

FORMAL AND INFORMAL LEARNING:

Some Aspects of the ESL Development
of Francophone Students who do or
do not have Out-of-Classroom
Exposure to English

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ABSTRACT

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This research examined the English language development of 33 francophones (ages 11-13) all of whom received English instruction in formal classroom settings, but had varying degrees of informal contact with English outside the classroom. Learners were divided into three groups according to the amount of informal contact they had with the target language.

Learners' performance on an oral communication game was analyzed in two ways: first, the accuracy and frequency with which learners from the three groups produced specific morphemes was measured; second, learners' fluency was compared. Data from the oral communication game were also compared with performance on language aptitude and grammaticality judgement tests.

The results of the first analysis indicated that learners who had the least informal contact often used the forms they had been taught more frequently and more accurately than learners with more informal contact. Learners with greater informal contact, however, used a greater variety of forms and seemed to be testing a greater number of hypotheses about the language. The fluency measures indicated that learners with more informal contact with the target language were more fluent than those with less informal exposure to English.

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• TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Abstract	i
Acknowledgements	ii
Table of Contents	iii
List of Tables	iv
List of Figures	v
I - INTRODUCTION	1
Background.....	1
Plan of the Thesis	4
Variation in L ₂ Development	5
Scope and Hypotheses	18
II - SUBJECTS AND PROCEDURES	21
Exposure to English	22
Language Features Investigated.....	24
Instruments for Data Collection	26
Procedures for Analysis	29
III - RESULTS	33
Obligatory Context Analysis	
- First Administration.....	33
Obligatory Context Analysis	
- Second Administration	36
Frequency of -s and -ing Inflections	
- Both Administrations	38
Fluency Measures	
- First and Second Administrations	42
Language Aptitude and Grammaticality	
Judgement Tests	49
IV - DISCUSSION	53
Accuracy and Frequency of	
-ing and -s Inflections	53
Fluency Measures	60
V - Summary and Conclusions	68
References	73
Appendix 1 - Questionnaires Measuring Exposure	78
Appendix 2 - Pictures from Oral Communication Game ..	81
Appendix 3 - Grammaticality Judgement Test	83
Appendix 4 - Language Aptitude Test.....	87

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1 Exposure Indices for Individuals in High, Medium and Low Exposure Groups.....	25
2 Inflected and Uninflected Verbs used by the Three Exposure Groups on Both Administrations of the Picture Card Game	41
3 Fluency Measures for Three Exposure Groups on Both Administrations of the Picture Card Game.....	44
4 Individual Scores Obtained on Language Aptitude Test in Each Exposure Group ...	50
5 Individual Scores Obtained on Grammaticality Judgement/Sentence Correction Test in Each Exposure Group.....	52

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1	Accuracy Rates for -s and -ing Inflections in Obligatory Contexts on the First Administration	34
2	Accuracy Rates for -s and -ing Inflections in Obligatory Contexts on the Second Administration	37
3	Accuracy on -ing for each Exposure Group on Both Administrations.....	39
4	Proposed 'Natural Order' for Second Language Acquisition	54

1

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to contribute to current second language acquisition research investigating the effects of formal and informal environments on second language learning. More specifically, I am interested in describing the extent to which formal and informal learning environments can account for some of the linguistic variation, both within the language development of individual learners and across groups of learners.

Background

A recent study of the English language development of 175 francophone learners at three different grade levels revealed some interesting data on learners' overuse and overextension of particular forms at different stages in L₂ development (Lightbown, Spada & Wallace, 1978). In that study, cross-sectional analysis of students' performance on an oral communication game led to the discovery that certain forms tended to predominate at particular stages in the L₂ learners' language. Furthermore, even though these forms were dominant at different periods, they were not always produced correctly. They often appeared in contexts inappropriate for their use.

One example of such a trend was observed in the learners' use of the -ing inflection. The youngest subjects in the

study (grade 6)¹, were found to use the -ing inflection more than any other verb form. They produced it in contexts requiring the progressive, but they also used it where it did not belong. The -ing overuse was not observed in the speech of the grade 8 students. Indeed, -ing was infrequent in their speech and they tended to use uninflected verb forms more than any other. The oldest, most proficient (grade 10) learners however, were found to use -ing contrastively and without overextension.

It was further observed that in the grade 6 group, where the -ing was clearly the dominant form, a small group of learners produced more uninflected than -ing inflected verbs. This observation led to further investigation because the majority of the other grade 6 subjects used no uninflected verbs at all in the context of the experimental task set for them. A closer examination of those learners who used uninflected verbs revealed that there was a tendency for this group of learners to represent those who had been exposed to English outside the classroom and were clearly more fluent in the second language than their peers. These observations led the investigators to hypothesize that the pattern of overuse-dropout-contrastive use might be more

¹In the Quebec school system, grade levels are designated with arabic numerals in elementary school from grades 1 to 6. In highschool, the grade levels are designated with roman numerals, beginning with Secondary I through V. For the purposes of consistency, I have chosen to use arabic numerals for all levels. Therefore, Secondary I students are referred to as grade 7 learners, etc.

persistent in the development of learners whose principal exposure to the language is in classrooms dominated by audio-lingual methodology.

This hypothesis provided the impetus for the present investigation. As already observed with this small group of grade 6 subjects, the language of learners who have contact with the target language outside the classroom may reflect developmental patterns which are different from those of learners whose experience with the second language is limited to the classroom setting.

In this longitudinal study of a group of adolescent francophone students, all of whom are studying English (ESL) in formal classrooms but who have varying degrees of informal exposure to the second language, differences in some aspects of English language development will be described in relation to the amount of informal exposure learners have to the second language outside the classroom. This will be undertaken in two ways. First, the sequence and emergence of 5 functions of the -s inflection (e.g. copula, auxiliary, etc.) and the use of the -ing will be traced on two administrations of an oral communication game with eight months intervening. Second, the learners' language from the same corpus will be examined using a number of different fluency measures to discover whether the overall fluency of these francophone learners varies with the amount of outside exposure they have to the second language.

Although the primary focus of this study will be on analyses of learners' performance on the oral communication game, other data (grammaticality judgement and aptitude test scores) obtained from the subjects will also be examined in order to make further comparisons.

Plan of the Thesis

In the following pages, previous research in second language acquisition which has particular relevance to the present study will be summarized and reviewed. This will involve: (1) a discussion of the ways in which second language (L₂) researchers have accounted for linguistic variation in L₂ development, (2) a description of formal and informal learning environments and their role in the language learning process, and (3) a review of previous studies investigating the effects of learning environments on adult and adolescent second language learners. This will be followed by a description of the scope of the present investigation and the hypotheses to be tested.

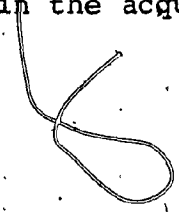
Chapter II will consist of a description of subjects and the procedures for the selection of subjects for comparison groups. It will also include a description of the elicitation instruments and the specific linguistic structures and language features to be analyzed as well as procedures for data collection. Methods for analyzing the learners' language will also be described in Chapter II.

In Chapter III, the results of the analyses will be presented. Discussion and interpretation of the results are in Chapter IV. Chapter V includes a summary and conclusions with suggestions for future research.

Variation in L₂ Development: Review of the Literature

Although some recent studies in second language acquisition research have reported important similarities and consistent patterns of development in second language acquisition, other researchers have provided evidence to suggest that there is considerable variation in L₂ learners' developing linguistic knowledge. In their attempts to account for variation in second language development, researchers have examined what appears to be an infinite number of variables which may influence the learning of a second language. Although it is difficult, indeed often impossible to isolate one variable from another, it is important to determine the extent to which these individual factors operate in order to account for some of the variation in L₂ development.

Individual variation in ultimate long-term success in L₂ learning has been attributed to several factors in recent research findings. Such factors include biological maturation (Lenneberg, 1967; Scovel, 1979) and cognitive development (Krashen, 1973, 1975; Rosansky, 1975). Seliger (1977) points out that the interaction style of different learners is also a determining variable in the acquisition



of a second language. Other researchers suggest that the learners' previous language learning experience affects success with the target language (Bialystok & Frölich, 1977). Still others, have accounted for some of the linguistic variation by examining affective variables such as motivation and attitude (Schumann, 1975).

In addition to factors affecting long-term success, there are factors which some researchers believe may lead to differences among individual learners during the course of L₂ development. These factors include such things as learners' native language, the context in which language performance is tested or evaluated, the amount and kind of instruction learners receive and the environment in which language is learned.

