicited by procedures that tapped acquired knowledge of English, that is, English internalized via unconscious processes like those that operate in children's acquisition of their first language. However, the order inconsistent with the "natural order" was obtained via tasks that tapped learned knowledge of English, knowledge internalized by conscious awareness of grammatical rules and unavailable to the acquired system.

Figure 4. Adaptation of Krashen's (1977) "Proposed 'Natural Order' for Second Language Acquisition"



Morphemes in the same box are not considered to have a fixed order relative to one another.

Given the type of instruction that the comparison subjects were exposed to, it seems not unreasonable, at first, to view the accuracy order derived from their speech samples as "unnatural," as an order based on a learned rather than an acquired underlying system. However, the striking similarity in accuracy orders for these subjects and for the intensive program subjects ($r = .910$, $p < .02$) and the fact that the elicitation procedures were "natural" in both cases challenges such an explanation. Certainly the intensive program subjects were exposed to instruction focused on authentic communication in a comprehensible input-rich natural language environment that encouraged risk-taking and hypothesis testing on the part of the learners. This is precisely the kind of exposure that Krashen (1983) predicts will lead to acquisition rather than learning of the target language and will result in a predictable sequence of acquisition of grammatical rules, revealed in a "natural order" of accuracy or acquisiton.

This challenge is strengthened by the observation that not only was the type of instruction different for the two groups of subjects, but the distribution of instruction over time differed considerably, as did their ages at the time of evaluation. According to Krashen (1983), differences in type and amount of exposure, age, and native language have no important effect on the "natural order." One should then expect that the accuracy order for the intensive program subjects would be consistent with the "natural order," but rather it is much more consistent with that of the comparison subjects.

An alternative explanation for the accuracy order of the comparison subjects takes into account their native language. Most of the subjects in the studies that Krashen cites were Spanish speakers, and there were few, if any, French speakers among the remaining subjects. Because both native

language and method of instruction differentiated the comparison subjects from subjects in other studies, it was not possible to attibute their different accuracy order to either of these factors. However, the accuracy order of the intensive program subjects, who fulfill Krashen's criteria as natural acquirers, and who speak the same native language as the comparison subjects, is consistent with their accuracy order. This finding suggests that the accuracy orders for these two groups of subjects reflect an interaction between the underlying system of the language they are learning and their native language, French, not a "learned" system or a "natural" (i.e. "universal") one.

Figure 5 shows mean percent accuracy scores calculated two ways for the intensive program subjects. The shaded bars show scores weighted (uncorrected) for the different frequencies of obligatory contexts across the six morphemes whereas the unshaded bars show those same scores, with error bars, unweighted (corrected) for frequency. Table 2 presents these results in numerical form. As can be seen, there are small differences in the two sets of mean scores, three of the unweighted scores being somewhat lower and three virtually unchanged.

Individual Morphemes: Intensive Program Subjects

The BE Copula. The copula was by far the most frequently used morpheme, accounting for about 64% of the total number of morphemes supplied and 36% of the total number of obligatory contexts. Mean percent accuracy was about 91%, and the variance was considerably lower than for any of the five other morphemes (11%). Both the full and contracted

FIGURE 5. MORPHEME ACCURACY

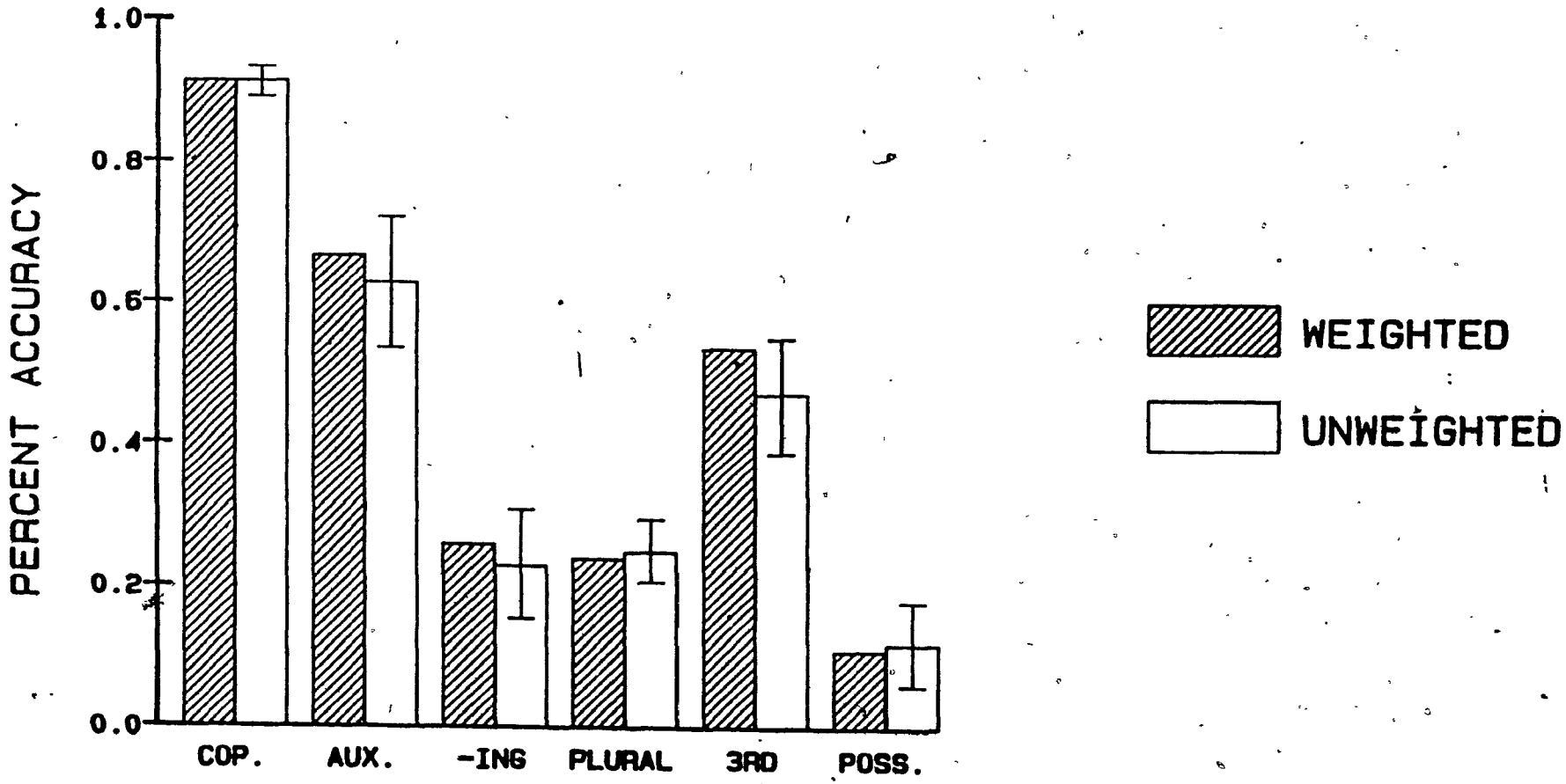


Table 2. Mean Percent Accuracy Scores: Uncorrected and Corrected for Frequency (n=26)

	uncorrected	corrected			
morpheme	mean	mean	S.D.	S.E.M.	95% C.I.
copula	91	91	11	02	87 - 96
auxiliary[1]	67	63	39	09	45 - 82
(auxiliary)[2]	--	(33)	(27)	(05)	(22 - 44)
-ing	26	23	39	08	08 - 38
plural	24	25	22	04	16 - 34
3rd per. sing.[3]	54	47	41	08	31 - 64
possessive[4]	11	12	27	06	0 - 24

1. N=18. For eight subjects, there were no obligatory contexts for either the full or contracted form of the progressive auxiliary morpheme.

2. N=26. Scores are for the progressive auxiliary analyzed according to a second set of criteria. See p. 30.

3. These scores were calculated for the PCG only; separate scores were calculated for the "Little Boy" task - mean = 4%, S.D. = 7%, S.E.M. = 1%, 95% C.I. = 1% - 6%.

4. N=21. For five subjects, there were no obligatory contexts for the possessive morpheme.

forms of the copula were counted. The full form (is) accounted for about 45% of the forms supplied and the contracted form (-'s) for 55%.

In part, the very high relative frequency of the copula was due to its presence in introducer phrases like "It's a ..." and "There's a ...". Some subjects even omitted the existential subject there, beginning their utterances with the bare copula, as in "Is in a classroom" or "Is a present." In addition, many subjects inserted the existential it after the subject, for example, "The paper it's green," creating obligatory contexts for the contracted form of the copula that would not exist in the speech of native speakers of English. The insertion of it in this manner suggests L1 interference from French.

Many subjects used the introducer There's with a plural complement, as in "There's two girls and two boys." Because native speakers also manifest this same use of There's, its presence was considered as both creating and fulfilling a requirement for the copula. Although it was very rare, some subjects used the introducer form There are with two single complements, for example, "There are a truck and a car." In fact, there seemed to be considerable confusion among the subjects between there and they're (they are). This is evident in such utterances as "They are (there are) two houses and two trees." Utterances like "There has a they has a desk on the front" also reveal a confusion of there and they (perhaps from they're) combined with the use of have as an introducer.

The main factor accounting for less than 100% accuracy for the copula is that some subjects used are with a singular complement, for example, "There are a class(room)." Overuse of the copula was extremely rare and seemed generally to occur following incorrectly unmarked plurals,

as in "The house is brown" rather than "The houses are brown," in response to a picture of two brown houses.

The Present Progressive BE Auxiliary. As explained in Chapter II (p. 30), two analyses of the present progressive auxiliary form were undertaken. The first analysis adopted Lightbown and Malcolm's (1980) criteria for counting this form, developed in response to the extensive overuse of the contracted auxiliary that they found among their younger (grade 6 and 7) subjects, particularly in clause-initial noun phrases. They even encountered infrequent but nonetheless salient instances of -'s overuse preceding stative verbs, as in "She's have three balloons." Lightbown and Malcolm treated as obligatory contexts for the auxiliary only those occasions when a verb marked with the progressive form -ing was present with a third person singular subject, for example "He ___ taking..." (and only in cases when the use of the progressive aspect was contextually appropriate). When these criteria were adopted, mean percent accuracy was 63%. (This is based on n = 18; for eight subjects there were no such obligatory contexts for the auxiliary form.) The progressive auxiliary was nearly the least frequent form used, accounting for 3% of the total number of forms supplied and about 2% of the total number of obligatory contexts. Both the full and contracted forms of the auxiliary were counted. The full form (is) accounted for about 42% of total occurrences and the contracted form (-'s) for 58%.

A second analysis of the auxiliary was undertaken because, for the intensive program subjects, very few instances of s-overuse in clause-initial noun phrases were encountered, and virtually no instances of such overuse preceding stative verbs were encountered. For this analysis, an obligatory

context for the present progressive auxiliary form was created by suppliance of a verb with or without the -ing morpheme or if the situation created by the picture card itself or the broader linguistic context suggested that the present progressive form was required. When these criteria were adopted, mean percent accuracy fell to 33% (and obligatory contexts were created for all 26 subjects - see Table 2, note 2). The relative frequency of the auxiliary rose, accounting for about 5% of the total number of forms supplied and 8% of the total number of obligatory contexts. Again, both the full and contracted forms were counted, with little change in relative frequencies. The full form accounted for about 39% and the contracted form for 61% of forms supplied.

The low frequency of obligatory contexts for the progressive auxiliary was an unexpected finding, particularly because most of the pictures in the PCG created contexts wherein the present progressive was the natural, appropriate structure to use ("A little girl [who] is wearing a red skirt...she's holding three balloons..., A truck is crashing into a car..., It's raining..., The teacher is holding a milkshake..., A boy is erasing the blackboard," etc.). Rather than supplying the present progressive structure in these contexts, the intensive program subjects tended to use have in utterances like "She has a red skirt," "She has three balloons," and "The teacher has a milkshake." This seemed to be a strategy employed by virtually all subjects (25 of the 26) that resulted in avoidance of the more complex progressive structure yet still conformed to standards of grammatical acceptability and accuracy.

The Present Progressive -ing. The present progressive form (-ing) accounted for about 5% of the total number of morphemes supplied and 10%[6] of the total number of obligatory contexts. This was true for both ways of analyzing the present progressive structure, as described in the preceding section. Mean accuracy for the -ing form was relatively low, 23%. When subjects failed to supply this form, they supplied an unmarked verb in about 79% of cases. In the remaining 21% of cases, either the noun phrase plus the auxiliary only (no verb at all) was supplied (19%), or the third person present singular form was, inappropriately, supplied (2%).

This preponderance of unmarked forms is consistent with findings for other L2 learners acquiring English in "natural" settings. Learners seem to begin using uninflected forms, as do children acquiring their first language, and add inflections to communicate their meaning more clearly. What is surprising about the low accuracy score for the progressive form is that -ing is reported to be one of the earliest morphemes acquired by child L1 learners (Brown, 1973; de Villiers & de Villiers, 1973) and by both child and adult L2 learners (Krashen, 1977; Pica, 1983). Lightbown (1983a), however, reports a mean percent accuracy score for -ing of 50% for all subjects over all administrations of the PCG and a rank of four out of six. Furthermore, she found that despite some fluctuation in accuracy over time, accuracy for -ing rose only to about 60% in grade 11. For the comparison subjects in this study, accuracy was about 45%, and for the intensive program subjects it was 23% (corrected for frequency). For both groups, -ing occupied one

6. Note that this is not the same percent as for the progressive auxiliary because the auxiliary was analyzed only in third person singular contexts whereas the progressive -ing was analyzed in other person and number contexts.

rank above the possessive, the lowest ranked form. Clearly, there is something different about these learners. It is possible that the elicitation tasks used in other L2 studies, in particular the Bilingual Syntax Measure (Burt, Dulay, & Hernandez, 1975), which was used to obtain data in most of the studies providing evidence for the "natural order" hypothesis, in some way biased their findings (for discussion of this see Krashen, 1977; Larsen-Freeman, 1975; Porter, 1977). Pica (1983) used informally structured conversations to elicit speech from her (Spanish-speaking) subjects and also found very high accuracy for -ing and a rank of first out of the eight morphemes studied. It is possible that in the course of the conversations, she supplied her subjects with models of the progressive structure and so, affected their accuracy. However, their accuracy was so high, that this seems to be an inadequate and unlikely explanation.

What seems to be a more likely source for the difference in performance on the progressive form between the subjects in this and Lightbown's studies and subjects in other L2 studies is the L1 of the subjects. As mentioned earlier, in the discussion of rank order (p. 47), most of the subjects in the other studies were Spanish speakers whereas the subjects in this study were French speakers. Modern French has no verb structure equivalent to the English present progressive (although the progressive aspect can be communicated by several means, including the phrase en train de). It is possible that interference from French precludes accurate use of the present progressive, at least in the early stages of ESL acquisition.

The Plural. The plural -s accounted for about 24% of the total number of obligatory contexts but only about 11% of the total number of morphemes

supplied. As mentioned in Chapter II (p. 31), both regular and invariant forms, for example, pants, of the plural were included in the analysis. Accuracy for the plural was low for individual subjects - only three obtained scores greater than 50%. Only one of these obtained a very high score, 93%. This subject had Spanish-speaking parents and spoke Spanish as well as French at home. However, it is not clear that it is the similarity of the Spanish plural rule to the English rule that accounts for the high plural accuracy of this subject, particularly in view of the fact that the other Spanish speaker in the group obtained a plural accuracy score of 25%.

One might propose that due to the high degree of contextual and linguistic redundancy in English, the communicative significance of the plural marker is minor. Given this, the very low mean percent accuracy score (25%) for the intensive program subjects does not seem unusual. In her study of adult acquisition of ESL, Pica (1983) found differences in suppliance of the plural between subjects having different conditions of exposure to English. In particular, she found that when learners who had experienced "naturalistic" exposure to English omitted the plural -s, it tended to be in cases when the noun was preceded by a quantifier but not when there was no preceding quantifier. In other words, these "naturalistic" learners avoided redundant marking. This was not true for learners who were formally instructed in English or for those with mixed exposure (a combination of formal instruction and natural exposure).