Schachter, (1974) found variation in developmental patterns of L₂ learners which she attributed to differences in the learners' native language backgrounds. Variation attributed to the nature of the task was reported when it was observed that learners' performance on tasks of reading and writing were different from their performance on tasks measuring oral ability (Krashen, Sferlazza, Feldman and Fathman, 1976; Larsen-Freeman, 1975). Other researchers have suggested that the recency and frequency of presentation and practice of material in the classroom setting could account for fluctuations in the speech of classroom learners (Lightbown, Spada & Wallace, 1978). The nature of the second language learning environment has also accounted

for linguistic variation in learners' speech. It has been suggested that while formal instruction in the classroom setting may lead to a higher level of grammatical competence in the second language, informal exposure to the L₂ in more 'natural' settings may lead to increased communicative ability (Fathman, 1978; Krashen, 1976).

Monitor Model

A recent theory of second language learning which has received a great deal of attention with respect to the question of variation in second language learners' speech is the Monitor Model proposed by Krashen (1976). This model postulates the existence of two independent linguistic competencies - the learned system and the acquired system. The learned system represents the 'conscious' knowledge one has of the linguistic rules governing language use. The acquired system represents the 'unconscious' internalization of a second language similar to that employed by children acquiring a first language.

According to this model, all linguistic production has its source in the acquired system. The learned system operates only as a monitor to 'edit' the linguistic output originating from the acquired system. However, this 'editing process' does not always occur. For example, in conditions where the learner is engaged in spontaneous, rapid speech and the focus is on communication, the monitor would not intervene due to time constraints and the nature of the language activity. Therefore, the language produced in such an activity would be entirely reliant on the acquired system.

On the other hand, in conditions when the focus is on form and where the L₂ learner is conscious of grammatical correctness, the monitor intervenes to 'check' the linguistic output and the resulting output would be altered by the learned system. (See Krashen, 1977a, b, 1978, for further descriptions of the monitor). Although Krashen claims that the monitor is not developed until sometime after puberty and is available only to adult L₂ learners, other researchers feel that the monitor model has implications for child L₂ classroom learners as well (d'Anglejan, 1978).

Krashen submits that it is the 'unmonitored' language which reveals patterns of great consistency across learners in the 'natural sequence' of L₂ development. This claim is supported by the findings from a number of 'morpheme acquisition' studies which have reported consistent orders of difficulty in the acquisition of a group of grammatical morphemes (Bailey, Madden & Krashen, 1974; Dulay & Burt, 1974). Subsequent research however, has led to findings of considerable variation in the 'natural order' of development (Hakuta, 1974; Rosansky, 1975). Some researchers have suggested that the order found was due in part to the use of the Bilingual Syntax Measure (Burt, Dulay & Hernandez-Chavez, 1975) as the elicitation instrument used in these studies. Others challenge the statistical procedures for analysis (Rosansky, 1975). Other researchers have questioned the use of the 'obligatory context methodology' in morpheme acquisition studies. It is thought that the measurement

of morphemes only in terms of the accuracy with which they are produced in contexts requiring their use does not provide sufficient evidence to claim 'natural orders' of acquisition or 'difficulty orders' in second language development. Several researchers have emphasized the importance of looking beyond the obligatory contexts as well in order to adequately describe the development of linguistic forms (Andersen, 1977; Hatch, 1978; Hatch & Wagner-Gough, 1976; Lightbown, Spada & Wallace, 1978).

According to the monitor theory, one can expect variation in learners' performance under different conditions, but consistency within the same task at particular points in L₂ development. That is, in an oral interview, one would expect the acquired system to dominate because of its focus on communication. In a more formal task, where the monitor is being 'tapped' (e.g. discrete-point grammar tests), one can expect the learned system to intervene and alter the output.

Formal and Informal Learning Environments

It is a widely accepted notion that the experience of learning a second language in the classroom is different from learning it in the 'natural' setting. Questions which have been raised by L₂ researchers are: What are the significant characteristics of these environments? How does each contribute to the language development process? Do they contribute to specific domains of language development? If so, what are these domains and how can they be described?

Answers to these questions are extremely important for both psycholinguists and teachers concerned with being able to discover, describe and provide the optimal conditions for successful language learning to take place.

Two kinds of linguistic environments have been described and characterized by researchers examining the role of environment in language learning: formal and informal learning environments.

The informal environment is best described as being very similar to the 'natural' setting in which children acquire first languages. In such a setting, learning takes place in 'real-life' situations, where meaning can be derived from the context. Like children acquiring first languages, informal L₂ learners are exposed to vast quantities of natural communicative language which are linguistically rich in both content and structure. This rich linguistic input enables the learner to induce the underlying rules of the linguistic system through the development of hypotheses about the structure of language and to continually revise his hypotheses as his own developing linguistic system evolves to more closely approximate the target grammar.

Because informal learning takes place in communicative situations where the learner is able to determine the meaning of what is being said through the contextual cues surrounding language, formal principles and explicit rules governing language use are rarely articulated. Thus,

learners seldom receive feedback with respect to the grammatical form of their utterance but rather, are given feedback which concerns the appropriateness and content of their utterance.

While it is true that informal learners are often exposed to complex language use which is well beyond their comprehension abilities, it has also been found that there are consistent adjustments in the language addressed to these learners, a kind of simplified register referred to as 'foreigner talk' (Freed, 1979; Ferguson, 1975). Like the language adults address to L₁ learners, these registers are syntactically less complex, redundant, and have exaggerated intonation, slower speech and distinct pauses between utterances (See Newport and Gleitman and others for further descriptions in Snow and Ferguson, 1977). Even though these adjustments are sometimes made, learners in the informal environment have countless opportunities for meaningful and sustained language use, as well as a rich linguistic input providing models and demonstrations of 'natural' language use. The informal language learning environment is without explicit instruction and occurs in the context of the social interactions in the daily activities of the learner.

In describing the formal environment and its contributions to language learning, Krashen and Seliger (1975) in a systematic study of language teaching methodologies, revealed two characteristics which they considered common

to all classroom L₂ instruction. First, it is described as providing discrete-point presentation, that is, lexical items and grammatical structures are isolated and taught as separate items. These items are carefully graded so that, theoretically, each new item is linguistically more complicated than the preceding one. Learners are expected to assimilate these forms one at a time and eventually to synthesize them into an operational model of language. A second characteristic of the formal environment is the detection and correction of error in learners' speech. Although some methodologies tolerate more error than others, all formal instruction focuses on learners' errors and provides the opportunity for their correction. Furthermore, this feedback is almost always directed to the grammatical correctness of particular items.

For classroom L₂ learners, opportunities to speak in the linguistic environment are fewer than those for learners in informal settings. Due to the inherent nature of teacher-centered classrooms, it is the teacher and not the student who does most of the talking, taking time to interact with students on an individual and successive basis. Because most ESL classrooms are over-populated, it is often impossible for students to have the opportunity to speak with their teacher during a classroom session. Furthermore, when a teacher does speak to a student, the exchange is generally restricted to items in textbook exercises so it is therefore

rare that the learner interacts with an interlocutor in a communicative and natural manner.

One similarity between the formal and informal learning environments is manifested in the language addressed to learners. It has been found that teachers of ESL also simplify their speech to accommodate the learner and that the complexity of their speech increases with the developing knowledge of the learner (Gaies, 1978). It is important to note however, that even though there are syntactic similarities, there are differences in the content of 'teacher talk' and 'foreigner talk'. The language addressed to informal learners is relevant to their experience, whereas the language addressed to formal L₂ learners is often abstracted from realistic, spontaneous, communicative use. Formal classroom instruction then, seems to focus on the discrete-point item teaching and correction of formal properties of language rather than on the way the forms can be put to communicative use.

It would appear that in many respects, the informal environment and the formal environment are diametrically opposed. Informal L₂ learning seems to represent a developing linguistic process which is inductive, communicative, implicit and unconscious. Formal L₂ learning on the other hand, appears to be a deductive, structural, explicit and conscious process. According to Krashen's monitor model, acquisition is best facilitated in the informal environment where learners are exposed to the necessary

primary linguistic data for successful acquisition to take place. Learning however, is best facilitated in the formal setting where discrete point lessons focus on explicit knowledge of language rules.

Effects of Environment on L₂ Learning: Studies with Adult L₂ Learners

Several studies with adult second language learners have been undertaken to investigate the effects of linguistic environments on learning. Previously, it was thought that adult learners were not able to acquire languages as children do but rather, needed formal discrete point instruction to effectively learn languages. Recent studies have shown, however, that given the appropriate conditions for acquisition to take place, (e.g. natural language use in informal contexts), adult learners are clearly able to benefit from acquisition opportunities. Most investigators have found that adults not only increase their language proficiency through informal exposure, but perform better than learners who have spent an equal amount of time in formal classroom settings. The current viewpoint is that both formal and informal environments contribute to second language learning but do so in different ways.

Upshur's (1968) comparison of three groups of ESL students at the University of Michigan lends support to the claim that formal ESL instruction is less effective than the use of language in other activities, specifically courses in fields of specialization. He arrived at this conclusion after comparing the results of students' performance on two

administrations (pre-test, post-test forms) of the Michigan Examination in Structure which revealed no significant improvement in language learning which could be attributed to classroom instruction. Mason's study (1971) of foreign students at the University of Hawaii produced similar results. A study undertaken by Carroll (1971), measured the second language proficiency of college students who had had the same amount of formal instruction. Students whose parents spoke the target language at home had better results on the MLA Foreign Language Proficiency test than those students whose parents did not. Further, it was found that those students who had spent time in a country in which the target language was spoken also performed significantly better than those who spent no time abroad.

Two studies which are similar in design suggest that both formal and informal exposure contribute to improved language proficiency. Krashen, Seliger and Hartnett (1974) and Krashen and Seliger (1975) measured the number of years spent in an English speaking country and/or the amount of English spoken every day. These measures were compared to students' final grades and results on the Michigan Exam in structure. Results from both studies revealed that when pairs of students were matched for instruction, it appeared that some students who had the same instruction but more informal exposure had a higher level of proficiency than those without comparable amounts of exposure. However,

when students were matched for exposure, but had varying degrees of instruction, the students with more instruction were more proficient in the language.

The results of these studies led to the development of the monitor model and the suggestion that acquisition is more directly affected by the informal environment whereas learning is more affected by the formal environment. It also led to a further distinction between exposure-type and intake-type informal environments (Krashen, 1976). The latter involves the learner in active and sustained language use which is thought to provide true input to the language acquisition device. The former does not involve the learner intensively and directly enough in order to be effective for acquisition to take place.

Effects of Environment on L₂ Learning: Studies with Adolescent L₂ Learners

Although most of the research investigating the ways in which formal and informal environments affect language learning has been with adult L₂ learners, there are a few studies which have been undertaken to compare the second language development of adolescent students in formal and informal settings.

Hale and Budar (1973) evaluated the success of a TESOL programme by measuring the second language proficiency of secondary students in Honolulu. They found that immigrant students who did not receive formal ESL instruction and were isolated from speakers of their native language were the most successful learners according to the results of an

oral interview, diagnostic test and final grades in school. Similarly, those learners whose exposure was limited to the classroom and who seldom socialized with English speakers were the least successful.

In a study of the ESL development of 331 elementary and secondary students, Fathman (1976) examined some environmental variables which appeared to favorably influence L₂ learning (e.g. size of class, methods of teaching, and number of foreign students in schools) to determine what effects each had on the learners' success in learning English as a second language. Her results revealed that although all groups improved measurably in their performance on the SLOPE Test (Second Language Oral Production English Test, Fathman, 1976) and an oral interview over the course of one academic year, those students who were in small classes where oral language was emphasized, those who had less contact with speakers of their native language, and those who were encouraged to use English in their school activities improved the most. The results from a later study, however, (Fathman, 1978) did not reveal such clear dichotomies. In this study of informal and formal learners, the investigator found similarities and differences between both groups of learners in their performance on an informal oral interview, picture description task, the SLOPE test, classroom observations and native speaker ratings.

The similarities were observed in the learners' production of particular linguistic structures. Both formal and informal learners were found to have a similar overall difficulty order in their production of 20 grammatical structures. However, the informal learners' speech was rated by English native speakers as more fluent than grammatical, whereas the formal learners' speech was rated as more grammatical than fluent. These results were interpreted in terms of the monitor theory and the notion that formal environments contribute more to the learned system (measured in terms of grammaticality) and informal environments to the acquired system (measured in terms of fluency).

It was also observed that the informal learners used a great variety of communication strategies in conversation whereas the formal learners were more likely to resort to their native language. Furthermore, while the informal learners were highly motivated to learn even though they had a low opinion of their English language abilities, the formal learners were considerably less motivated and regarded English instruction as not particularly relevant to their studies.

Scope and Hypotheses of the Present Study

As can be seen from previous research, most of the studies claiming that formal and informal environments contribute to particular domains of L₂ development have been

based for the most part on discrete-point tests and little work has been undertaken to describe more specifically the qualitative differences in developing language systems with respect to the kinds of exposure learners have to the target language. The Fathman study (1978) is an exception because it does report on qualitative analyses of the effects of formal and informal environments. However, her subject population represents two distinct groups. That is, she compared learners with only formal exposure with the same group of learners whose contact with the language was predominantly informal. Furthermore, the subjects in the informal group came from several different language backgrounds whereas the subjects in the formal group were all native German speakers studying English as a second language in Germany.

The present study is intended to further investigate both qualitative and quantitative differences in the language development of L₂ learners from similar first language backgrounds who receive formal classroom instruction, but who differ in the extent to which they have informal contact with the second language. They are therefore both formal and informal learners.

The learners' use of 5 functions of the -s and -ing inflections will be examined to determine whether learners with varying amounts of informal exposure to the L₂ appear to be making developmental errors which are similar or whether each group of learners appears to be operating from

different underlying rule systems in their production of these specific structures. It is hypothesized that:

(1) Learners who have access to informal exposure to the second language will reflect developmental patterns which differ from those of learners whose exposure to the second language is restricted almost entirely to the classroom setting.

In addition to describing the development of a small number of structures, the overall fluency of learners' speech on the same task will be described. Because informal exposure has been found to increase oral fluency in the target language, the second hypothesis is that:

(2) Learners with greater informal exposure to the L_2 will show different levels of oral fluency than those with less informal exposure to the L_2 .

CHAPTER II

SUBJECTS AND PROCEDURES

The subjects¹ for this study are 33 francophone students currently studying English as a second language (ESL) at the secondary I level (grade 7) in a Montreal area school.² They have had comparable amounts of formal ESL instruction and are considered to have 'average' or 'above average' academic ability. The ESL instruction they have received has been dominated by audio-lingual methodology. They began in grade 4 using the Look, Listen and Learn textbooks (Alexander, 1972) and have been using the Lado English Series - Book I (Canadian Edition, 1971) in their classrooms this year. The students received 120 minutes of ESL instruction per week (four 30-minute periods) in grade 6 and are presently receiving one hour of English on 5 days in a 7-day school cycle.

Most of the contact these students have with the target language is in the formal classroom setting. However, many of them come into contact with English outside the classroom

¹The subjects described here form part of the total subject population (176) under investigation in the ESL Teaching and Learning Project at Concordia University with P.M. Lightbown and B. Barkman as the principal investigators. The project is funded by the Language Programs Branch, Department of the Secretary of State of Canada.

²This year marks the second in the longitudinal study of the English language development of this group of L₂ learners.

by having English-speaking friends, living in a bilingual community or watching English television. They therefore represent a group of formal learners with varying amounts of informal exposure to the second language.

Exposure to English.

For the purposes of the present study, we divided our total subject population into three groups, each representing different degrees of informal exposure to English. In order to determine the extent of informal exposure our subjects had to the target language, we administered two student questionnaires. Each consisted of a series of items designed to measure the exposure these students have to English outside the ESL classroom. The first questionnaire contained 17 items of which 8 were designed to measure exposure.¹ It was administered in October, 1977 when our subjects were in grade 6. The second questionnaire, which included 10 items measuring exposure was administered in November, 1978 shortly after the subjects began their ESL instruction in grade 7.

Both questionnaires were written in French to avoid any problems comprehending and answering the questions. Teachers administered the questionnaires to their classes making sure that all instructions were clear. Students worked quietly throughout to avoid interrupting or possibly confusing other students' responses.

¹The questionnaire contained additional items designed to measure students' attitudes and expectations regarding English.

Analysis of Questionnaires

A weighting scheme was developed to assign a certain number of points to the possible responses to each question (See Appendix 1). The number of points was based on intuitive judgements of the extent to which the responses reflected greater and lesser amounts of exposure to English. For example, a student who reported watching English television programmes was considered to have less exposure than a student who claimed that English was the language he usually used with his mother and/or father at home. This intuitive rating of exposure is based to some extent on the distinction between 'exposure-type' and 'intake-type' informal environments (Krashen, 1976). The latter is thought to provide true input to the language acquisition device because it involves the learner directly and actively in the language learning process. The former does just as its term implies - exposes the learner to the language so that the learner is a more passive than active participant. The weighting scheme permitted the investigator to make the distinction between those subjects who were involved in active and sustained language use in the informal setting and those who were not.