In an unpublished study of 49 longitudinal subjects from Lightbown & Malcolm's (1980) study, Paris (1983) compared accuracy of plural marking in the presence and absence of pre-nominal quantifiers and found little, if any, difference. These results are consistent with Pica's findings for formally

instructed and "mixed" learners, however the accuracy scores that she reported (93% for formally instructed learners, and 74% for naturalistic and mixed learners) are considerably higher than those for Paris' subjects (50%) or for the comparison subjects (61%) and intensive program subjects (25%) in the present study. A not untenable explanation for this difference concerns the L1 of the subjects. Pica's subjects were all Spanish speakers whereas all the others were French speakers. The Spanish plural rule is similar to the English one, whereas, for spoken French, the plural -s is not pronounced except before words beginning with a vowel. Lightbown & Malcolm (1980) report that even in a writing task, their subjects failed to mark 20% to 30% of plural nouns in English (and 9% of plural nouns in French, their L1!). It seems that the low accuracy for the plural for the intensive program subjects in this study may be due to influence from French, which does not often mark the plural in speech. French speakers, even those very fluent in English, often fail to mark the plural marker when speaking English. For French speakers, the plural requirement may be a case of a rule that is, as Krashen has remarked, easy to learn but hard to acquire.

The Third Person Present Singular. For this analysis, use of the third person singular -s was based on both the PCG and the "Little Boy" task. About 42% of obligatory contexts occurred in the "Little Boy" task and 58% in the PCG. As mentioned in Chapter II (p. 31), separate analyses were undertaken for have and for all other verbs (excluding the BE copula and auxiliary). These findings are presented in Tables 3, 3a, and 3b.

All but one of the subjects used have, and its use accounted for about 52% of all obligatory contexts for the third person singular. About 57% of

Table 3. Third Person Present Singular Morpheme - Accuracy

variant	n[1]	mean	S.D.	S.E.M.
have as introducer	14	.66	.47	.13
have as main verb	25	.49	.45	.09
have - total use	25	.50	.45	.09
other verbs	26	.03	.07	.01
verbs - total use	26	.28	.28	.05

1. number of subjects

Table 3a. Relative Frequencies of Third Person Variants

	have as introducer	have as main verb	have - total	other verbs	all verbs - total
# o.c.	86	114	200	183	383
% o.c.	22	30	52	48	100
# supp.	69	51	120	7	127
% supp.	54	40	94	6	100

Table 3b. Relative Frequencies of Two Uses of Have

	introducer	main verb	total
# o.c.	86	114	200
% o.c.	43	57	100
# supp.	69	51	120
% supp.	58	43	100

obligatory contexts for have occurred for it as a main verb and 43% in constructions employing have as an introducer, for example in the utterance "It has a little girl with three balloons." As mentioned in Chapter II (p. 31), this is likely derived from the French introducer il y a. About 54% of subjects used have as an introducer, with a mean percent accuracy, in terms of third person singular agreement, of about 66%. When have was used as a main verb, mean percent accuracy was about 49%. Combined accuracy for have was about 50%.

Verbs other than have, which accounted for the remaining 48% of obligatory contexts for the third person present singular form, had a mean percent accuracy of about 3%. When verbs used only in the "Little Boy" task were analyzed, accuracy was found to be about 4%. In 75% of the cases, unmarked verbs were supplied. For this task, in the remaining 21% of cases, either the the full present progressive form was supplied (6%), the progressive auxiliary only was supplied (8%), or the progressive -ing was supplied (7%). When verbs (have and others) occurring in both the PCG and the "Little Boy" task were counted, mean percent accuracy was about 12%.

As mentioned in the discussion of the present progressive auxiliary (p. 53), the progressive structure was the most appropriate structure for describing most of the pictures in the PCG. The "Little Boy" task was added to create more obligatory contexts for the third person present singular form, as so few were created by the PCG itself. For the intensive program subjects, only 12% of the obligatory contexts identified in the PCG were for the third person singular, and of these, only half were for verbs other than have. These subjects' frequent use of have is due to their use of it as an introducer and in place of the more natural and appropriate

present progressive structure. Thus the overall mean percent accuracy score of 47% for the third person singular is misleading, as it incorporates the frequent use of have, with an accuracy of about 50%. When have is removed from the count, accuracy falls to 3%-4%.

This pattern is consistent with Lightbown's (1983a) findings for her longitudinal subjects. Her grade 6 subjects had not yet been introduced to have, and it was very rare in their speech. Their accuracy for the third person singular was very low (approximately 14%). When have was introduced in grade 7, it became a frequently used form, both as an introducer and as a main verb, and accuracy for the third person singular increased to a level of about 50% for subjects in grades 7 through 11. However, when accuracy for the "Little Boy" task was calculated separately, thus removing have from the count, accuracy was much lower, increasing from less than 10% in grade 6 to 34% in grade 10 and then dropping slightly in grade 11.

The simple present third singular form is one that seems to be both hard to learn and hard to acquire. Neither the comparison subjects nor the intensive program subjects have developed the ability to use it accurately. Although its form is easy to describe (simply add an -s to the bare verb to indicate the third person singular) its function is not clear, and its communicative value seems low. The third person is the one exception to the formation of the simple present in English, and so one would expect that overgeneralization of the simple present form (a verb with no inflection) would occur and that the rule for this special case would be acquired later.

The Possessive. The possessive -'s was the least frequently used morpheme of the six, accounting for less than 1% of the total number of forms supplied and 2% of the total number of obligatory contexts. The mean percent accuracy of 12% is based on an average of about 1.8 obligatory contexts per subject (for n = 21; for five subjects, no obligatory contexts were created). There are simply too few occasions requiring the possessive marker for any reliable conclusions to be made about its accuracy, but the very low accuracy for possessive use is consistent with the poor performance on this morpheme widely reported in the ESL acquisition literature.[7] There is no reason to think that had there been more obligatory contexts created for the possessive form, performance would have improved for the intensive program subjects. In addition, because failure to mark the possessive is a feature of the English of even fluent French speakers in Quebec, as is failure to mark the plural, there is little reason to predict that, for these subjects, performance will improve significantly over time.

S-overuse. As mentioned earlier in this chapter (p. 52), Lightbown reported extensive overuse of -s in her longitudinal study of grade 6, 8, and 10 students (Lightbown & Malcolm, 1980; Lightbown 1983a, 1983b). In particular, subjects tended to add -s, either correctly or incorrectly, to clause-initial noun phrases. This was particularly true for the younger subjects. Grade 6 students are reported to have added -'s, correctly or incorrectly, to 82% of clause-initial nouns and pronouns combined

7. An exception to this is reported in Mace-Matluck (1978). Also, anecdotal evidence suggests that for reasons of transfer similarity, Germans and Danes do not find acquisition of the English possessive difficult.

(Lightbown 1983b). This tendency decreased as amount of instruction increased; the figure for the same subjects in grade 7 was 71%. Older subjects tended to overuse -s less predictably and with considerable variability. Some subjects produced no examples at all whereas "for others, the -s confusion remained a marked characteristic of their English" (Lightbown, 1983a, p. 109).

Complete data on s-overuse for the comparison subjects were unavailable. Of the 32 comparison subjects, overuse counts were available for 27. Of these, 21 (78%) overused -s, with an average of 3.38 instances per subject.

S-overuse was, at least superficially, similar for the intensive program subjects. Of the 26 subjects, 20 (77%) overused s, with an average of 2.50 instances per subject. S was inappropriately added to clause initial noun phrases by only 54% of subjects, however, and 44% of the cases were accounted for by two subjects. Only four occurrences, accounted for by three subjects, of s-overuse preceding stative verbs were found. All other cases of s-overuse were produced by only 58% of subjects, and two subjects accounted for over 52% of the instances. One of these subjects repeatedly used guys to indicate a single male figure, for example in the utterance "And uh_, uh one uh guys I don't know it's a guys or a girl...," accounting for 22% of these other cases of s-overuse.

Thus the overall picture of s-overuse by these subjects corresponds to the more advanced subjects in Lightbown's study, where she found considerable individual variation as opposed to the nearly ubiquitous s-overuse exhibited by the grade 6 students, whose instruction had included

intensive drill on utterances such as "It's a ...," "He's a ...," and "She's a ...," as well as "She's going...," "It's raining," etc.

Fluency Analysis

Amount of Speech

A global fluency score (the mean number of words per picture elicited by all eight pictures in the PCG) was determined for the intensive program subjects and for the comparison subjects. The intensive program subjects produced an average of more than one-and-a-half times (1.56) the number of words per picture (40.81) as did the comparison subjects (26.08). The Wilk-Shapiro test of normality showed that these fluency scores were normally distributed for the comparison subjects ($W = .975$, $p = .1$) but that they were not for the intensive program subjects ($W = .754$, $p = .01$), precluding valid application of the t-test. A non-parametric test, the Ansari-Bradley test for adjusting medians, was applied and showed that the dispersions of scores for the two groups of subjects were not equal ($Z = .501$, $p = .617$), precluding valid application of the Mann-Whitney U test, a non-parametric means for testing equality of medians.

Figure 6 shows the distribution of these fluency scores for the intensive program subjects. As can be seen, more than half of the subjects produced an average of between 30 and 40 words per picture. Two subjects, who produced an average of nearly twice as many words (80.3) as the other subjects (40.8) account for the two outlying scores at the high end of the distribution. When these two outliers were removed, the remaining 24 fluency scores were found to be normally distributed ($W =$

.958, $p > .1$). As the variances of both sets of fluency scores were found to be equal ($F = 1.067$, $p = .854$, $df = 23, 31$), a t-test was employed, and a significant t-score was calculated ($t = 6.385$, $p = .0001$). These results are presented in Table 4.

This difference in fluency corresponds to the different opportunities for extended speech provided in the ESL classroom for the two groups of subjects. The comparison subjects, even after five or six years of instruction, seldom had the opportunity to speak in English beyond the sentence level. Even these sentences rarely contained authentic messages, communicating new information or expressing personal ideas or feelings. Oral expression was very much controlled by the teacher, who did most of the talking. The teacher often provided explanations and dealt with classroom management issues in French, so that opportunities for the student learners to <u>hear</u> input in the target language were also somewhat limited. Students were usually limited to responding to questions for which the answers were already known by the teacher as well as the other students, questions whose purpose was to provide practice in using particular grammatical structures.

The intensive program subjects, in contrast, had numerous opportunities to both hear and produce extended speech. They were encouraged to answer open-ended questions posed by the teacher and by other students, to make individual presentations in front of the entire class, to canvas other members of the class in survey type activities, and to work in small teams on collaborative projects, which required them to cooperatively plan and carry out work and to request feedback from and provide it to other team members. These projects were then presented to the whole class. In spite

FIGURE 6. DISTRIBUTION OF FLUENCY SCORES

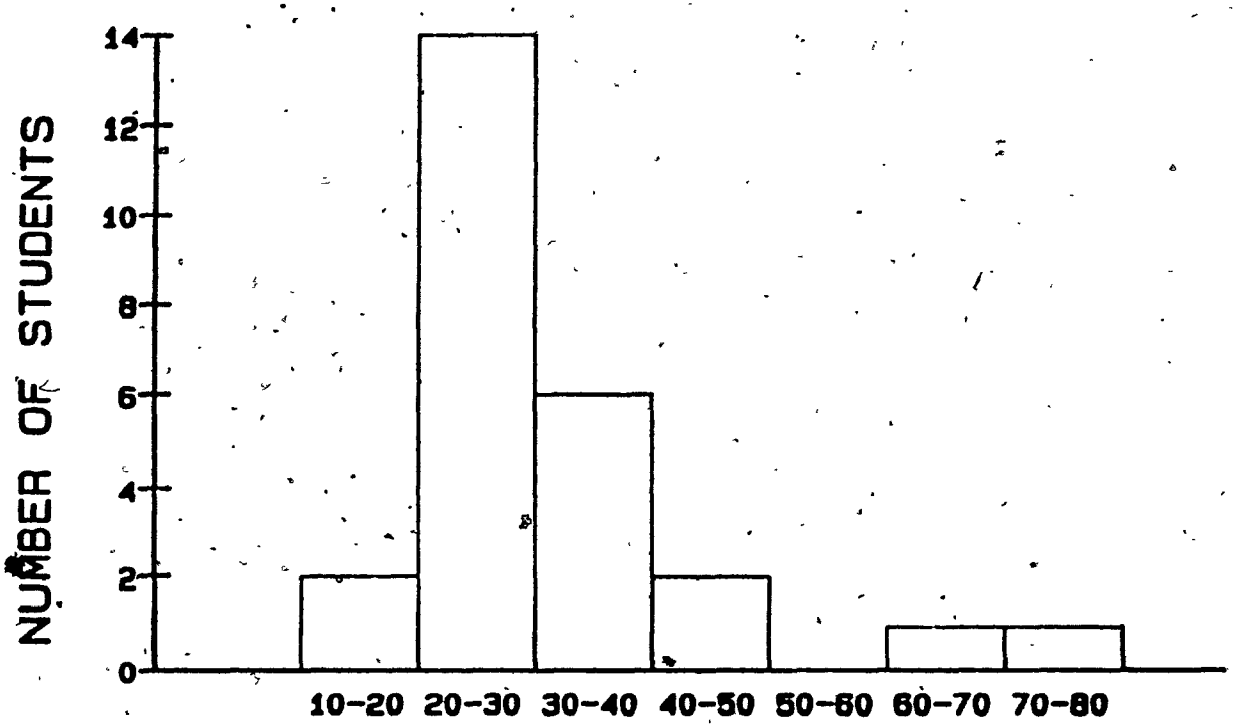


Table 4. Amount of Speech Produced by Intensive Program and Comparison Subjects

	intensive program subjects	comparison subjects	intensive program no outliers	df	t-score	S.L.
mean # words/pic.	40.81	26.08	37.52	54	6.385*	p=.0001
S.D.	13.46	6.54	6.75			
S.E.M.	2.64	1.16	1.38			
n	26	32	24			

Table 4a. Amount of Speech Elicited by PCG and Additional Pictures: Correlation

	n	mean	S.D.	S.E.M.	rho	S.L.
PCG	26	40.81	13.46	2.64	.749*	$p \leq .01$
additional pictures	26	136.54	60.62	11.89		

Table 4b. Amount of Speech Elicited by PCG and Additional Pictures: Comparison

	n	median	median diff.	Wilcox. stat.	crit. val.	S.L.
PCG	26	37.38	-91.00	0	75	$p \leq .01$
additional pictures	26	130.50				

of the fact that French was the native language of nearly all these subjects, English was the working language of the classroom. To this researcher, the absence of French in the classroom was indeed salient.

The ability of these learners to produce truly extended speech within the framework of the present study was tapped by adding to the PCG. As mentioned in Chapter II, the original version of the PCG was simple in design, intended for students who had little, if any, practice in informal extended speech in English. Two sets of more complex pictures were appended to the PCG with the expectation that these pictures, rich in narrative content and detail, would elicit speech that more fully represented the proficiency of the intensive program subjects. For these subjects, the mean number of words elicited by the added pictures was determined. The mean number of words per picture was 136.54 (S.D. = 60.62) as compared with a mean of 40.81 (S.D. = 13.46) elicited by the PCG. The distribution of scores for the two added pictures was found to be not normal ($W = .889$, $p = .01$). Thus, a two-sample sign rank test for paired observations was employed to compare the medians of samples not normally distributed. The two medians were found to be unequal (Wilcoxon statistic = 0, $p <= .01$). In addition, a Spearman's coefficient of rank correlation was calculated and was significant ($rho = .749$, $p <= .01$). These results are presented in Tables 4a and 4b.

In order to investigate the possibility that comparison subjects, being older than the intensive program subjects, produced significantly fewer words on the average because they were bored with the elicitation task, a comparison was made between them and a group of native speakers to whom the same task had been administered and who were approximately the

same age (grades 9-11) as the comparison subjects. One picture from the PCG (picture #5), the one which elicited the highest number of words for both the intensive program subjects and the comparison subjects, was used as the basis for this comparison.

The results are presented in Table 5. Scores of the number of words elicited by this picture for both the comparison subjects and the native speakers were found to be normally distributed (W = .928 and .948 respectively, $p > .1$), but the variances were found to be unequal ($F = 2.424$, $p = .043$, $df = 13, 31$). Consequently a t-test for unequal variances was employed, and the resulting t-score was significant ($t = 4.453$, $p = .001$). Thus, no support was found for the possibility that the lower amount of speech produced by the comparison subjects was due to their age. In the absence of other obvious causes, it seems reasonable to suggest that their production was limited by their level of ESL proficiency.

For the native speakers, fluency scores based on picture #5 were then compared with those for the intensive program subjects. These results are presented in Table 5a. Scores for the intensive program subjects were found to be not normally distributed (W = .815, $p = .01$). The Ansari-Bradley test for adjusting medians was employed, and the dispersions of the two sets of scores were found to be equal ($Z = 1.478$, $p <= .05$). A Mann-Whitney U statistic was calculated and showed that the medians of the two distributions were equal (Mann-Whitney $U = 221$, $p > .05$). This finding seems to support the interpretation that the intensive program subjects were not limited in responding to the task by their level of ESL proficiency. Indeed, in terms of amount of speech produced, they were as "fluent" as the native speakers.

Table 5. Amount of Speech Elicited by Picture #5 from Comparison Subjects and Native Speakers

	n	mean	t-score	df	S.L.
comparison subjects	32	32.94	-4.453*	18	p=.001
native speakers	14	58.71			

Table 5a. Amount of Speech Elicited by Picture #5 from Intensive Program Subjects and Native Speakers Intensive Program Subjects and Native Speakers

	n	median	Mann-Whitney U	crit. val.	S.L.
intensive program subjects	26	45.00			
native speakers	14	57.50	221	252	p>.05

Vocabulary Depth

As mentioned above (p. 69), the eight pictures in the PCG were compared to determine which one had elicited the most speech. This was found to be a picture of a traffic accident between a car and a truck (see Appendix A). It elicited a mean of 54 words per intensive program subject and 33 words per comparison subject. This picture (picture #5) provided the basis for the analysis of linguistic diversity in terms of vocabulary depth.

For a variety of measures, ratio scores were calculated and compared for the intensive program subjects and the comparison subjects. These results are presented in Table 6. The first comparison was for type/token ratios (number of unique words/total words). The distributions of both sets of scores were found to be normal ($p <= .05$), but the variances were not equal ($F = 3.177$, $p = .004$, $df = 31, 25$). Consequently, a t-test for unequal variances was performed and showed that the comparison subjects produced a significantly higher average ratio of unique/total words ($t = -2.909$, $p = .005$).

Since type/token ratios are not independent of the amount of speech produced, a Pearson product-moment coefficient of correlation was obtained to determine if a relationship did indeed exist between amount of speech and type/token ratio. For the intensive program subjects, a significant negative correlation was established ($r = -.629$, $p <= .01$, for $n = 25$). A significant negative correlation was also established for the comparison subjects ($r = -.61954$, $p <= .01$, for $n = 30$), showing an inverse relationship between a high type/token ratio and a high total number of words. This

Table 6. Comparison of Mean Ratio Scores - Vocabulary Depth

picture #5	intensive program subjects	comparison subjects	t-score	approx. df	S.L.
TTR (unique/total)	.505	.604	-2.909*	50	p=.005
content/total	.361	.375	-0.581	48	p=.564
nouns/total	.163	.204	-2.829*	45	p=.007
verbs/total	.086	.090	-0.426	51	p=.672
adjectives/total	.087	.070	1.615	56	p=.112
adverbs[1]/total	.025	.018			

1. Because so few adverbs were produced, the distributions of scores were not normal, and the dispersions of scores were not equal, a statistical comparison was not undertaken.

Table 7. Rate of Speech (in Words/Minute)

rate: picture 5	mean	S.D.	S.E.M.	t-score	df	S.L.
intensive program	81.97	15.65	3.07	.042	45	p=.967
comparison	81.69	34.69	6.13			

implies that the fewer the number of words produced, the less the likelihood that each will be reused, and, conversely, the greater the number of words produced, the greater the likelihood that many of them will be reused. Type/token ratio alone, therefore, does not provide an adequate indication of diversity of language use.

In order to examine the nature of the differences indicated by the type/token ratios, several features of the subjects' oral production were chosen. First, a comparison for mean number of content/total words was undertaken. Nouns (and pronouns), verbs, adjectives, and adverbs were counted as content words. The distributions of scores were found to be normal ($W = .953$ for the intensive program subjects, $W = .985$ for the comparison subjects, $p > .1$). A t-test for unequal variances showed no significant difference between groups ($t = -.581$, $p = .564$). As this revealed nothing about differences in vocabulary depth, an analysis of the frequencies of various parts of speech was undertaken.

The distributions of ratio scores of verbs/total words were found to be normal ($W = .982$ for the intensive program subjects, $W = .956$ for the comparison subjects, $p > .1$), but the variances were unequal ($F = 3.078$, $p = .005$, $df = 31, 25$). A t-test for unequal variances showed no significant difference between the two groups ($t = -.426$, $p = .671$.

For nouns/total words, the ratio scores were also found to be normally distributed ($W = .939$ for the intensive program subjects, $W = .950$ for the comparison subjects, $p > .1$), but again the variances were unequal ($F = 5.023$, $p = .002$, $df = 31, 25$). A t-test for unequal variances showed that the comparison group produced a significantly higher ratio of nouns/total words ($t = -2.829$, $p = .007$).

Modifiers were the basis for the final comparisons. The distributions of adjective/total words scores were normal ($W = .953$, $p > .1$ for the intensive program subjects, and $W = .963$, $p > .1$ for the comparison subjects), and the variances were equal ($F = 1.137$, $p = .748$, $df = 31, 25$). A t-test showed that although the intensive program group produced a higher ratio of adjectives/total words, this difference was not significant ($t = 1.615$, $p = .112$). This group did produce a higher ratio of adverbs/total words,[8] but because there were so few adverbs produced and because the distribution of scores was not normal nor were the dispersions of scores equal, results of a statistical comparison cannot be interpreted literally. It is interesting to note, however, that of the intensive program subjects, 77% produced at least one adverb, with a mean of 1.55 per subject (for $n = 20$). Only 31% of the comparison subjects produced at least one adverb, with a mean of 1.80 per subject (for $n = 10$).

This analysis of parts of speech suggests that the intensive program subjects are beginning to use modifiers to clarify and enrich their speech. They use significantly fewer nouns and proportionately fewer verbs than the comparison subjects, and they employ proportionately more adjectives and adverbs. In addition, this behavior is characteristic of most of the group. More than three-fourths of these subjects employ modification in their speech whereas fewer than a third of the comparison subjects do.

8. ($p <= .05$) This result is based on the Mann-Whitney U statistic, which assumes equal dispersions. The equality of dispersions was rejected by the Ansari-Bradley test ($Z \doteq 2.956$, $p = .003$), bringing into doubt the validity of the Mann-Whitney U statistic.

Rate

Based on picture #5, the rate of delivery in words per minute (wpm) was calculated for the intensive program subjects and for the comparison subjects, and the two mean rates were compared. The distributions of both sets of scores were found to be normal ($W = .990$ for the intensive program subjects, $W = .943$ for the comparison subjects, $p > .1$), but the variances were not equal ($F = 4.914$, $p = .002$, $df = 31, 25$). As these two mean rates were nearly identical (approximately 82 wpm for each group), the resulting t-score for unequal variances failed to reach significance ($t = .042$, $p = .967$). These results are presented in Table 7.

Although there was no difference in mean rate of speech between the two groups, there was a considerable difference in within-group variance. For the intensive program subjects, rate ranged from 53 to 116 wpm ($s = 15.65$) whereas for the comparison subjects, rate ranged from 26 to 157 wpm ($s = 34.69$). The within-group variances might be attributed to many factors, among them differences in individual speech styles, but the large difference in variance between the two groups possibly reflects greater differences in fluency among the comparison subjects than among the intensive program subjects. The few comparison subjects who spoke at a relatively fast rate also appeared, to this researcher, to be the more proficient and confident ESL speakers. It is not unreasonable to assume that their proficiency had been acquired, at least in part, through contact with English outside the classroom (and perhaps was also due, in part, to a high aptitude for L2 learning). In contrast, those intensive program subjects who spoke at a relatively fast rate did not appear to be the more proficient ESL speakers. As none of the intensive program subjects had

experienced appreciable contact with English outside the classroom (see the results and discussion of the contact/attitude questionnaire later in this chapter), it seems plausible that, relative to the comparison speakers, their differences in rate were due more to individual speech styles rather than to differences in proficiency, although such differences (as well as those in L2 aptitude) certainly played some role.

What is not reflected in the mean rate of speech scores is the difference between the two groups in the ease of performance. On the average, the comparison subjects often had to be prompted - "Is that all?"..."Can you tell me more?"..."Is there anything else in your picture?". They did not seem to be at a loss for something to say, rather for the words in which to say it. They did seem to rely somewhat on French and rarely used circumlocution. They tended to stop speaking without indicating that they had completed describing a picture, thus requiring a prompt from the interviewer.

This was not true for the intensive program subjects. Their speech was easy and forthcoming; it seemed to flow out of them. (This, of course, is also reflected in the amount of speech they produced.) They did not seem to lack for words. Often, when they did not have the precise word to express an idea, they used circumlocution. For example, if a subject did not seem to recall the word rain, s/he might say "It's not a very nice day," or if the word ugly (or one with a similar meaning) was not available, "She's not very beautiful" was substituted with very little hesitation. French was virtually never used in these cases.

Correlations Between Measures

In order to determine whether a relationship existed between certain measures of accuracy and fluency, as defined for the purpose of this study, and teacher's end-of-program grade for the intensive program subjects, correlation coefficients were obtained using the Pearson product-moment correlation and Spearman's rank correlation. These results are presented in Table 8. All scores were tested for normality, and both the overall accuracy scores (mean percent accuracy for all six morphemes - see Figure 2) ($W = .958$, $p > .1$) and teacher-assigned grades ($W = .957$, $p > .1$) were found to be normally distributed. However, the global fluency scores (mean number of words elicited per picture - see Figure 6) were not normally distributed ($W = .754$, $p <= .01$). Because this finding violated the assumption of the Pearson correlation that samples are drawn from balanced populations, a Spearman's rho was calculated instead to determine if a relationship existed between the accuracy scores for each subject and the fluency scores (based on the mean number of words produced per picture) for the same subjects. The resulting correlation was not significant (rho = .179, $p >= .05$).

As was done in the analysis of amount of speech produced, the two outliers were removed from the distribution of fluency scores (see p. 64), and the remaining 24 fluency scores were found to be normally distributed ($W = .958$, $p > .1$) as were the 24 remaining accuracy scores ($W = .952$, $p > .1$). A Pearson's r was then calculated for the accuracy and fluency scores with the outliers removed. The resulting correlation coefficient was not significant ($r = .149$, $p = .499$).

Table 8. Correlations of Accuracy Scores, Fluency Scores, and Teacher's Grade

correlation	r	df	n	S.L.
accuracy-fluency	.149	22	24[1]	p=.499
teacher's grade-accuracy	.329	24	26	p=.101
teacher's grade-fluency	.439*	22	24[1]	p=.032

correlation	rho	n	critical value ($p \leq .05$)
accuracy-fluency	.179	26	.329
teacher's grade-fluency	.328	26	.329

1. Outliers removed.

The lack of correlation between accuracy and fluency, as measured in this study, was not unexpected. Grammatical accuracy of this type was not emphasized in the classroom. Achievement of a reasonable level of fluency was the stated goal of the intensive program, and students were encouraged to speak, to try to communicate their ideas and feelings at the risk of grammatical inaccuracy (as long as their messages could be comprehended). There was little or no overt correction of grammar by the teacher, although her input did provide a grammatically accurate model. What grammatical correction there was took the subtle form of the teacher's corrected repetitions, expansions, or recastings of random student (inaccurate) utterances. Errors in content rather than form were more likely to be overtly corrected, as is the case for L1 acquisition. Even though new grammatical forms were introduced in an informally sequenced manner, they were always embedded in a meaningful activity, never the focus of the activity, and thus transparent to the learners.

The teacher's end-of-program grades were correlated with mean percent accuracy and fluency scores. It should be pointed out that these teacher-assigned grades spanned a very narrow range, from B to A+, with the average grade falling between A- and A. When grades were correlated with accuracy scores, the resulting Pearson's coefficient did not reach significance ($r = .329$, $p = .101$). When teacher-assigned grades were correlated with fluency scores, the resulting Spearman's rho approached but did not reach significance ($rho = .328$, $p > .05$). When the two outlying fluency scores were removed, the teacher's grades were re-tested and still found to be normally distributed ($W = .953$, $p > .1$). These two sets of scores were then correlated, and a significant Pearson's coefficient was obtained ($r = .439$, $p = .032$).

Again the lack of correlation with accuracy is not surprising given the goals, design, and techniques of the intensive program. The modest but significant correlation of fluency with teacher-assigned grade seems to reflect the fact that the teacher did indeed assign grades based on the stated goals and practices of the program.

ESL Placement Test

The Baldwin-Cartier Placement Test was designed to identify native English speakers and discriminate between French speakers who demonstrate some proficiency in English as opposed to those who are monolingual. The grade 3 level version was created by the Baldwin-Cartier School Board to be administered to students who had had no previous instruction in English. As such, it may be considered a proficiency test rather than an achievement test. That is, it is not based on any program of instruction but on general knowledge of the language, however it was acquired. The age-appropriate grade 6 version of the same test was judged by the intensive program teacher to be considerably beyond the proficiency level of her students and, therefore, unlikely to provide useful information about their ESL proficiency. The grade 3 version of the test was thought to be at an appropriate level.

This version of the test was administered to 24 of the intensive program subjects (two subjects were not available for testing) three months following completion of their five-month ESL program. The results, in mean percent scores, for the 35-item listening comprehension sub-test, the 35-item reading comprehension sub-test, and the test as a whole are presented in Table 9. The sub-test scores were compared using a t-test of

paired observations. The paired scores were found to be normally distributed ($W = .964$, $p > .1$) and their means significantly different ($t = 14.095$, $p = .0001$).

For the listening comprehension sub-test, the Baldwin-Cartier school board-wide mean percent score for the previous academic year was 53% as compared with a score of 74% for the intensive program subjects. Of these subjects, 23/24 (96%) scored above the school board mean. For the reading comprehension sub-test, the mean percent score was 43% for the intensive program subjects and 34% across the school board. It was expected that the intensive program subjects would score lower on this sub-test because reading in English was not a major component of their instructional program although it sometimes served to complement an activity. Attainment of oral fluency, not reading fluency, was the primary objective of the program. A lower school board-wide mean for this sub-test was also expected, as the test is administered prior to any ESL instruction. French speakers who had some pre-ESL instruction exposure would be more likely to have encountered English in its spoken, not written, form. In spite of the difficulty of the reading comprehension sub-test, the intensive program subjects scored above the school board mean, with 17/24 subjects (71%) attaining scores of 34% or higher.

In order to examine consistency of performance within subject, the two sets of sub-test scores were correlated. As both the listening comprehension scores ($W = .953$, $p >= .05$) and the reading comprehension scores ($W = .937$, $p >= .05$) were normally distributed, a Pearson's r was calculated ($r = .710$). This coefficient reached significance ($p <= .01$),

Table 9. ESL Placement Test Percent Scores (n=24)

	# items	mean	S.D.	S.E.M.	95% C.I.
listening comprehension subtest	35	73.58	10.11	2.06	69.46-77.71
reading comprehension subtest	35	42.67	15.22	3.11	36.45-48.88
complete test	70	58.08	11.76	2.40	53.28-62.89

Table 9a. ESL Placement Test Percent Scores: Sub-test Comparison and Correlation

	# items	mean	t-score	df	S.L.	r	df	S.L.
l. c.	35	73.58	14.095*	23	p=.0001	.710*	22	$p \leq .01$
r. c.	35	42.67						

providing evidence for consistency of performance within subject. Results for this test and for the t-test referred to above are presented in Table 9a.

The combined mean percent score for the two sub-tests was 58% for the intensive program subjects as compared with 44% for the school board. Of the intensive program subjects, 22/24 (92%) scored higher than the school board-wide average. On the basis of combined scores for the listening and reading comprehension sub-tests, for initial ESL instruction, one half of these subjects would be placed in an intermediate level course and the other half in an advanced level course, normally reserved for native English speakers and for fluent bilinguals, according to Baldwin-Cartier School Board placement criteria. While this does not accurately indicate the ESL proficiency for these subjects (remember that these results are based on a grade 3 level test for students about to receive initial ESL instruction), it does provide an indication of just how much can be accomplished in a five-month intensive program.

Approximately one year later, the Baldwin-Cartier Placement Test (grade 3 Level) was re-administered to the intensive program subjects, when they were in grade 6. Of the original 26 students, 20 were still available for testing. During the intervening year, the Baldwin-Cartier School Board had revised the test, removing items which failed to discriminate between fluent and non-fluent speakers of English. The revised version comprises listening and reading comprehension sub-tests, each of which contains 25 items. Each of these 50 items was contained in the original 70-item version of the test. The grade 6 results are presented in Table 10.

As can be seen, the mean percent score rose from 58% in grade 5 to 76% in grade 6. For the 18 subjects who had taken the tests in both grade

Table 10. ESL Placement Test Percent Re-test Scores (n=20)

	# items	mean	S.D.	S.E.M.	95% C.I.
total test	50	75.50	12.83	2.87	69.76-81.24

Table 11. ESL Placement Test and Re-test Percent Scores (n=18)

	# items	mean	S.D.	S.E.M.	95% C.I.
grade 5	70	58.17	12.46	2.94	52.29-64.04
grade 6	50	75.22	13.51	3.19	68.85-81.59

Table 11a. ESL Placement Test: Test/Re-test Comparison and Correlation (n=18)

	t-score	df	S.L.	r	df	S.L.
grade 5/ grade 6	-7.032*	17	p≤.0001	.691*	16	p≤.01

5 and grade 6, 17 (94%) obtained equal or higher scores in grade 6, and only one (6%) obtained a lower absolute score. As this score was lower by only one percentage point, it is probably statistically no different from the grade 5 score for this student, who was, according to teacher-assigned grade, one of the two weakest students in the class.