For each student, the questionnaires were marked and scored. Because the items on both questionnaires were very similar, the scores from both were combined to give each student one score out of a possible total of 20. In general, the scores were very low. The range was from

0 - 12 indicating that these learners are indeed principally 'formal learners'. Those who obtained 6 or more were considered as those with maximum exposure to English in the formal environment. Those with 3 to 5 were placed in the medium exposure group and scores of 2 or less represented those with the minimum exposure to English outside the classroom (See Table 1).

Language Features Investigated

The analysis of learners' language involved both an investigation of specific structures and an examination of the learners' language in terms of overall fluency in order to trace certain developmental trends within and across each exposure group.

The specific linguistic structures include 5 functions of the -s morpheme which have been examined in previous 'morpheme acquisition' studies (Dulay & Burt, 1974 a, b; Krashen, 1977b; Larsen-Freeman, 1975). They are the copula, auxiliary, 3rd person singular, plural and possessive. We will also be examining the use of the -ing inflection.

In addition to tracing the development of these specific structures, we examined the learners' language in terms of overall fluency using a variety of measures including number of words, proportion of words which were verbs, number of complete sentences, number of pauses, number of interviewer initiated utterances.

Table 1
Exposure Indices for Individuals in
High, Medium and Low Exposure Groups

HIGH EXPOSURE (N = 9)		MEDIUM EXPOSURE (N = 13)		LOW EXPOSURE (N = 11)	
Student Number	Exposure Index	Student Number	Exposure Index	Student Number	Exposure Index
062	6	061	3	012	1
047	10	029	3	022	0
075	7	049	3	006	1
030	8	008	3	073	2
013	6	020	4	001	2
045	12	024	3	005	1
050	6	065	4	040	2
079	6	048	3	025	2
034	6	058	5	069	2
		072	4	028	2
		004	4	078	2
		068	5		
		002	4		

Note: Student numbers are the computer identification numbers assigned to individual students in the Lightbown & Barkman research project.

Instruments for Data Collection

The principal data for this research were obtained from an oral communication game requiring students to describe a series of pictures. It was administered twice with eight months intervening. Although this task was the primary source of data for our longitudinal study, we also examined other sources of information on our learners' language obtained from grammaticality judgements and aptitude tests. These additional sources provided further insight into the learners' developing language systems and permitted the investigator to make comparisons of their performance on different tasks.

The Communication Game (Picture Card Game Task)

The picture card game was designed to elicit 5 functions of the -s morpheme and the -ing. The game involves two participants - the student and the interviewer. The interviewer had two sets of 7 groups of cards with cartoon-like pictures on them. Each group consists of 4 pictures which are similar in design but differ slightly in their detail (See Appendix 2). Each picture was specifically designed to provide contexts for the use of particular functions of the -s morpheme (e.g. copula, auxiliary, etc.). Although students could play the game without using the target structures (e.g. giving lengthy lists of concrete nouns in their description of the content of the picture), the most precise description of the picture necessitated the use of at least one of the target structures.

All students received instructions for the task as they began. The interviewer had one copy of each group of pictures in front of her, concealed from the student. Another copy of the group of pictures was presented to the student, face down and the student was asked to pick one from the group of four and describe it to the interviewer. The interviewer then tried to guess which one the student was describing and verified her choice by matching her copy of the card with the student's. Because of the game-like nature of this task the students seemed very relaxed and were not as much concerned with the correctness of their utterance as they were with being able to effectively provide information about the pictures to the interviewer.

Each student described one picture from each of the groups and the interview took approximately 7 to 10 minutes to complete. The interviewer was advised to say as little as possible and restricted her questions to things like: "What can you tell me about the picture?" or "What do you see in your picture?" in order to avoid imitation and repetition in the students' performance. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.¹

Grammaticality Judgement and Language Aptitude Tests

We administered a grammaticality judgement/sentence correction test and a language aptitude test in order to make comparisons between the learners' production data on

¹ This task was devised by P.M. Lightbown based on similar tasks used by J. Upshur, 1971. R. Yorkey drew the pictures.

the oral communication game and other tasks measuring linguistic intuition and the language learning abilities of these learners.

The grammaticality judgement/sentence correction test consisted of 40 written sentences which demonstrated both correct and incorrect use of five functions of the -s morpheme and the verb 'be' versus 'have' in sentences like "I have 13 years old.". Students were required to distinguish between correct and incorrect uses of these forms and to correct those sentences they considered to be incorrect (See Appendix 3).

The language aptitude test used in this study was developed by Peter Green (1974/5). It consists of 42 items and is a Swedish lesson without feedback. The original test was written for English speakers but it was adapted for our francophone subject population and was translated into French.¹

In this test, the Swedish forms of the definite and indefinite article, the present tense and singular and plural nouns are presented and the examinees must write new forms by analogy. The final items require the construction of Swedish sentences and translation into French (See Appendix 4).

Both tests were administered by the teachers in regular ESL classroom sessions and students understood that their performance would not affect their final grades.

¹The language aptitude test was translated by Bruce Barkman and André Cyr.

Procedures for Analysis

The analysis of learners' speech in the context of the picture card game was undertaken in two ways. First, we wanted to be able to make longitudinal comparisons of the use of -s and -ing inflections between the various exposure groups. Second, we wanted to measure the learners' overall fluency and make comparisons within and between groups over this eight-month period.

The first analysis involved both a measurement of accuracy in terms of percentage of correct suppliance of -s and -ing in obligatory contexts as well as a detailed examination of the use of these forms outside obligatory contexts. An obligatory context is defined as a context in which a particular form is required (obligatory) in order for a sentence to be correct both grammatically and contextually. For example, if a learner is looking at a picture of a little girl holding three balloons while saying "The little girl has three balloon", his utterance contains an obligatory context for the plural, both because of the non-linguistic context of a picture with three balloons in it and because of the use of the word three. In this example, the learner has failed to supply the correct plural form.

The learners' use of -s and -ing inflections outside obligatory contexts, in contexts which require some other form, is particularly important in determining whether certain developmental patterns are similar or different

across these groups of L₂ learners with varying degrees of exposure. Lightbown, Spada and Wallace (1978) suggested that the 'overuse-dropout-contrastive use' phenomenon observed cross-sectionally, would be borne out longitudinally. According to this, the subjects under investigation in the present study who were using the -ing inflection in grade 6 more than any other verb form, would be using proportionally more uninflected forms and fewer -ing forms on the same task this year. Preliminary longitudinal examination of such a trend has been confirmed with the entire group (Lightbown & Spada, 1979). The purpose of the present analysis is to discover whether this trend seems to be consistent across all subjects or differs depending on the amount of outside exposure these learners have to the target language.

The second analysis involved an examination of the speech of the three groups of learners in terms of their overall fluency with the target language. This was undertaken by using the following fluency measures:

(1) Number of words

The total number of words students used to describe the pictures.

(2) Number of sentences

The total number of complete sentences, operationally defined as sentences with both a subject and verb.

(3) Number of verbs (tokens)

The total number of verbs (tokens) students used to describe the picture cards.

(4) Total number of verbs (types)

- This represents a total count of the different verb types students used in their picture descriptions.

(5) Number of interviewer initiated utterances

The total number of interviewer initiated utterances was counted as a measure of fluency. Those students who were able to continue speaking with little prompting in the form of questions, clarifications and elaborations on the part of the interviewer were considered as having greater fluency in the language than those who required a considerable degree of interviewer intervention. This measure does not include interviewer questions which were explicitly asked in order to provide a clear obligatory context for a particular form (e.g. possessive).

(6) Number of complete lapses into the native language

This measurement was operationally defined as a total retreat from the target language into French. This does not include the partial incorporation of one French lexical item into an English sentence but rather, represents a complete switch to the native language.

(7) Number of pauses

This measurement is defined as a complete break in the speech flow within or between sentences which was

indicative of the learner's inability to continue his description without requiring some assistance from the interviewer or reverting back to his native language. These pauses do not represent 'normal' hesitations in speech while the learner was trying to think of a particular vocabulary item, etc., but rather are lengthy periods of silence in the conversation.

Scores from the learners' performance on the grammaticality judgement and language aptitude test were tallied and used only as a basis for comparison with the results of the morpheme and fluency analysis. These results are reported in the following chapter with a discussion and interpretation of them in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

This chapter reports on the longitudinal analysis of -s and -ing inflections both within and outside the obligatory contexts, the longitudinal analysis of the learners' overall fluency in the L₂, and the results of learners' performance on the language aptitude and grammaticality judgement/sentence correction tests.