Two comparisons were made between the grade 5 and grade 6 scores. The outcomes are presented in Tables 11 and 11a. For the 18 subjects who had taken the tests in both grade 5 and grade 6, the distribution of paired scores was found to be normal ($W = .981$; $p >= .05$), and a t-score for paired observations was calculated ($t = -7.032$). This score attained a high level of significance ($p = .0001$). Also, in order to examine consistency of performance within subject, the two sets of scores were correlated. A Pearson's coefficient was obtained and was found to reach significance ($r = .691$, $p <= .01$).

These results may indicate the effectiveness of the intensive ESL program (because the test forms are not comparable, this conclusion cannot be considered to have adequate support). Not only did these subjects appear not to lose their English following completion of the program, but they appear to have continued acquiring English, as measured by this test, in spite of the fact that they returned to only one hour per week of ESL instruction in the post-intensive program. This suggests that they were willing and able to find opportunities for contact with English outside of the classroom and had achieved a strong foundation on which to build an edifice of increasingly proficient English.

Language Contact and Attitude Questionnaire

In order to assess students' attitudes and expectations about English as well as the amount and kind of exposure to English which they had outside the classroom, a 20-item questionnaire was administered to the intensive program subjects one month following completion of their intensive ESL program (Appendix E contains a copy of this questionnaire). Table 12 presents their responses to questions about exposure to English outside the classroom, and Table 13 presents their responses to questions about attitudes and expectations about English. The decimal scores represent the percent of students who responded to the alternatives presented in each question.

The results confirm that the large majority of intensive program subjects are from French-speaking homes (two subjects speak Spanish with their parents but speak both Spanish and French with their siblings, and one subject speaks both French and English with her parents but French only with her siblings). They tend to have limited contact with non-French speakers, and their primary out-of-school exposure to English is through the electronic media. Nearly all subjects seem to watch English television programs often and listen to English (rock) singers or groups on the radio often or daily. (One wonders how much comprehension of lyrics there is!) Few subjects go to English language films. Their exposure to the print media is more limited than to the electronic media. Half the subjects reported that they "sometimes" read newspaper or magazine articles and ads or labels in English and nearly half reported "sometimes" or "often" writing a letter in English. Surprisingly, three-quarters of the subjects reported that they "sometimes" or "often" read an English book. It is not known,

Table 12. Frequencies of Responses to "Exposure" Questions (n=26)

	French	English	Spanish	Spanish/ French	English/ French
1. language spoken with mother	.88	.04	.08	---	---
2. mother's native language	.88	.04	.04	.04	---
3. language spoken with father	.88	.04	.04	.04	---
4. father's native language	.77	.04	.08	.04	.08
5. language spoken with siblings	.92	---	---	---	.08

(n=25)	never	sometimes	often	every day
6. speak English w/ family member	.04	.60	.36	---

(n=25)	yes	no
7. studied in an English school	.08	.92

(n=2)	age	location
8. if yes to 7., age/location	3 yr. 6-8 yr.	St-Bruno Greenfield Park

(n=24)	both	neither	mother	father
11. parents speak Eng. at work	.21	.21	.08	.50

	no one	one person	several people
12. speak English w/ non-speaker of Fr.	.31	.38	.31

Table 12. (continued)

	named 0	named 1	named 2	named 3
16. favorite Eng. T.V. program	.04	---	.12	.85
17. English films	.62	.12	.19	.08
18. English singers or groups	.04	---	.27	.69

20. how often:	never	almost never	sometimes	often	every day
a. speak English w/ French friends	---	.19	.35	.19	.27
b. speak English w/ English friends	.04	.15	.38	.35	.08
c. speak English w/ English adults	---	.42	.31	.19	.08
d. listen to English music (n=24)	---	---	.08	.25	.67
e. listen to spoken English on radio	.08	.31	.31	.19	.12
f. watch Eng. T.V. programs	---	.02	.19	.50	.27
g. see an English film	.38	.19	.27	.15	---
h. read newspaper magazine in Eng.	.12	.31	.50	.08	---
i. read English ads or labels	.04	.35	.50	.12	---
j. read an English book	.08	.15	.38	.38	---
k. write a letter in English	.31	.23	.27	.19	---

Table 13. Frequencies of Responses to "Attitude" Questions (n=26)

	too many	too few	just right
9. hours spent in intensive Eng.	---	.04	.96

	yes	no
10. need English for work	.92	.08

	more	less	some
if yes, how much compared to Fr.	.04	.13	.83

	yes	no
13. will speak Eng. well someday	1.00	---

(n=25)	better than	as well	less well
14. speak Eng. compared w/ other students	.12	.88	---
15. understand Eng. compared w/ other students	.08	.92	---

	English present	English absent
19. favorite subjs. this year	.27	.73

however, whether they read entire books, and of what length, or whether they tend to browse, reading selected sections. It is also possible that they were reporting on their in-school behavior, forgetting that the question referred to out-of-school contact with English.

Answers to questions about attitudes and expectations with regard to English provided some interesting and pleasant surprises. None of the subjects thought that the time devoted to intensive English instruction had been excessive. Indeed, all save one thought the time was "just right." Nearly all subjects anticipated needing English for work someday, and most thought they would need English and French equally. All subjects indicated that they thought they would speak English well someday. Even though the quantitative measures taken for this study found individual differences in ESL proficiency among these subjects, their perceptions of their own proficiency did not indicate this. Nearly all subjects reported that they both spoke and understood English "as well as" the other students in their class; none marked the "less well" alternative. It is somewhat puzzling that only about one-quarter of the subjects included English among their three favorite school subjects (for that year), but it is possible that they did not consider English a "subject" like their others since they had spent full days for five months in the ESL classroom.

Indeed, their responses to these "attitude" questions indicate that English was, or was becoming, an integrated part of their lives, something that they felt natural and comfortable with and expected to be an important part of their lives in the future. Their high degree of confidence in their ability to use English is one indication of the success of the intensive program and also makes it likely that they will continue to search

for and find opportunities to increase their contact with English. Thus, one might anticipate that they will continue to develop their sense of confidence and comfort and become the proficient speakers of English that they expect to be.

A questionnaire comprising 17 of the same 20 questions had been administered to all the subjects in Lightbown's longitudinal study (Lightbown & Barkman, 1978). Among these subjects were 57 grade 8 students, of whom 32 became longitudinal subjects, the grade 10 comparison subjects in the present study. Separate results for these 32 subjects were not available, but there is no ostensible reason to assume that responses for all 57 students are not reasonably comparable to those for the sub-group of 32. All 57 students had received the same total amount of ESL instruction (approximately 540 hours) and had been taught English through a program which distributed instruction in small amounts over a long period of time (sometimes referred to as the "drip feed" method) and which adopted a structural approach. Therefore, responses for these 57 subjects were compared with those of the intensive program subjects.

The results available for the 57 grade 8 students were in the same format as those presented in Tables 12 and 13 for the intensive program subjects, that is, the percent of subjects who responded to the alternatives presented in each question. One response alternative in each question had been assigned a weight in accordance with its considered contribution to an overall index of contact or index of attitudes. The percent of subjects responding to the weighted alternative for each question was multiplied by the weight for that alternative, and a set of weighted scores was calculated for the intensive program subjects and for the 57 grade 8 students

Table 14. Index of Exposure

question number	response	weight	intensive n=26	comparison n=57
1.	English	+2	----	.030
2.	English	+1	----	.015
3.	English	+2	----	.030
4.	English	+1	.040	.035
5.	English	+2	----	.070
7.	yes	+2	.160	----
11.	at least one parent	+1	.790	.575
12.	at least one person	+1	.690	.350
16.	could name 3	+1	.850	.695
18.	could name 3	+1	.690	.615
	sum	+14	3.220	2.415
	mean		.230	.173

Table 15. Index of Attitudes

question number	response	weight	intensive n=26	comparison n=57
9.	too few	+1	.040	.250
10.	yes	+1	.920	.880[1]
13.	no	-1	----	-.170
14.	better than	+2	.240	.230
	as well as	+1	.880	.225
	less well than	-1	----	-.660
15.	better than	+2	.160	.350
	as well as	+1	.920	.125
	less well than	-1	----	-.700
19.	English present	+1	.270	.590
	sum	+6	3.430	1.120
	mean		.572	.187

1. 88% of total subjects in Grades 6, 8, and 10 (n=184) participating in longitudinal study.

("comparison" subjects). Mean weighted scores were calculated for each group, and these are presented in Tables 14 and 15.

Because no individual scores were available for the "comparison" subjects, no statistical comparisons can be made between the two sets of mean scores. The index of exposure mean scores appear to differ for the two groups although this difference may or may not be real. The intensive program subjects have a higher "exposure" score than the "comparison" subjects, and this is due to the fact that they indicated more contact with non-French speakers and more exposure to English-language television and music.

The "comparison" subjects' responses to two attitude questions warrant mention. As compared with the intensive program subjects, a higher percent of these subjects reported that they had too few hours of ESL instruction and that English was among their three favorite school subjects. It is possible, however, that rather than answering these questions candidly, they responded in a manner biased by their perception of the task and answered according to what they thought was expected from them. In spite of these two responses, the difference in index of attitude mean scores almost certainly is a real difference (although there is no statistical support for this). The difference between the groups' levels of confidence in their ability to use English, indicated by the weighted scores, is striking. The "comparison" subjects do not expect that they will be able to speak English well when they have finished school although most think that they will need English for work. The majority tend to think that they both speak and understand English less well than their classmates. These results are almost diametrical to those for the intensive program subjects, who expect that

they will need English for work and that they will be able to speak it well and none of whom think they speak or understand English less well than their classmates.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The general question addressed by this study concerns selcted aspects of the outcome of a five-month long intensive elementary school ESL program based on a communicative approach to language instruction. In investigating the English L2 proficiency of the subjects in the study, several important features of speech were analyzed: accuracy, fluency, diversity, rate, and overall proficiency, as well as student attitudes and expectations. For most of these features, comparisons were made with a group of subjects comparable in native language and socio-economic status as well as total amount of ESL instruction and exposure to English outside the classroom.

Grammatical accuracy was investigated in terms of suppliance of six grammatical morphemes in obligatory contexts and in inappropriate contexts (overuse). For these morphemes, with the exception of the BE copula, accuracy in obligatory contexts appeared to be significantly lower for the intensive program subjects than for the comparison subjects although it was not possible to use statistical means to confirm this. Overuse of the -s morpheme was trivial for both groups.

When morphemes were ranked for order of accuracy, differences between the two groups of subjects were found to be minor. However, when compared with the accuracy/acquisition order proposed by Krashen (1977) as a "natural order" for all English L2 acquirers, the order for the intensive program group differed considerably. In particular, this group

exhibited a relatively low accuracy for the present progressive -ing and for the plural -s. The -ing form has no counterpart in French, which expresses the progressive aspect through adverbial rather than verbal structure, and the plural is not marked in spoken French except in cases of liaison. The intensive program subjects also exhibited a relatively high level of accuracy for the third person present singular -s, however, this is accounted for by the subjects' frequent use of have both as a main verb and in introducer phrases most likely derived from the French introducer il y a. (Some of the morpheme acquisition studies cited by Krashen counted has separately (Dulay & Burt, 1974), so a comparison between Krashen's order and that found in this study is problematic for this morpheme.)

The intensive program subjects were exposed to English in a rich, naturalistic, interactive linguistic environment which allowed for "acquisition" rather than "learning," as Krashen has defined these terms (1977, 1983), and the elicitation task certainly tapped what he would call the acquired, not the learned, system. However, these findings do not confirm the "natural order," which claims that there is an average order of acquisition for all learners of ESL irrespective of native language, age, or type and amount of target language exposure. Rather, they suggest that the native language of these subjects is an important variable affecting the accuracy order. This interpretation is strengthened by the similarity of accuracy orders for the two groups in this study. Although the type of ESL instruction and the distribution of that instruction over time differed considerably for these two groups, their accuracy orders are strikingly similar.

The results of the fluency/diversity/rate investigation reveal other interesting differences and similarities between the two groups of subjects. On the average, the intensive program subjects produced more than one-and-a-half times the amount of meaningful speech as did the comparison subjects, an amount comparable to that produced by native speakers performing the same task. When given a more challenging task, the intensive program subjects more than tripled the amount of speech they produced.

The intensive program subjects also showed greater diversity in vocabulary use. In particular, more of them employed modification in their speech, employing adjectives and adverbs rather than only nouns and verbs to communicate their messages. Although rate of delivery was virtually identical for the two groups, the intensive program subjects spoke with greater ease and fluidity, rarely hesitating or requiring prompting from the interviewer in order to successfully perform the task.

On a test designed to measure English proficiency in terms of vocabulary recognition, knowledge of grammatical structures, and listening and reading comprehension, the intensive program subjects demonstrated considerable proficiency although their exposure to English had been in a program that emphasized oral fluency rather than any of the skills sampled by the test. The results of this test are somewhat difficult to interpret, however, because the age-appropriate test (designed to distinguish native from non-native speakers of the same age as these subjects) was judged by their teacher to be too difficult for these subjects, and so the test administered was one intended for younger students. When a similar test was administered approximately one year after the intensive program had

concluded, during which time subjects received no special follow-up instruction (they received one hour per week of ESL instruction), nearly all subjects obtained higher scores, and the group obtained a significantly higher mean score. This finding suggests that subjects had perhaps sought and found ways to maintain contact with English outside of school and that, as a result, were able to continue building their ESL proficiency.

Perhaps the most surprising finding in this study, at least to this researcher, was the low accuracy on most morphemes for the intensive program subjects although the discrepancy between accuracy and fluency is not unlike that reported in Genesee's (1978) study of early French immersion, in which immersion subjects performed less successfully on measures of grammatical accuracy than on measures of fluency, particularly amount of speech and communicativeness (ease and willingness to speak). The surprise is perhaps due to the non-perception of low accuracy (as defined here), which seems to be masked by the impressive fluency, communicativeness, and confidence of these learners. This non-perception of low accuracy resembles a finding reported in Upshur & Palmer's (1973) study of formally instructed and "incidental" adult learners of ESL in Thailand. Native speaker raters perceived the incidental learners as more grammatically accurate despite test results which found the opposite, that the formally instructed learners were grammatically more accurate. The authors account for this by referring to the principle of pragmatics, the "knowledge of the relationships between conceptual events and linguistic events" (p. 216). Native speakers, having pragmatic knowledge of English use, have expectations for linguistic events that are likely to follow from any conceptual events. The amount of information required to process linguistic events is viewed as a function of the degree of correspondence

between any conceptual and linguistic events - the greater the degree of correspondence, the smaller the amount of linguistic data processed and thus, the fewer the opportunities for perceiving linguistic errors. The informal or "incidental" ESL learners, having more pragmatic knowledge, were able to know what the raters had inferred from their speech and continue to meet the raters' linguistic expectations. The formally instructed learners were unable to do this and so required that the raters rely more on language than on shared concepts to understand them. In doing so, the raters processed more linguistic data, had more opportunities to notice errors, and so rated these subjects lower on grammatical accuracy.

It seems plausible that the intensive program subjects, having acquired English in a rich, naturalistic setting, have also acquired considerable knowledge of how English is used, that is, of English pragmatics. Not only might use of this knowledge mask grammatical inaccuracies for the native speaker interlocutor, but it might also be a reciprocal process, masking grammtical information in the target language model for the language learner. Both the learner and the native speaker interlocutor could use their shared knowledge of pragmatics in communication situations, increasing the redundancy of information, and thus relying less on purely linguistic data to understand one another. In part, this might account for the non-perception (and perhaps late acquisition) of certain grammatical features by language learners.

Higgs and Clifford (1982) report finding lower grammatical accuracy in naturalistic second language learners as compared with formally instructed learners. In addition, in assessing the foreign language skills of U.S.

government employees and prospective employees using the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) oral proficiency scale, they report a finding characteristic of candidates who have had a particular kind of formal instruction: early immersion in unstructured "communicative" instructional settings. These candidates, in spite of later intensive language training, seem to fossilize at the 2 to 2+ level on the FSI scale (see Appendix F), that is, they have relatively low grammatical accuracy and relatively high vocabulary and rate of delivery scores. In contrast, candidates who have had early instruction in programs placing a higher premium on grammatical accuracy than on communication and who have experienced the same later intensive language training are able to gain speaking proficiency levels higher than 2 or 2+ on the FSI scale. Even when global ratings for learners having these two types of early instruction experiences are the same, their profiles differ according to the relative contributions of vocabulary, grammar, and fluency.