Obligatory Context Analysis - First Administration

The first analysis of -s and -ing inflections was in terms of the accuracy of students' use of these forms in obligatory contexts. Figure 1 shows the results for each exposure group on the first administration of the picture card game. As can be seen in this figure, accuracy for the copula (e.g. It's a table; Her skirt is red.) was highest for all groups. The auxiliary was next for the high exposure group (HEG) but the low (LEG) and medium exposure (MEG) groups were slightly more accurate in the use of the -ing inflection. If we examine more closely the -ing accuracy rates for the three groups, we see that the LEG had the highest accuracy rate (.78) followed by the MEG (.73) and the group with the lowest accuracy rate (.62) was the high exposure group.

What this means is that the high exposure students were less accurate in the use of the -ing inflection where it was required (e.g. What's the girl doing? She ~~hold~~ three balloons)

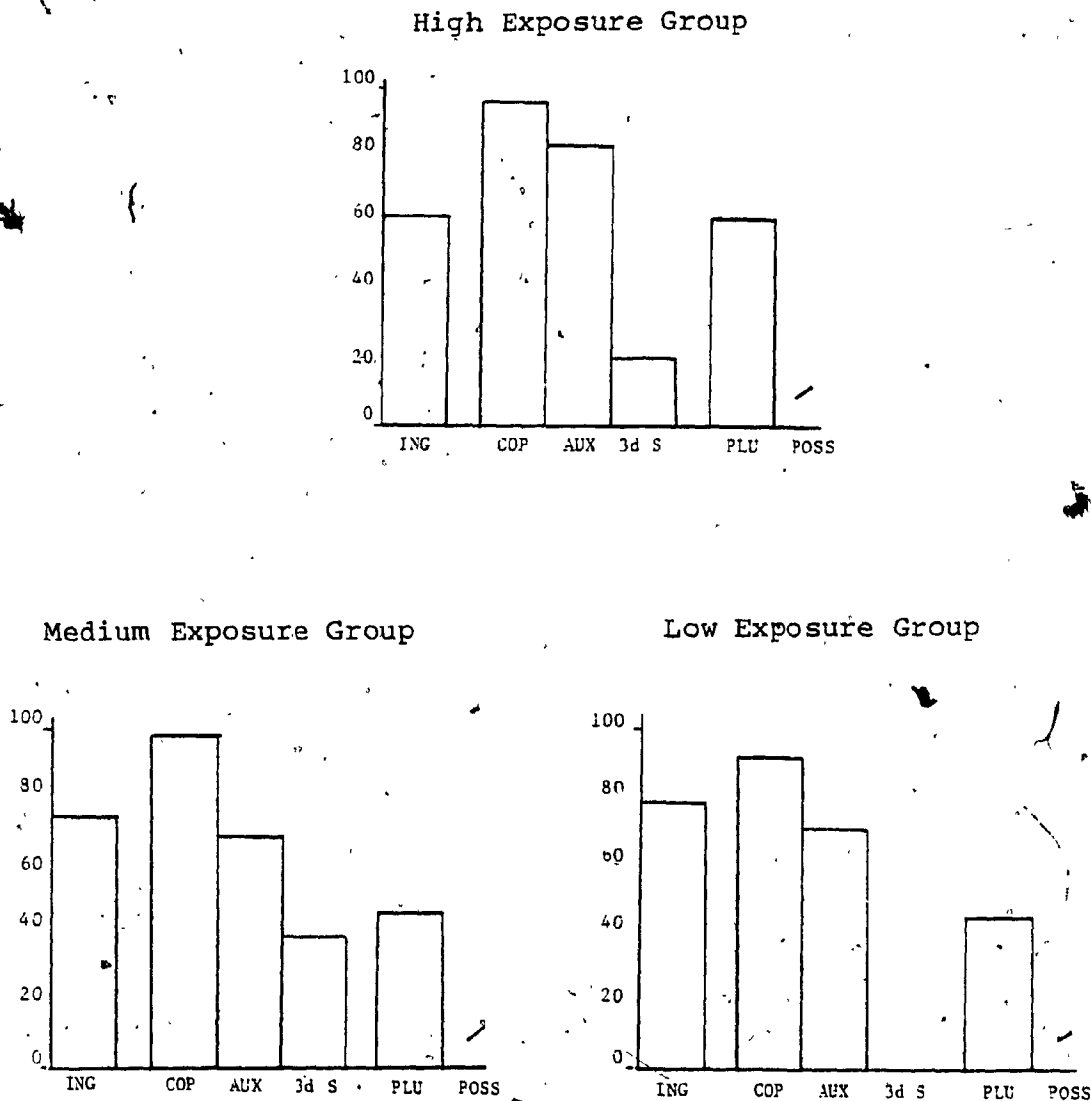


Figure 1
 Accuracy Rates for -s and -ing
 Inflections in Obligatory Contexts
 on the First Administration

than the other two groups, but when they did use the -ing inflection it was almost always accompanied by the correct -s auxiliary inflection (e.g. What's the girl doing? - She's holding three balloons.). The low and medium exposure groups however, were more likely to use an -ing inflection without an auxiliary (e.g. What's the girl doing? - She holding three balloons.) more often than they supplied the auxiliary -s.

The plural was next in accuracy for all groups. The high exposure students had the highest accuracy rate and the medium and low exposure groups were essentially the same. Compared with all other inflections, accuracy on the 3rd person singular was lowest for each group. The low exposure students used no 3rd singular -s inflections. The high exposure group was 20% accurate and the medium exposure group had the highest 3rd person accuracy rate.

It was not possible to calculate accuracy for the possessive on the first administration because there were so few occasions requiring its use. Furthermore, when students did attempt to use the possessive, it was almost always encoded with an 'of' phrase (e.g. The birthday of the boy.). Thus there were very few uses of the possessive -s supplied in the limited number of contexts provided.

We tried to create more obligatory contexts for the possessive on the second administration by adding a picture for the possessive and modifying one of the already existing pictures. In addition to these non-linguistic contexts,

the interviewer explicitly asked such questions as "Whose birthday is it?" and "Whose present is it?" to provide a linguistic obligatory context as well.

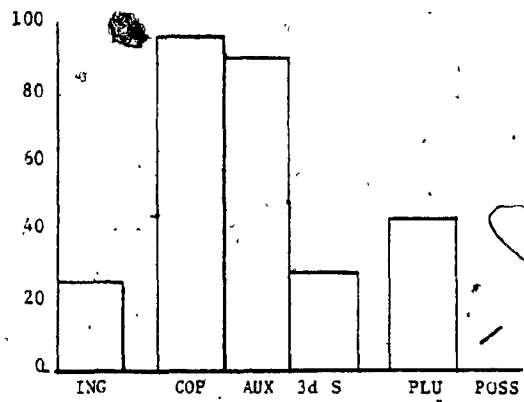
Even with these alterations, only one student used the possessive -s. Every other student replied using the name of the person without the possessive -s (e.g. Whose birthday is it? - Pat; Whose present is it? - Brenda.)

The most striking difference among the three exposure groups on the first administration of the picture card game is that the HEG was more accurate on the auxiliary and the plural than the other two groups. Further, accuracy for the plural was almost identical to the -ing for the HEG, while accuracy for the plural was considerably lower than the -ing for the medium and low exposure groups.

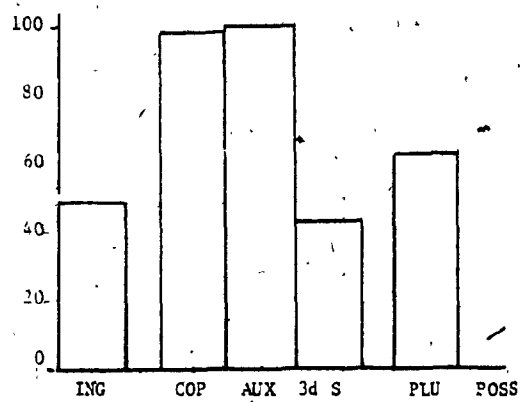
Obligatory Context Analysis - Second Administration

On the second administration of the picture card game, accuracy on the copula remained essentially the same for the three exposure groups. A comparison of Figure 1 and Figure 2 shows that there was an increase in accuracy for the auxiliary -s for all groups. What is particularly interesting here, is that the MEG who were 69% accurate on the auxiliary on the first administration were 100% accurate eight months later. There was also a very slight improvement on the 3rd person singular for the HEG and MEG and a considerable improvement for the LEG who produced no 3rd person -s inflections on the first administration

High Exposure Group



Medium Exposure Group



Low Exposure Group

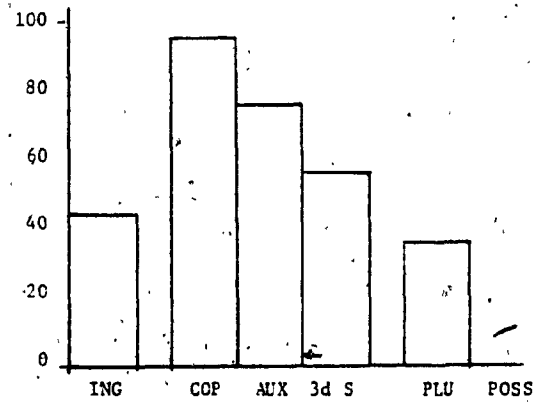


Figure 2

Accuracy Rates for -s and -ing Inflections in Obligatory Contexts on the Second Administration

compared with 57% accuracy on the 3rd singular on the second administration. The high accuracy rates for 3rd singular must be interpreted with caution however, because for all groups in the majority of cases, the verb used with this inflection was the verb 'have'.