Higgs and Clifford suggest that students of early immersion communicative programs cannot later "acquire" rules that have not been acquired early, that they can only "learn" them and therefore not always utilize them appropriately when needed. Learners of this type seem to exhibit "irremediable" errors which are amenable neither to classroom instruction nor in-country experience in the foreign language. They urge curriculum and program planners to take these findings into consideration at a time when the achievement of communicative competence seems to be the focus of much foreign language instruction.

Higgs and Clifford's concern is one well worth noting, but it must be considered in view of second or foreign language program objectives, the overall time and resources available for L2 instruction, and learners' needs.

The learners in their study were preparing for careers in government diplomatic and intelligence service and, as such, were concerned with achieving extremely high, even native-like, levels of foreign language proficiency. This is not the case, however, for most foreign language learners, and even many second language learners probably do not expect or need to achieve L2 proficiency beyond a level equivalent to á 2 or 2+ rating on the FSI scale. Not only is the time for learning in typical L2 programs not comparable to that for the FSI learners (this is true even in intensive L2 programs), but the motivation that must be maintained for school learners is not comparable to that for candidates in specialized government programs.

Krashen & Terrell (1983) claim that "grammar will be effectively acquired if goals are communicative" (p. 21), but the findings of this study and previous studies of fluency-based L2 programs suggest that this is not the case, at least for the amount of time usually available for language instruction in school settings. It seems more realistic to expect that, at least at the early and intermediate levels, fluency will surpass accuracy. Brumfit (1979), in discussing the implications of using fluency rather than accuracy as the basis for a second or foreign language curriculum says

> Fluency as a basis, then, may be closer to the apparent learner syllabus of the natural learner in a total immersion situation, in that the naive learner operates more on an oral basis of fluent and inaccurate [emphasis added] language than on a careful building up analytically of accurate items according to a descriptive model...the student will be expected to grope and paraphrase, and thus to learn the strategies for communication which all language users possess in

their mother tongues, and which all need to develop in foreign languages. The emphasis is thus on the use, not the possession of the target language (p. 188).

Certainly, the experience of learners and teachers alike shows that many learners whose early foreign language instruction has a structure-accuracy focus never develop communicative facility. Although Higgs & Clifford report that, in general, only those who have received early structure-based instruction achieve high levels of proficiency (as measured on the FSI scale), this early experience might be a necessary but is clearly not a sufficient condition for the achievement of communicative competence.

The final focus of this study, in the domain of attitudes and expectations, produced encouraging findings. The intensive program subjects reported that they expected someday to need English for work as much as they would need French, and all subjects indicated that they thought they would speak English well someday. A high degree of confidence in their current ability to use English was exhibited by these subjects, as well. In spite of individual differences in proficiency found on quantitative measures, nearly all subjects indicated they they both spoke and understood English "as well as" or "better than" their classmates; none chose the "less well" alternative. Nearly the opposite was true for the comparison subjects. Although most indicated that they expected to need English for work, they did not expect to be able to speak English well someday. In addition, the majority tended to think that they both spoke and understood English less well than their classmates. The high degree of confidence exhibited by the intensive program subjects is testimony to the success of their program and points to its possible long-term success. It seems likely that these subjects will continue to seek and find opportunities to increase their contact with

English and thus, continue to develop their sense of confidence and comfort and become the proficient speakers of English that they expect to be.[9]

Limitations of This Study and Suggestions for Further Research

Ideally, one would like to be able to attribute differences in the ESL performance of the intensive program subjects, as opposed to the comparison program subjects, to particular features of their ESL instruction, as the two groups are comparable on other relevant measures such as native language, total number of hours of ESL instruction, contact with English outside the ESL classroom, and socio-economic status (although they are not comparable in terms of age). However, the ESL instruction of the intensive program differs in two important ways: it is based on a communicative syllabus rather than on a discrete-point structuralist one, and the time allotted for instruction is massed in an intensive block rather than distributed over several years although the total time spent on ESL instruction is approximately the same. Because these two variables, type of instruction and distribution of time, are confounded, neither can be identified as the sole, or major, source of any differences found nor can their possible contributions be teased apart.

A second limitation concerns the generalizability of findings from this study to even similar intensive ESL programs. One cannot ignore the fact

9. An alternative explanation is that the comparison subjects, rather than expressing low confidence in their ability (and future ability) to use English, were being more realistic (or cynical) simply because they were older.

that the high level of oral proficiency of these subjects may be due in part to the effect of their teacher, apparently an outstandingly gifted instructor with eight years of experience in this type of program, which she herself developed. In the classroom she exhibited unusual competence, commitment, energy, enthusiasm, and accessibility. If we ask what we can expect of a five-month intensive program based on this example, we must be sure to recognize that this particular program is in the hands of an exceptional teacher.

This is meant to be a descriptive study, one which might eventually lead to the formation and testing of hypotheses about the second language acquisition process. However, the scope of this study is modest, and its findings require support from other descriptive studies. Suggestions for such studies include the investigation of a larger number of subjects and teachers, the inclusion of a formal classroom observation component (process evaluation) to document the nature of the instruction and the classroom interaction, formal evaluation of instructional materials, and long-term follow-up, if possible. In addition, other measures of proficiency might be employed, in particular less limited measures of grammatical accuracy as well as judgements of grammaticality and acceptability. Automating linguistic analysis would expand the possibilities for examining syntax and lexicon.[10]

10. Many of these features have been incorporated in an ongoing study of intensive ESL instruction in Quebec public schools. This study is being conducted under the supervision of P. M. Lightbown at the TESL Center, Concordia University, Montreal.

Another direction for related study would be to compare the performance of intensive program students with that of students in a regular program using the same syllabus and receiving the same type and total number of hours of instruction, where distribution of time is the only relevant difference. This way, the effect of distribution of time can be teased apart from total time. As all school boards in Quebec have been mandated by the Quebec Ministry of Education to base instruction on the new communicative ESL curriculum, this kind of study will be feasible in a few years, when students in the regular program will have completed a comparable total number of hours of instruction to students in a short-term intensive program. It will then be possible to address questions like "how significant a variable is intensity of instruction?", "are there threshold effects?", and, if so, "are various aspects of language differentially affected?" One program underway in a Montreal area school offers ESL instruction for five hours per week (using the same communicative syllabus employed elsewhere). This would be an apt setting to include in a study of distribution of instructional time.

A study comparing communicative and structuralist approaches to language teaching in an intensive program is not feasible in Quebec anymore, due to the Ministry of Education requirements. However, within the number of extant and planned intensive ESL programs, there does appear to be variation in instructional methods and materials. If this can be confirmed through a descriptive process evaluation, then the possible effects of type of instruction can also be investigated within the intensive program framework.

It is clear that research questions are numerous and opportunities for research are extensive. It is hoped that the present study will have provided useful information about the expectations one might have of a short-term intensive program and that it will serve as a springboard for further investigation of this timely subject. Quite recently, the Quebec Minister of Education publically approved the intensification of elementary school ESL instruction beginning in grade 4 across the province.[11] The French-speaking population is increasingly calling for such programs so that their children will have access through the public schools to opportunities for achieving functional bilingualism. A few Montreal area school boards have begun offering intensive ESL instruction and others have indicated their intention to do the same in the near future. Only careful and sustained research can address many of the important questions likely to arise about the nature and effectiveness of these programs.

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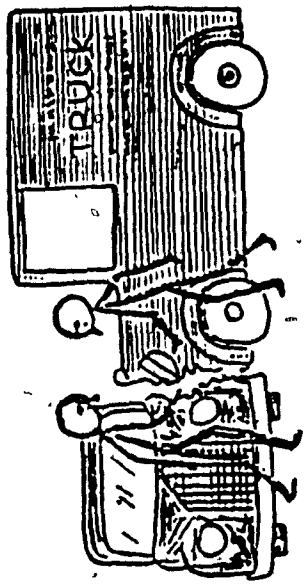
APPENDIX A

Sample PCG pictures: picture #5 ("accident" picture) and additional ("complex") picture.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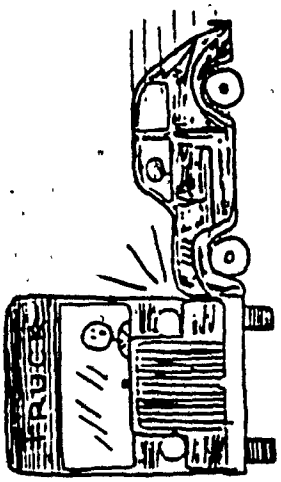
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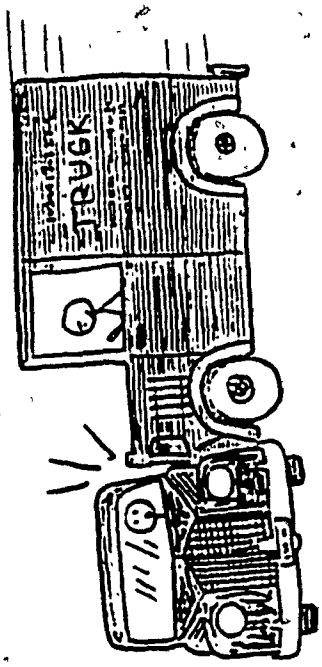
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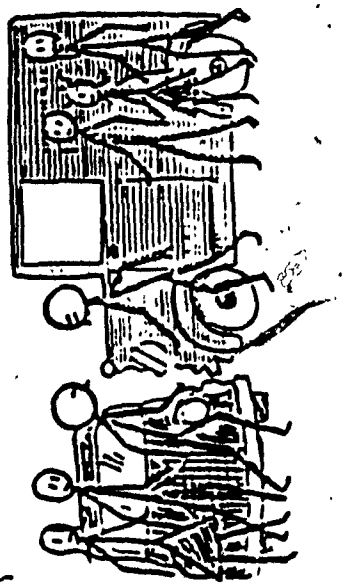
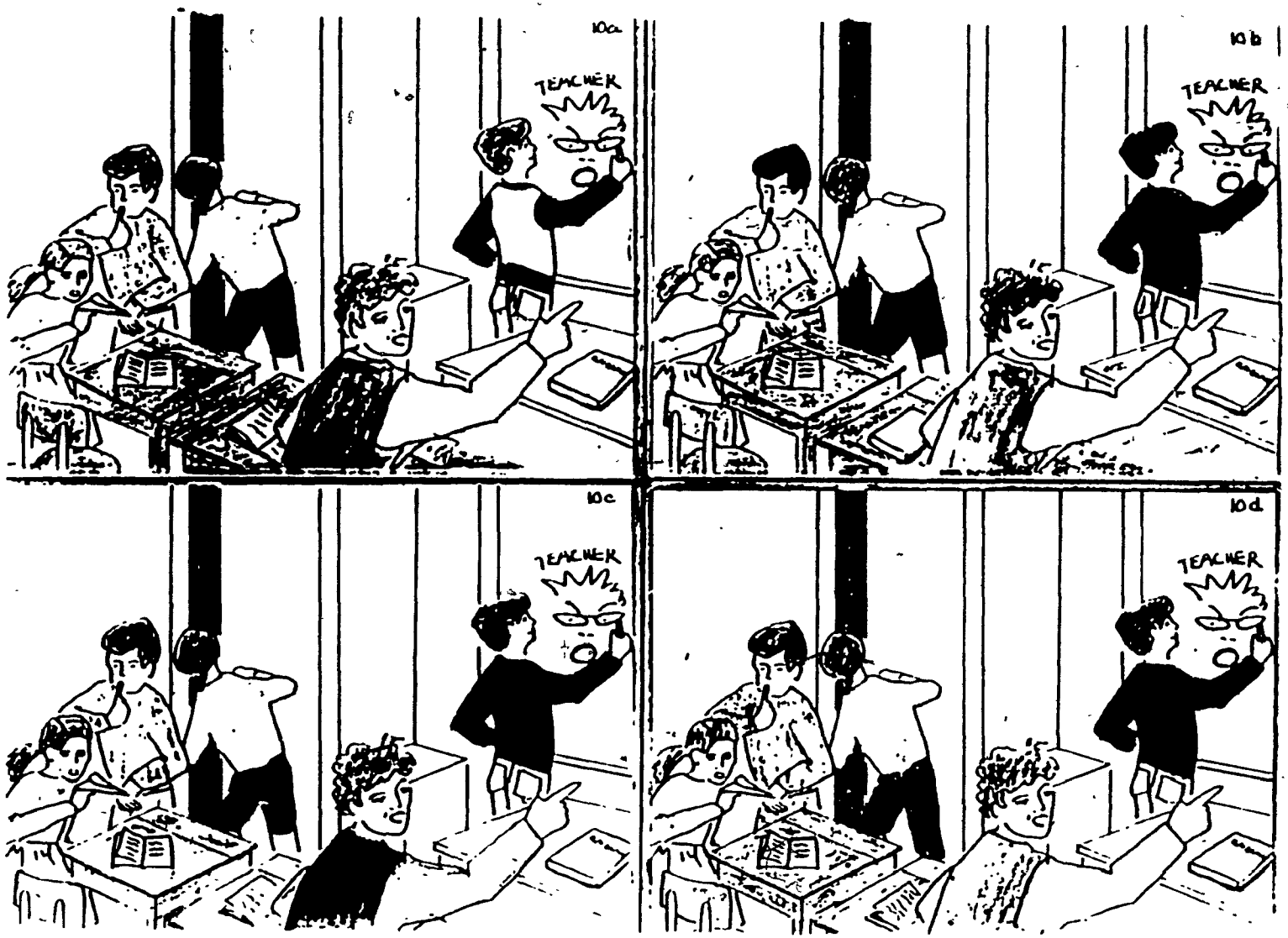



10a
TEACHER
10b
TEACHER
10c
TEACHER
10d
TEACHER

APPENDIX B

Samples of transcribed speech from intensive program subjects who evidence high (subject #2), average (subject #3), and low (subject #4) relative proficiency.

Picture #5: Intensive Program Subjects

Subject #2: O.K. This is uh_, an accident.? and uh the accident is with a_, a blue truck and a_, orange and red uh car.? the two mans_, are uh out_, their uh_, their car /---/_, and uh_, they look at what's happen.,

---

Subject #3: It's on the street., You have a truck and a car.? and the truck uh_, make crack on the truck (imitates sound of moving vehicle).. The truck is uh_, /bɛ̃/ the car is orange.? and uh_, mm_, the truck is blue.? That's it..

Interviewer: Are %there% people??

Subject #3: %And uh_% Yeah., *In the in the* car he has uh one mister and uh_, w^ the truck uh_, uh one mister too., and uh_, on the truck is write truck.? there (whispers and gestures) *on the on the* top.? (whispers)

Interviewer: That one?? (displays picture #5c)

Subject #3: Uh_, no..

Interviewer: Mhm., *Why how* is it different from yours?.

Subject #3: This., (points)

Interviewer: Aha!. What's different about it do you think?.

Subject #3: The _, the car it's on the _, other side of the truck..

Subject #4: He has two family., One in a truck and the other in a car., The truck uh_, smash the car_, and uh two uh man uh___ *scream at uh_, scream..*

Interviewer: Are they in %(whispered)%

Subject #4: %No% uh_, outside..

Interviewer: And what has just happened?,

Subject #4: The truck smash the car..

Interviewer: This one?? (displays picture #5b)

Subject #4: No.. He has uh_, all the family go uh_, out..

Interviewer: Oh, there are more than two people..

Subject #4: Yes..

Additional (Complex) Picture: Intensive Program Subjects

Subject #2: Mhm.. (to self) This is in a class, but uh the teacher is not there.. One student is uh at the board.? *He he's* wearing a_, red sweater, sweater and uh_, jeans.? He's write on the board teacher and he uh do his uh_, his uh_, like a_, his picture.? and uh one other student is checking uh_, if the *st^ the teacher* uh is arriving_, at the class.? Uh_, a little girl uh_, *is do^ is do^ uh have* in her hand uh_, *an an a* paper airplane.? and she_, she's wearing a blue skirt and a blue sweater.. She have blond hair., and uh_, in the class */dhes/ there's* five student.? The board uh have a little bit of yellow.? and the picture of the teacher is uh with a glass and a big mouth.. and /huh/ hair /---/ (uninterpretable whisper) The_, and there's a student., He's uh_, wearing_, a green vest.. and under, I think, is a_, uh white with a little bit of yellow_,

Interviewer: Mhm..