One of the most interesting findings from the second administration is the dramatic decrease in the accuracy for -ing with all groups. On the second administration, accuracy on the -ing dropped below that of the plural for the medium exposure group and was the lowest overall in terms of accuracy for the high exposure group (See Figure 3).

Although all groups were clearly not using the -ing inflection with the same degree of accuracy relative to the first administration, the low and medium exposure groups continued to use the -ing more accurately than the high exposure students.

Frequency of -s and -ing Inflections - Both Administrations

What was found to be particularly interesting in our examination of the data was the learners' use of -s and -ing inflections outside the obligatory contexts. Although learners were found to be highly accurate in their use of these structures in contexts requiring their use, they were also found to use the same forms in inappropriate contexts for their use. We began to investigate these cases of overuse in an effort to determine whether certain forms tended to dominate in the speech of a particular exposure group and how these forms evolved over an eight month period.

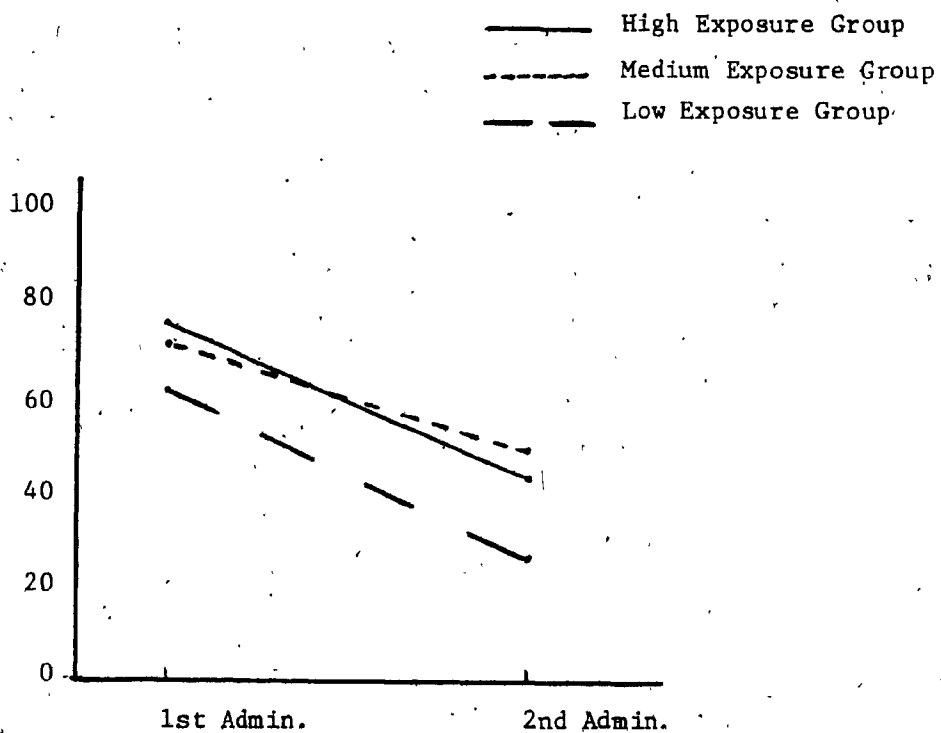


Figure 3

Accuracy on -ing for Each Exposure
Group on Both Administrations

On the first administration of the picture card game, the HEG used both uninflected and -ing inflected verbs with equal frequency. Table 2 shows that 49% of the total number of full verb forms produced by the HEG were uninflected and that 48% were inflected with -ing. The percentage of verbs with a 3rd person -s inflection was very low. The MEG produced a greater number of -ing inflected verbs than uninflected and were using the 3rd person -s infrequently. The low exposure students however, had a clear preference for -ing inflected forms compared with a relatively low frequency of uninflected forms and no 3rd person inflections.

If we recall the accuracy rates for each group on the first administration, the LEG using the -ing inflection with greater accuracy than the MEG and the MEG using the -ing more accurately than the HEG, we can see a similar pattern in the use of these forms in terms of frequency.

If we look at the frequency results from the second administration, we observe some changes in the learners' use of verbal inflections over this eight month period. The HEG used considerably fewer -ing inflections and more uninflected forms on the second administration. The MEG also dropped in their frequency of the -ing and increased the frequency of uninflected forms by 24% on the second administration. The most dramatic decrease in the frequency of -ing use was with the low exposure group who dropped from 71% -ing inflected on the first administration to 33% on the second. The frequency of uninflected forms

Table 2
 Inflected and Uninflected Verbs Used by
 the Three Exposure Groups on
 Both Administrations of the Picture Card Game

Subject Group	Uninflected (%)		'ing' Inflected (%)		's' Inflected (%)	
	1st Admin.	2nd Admin.	1st Admin.	2nd Admin.	1st Admin.	2nd Admin.
High Exposure	49	66	48	21	02	12
Medium Exposure	40	64	56	22	03	14
Low Exposure	29	56	71	33	0	11

increased considerably on the second administration. For all three groups, there were great increases on the accuracy of the 3rd person -s inflection.

Fluency Measures - First and Second Administrations

In order to determine whether there were differences among exposure groups in terms of their overall fluency in the L₂, I examined the learners' language using a number of different fluency measures. The results of these measures can be seen in Table 3.

Total Number of Words

Looking only at the total number of words students used when participating in the first administration of the picture card game, there were clear differences between the two extreme exposure groups. The low exposure students produced a total of 1,075 words with the average number of words produced by each student being 97.7. The HEG used 1,498 words to describe the pictures with an average of 166.4. The medium exposure students produced 2,166 words with an average of 166.6 making their results identical to those of the high exposure group.

Looking at the results of the second administration, we can see that the average number of words increased within each group. The MEG had the highest average number of words per student (200) and the HEG had an average of 193, an increase of 27 from the first administration. The LEG had 144 words, an increase of 47 words per student from the first administration.

Total Number of Complete Sentences

We examined the learners' use of complete sentences (operationally defined as anything containing at least a subject and a verb). The LEG used considerably fewer complete sentence constructions per student (9.5) than the other two groups (See Table 3). They tended to use lists of concrete nouns in their picture descriptions and seldom produced sentences of more than 3 words in length consisting of a subject, verb and object (e.g. She's taking a cookie.). The MEG students produced twice as many complete sentences as the LEG (18.8) in describing the pictures and the HEG produced an average of 21.3 complete sentences.

Here again the greatest difference exists between the low and high exposure groups. The high exposure students were able to describe the pictures using sentences which were linguistically more complex, that is, containing NP and VP constituents. Unlike the LEG, they seldom used concrete nouns only and seemed to have a better grasp of the overall syntactic structure of the target language. The MEG too, used a greater number of complete sentences than the LEG and almost as many as the HEG.

The results from the second administration revealed that the MEG produced just slightly more complete sentences than the HEG. The LEG was lowest again in their use of complete sentences per student but increased by 10 from the first administration. Here again, there are clear

Table 3
 Fluency Measures for Three Exposure Groups
 on Both Administrations of the Picture Card Game

	Words		Complete Sentences		Verbs (Tokens)		Verbs (Types)		Interviewer Initiated Utterances		Lapses into NL		Pauses	
	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	1st	2nd
HIGH EXPOSURE (N=9)	166.4 ^a	193.6	21.3	27.5	13.3	12.1	8.1	8.9	3.3	3.5	.5	.7	1	1.3
MEDIUM EXPOSURE (N=13)	166.6	200	18.8	28.3	11.3	13.0	6.7	8.5	3.9	3.3	.3	.3	1.5 ^c	1.6
LOW EXPOSURE (N=11)	97.7	144	9.5	19.4	4.9	10.4	3.8	7.2	5.4	7.1	1.4	1.7 ^b	3.8	2.8

^a Figures represent per student average on each measure.

^b On both administrations, one student was responsible for the majority of switches to French.

^c On the first administration, one student was responsible for half of the pauses.

differences between the low exposure group and the other learners, but the HEG and MEG are very similar to each other.