Subject #2: turtleneck uh sweater.? and he have uh___ uh_, like uh_, not chestnut but a little bit red_,

Interviewer: Hair?? %Mhm.,%

Subject #2: %reddish% hair.,

Subject #3: He has uh people who's */draying/ drawing* on the board., H^ he's drawing a teacher.? He has black hair, red sweater, and uh_, blue pants.? Another is sit on a _, bureau.? uh on a chair and he has bureau in front *of_, of* him., He has *brown blond* hair.? yellow tee-shirt, and uh_, black thing uh_, on it., Mm_, beside he has uh_, three other person., *One one's a gir^ two is a girl* I think., No, two boy and one girl., A girl's have yellow hair_, and a dress.? *The one* boy he has green tee-shirt-a shirt, sweater., He has blue pants and brown hair., Uh_, and the other boy *has^ is* wearing shorts and a_, sweater_, purple one and a brown hair..

Interviewer: And what's happening in the class?.

Subject #3: They uh___ the_, one *he's on he's* going outside, I think., /hey/ open the door.? Another he's uh_, point at the board.? And uh_, the girl_, pitch a airplane.? And the other he's said uh n^ don't do this., He's like this..

Subject #4: It's like at the secondary school.? He has a boy drawing the teacher.? and uh_, they are two girl three boy.? and they play uh_, in the classroom.? He has a girl with a uh_, paper airplane., He has a book on the desk of the teacher., and of the desk of the two student..

Interviewer: And what's happening with the class??

Subject #4: They uh_, play..

Interviewer: What is the boy at the board doing?.

Subject #4: The boy are drawing.? *They dra^ he drawing* the teacher..

Interviewer: And what's he wearing?.

Subject #4: Uh_, red sweater and blue uh pants.. And he has black hair..

APPENDIX C

Transcription Conventions

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS FOR ESL TEACHING & LEARNING PROJECT

CONTENTS

0.0 Introduction

Use these conventions when you transcribe tapes which derive from the ESL teaching and learning project. Now that the computer programs for reformatting and making concordances of the transcripts are operational, some changes in the ways that hand transcriptions are written have become necessary. If the hand-written transcript resembles the format required for entering the data into the computer system, the data can be entered more quickly and the results of entry will thus be available sooner for analysis. Failure to follow the conventions will not only slow down entry into the computer files, but will result in frequent errors, especially in punctuation, which will be detected by the error-detection programs, and require correction before the reformatting and concordance programs can be run.

The list of contents which precedes this introduction should make it possible for you to consult the section of the document you want to check more efficently than previous versions of the transcription conventions.

1.0 Transcript Identification

The first page of each transcript contains identifying information, on the left-hand side of the page, on successive lines.

1.1 Classroom sessions

(1) Tape number, e.g., TA192

(2) The class identifier, e.g., 32-05
32-06
53-01

(3) The first name of the teacher, e.g., Marjolaine
(4) The date of the recording, e.g., 30 September 1978

1.2 Interview tapes

Start each new interview on the tape on a new page and include the following information:

(1) Tape number, e.g., TA197
(2) Interview identifier for that tape, e.g., TA197A, TA197B, etc.
(3) Class idenfifier, e.g., 32-05
(4) Student name(s) and number(s), e.g., Stéphane Samson 230; Pierre Danis 267
(5) Interviewer, e.g., Nina
(6) Date, e.g., 14 November 1978

1.3 Tests

For tests, write the student number on the top of the first page.

2.0 Transcriber and Verifier Identification

On the top right-hand side of the first page of each transcript, write:

TR: (Name of the transcriber)
VER: (Name of verifier)

The verifier writes his name after he has finished verifying the tape completely.

3.0 Basic Units of Speech and Related Behavior

3.1 Utterance units and utterances

An utterance unit is all talk by an individual (or group speaking in unison) until he stops talking. Talk by other individuals which occurs simultaneously with or partly overlaps with another utterance unit is counted as a separate utterance unit. Utterances are those parts of utterance units marked by a final intonation contour (see Section 7.3 below). All speech is to be transcribed.

3.2 Speech qualifiers

Speech qualifiers describe special features of utterance units, such as whispering, shouting, and other characteristics of delivery. These are transcribed in parentheses, whenever they seem relevant, e.g., 236: Pick it up.. (whispering)

3.3 Non-verbal behavior

Gesture, movements, non-speech noises, and other actions are examples of non-verbal behavior. These are included in the transcription when they have been observed and noted down by the observers, also in parentheses, e.g., 000: (236 throws paper toward wastebasket but it falls on the floor).

4.0 Placement of Units on Page by Source

4.1 Student

All student behavior is transcribed on the right-hand side of the page.

4.2 Other

Teacher, researcher and all other sources of interaction are transcribed on the left-hand side of the page.

5.0 Source Identification

5.1 Student

Students have a three-digit identifying number (in 1977-78, they had 2-digit identifying numbers, but these will be changed), e.g., 230, 172. Use 000 for an unidentified student and for the group speaking together.

5.2 Teacher

Teachers are identified by the first initial of their first name, e.g., P (Pat)
S (Serge)
D (Daisy)
G (Gilbert)
M (Marjolaine)

5.3 Other

Other sources are identified by a single alphabetic character, e.g., B (Bruce)
T (TV)
I (Intercom)

6.0 Characters Available for Use in Transcription

Only alphabetic characters (A-Z) and ( ) - / \ * @ __ ' ^ . ! , ? : are allowed in the transcription of speech.

7.0 Transcribing Speech from Classroom and Interview Tapes

7.1 Ordinary spelling

7.1.1 Interpretable speech is spelled in the ordinary way, e.g., 223: He want a new coat..

7.1.2 Numbers are to be written out unless they are used inside parentheses, e.g.,

- There are ten questions for your homework (RIGHT)
- There are 10 questions for your homework (WRONG)
- (066 speaking to 073) (RIGHT)

7.1.3 special words with varying spellings. Spell the following forms as indicated:

uh	[ə:]	(hesitation)
oh	[o:]	(surprise, etc.)
ah	[ɑ:]	(surprise, got it!,etc.)
sh	[ʃ:]	(be quiet)
ay (ay)	[aI(aI)]	(dismay, reproval, etc.)
hey		
nope	[no? (p)]	
yeah	[jɛə]	(yes)
yea	[je]	(cheer)
mm	[m̩]	(approval, be careful, etc.)
mhm	[m̩m̩]	(I understand, OK)
OK		

7.1.4 quotation marks

Quotation marks are <u>not</u> used. Just leave them out of direct speech, metalanguage citations, etc., e.g.,

- When I say here you say he's here.. (RIGHT)
- When I say "here" you say "he's here".. (WRONG)

7.1.5 spelled out words

Use hyphens between each orthographic representation, e.g., worked.. w-o-r-k-e-d..

7.1.6 incomplete words

Indicate an incomplete word by adding a circumflex to the end of it. e.g., Bu^, but he can't..

7.2 Phonemic representation

See the list of symbols and key words at the end of the document.

7.2.1 Audible but uninterpretable speech is transcribed phonemically, and enclosed in slashes, e.g., 234: They went the --- /kəm/ post..

7.2.2 ambiguous phonemic/grammatical sequences.

When you aren't sure how to interpret the phonemic sequence grammatically, transcribe it phonemically.

e.g., Sandy and Sue are happy today.. They're /dheyrz/ not in school.. (015 reading)

7.2.3 mispronunciation

When a mispronunciation results in a communication breakdown, add a phonemic transcription. Put the word that appears to be required followed by the phonemic transcription.

e.g., 230: To arrang@ed@ his case.? /kowz/
330: Our /hawr/ homework.?

7.2.4 Note that only phonemic symbols or equivalent are enclosed in slashes; stress and final intonation contours are not.

7.3 Representation of ends of utterances, stress and final intonation contours

Each utterance ends with 2 marks of punctuation. The first mark is the normal orthographic symbol and the second mark represents final intonation.

7.3.1 final contours

. marks falling intonation
? marks rising intonation
, marks sustained intonation

If there is no pause, but normal orthography requires a mark, use a single symbol.

Examples:

P:	@I@ didn't hear the bell ring..	(first . is normal punctuation. Second . marks falling intonation)
S:	Who's got the answer to number five?.	(? is normal punctuation and . marks falling intonation)
P:	Oh, Simon.. Do five..	(, is normal punctuation, no pause)
P:	Problems.?	(? marks rising intonation)

- An initial comma has the same value that it has in normal orthography. A second comma marks sustained intonation. If there is a short pause followed by sustained intonation, but you consider that no comma would occur in normal texts, write _, as in, "to transfer the prisoner_, to jail.."

- An initial question mark is only used if there is question structure. Question structure is defined as an utterance containing a Question Word, Aux inversion or Do insertion,

  To what?
  What is he doing?
  Is he a student?
  Can he sing?
  Did he do his homework?

- The second question mark always stands for rising intonation. Thus,

  ?? has question word structure and rising intonation.
  e.g., Is he a student??

  ?. has question word structure and falling intonation.
  e.g., What did Miss Weston say?.

  .? has only rising intonation.
  e.g., Anne.? You got a problem.?

P: For each mistake,, take away one mark.. (normal punctuation and sustained intonation)

P: Mary_, said_, that Bill_, was a student.. (Pat writing Mary said that Bill was a student on the board)

(underscore marks pause and , marks sustained intonation)

7.3.2 extra-high pitch or stress

If a stretch of speech is extra-high or extra-loud, enclose it in @ @ symbols, e.g.,

P: Pierre!. You don't even @know@!.

P: It's ha@d@.. @d@..

Use the same convention for the most prominent syllable in polysyllabic words that are phonemically transcribed.

7.4 Self-corrections

Enclose both the "error" and the "correction" in asterisks, e.g.,

He want,, he wanted Mr fairchild to..

8.0 Representation of Non-Speech

In general, non-speech is enclosed in parentheses. Do not use final punctuation marks after a right-hand parenthesis.

8.1 Vocal qualifiers, e.g., (whisper) (scream)

8.2 Actions, e.g., 000: (060 tries to light cigarette, but fails)

8.3 Indication of special medium, e.g.,
060: Mary said Bill was a student.. (060 reading from textbook)

8.4 Special characteristics of setting, e.g.,
000: (CLS gets noisier than ever)

8.5 Writing on blackboard

Identify the writer and what has been written, but do not enclose what has been written in quotes.

e.g., 0: (P writes John said Bill was a student on board) (RIGHT)

0: (P writes "John said Bill was a student" on board) (WRONG)

9.0 Sequencing of Units

All units are started on separate lines. Simultaneous or partly overlapping speech units are identified by special symbols, and actions following or accompanying speech are identified by special verb forms.

9.1 Successive speech units

P: Wait! What tense is ha@d@_, huh, Nathalie??

320: Past.?

P: Right.. What do we change past to?.

320: Uh_, past perfect.?

(320 erases have)

9.2 Simultaneous or overlapping speech units

Simultaneous or overlapping speech units are enclosed in % signs. Put the % signs at the beginning and at the end of the units in question, regardless of which

parts overlap. Do not space between % and the following or preceding character.

P: %I asked you something else..%

030: %It was good, Miss..%

9.3 Successions of speech and non-speech units

Non-speech units are enclosed in parentheses, the label immediately following the left-hand parenthesis. Do not use final mark of punctuation immediately preceding the right-hand parenthesis.

Examples:

0: (P shakes index finger at 007)

000: (003 laughs)

000: (GRP groans and takes out notebooks)

. Non-speech units preceding the related speech unit

Place the non-speech unit on the line preceding the speech unit. Use 3rd person present verb forms.

P: (shakes finger at 307) @you@ spoke ?French?, Gaston..

. Non-speech units following the related speech unti

Place the non-speech unit on the line following the speech unit. Use the 3rd person present verb forms.

003: Oh no..

000: (GRP laughs)

P: You have to.. You must.. Obligation..

000: (GRP mutters)

9.4 Non-speech units occurring at the same time as speech units

. Non-speech unit from one source and speech unit from another

Place non-speech unit on appropriate side of page, enclosing the speech unit and non-speech units in % %. Use present progressive verb forms (-ing).

Example:

P: %Take out a piece of paper
and get ready for a dic-
tation on the reading..%
000: %(GRP groaning
and muttering,
taking out
paper)%

. Non-speech unit and speech unit from same source

Enclose non-speech unit and speech unit in % %. Use present progressive verb forms.

Example:

P: %Mary_, said_, that Bill_,
was_, a student..% %(P writing
Mary said that Bill was a student
on board)%

10.0 Spacing and Placement of Punctuation Marks and Special Characters

- source identification

. 001: 002 etc, for individual students
. 000: for student non-verbal behavior

000: (GRP mutters)
000: (CLS laughs)
000: (??? laughs) (for unidentified student)

. 000: Utterances by group, class or unknown student

000: (GRP) ça marche..
000: (CLS) ça marche..
000: qu'est-ce qu'elle dit?. (unidentified student)

. . 0: Teacher and researcher non-verbal behavior

- hyphens can only be used if followed and preceded by a letter with no blanks in between.

Example:

... fifty - that is, ... (WRONG)
fifty-six (RIGHT)

11.0 Marking End of Transcription

The end of the transcript is marked by writing the tape identification.

Example:

000: (End of tape TA136)

Phonemic Transcription Conventions. The symbols to be used are based on the Trager and Smith system. They have had to be modified to some extent for compatibility with computer processing. Primary stress is indicated by surrounding the vowel symbols with # #, in polysyllabic words. Enclose phonemic transcriptions in slashes.

CONSONANT SYMBOLS

(The arrangement is alphabetic by key word)

KEY WORDS	SYMBOLS	IPA EQUIVALENTS	TRANSCRIPTIONS OF KEY WORDS
azure	/zh/	/ʒ/	/@ae@zhir/
buy	/b/	/b/	/bay/
catch	/k/	/k/	/kaech/
chap	/ch/	/tʃ/	/chaep/
die	/d/	/d/	/day/
fie	/f/	/f/	/fay/
guy	/g/	/g/	/gay/
high	/h/	/h/	/hay/
jaw	/j/	/dʒ/	/jo/
lie	/l/	/l/	/lay/
my	/m/	/m/	/may/
nice	/n/	/n/	/nays/
pie	/p/	/p/	/pay/
rye	/r/	/r/ /ɹ/ /ɻ/	/ray/
sigh	/s/	/s/	/say/
sing, longer	/nj/	/ŋ/	/sinj/ /@lon@jgir/

Consonant Symbols (Cont'd)

KEY WORDS	SYMBOLS	IPA EQUIVALENTS	TRANSCRIPTIONS OF KEY WORDS
shy	/sh/	/ʃ/	/shay/
thigh	/th/	/θ/	/thay/
thy	/dh/	/ð/	/dhay/
tie	/t/	/t/	/tay/
vie	/v/	/v/	/vay/
way	/w/	/w/	/wey/
yes	/y/	/j/	/yes/
zoo	/z/	/z/	/zuw/

VOWEL SYMBOLS

(The arrangement is by tongue position- - 1st front, then central, then back, and by tongue height, from high to low within each position)

KEY WORDS	SYMBOLS	IPA EQUIVALENTS	TRANSCRIPTION OF KEY WORDS
bead, easy	/iy/	/i/	/biyd/ /ʔiyʔsiy/
bid, litter	/i/	/I/	/bid/ /lɪʔɪtɚ/
bane	/ey/	/e(I)/	/beyn/
let	/e/	/ɛ/	/let/
back	/ae/	/æ/	/baek/
bud, church, alone	/uh/	/ʌ/ /ɜ˞/ /ə/	/buhd/ /chuhrch/
pot, father, alms	/a/	/a/ /ɔ/ /ɒ/ /ɑ/	/pat/ /faaʔdhir/

Vowel Symbols (Cont'd)

KEY WORDS	SYMBOLS	IPA EQUIVALENTS	TRANSCRIPTION OF KEY WORDS
boot	/uw/	/u/	/buwt/
put	/u/	/U/	/put/
boat	/ow/	/o(U)/ /(ʊ)/	/bowt/
lore	/o/	/ɔ/	/lor/
boy	/oy/	/ɔI/	/boy/
bite	/ay/	/aI/ /ai/	/bayt/
house	/aw/	/aU/ /au/	/haws/

APPENDIX D

ESL Placement Test and Supporting Documents

LA COMMISSION SCOLAIRE BALDWIN-CARTIER

TEST

ANGLAIS 3e ANNEE

Partie auditive: No. 1 à 35
Partie écrite: No. 36 à 70
Durée max.: 45 min.

PREMIÈRE PARTIE:

POUR CHACUN DES NUMÉROS SUIVANTS, DITES QUELLE ILLUSTRATION CONVIENT LE MIEUX À LA PHRASE ENTENDUE.

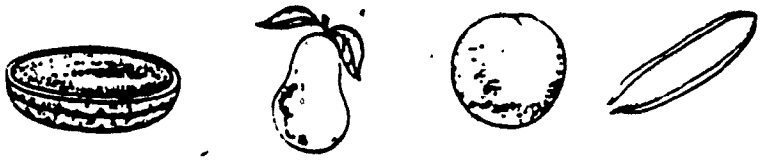
Ex.: "WHAT'S THIS?" "IT'S A CAT."

A) B) C) D)

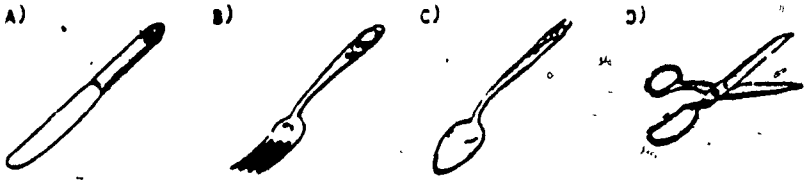
LA BONNE RÉPONSE EST "A" - CAT.

1. A) B) C) D)

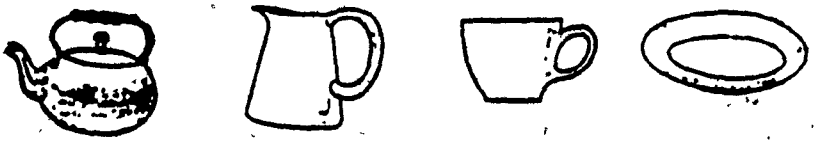
2. A) B) C) D)



3. A) B) C) D)

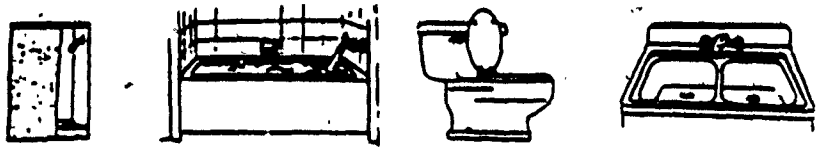


4. A) B) C) D)

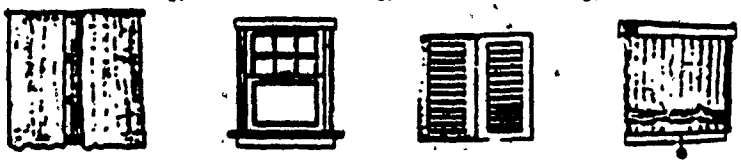


5. A) B) C) D)

6. A) B) C) D)



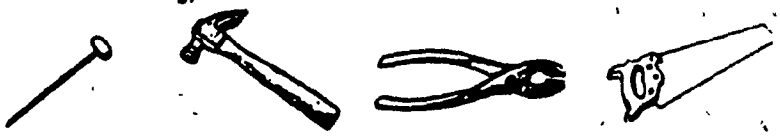
7. A) B) C) D)



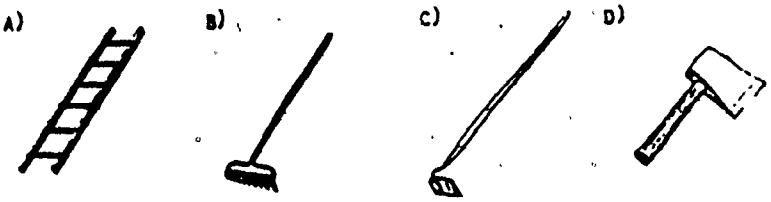
8. A) B) C) D)

9. A) B) C) D)

10. A) B) C) D)



11. A) B) C) D)



12. A) B) C) D)

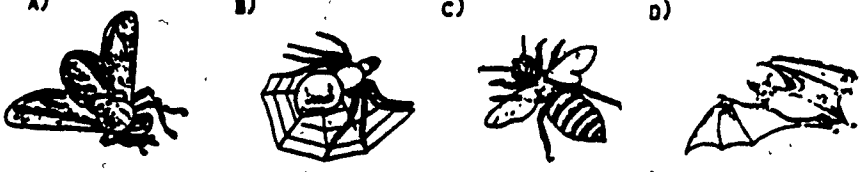
13. A) B) C) D)

14. A) B) C) D)

15. A) B) C) D)

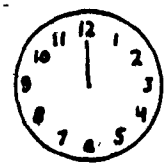
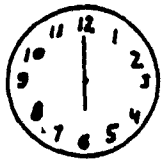
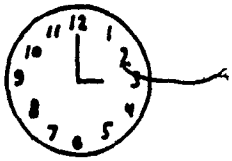
16. A) B) C) D)

17. A) B) C) D)



18. A) B) C) D)

19. A)  B)  C)  D) 

20. A)  B)  C)  D) 

DEUXIÈME PARTIE:

> CHOISISSEZ LA BONNE RÉPONSE.
> EX.: SHE HAS FORTY-ONE DOLLARS.
> A) 21 $ B) 72 $ C) 11 $ D) 41 $
>
> LA BONNE RÉPONSE EST "D" - 41 $.

21. A) 29 B) 24 C) 31 D) 18

22. A) 93^{RD} B) 161^{ST} C) 147^{TH} D) 122^{ND}

23. A) THURSDAY B) MONDAY C) FRIDAY D) TUESDAY

24. A) MARCH B) MAY C) APRIL D) JUNE

25. A) 684-7328 B) 685-7238 C) 685-8327 D) 687-7283

26. A) 174 BROOKWOOD
B) 417 PINEWOOD
C) 741 BRIARWOOD
D) 714 MAPLEWOOD

27. A) SHE NEVER HURT ME.
B) THAT'S NOT FUNNY.
C) THIS IS NOT A JOKE.
D) WHO KNOWS?

28. A) HE HASN'T EITHER.
B) I HAVE A TOOTHACHE.
C) IT'S WONDERFUL.
D) SO DO WE.

29. A) WHEN WE DO WE SHALL TELL YOU.
B) YES, THE PAVEMENT IS REALLY WET.
C) I THINK ON THURSDAY NEXT WEEK.
D) SHE SENT HER FATHER A LETTER.

30. A) I FIXED HIM UP ALRIGHT.
B) HE'S JUST GOING UPSTAIRS.
C) ISN'T IT JOHN? SURE IT IS.
D) NOT TODAY, BUT NEXT SATURDAY.

TROISIÈME PARTIE:

VOUS ALLEZ ENTENDRE UN COURT TEXTE SUIVI DE CINQ (5) QUESTIONS. LE TEXTE ET LES QUESTIONS SERONT LUS DEUX (2) FOIS.

31. IT STOPPED BECAUSE

A) THE MAN PUT ON THE BRAKE.
B) THE ROAD WAS TOO ROUGH.
C) SOMETHING WAS WRONG WITH IT.
D) THE HORSE WAS IN THE WAY.

32. IT WAS

A) A HORSE.
B) A FARMER.
C) A POLICEMAN.
D) A COW.

33. HE WAS SURPRISED THAT THE HORSE COULD

A) PULL HIS CAR.
B) REPAIR A DISTRIBUTOR.
C) HEAR.
D) TALK.

34. HE DID IT BY

A) STARING AT HIS CAR.
B) RUSHING TO THE NEAREST HOUSE.
C) ASKING THE HORSE MORE QUESTIONS.
D) TELEPHONING THE HORSE'S OWNER.

35. THE MOTORIST'S STORY MADE THE FARMER FEEL

A) EXCITED.
B) AFRAID.
C) SAD.
D) INDIFFERENT.

QUATRIÈME PARTIE:

CHOISISSEZ LES MOTS QUI CONVIENNENT AUX PHRASES.

EX.: MARTIN AND I LIKE BIRDS. MY BROTHER _____ NOT.

A) HAVE B) ARE C) DOES D) DO

LA BONNE RÉPONSE EST "C" - DOES.

36. TOM AND TIM ARE BROTHERS. _____ BOTH READ VERY WELL.
A) HE B) THEY C) YOU D) WE

37. _____ IS THERE? IT'S GARY.
A) WHY B) WHO C) WHERE D) HOW MANY

38. THEY _____ TO MONTREAL YESTERDAY.
A) GO B) WENT C) HAVE GONE D) ARE GOING

39. _____ SUSAN AND GREG SING WELL?
A) DO B) DOES C) ARE D) HAVE

40. LOOK! THE CAT _____ THE STREET.
A) CROSSES B) IS CROSSING C) CROSS D) WAS CROSSING

41. _____ SOME APPLES IN THE BASKET.
A) THERE IS B) THEY'RE C) THERE ARE D) IT IS

42. THE BOYS _____ HERE MANY TIMES BEFORE.

A) ARE B) WERE C) HAVE BEEN D) WILL BE

43. BETTY _____ A HAT.

A) WORE B) SAT C) RODE D) SANG

44. DO YOU WANT SOME CAKE _____ A CANDY? I WANT SOME CAKE, PLEASE.

A) BECAUSE B) AND C) BUT D) OR

45. HE NEVER SAW THE GAME, _____ HE?

A) DIDN'T B) SAW C) HAD D) DID

46. I DON'T REALLY HAVE _____ MORE TO TELL YOU, SO YOU MAY LEAVE NOW.

A) NOTHING B) SOMETHING C) EVERYTHING D) ANYTHING

47. I MUST SAY I HAVE NEVER LIKED IT AND JOHN HASN'T _____.

A) ANY B) EITHER C) ALSO D) TOO

48. HE PUT TOO _____ APPLES IN THE BASKET.

A) MUCH B) PLENTY C) A LOT D) MANY

49. HE WAS HERE _____ HOUR AGO.

A) ANY B) A C) AN D) THE

50. TURN _____ THE LIGHT, PLEASE.

A) FOR B) ON C) IN D) BETWEEN

51. GREG WANTS A CHOCOLATE BAR. BUY ONE FOR _____ PLEASE.

A) HIM B) HER C) YOU D) THEM

52. I WANT TO HELP YOU, _____ TODAY I DON'T HAVE TIME.

A) OR B) BUT C) AND D) BECAUSE

53. THERE IS NO USE _____ HIM NOW.

A) TELL B) TOLD C) TELLING D) WILL TELL

54. DANNY _____ COMES TO WORK ON TIME. HE MIGHT BE FIRED SOON.

A) ALWAYS B) OFTEN C) USUALLY D) NEVER

55. THE WORD "SLIM" HAS THE SAME MEANING AS _____.

A) FAT B) TALL C) SHORT D) THIN

56. WE ARE "HAPPY" MEANS WE ARE _____.

A) SORRY B) GLAD C) TIRED D) GOOD

57. IF HIS ANSWER IS "CORRECT", IT MEANS IT'S _____.

A) FALSE B) GOOD C) WRONG D) BAD

58. THE OPPOSITE OF BEING "UGLY" IS BEING _____.

A) BEAUTIFUL B) SMART C) DUMB D) SAD

59. THE OPPOSITE OF BEING "PRESENT" IS BEING _____.

A) SICK B) THERE C) HERE D) ABSENT

60. MR BROWN IS THE MAN _____ CAR WAS DAMAGED.

A) THAT B) WHICH C) WHO D) WHOSE

61. THEY ARE PROUD _____ THEIR SON.

A) IN B) TO C) AT D) OF

62. OUR CHILDREN ALWAYS _____ THE TABLE.

A) SIT B) SET C) SAT D) SEAT

63. HIS MOTHER _____ HIM TO READ.

A) LEARNED B) THOUGHT C) MADE D) TAUGHT

64. WHEN YOU ARE THIRSTY YOU SHOULD _____.

A) EAT SALAMI.
B) LOOK AT A CAMEL.
C) TAKE A BATH.
D) DRINK A GLASS OF WATER.

65. HE LAUGHED SO MUCH _____.

A) SO THE CORN POPPED.
B) SO THE PHONE RANG.
C) SO HIS BELLY ACHED.
D) SO THE SNOW FELL.

LEAF 154 OMITTED IN PAGE NUMBERING/FEUILLET 154 NON INCLUS DANS LA PAGINATION.

"FIDDLES!" SAID THE OLD MAN. "I GUESS I'LL GO TO BED."

BY THE NEXT MORNING HE WAS VERY HUNGRY. HE JUMPED OUT OF BED AND OPENED A ROUND BOX. IT WAS FULL OF GRAINY WHITE STUFF. THE OLD MAN TASTED IT.

"SALT!" SAID THE OLD MAN. "AND I THOUGHT IT WAS OATMEAL!"

THEN HE OPENED A BLUE BOX, AND IT WAS FULL OF LITTLE WHITE FLAKES. HE TASTED THAT TOO.

"SOAP," HE SAID SADLY. "WHO WANTS TO EAT SOAP?" WHEN HE WENT TO GET A DRINK OF MILK, HE FOUND THAT HE HAD BOUGHT BUTTERMILK. HE HATED BUTTERMILK, BUT HE WAS HUNGRY, SO HE DRANK IT.

THAT NIGHT WHEN HIS WIFE CAME BACK, HE TOLD HER HOW HE GOT ALL MIXED UP WITH THE CANS AND CARTONS AND BOXES.

"PLEASE TEACH ME HOW TO READ!" HE SAID.

SO SHE DID. NOW WHEN HE MADE HIS LOVELY TOYS OUT OF WOOD, HE COULD READ THE LETTERS THE CHILDREN SENT TO HIM.

AND HE NEVER - NO, NEVER - WENT HUNGRY AGAIN.

66. THE LITTLE OLD MAN COULDN'T READ BECAUSE HE

A) NEVER WANTED TO LEARN
B) HAD NO BOOKS
C) WOULDN'T WEAR HIS GLASSES

67. CHILDREN WROTE TO THE LITTLE OLD MAN ABOUT HIS TOYS, BUT

A) HE THREW THE LETTERS AWAY
B) HE COULDN'T READ THE LETTERS
C) HE SENT THE LETTERS BACK

68. THE OLD MAN DIDN'T KNOW WHAT WAS IN THE BOXES BECAUSE

A) THEY HAD NO LABELS ON THEM
B) HE COULDN'T READ AND DIDN'T LIKE TO ASK
C) HE ASKED, BUT NOBODY WOULD TELL HIM

69. IN THE ROUND BOX THE OLD MAN BOUGHT THERE WAS

A) SPAGHETTI
B) OATMEAL
C) SALT

70. THIS STORY IS MAINLY ABOUT WHY THE OLD MAN DECIDED TO

A) SHOP WITH SOMEONE
B) LEARN HOW TO READ
C) ANSWER THE CHILDREN'S LETTERS

COMMISSION SCOLAIRE BALDWIN-CARTIER

SERVICES DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT

Script pour l'enregistrement de la partie auditive du test

TEST DE CLASSEMENT EN ANGLAIS

3e ANNEE

PARTIE AUDITIVE

Durée:

Cette épreuve n'est pas un examen qui va compter sur votre bulletin, mais servira seulement pour nous guider en indiquant quel cours d'anglais vous devrez suivre en 4e année. Répondez seulement aux questions que vous comprenez. N'essayez pas de deviner les réponses.

Voici les instructions:

1 - Inscrire sur la feuille de réponses - en lettres moulées - les renseignements requis, s'il y a lieu.

2 - Répondre uniquement sur la feuille de réponses.
Ne rien inscrire sur le questionnaire.

3 - Il n'y a qu'une seule réponse possible à chaque question.

4 - Utiliser un crayon à mine grasse.

5 - S'il y a erreur, effacer complètement et changer la réponse.

6 - Voici un exemple d'une question et d'une bonne réponse:

ex. What's a cat? It's _____.

a) a bird b) a table c) a person d) an animal e) a tool

Réponse: [a] [b] [c] [■] [e]

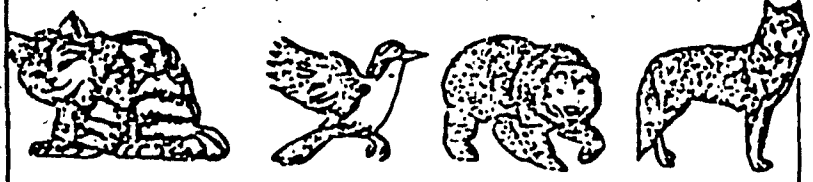
La bonne réponse est "d) an animal"

Première partie

Pour chacun des numéros suivants, dites quelle illustration convient le mieux à la phrase entendue.

ex. "What's this?" "It's a cat."

a) b) c) d)



La bonne réponse est "a" - cat.

Commençons:

1. Whose horse is that? It belongs to our neighbour.

2. Is the pear ripe? Yes, it is.

3. Will you please give me a spoon? Here you are, dear.

4. What's missing, Mom? One of the new cups.

5. Is the candle lit? Yes, it is.

6. What's in the sink? Nothing, it's empty.

7. Do you think these drapes look dirty? No, I certainly don't.

8. How do you like the sweater? Oh, it's so nice!

9. What happened to Gary? He broke his leg.

10. What do you need? A pair of pliers.

11. Could you help me rake the garden, please? Sure, I'll be glad to.

12. What did Gary do? He stapled the two sheets.

13. Where did Granny lose her purse? On the bus.

14. Here is a safety pin. Thank you very much.

15. What's that? It's a feather.

16. Where should I put the lawn mover? In the shed, please.

17. Do you know what scares my sister? No, I don't. Spiders.

18. Who is that? It's Mrs. Wilson. She's a nurse.

19. What time is it, Dad? It's twenty past nine.

20. When is the train leaving, Sir? At noon.

Fin de la première partie.