Verb Count: Tokens and Types

Looking at Table 3, we see that the average number of verb tokens was 4.9 for the LEG and 13.3 for the HEG, but the HEG and MEG were very similar. The average number of different verbs (types) produced by the HEG was 8.1. The medium exposure students produced 6.7 and the low exposure students used 3.8 verb types.

There were increases in the number of verb tokens per student on the second administration for the medium and low exposure groups while there was a slight decrease for the high exposure group. The increase in verb tokens was great for the LEG, but minimal for the MEG. With respect to verb types, the MEG and HEG students were the same with slight increases from the first administration. The LEG however, showed great gains on this measure increasing from 3.8 to 7.2 verbs per student.

Number of Interviewer Initiated Utterances

The number of utterances which were initiated by the interviewer during the picture card game was also used as a measure of fluency. That is, we examined the frequency with which questions, prompting, clarifications and elaborations on the part of the interviewer were required in order for the student to be able to describe the picture

for the interviewer to guess. An example of a student requiring a great deal of interviewer assistance (Example A) is shown below as well as one of a student requiring little or no assistance (Example B).

As can be seen in Table 3, the number of interviewer interventions for the low exposure students was higher than for the medium exposure students which in turn was higher than for the high exposure students. Results of this measure on the second administration show little change in interviewer initiated utterances for the HEG, a decrease for the MEG, and an increase for the LEG. Although there were slight changes within each group from the first to second administration, they remained the same relative to one another on the two administrations. That is, on both administrations, the LEG required the most intervention on the part of the interviewer and the HEG the least, with the MEG in the middle. What this means is that the HEG was able to continue talking about one of the pictures until enough description had been provided for the interviewer to guess. It wasn't necessary on too many occasions for the interviewer to ask for further information in order to determine which picture the student was describing. The MEG required more assistance than the HEG and the LEG needed considerably more prompting from the interviewer than either of the two other groups.

Example A: Student (040) from Low Exposure Group.InterviewerStudent

Uh, the girls have_
three uh_ ball.

Mhm, balloons.

Balloons.

Mhm, OK, what colour
are the balloons?

Pink.

Pink. Ok, and what
colour is the girl's
dress?

Pink.

Example B: Student (062) from High Exposure Group.InterviewerStudent

There's a girl. She have a
dress_ uh_ pink_ and she
have uh_ some balloon_ three
balloon_ pink.

Mhm,

And she smile.

Ok. This one.

Complete Lapses into the Native Language

As described in Chapter II, this measurement represented the learners' tendency to revert completely to their native language during the course of the picture card game. As seen in Table 3, in general, there were very few instances of complete switches to their native language. Again, the results revealed little difference between the high and medium exposure students. Although the LEG switched to French a total of 16 times overall, one student was responsible for 11 of these complete lapses into French, so in fact, there was little switching to French in any of the exposure groups.

The results from the second administration were similar. The same student in the LEG whose switches accounted for the majority on the first administration, accounted for 9 out of a group total of 19 switches to French on the second administration.

Although most of the students avoided using their native language completely, there were many who included partial incorporations of French into English in their picture descriptions. This was usually done by inserting a French lexical item into an English sentence without any hesitation or interruption of speech (e.g. The tree is entre the two houses; The girl wants a gateau.) Interestingly, in some cases, students used a French verb with an English inflection (e.g. The car is frapping the truck; It's a girl tenning three balloons.).

There seemed to be a tendency for the medium and high exposure students to employ this strategy of partial incorporation more than the low exposure students.

Number of Pauses

The HEG had the fewest pauses during the course of the picture card game and the LEG had the most. The MEG paused a total of 20 times and one student was responsible for 10 of these, so in fact the MEG produced almost as few pauses as did the HEG. On the second administration, the LEG continued to pause the most, even though there was a decrease in the total number of pauses from the first to second administration. The MEG did not change and the HEG increased only slightly, still pausing the least frequently.

The most dramatic difference on this measure exists between the two extreme groups. The low exposure students were more likely to stop in mid-stream requiring considerably more assistance and intervention on the part of the interviewer than were the HEG. The medium exposure students hesitated more than the high exposure students but were able to continue their descriptions of the pictures without as much hesitation as the low exposure group.

Language Aptitude and Grammaticality Judgement Tests

Results from the Language Aptitude test revealed that the average scores for the high and low exposure students were essentially the same but differed considerably (though not significantly) from the medium exposure group (See Table 4).

Table 4
Individual Scores Obtained on Language
Aptitude Test in Each Exposure Group.

HIGH EXPOSURE (N = 9)		MEDIUM EXPOSURE (N = 13)		LOW EXPOSURE (N = 11)	
Student Number	Score ^a	Student Number	Score	Student Number	Score
062	19	061	39	012	42
047	34	029	37	022	40
075	2 ^b	049	30	006	20
030	36	008	42	073	34
013	33	020	44	001	42
045	24	024	52	005	20
050	25	065	33	040	16
079	25	048	21	025	18
034	25	058	19	069	30
		072	30	028	19
		004	38	078	22
		068	16		
		002	34		
Average Score 27.6 (%) 53		Average Score 33.4 (%) 64		Average Score 27.5 (%) 53	

Note: Student numbers are the computer identification numbers assigned to individual students in the Lightbown & Barkman research project.

^a Maximum possible score was 52.

^b This student's score was not included when the average score was computed because it was the only one which deviated greatly from the others. This may imply that the student did not understand the task.

The medium exposure group performed best with an average score of 64% while the low and high exposure groups had the same average (53%) on this test. The raw scores for individual students are also presented in Table 4.

On the grammaticality judgement/sentence correction task, medium exposure students had the highest average score (61%). The low exposure students had an average score of 54% and the high exposure students scored the lowest with the average score being 41% (See Table 5). Only the difference between the high and medium exposure students was significant at the .05 level.

A discussion and interpretation of how these results may relate to the learners' performance on the picture card game will be presented in Chapter IV.

Table 5
Individual Scores Obtained on Grammaticality
Judgement/Sentence Correction Test in

Each Exposure Group					
HIGH EXPOSURE (N = 9)		MEDIUM EXPOSURE (N = 13)		LOW EXPOSURE (N = 11)	
Student Number	Score ^a	Student Number	Score	Student Number	Score
062	28	061	25	012	19
047	14	029	29	022	23
075	11	049	30	006	23
030	18	008	38	073	35
013	20	020	34	001	28
045	9	024	35	005	23
050	16	065	14	040	22
079	15	048	10	025	17
034	18	058	13	069	18
		072	29	028	23
		004	18	078	8
		068	13		
		002	29		
Average Score 16.5 (%) 41		Average Score 24.4 (%) 61		Average Score 21.7 (%) 54	

Note: Student numbers are the computer identification numbers assigned to individual students in the Lightbown & Barkman research project.

^a Maximum possible score was 40.

Chapter IV

DISCUSSION

In this chapter the results reported in Chapter III will be discussed. The discussion is divided into two parts: (1) the accuracy and frequency of -s and -ing inflections for the three exposure groups; (2) the fluency measures for each group. The results of the language aptitude and grammaticality judgement tests will be discussed in terms of their relationship to the other measures.

Accuracy and Frequency of -ing and -s Inflections

The examination of learners' use of -s and -ing inflections revealed changes within groups over time as well as differences between groups at the same time.

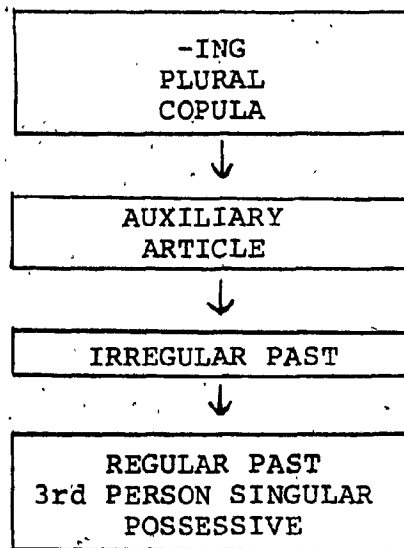
One of the most striking changes within groups over this eight month period was the dramatic decrease both in terms of accuracy and frequency of the -ing inflection. All exposure groups were using the -ing less accurately on the second administration. In addition, they were using it less frequently, with an increase in the number of uninflected verb forms. It was also discovered that although accuracy on the 3rd person -s increased only slightly for the medium and high exposure groups, there was a great increase for the low exposure students. The frequency of 3rd -s inflections increased considerably for all groups.

The accuracy orders in the present investigation are not consistent with those obtained in previous morpheme

acquisition studies (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Bailey, Madden and Krashen, 1975; Larsen Freeman, 1975). Krashen (1977b) reviewed the morpheme acquisition research reporting 'natural' sequences of development. In most of these studies, the data were obtained from cross-sectional studies using the Bilingual Syntax Measure (Dulay & Burt and Hernandez-Chavez, 1975). Although the learners treated in these studies were from different language backgrounds and age groups, a consistent rank order of morpheme acquisition was found across all groups (See Figure 4).