Deuxième partie

Choisissez la bonne réponse.

Ex.: She has forty-one dollars.

a) 21 $ b) 72 $ c) 11 $ d) 41 $

La bonne réponse est "d" - 41 $.

Commençons:

21. How many students are there in your class? We're 24.

22. Linda placed 147th in the marathon run.

23. If today is Wednesday, what day was it yesterday?

24. What's the fourth month of the year?

25. What's your phone number? It's 685-7238.

26. What's your address? It's 714 Maplewood.

27. Why was your mother so angry?

28. What's wrong, Jimmy?

29. When is your cousin arriving?

30. Who's up next?

Fin de la deuxième partie.

Troisième partie

Vous allez entendre un court texte suivi de cinq (5) questions. Le texte et les questions seront lus deux (2) fois.

Commençons:

Voici le texte:

A man was driving in the country when his motor stopped. He got out of the car to try to find the trouble. "It's the distributor," said a voice near him.

Surprised to hear the voice, the man turned. He saw only an old horse. "Did you say something?" he asked.

"I said you should check your distributor," the horse replied.

The man rushed to the nearest farmhouse. Excitedly he told the farmer what had happened. "Was it an old bay horse with one flop ear?" asked the farmer.

"Yes, that's the one!"

"Well, don't pay any attention to him," the farmer scoffed. "He doesn't know anything about cars."

Voici les questions:

31. Why did the car stop?

32. Who spoke to the man when he got out of the car?

33. Why was the man surprised?

34. How did the man show his surprise?

35. How did the farmer react to the motorist's story?

Fin de la partie auditive. Continuez maintenant avec la partie écrite.

LA COMMISSION SCOLAIRE
BALDWIN-CARTIER

TÉL. (514) 677-6320
28 BOULEVARD DES SOURCES
POINTE-CLAIRE QUÉBEC
H9S 2H9

SERVICE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT

Mémo aux: Directions des écoles primaires

De : Hans Tibblin

Date : 1982 - 04 - 16

Sujet : Résultats et recommandations
Classement en anglais - 3e année

En vue de faciliter votre organisation pour l'enseignement de l'anglais en 4e année pour 1982-83, il me fait grand plaisir de vous fournir

- deux copies des listes des résultats du test de classement en anglais pour les élèves présentement en 3e année dans votre école;

- une copie des recommandations qui pourraient vous servir dans le groupement de vos élèves en anglais.

Egalement, afin de vous aider dans le classement pour les cours d'anglais des nouveaux élèves en 4e et 5e années, vous trouverez ci-joint des copies du matériel utilisé pour fin de classement des élèves en 3e année:

- 1 feuille décrivant les 10 critères d'évaluation des élèves par le spécialiste d'anglais,

- 1 cassette pour la partie auditive,

- 5 questionnaires,

- 20 feuilles de réponses,

- 1 clé de correction.

Quand vous faites administrer le test individuellement aux nouveaux élèves, vous obtenez, bien entendu, les résultats en pourcentage. Or, pour vous aider dans le classement, veuillez consulter ce tableau qui vous donne les centiles correspondant aux pourcentages.

Cours	Centiles	Pourcentages
Base	1 - 29	0% - 21%
* Zone grise	25 - 35	19% - 25%
Intermédiaire	30 - 64	22% - 55%
* Zone grise	60 - 70	50% - 63%
Avancé	65 - 99	57% - 100%

* Les élèves dont les résultats se situent dans la "zone grise" sont considérés comme des cas limites et l'évaluation de ces élèves par le spécialiste d'anglais, selon les 10 critères apparaissant sur la feuille intitulée "Guide d'échelle d'appréciation pour les spécialistes d'anglais dans le classement des élèves", s'avère très importante.

Voici des renseignements additionnels au sujet du test de classement en anglais pour les élèves de 3e année:

Révision du test de classement à l'automne 1981

Suite à la première expérience de classement en anglais des élèves de la 3e année en 1980-81, nous avons révisé le test dans le but de l'améliorer et nous avons enlevé les 15 questions les plus faciles de la partie auditive et les 15 questions les plus difficiles de la partie écrite. Le nombre de questions a conséquemment été réduit de 100 à 70, dont la moitié forme la partie auditive et l'autre moitié constitue la partie écrite. De plus, le temps pour faire administrer le test est également réduit de 60 à 45 minutes, ce qui nous permet de donner le test durant une période régulière. La partie auditive dure 16 minutes et le reste du temps est alloué à la partie écrite.

Contenu du test

Questions	Partie auditive
1 - 18	Vocabulaire basé sur des dessins
19, 20	L'heure
21	Les nombres cardinaux
22	Les nombres ordinaux

Questions	Partie auditive
23	Les jours de la semaine
24	Les mois de l'année
25	Le numéro de téléphone
26	L'adresse
27 - 30	La compréhension d'une question
31 - 35	La compréhension d'un texte

Questions	Partie écrite
36	Le pronom personnel comme sujet
37	L'emploi de mots interrogatifs
38	L'emploi de l'imparfait
39	L'emploi du verbe "do" dans une question et la concordance entre le sujet et le verbe
40	La forme progressive du verbe
41	Les expressions "there is" et "there are"
42	L'emploi du passé composé
43, 62, 63	La signification de certains verbes usuels
44, 52	La conjonction
45	Le "tag-ending"
46	L'adverbe indéfini
47	L'emploi des mots "any, either, also, too"
48	L'adjectif exprimant la quantité
49	L'article indéfini
50, 61	La préposition
51	Le pronom personnel comme complément
53	Le gérondif
54	L'adverbe indéfini de temps
55 - 57	Le synonyme
58, 59	L'antonyme
60	Le pronom relatif
64, 65	Compléter une phrase
66 - 70	La compréhension d'un texte

La fidélité du test

Quant à la fidélité de notre test de classement en anglais pour la 3e année, il nous fait plaisir de vous annoncer qu'elle se situe à .98 et qu'elle peut être qualifiée comme dépassant l'excellence. Un chiffre de .80 est considéré comme excellent.

Mesure de performance

Soulignons également que le test de classement mesure la performance actuelle des élèves en anglais et qu'il est conçu uniquement comme instrument pour déterminer les niveaux de connaissance chez nos élèves et ensuite pour recommander les cours que les élèves devraient suivre.

Distribution des résultats à l'échelle de la commission scolaire

Le tableau suivant vous donne la répartition des résultats du test de classement en anglais administré aux élèves de la 3e année en mars 1982. Un élève a obtenu 100% au test.

Distribution

Pourcentages	Nombre d'élèves
00 - 04	57
05 - 09	52
10 - 14	64
15 - 19	54
20 - 24	56
25 - 29	45
30 - 34	51
35 - 39	44
40 - 44	46
45 - 49	23
50 - 54	45
55 - 59	30
60 - 64	42
65 - 69	25
70 - 74	41
75 - 79	38
80 - 84	47
85 - 89	37
90 - 94	36
95 - 100	14
Total:	847

Clientèle variée dans nos écoles

Pour mieux apprécier la divergence de la connaissance de l'anglais chez la clientèle dans nos écoles, regardons les chiffres suivants:

	Moyennes		
	Partie auditive	Partie écrite	Total
L'école la plus faible:	31%	16%	23%
L'école la plus forte:	73%	51%	62%
Commission Scolaire:	53%	34%	44%

Au cas où vous désireriez d'autres renseignements, n'hésitez pas à communiquer avec moi. Entre-temps, veuillez accepter mes salutations les plus amicales.

Hans Tibblin
Conseiller pédagogique en
anglais, langue seconde

HT/lc

C.C.: M. Marcel Arsenault
M. François Sarrazin
Spécialistes d'anglais au primaire

APPENDIX E

Language Contact and Attitude Questionnaires for Intensive Program Subjects and Comparison Subjects

QUESTIONNAIRE

Nom: _____

Classe _____ Age: _____

La ville où tu demeures: _____

Nom de ton professeur d'anglais: _____

Pour les numéros 1 à 13, on te demande d'encercler la bonne réponse (exemple a).

Si la réponse que tu veux donner n'est pas inscrite, écris-la sur la ligne (exemple b).

Lorsqu'une question ne te concerne pas, fais un X sur la ligne (exemple c).

Voici les exemples:

a. Quelle est ton équipe de hockey préférée?

(le Canadien) le Nordique _____

b. Quelle est la couleur de tes cheveux?

bruns blonds nous

c. Quelle sorte d'auto possèdes-tu?

européenne canadienne X

---

1. Quelle langue parles-tu d'habitude avec ta mère?

français anglais _____

2. Quelle est la langue maternelle de ta mère?

français anglais _____

3. Quelle langue parles-tu d'habitude avec ton père?

français anglais _____

4. Quelle est la langue maternelle de ton père?

français anglais _____

5. Quelle langue parles-tu d'habitude avec tes frères et soeurs?

français anglais _____

6. Est-ce qu'il t'arrive quelquefois de parler anglais avec les membres de ta famille?

   Jamais de temps en temps souvent tous les jours

7. As-tu déjà étudié dans une école anglaise?

   oui non

8. Si tu as répondu <u>oui</u> à la question numéro 7, réponds à ces questions aussi:

   a) Où as-tu fréquenté une école anglaise?

   _____

   b) <u>Quel âge avais-tu</u> lorsque tu as fréquenté une école anglaise?

   _____

9. Penses-tu que les heures que tu passes au cours d'anglais sont _____

   trop nombreuses trop peu nombreuses exactement ce qu'il faut

10. Penses-tu qu'il te faudra parler anglais au travail quand tu auras fini tes études?

    oui non

    Si oui, penses-tu que tu parleras l'anglais _____

    <u>plus</u> que le français?
    <u>moins</u> que le français?
    <u>autant</u> que le français?

11. Est-ce que ton père ou ta mère parle anglais au travail?

    oui, mon père et ma mère oui, ma mère seulement
    non, ni mon père ni ma mère oui, mon père seulement

12. Est-ce qu'il y a quelqu'un avec qui tu parles anglais parce que cette personne ne parle pas français?

    non oui, avec une personne oui, avec plusieurs personnes

13. Penses-tu que tu seras capable un jour de bien parler l'anglais?

    oui non

14. Par rapport à la majorité des étudiants dans ta classe, penses-tu que tu parles anglais _____

mieux aussi bien moins bien

15. Par rapport à la majorité des étudiants dans ta classe, penses-tu que tu comprends l'anglais _____

mieux aussi bien moins bien

Pour chacune des questions suivantes, on te demande de donner trois (3) réponses, Si tu ne peux pas fournir trois réponses à l'une ou l'autre des questions, donnes-en autant que tu peux, et passe à la question suivante.

Exemple: Quels sont les légumes que tu aimes le plus?

1. les épinards
2. les carottes
3. le chou-fleur

16. Est-ce que tu aimes regarder la télévision anglaise? Si oui, quelles sont tes émissions préferées?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

17. Quels sont les trois derniers films que tu as vus au cinéma?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

18. Est-ce que tu aimes des chanteurs, des chanteuses, ou des groupes musicaux qui chantent en anglais? Si oui, peux-tu les nommer?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

19. Quels sont les cours que tu aimes le plus à l'école cette année?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

20. Les questions suivantes concernent le contact que tu as avec l'anglais en dehors de tes cours pendant cette année scolaire. Par une croix, indique le nombre de fois que tu as rencontré l'anglais dans les situations suivantes.

Combien de fois as-tu	Jamais	Presque jamais	Quelquefois	Souvent	Tous les jours
a. parlé anglais avec des amis francophones					
b. parlé anglais avec des amis anglophones					
c. parlé avec des adultes anglophones					
d. écouté la musique en anglais					
e. écouté l'anglais parlé à la radio					
f. regardé des émissions en anglais à la télévision					
g. été voir un cinéma en anglais					
h. lu un journal ou une revue en anglais					
i. lu des annonces ou des étiquettes en anglais					
j. lu un livre anglais					
k. écrit une lettre en anglais					

QUESTIONNAIRE

Nom: _____

Degré: (secondaire...) _____ Age: _____

La ville où tu demeures: _____

Pour les numéros 1 à 13, on te demande d'encercler la bonne réponse (exemple a).

Si la réponse que tu veux donner n'est pas inscrite, écris-là sur la ligne (exemple b).

Lorsqu'une question ne te concerne pas, fais un X sur la ligne (exemple c).

Voici les exemples:

a. Quelle est ton équipe de hockey préferée?
   (les Canadiens) les Maple Leafs _____

b. Quelle est la couleur de tes cheveux?
   bruns blonds noirs

c. Quelle sorte d'auto possède-tu?
   européenne canadienne X

---

1. Quelle langue parles-tu d'habitude avec ta mère?
   français anglais _____

2. Quelle est la langue maternelle de ta mère?
   français anglais _____

3. Quelle langue parles-tu d'habitude avec ton père?
   français anglais _____

4. Quelle est la langue maternelle de ton père?
   français anglais _____

5. Quelle langue parles-tu d'habitude avec tes frères et soeurs?
   français anglais _____

6. As-tu déjà étudié dans une école anglaise?
   oui non

7. Penses-tu que les heures que tu passes au cours d'anglais sont__
   trop nombreuses trop peu nombreuses exactement ce qu'il fait

8. Penses-tu qu'il te faudra parler anglais au travail quand tu auras fini tes études?

oui non

Si oui, penses-tu que tu parleras l'anglais _____
plus que le francais?
moins que le francais?
autant que le francais?

9. Est-ce que ton père ou ta mère doivent parler anglais au travail?

oui, mon père et ma mère oui, ma mère seulement

non, ni mon père ni ma mère oui, mon père selement

10. Est-ce qu'il y a quelqu'un avec qui tu parles anglais parce que cette personne ne parle pas francais?

non oui, avec une personne oui, avec plusiers personnes

11. Penses-tu que tu seras capable un jour de bien parler l'anglais?

oui non

12. Par rapport à la majorité des étudiants dans ta classe, penses-tu que tu parles anglais_____

mieux aussi bien moins bien

13. Par rapport à la majorité des étudiants dans ta classe, penses-tu que to comprends l'anglais_____

mieux aussi bien moins bien

Pour chacune des questions suivants, on te demande de donner trois (3) réponses. Si tu ne peux fournir trois réponses à l'une ou l'autre des questions, donnes-en autant que tu peux, et passe à la question suivante.

Exemple: Quels sont les légumes que tu aimes le plus?

1. les épinards
2. les carottes
3. le chou-fleur

14. Est-ce que tu aimes regarder le télévision anglaise? Si odi, quelles sont tes émissions préférées?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

15. Quels sont les trois derniers films que tu a vus au cinéma?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

16. Est-ce que tu aimes des chanteurs, des chanteuses, ou des groupes musicaux qui chantnet en anglais? Si oui, peux-tu les nommer?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

17. Quels sont les cours que tu aimes le plus à l'école cette année?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

APPENDIX F

Foreign Service Institute (FSI) Oral Proficiency Scale

LEVEL FSI Speaking Level	FUNCTIONS Task accomplished, Attitudes expressed, Tone conveyed	CONTENT* Topics, subject areas, activities and jobs addressed	ACCURACY** Acceptability, quality and accuracy of message conveyed
5	Functions equivalent to an Educated Native Speaker (ENS)	All subjects	Performance equivalent to an ENS
4	Able to tailor language to fit audience, counsel, persuade, negotiate, represent a point of view, and interpret for dignitaries	All topics normally pertinent to professional needs	Nearly equivalent to an ENS Speech is extensive precise appropriate to every occasion with only occasional errors
3	Can converse in formal and informal situations, resolve problem situations, deal with unfamiliar topics, provide explanations, describe in opinions, and hypothesize	Practical, social, professional, and abstract topics, particular interests, and special fields of competence	Errors never interfere with understanding and rarely disturb the native speaker (NS) Only sporadic errors in basic structures
2	Able to fully participate in casual conversations, can express facts, give instructions, describe, report on, and provide narration about current, past, and future activities	Concrete topics such as own background, family and interests work, travel, and current events	Understandable to an NS used to dealing with foreigners sometimes misunderstandings
1	Can create with the language ask and answer questions, participate in short conversations.	Everyday survival topics and courtesy requirements	Intelligible to an NS used to dealing with foreigners
0	No functional ability	None	Unintelligible

*May be job specific
**See also factor performance rating scales

Functional Interaction of Oral Proficiency Levels