Figure 4

Proposed 'Natural Order' for
Second Language Acquisition.^a



Note: No claims are made about ordering relations for morphemes in the same box.

^a This figure is taken from Krashen (1977)

When we compare the accuracy order in this study with Figure 4, we see that the most striking difference is with the -ing. In other studies, the -ing has been reported as one of the first to be acquired, at approximately the same time as the plural and copula -s. With our learners however, the -ing is much lower relative to the -s inflections. In some cases, it is even lower than the 3rd person singular which has consistently been reported as one of the latest to be acquired.

Another difference is the plural which ranks high in the 'natural order', but is lower than the auxiliary and also lower than the 3rd person singular for the low exposure students on the second administration.

It appears that these francophone learners are not following the same 'universal sequence of acquisition' as those learners treated in other studies. One possible explanation for this lies in the formal instruction that these students received and the recency and frequency of presentation and practice of some of the inflections in classroom materials. The progressive -ing had been extensively practised in grade 5 ESL classes and was the focus of explicit instruction in lessons 17 - 28 in their textbook in grade 6. Furthermore, it was the only verb inflection they had been taught. At the time of the second administration (mid-way through grade 7), the students were no longer practising the progressive -ing in their ESL classes. Other forms had been practised, specifically

copular BE and the 3rd person singular and the students, recognizing that -ing was not the only possibility, began to use other forms.

A similar pattern was found with the 3rd person singular. It had not been introduced in their textbooks at the time of the first administration and was very low in terms of frequency and accuracy for all groups. However, the 3rd singular was formally introduced and regularly practised in class just shortly before the second administration and there were considerable gains for all groups on the second administration of the picture card game.

As mentioned in the results reported in Chapter III, the great gains for all groups on the 3rd person singular must be interpreted with caution because the majority of verbs with this inflection was the verb 'have'. This verb was also introduced just prior to the second administration.

It is important to mention here, that at the time of the second administration, some pictures were added in order to create more obligatory contexts for the 3rd person -s inflection. Because these results are not longitudinal, they are not included in any of the analyses reported in this study (See Lightbown and Spada, in prep., for further details). It is however, interesting to compare the 3rd person -s accuracy rates for all groups on these additional pictures to the accuracy rates obtained on the picture card game. The medium exposure students were more accurate

(16%) than the high exposure students (13%) and the low exposure students failed to provide any 3rd -s inflections (0%).

These figures are probably a more accurate indication of the learners' knowledge of the 3rd person singular because they represent a greater variety of contexts for its use. The accuracy order for 3rd -s on the picture card game seems to represent accuracy only for the verb 'have'.

Even though there were similarities in the changes which occurred within groups over time, there were considerable differences between groups at the same time. It seems that the instructional sequence affected some groups more than others. For example, the high exposure group used the -ing less accurately than the low and medium exposure students on both administrations. A possible explanation for their consistently lower accuracy and frequency rates on the -ing could be that they represent those learners who come into contact with a broader range of verbal constructions in the informal setting. Exposure to different forms being used contrastively in a wide range of communicative contexts may enable these learners to test out a greater number of hypotheses about the functions of forms and the limitations of their use. In addition, this rich linguistic input is more likely to provide them with greater opportunities for acquisition to take place than the classroom.

The low exposure students however, do not benefit from these communicative language opportunities because their

contact with English in the informal setting is very rare. The fact that they used the -ing most accurately on the first administration might have indicated that they had acquired the -ing before the other two groups. However, their poor performance on this form on the second administration demonstrates that this is clearly not the case. An examination of the learners' classroom materials has shown that as the -ing dropped out of the explicit instructional framework, it began to disappear from their speech, to be replaced by other forms. This would suggest that the low exposure students learned the progressive -ing by rote. That is, they were able to produce the -ing in its correct form, but had no idea of its function since it was the only form they knew. Because the progressive -ing was taught in isolation rather than used contrastively with other forms in the instructional sequence, these learners used it everywhere (both correctly and incorrectly) having no other form available for comparative and contrastive use. As soon as another form was introduced and practised extensively in class, the -ing became less accurate and frequent in their speech.

Although the medium exposure students also used the -ing less accurately and frequently than the LEG on the first administration, they did not decrease as much on the -ing relative to the other exposure groups on the second administration. Furthermore, they were found to be most accurate on several of the structures on the second adminis-

tration. They were also using forms which were not being used by the LEG on the first administration (e.g. 3rd person singular).

Results from the language aptitude and grammaticality judgement tests indicate that the medium exposure students tend to be more successful in their ability to analyze and discover underlying systems of rules in language than the other learners. They are also more able to make discrete point judgements of grammatical correctness. Their ability to understand language as an abstract system of logically rule governed principles may permit these students to benefit more from formal instruction than the high and low exposure groups. Furthermore, because they do well in the formal setting, they may be more highly motivated to seek out opportunities to use English in the informal setting, thereby creating meaningful contexts to maximally utilize what they have learned through explicit formal instruction in more communicative ways.

The accuracy and frequency results would imply that learners whose principal exposure to English is through classroom instruction are learning what is taught, but unless they have the opportunity to compare and contrast linguistic forms in use in meaningful contexts in more informal settings, they have no idea of their functions. They use the same form indiscriminately, that is, in contexts which are both appropriate and inappropriate for its use. Their speech becomes dominated by the particular

discrete item that is being taught at the time, to be replaced by the next discrete item which becomes the focus of explicit instruction in their classroom materials. This 'overtaching' of a particular discrete form in classroom instruction also influences the speech of learners with greater access to contrastive use of linguistic forms in informal communicative settings. It is clear however, that learners with greater informal contact know more forms and are therefore equipped with more information about the functions of different forms, enabling them to test out the ways in which they can be used in the language system.

Fluency Measures

In the results from the fluency measures, the greatest differences were found between the two extreme groups (HEG and LEG), but the high and medium exposure students were found to be similar to each other. The fact that the low exposure students did considerably worse on the fluency measures could be a result of their limited contact with the target language in situations where communicative activities are required. What is perplexing however, is that the medium exposure students do not appear to be much different from, and in some cases are better than, the high exposure students. Even though they have less contact with the target language in the informal setting than the high exposure students, they prove to be almost identical

on most of the fluency measures for both administrations of the picture card game.

A partial explanation for this may be that the medium exposure students are able to benefit more from formal instruction by utilizing the classroom input to its maximum advantage. For the high exposure students however, opportunities to hear and speak English in situations that are 'real' which pertain to their own personal lives and interests are greater and are providing these learners with a rich linguistic environment for successful acquisition to take place. Since the instructional methodology does not encourage language activities which enable students to use English in communicative and meaningful ways, the high exposure students may be terribly frustrated and bored, thus resisting formal instruction. Their results on the grammaticality judgement and language aptitude tests suggest that these high exposure students may not be particularly good classroom learners but their opportunities to use English outside the classroom make them very good acquirers.

The medium exposure students however, seem to be both learning and acquiring. That is, because they are successful language learners, they may be more highly motivated to seek out opportunities to use English in more communicative ways thereby creating more contexts for acquisition to take place.

Even though the low exposure students made great improvements on most of the fluency measures on the second administration, they remained considerably behind the other two groups.

If we recall the results of some of the fluency measures (See Table 3), we see that the medium and high exposure groups used a greater number of words and complete sentences in their picture descriptions than the low exposure students on both administrations. Because the high and medium exposure students come into contact with English in more communicative situations, it is not entirely unexpected that they should have greater vocabularies and be able to communicate information in a more coherent and syntactically organized manner. Unlike the low exposure students, they are able to make themselves understood by using more than just one or two isolated items.

There were great increases for both verb types and tokens on the second administration for the low exposure students. Because they were using little more than concrete nouns to describe the pictures on the first administration, the number of verbs was very low. By the second administration however, they were using more complete sentences in their descriptions as well as more verbs. The increase in verb types could be attributed to formal instruction which had introduced the students to a greater number of both verb types and inflectional forms by the

second administration. The high exposure students used a comparable number of verb types and tokens on both administrations, but the medium exposure students had learned more by the second administration and therefore increased on this measure. It appears that the high exposure students knew a sufficient number of verbs to effectively describe the pictures on the first administration because of their access to a large number of different verb types in the informal environment. The LEG however, did not know many the first time around but learned more in the interim.

As reported in Chapter III, it was discovered that the low exposure students required a great deal of assistance, in the form of prompting from the interviewer in order to describe the pictures. The high exposure students required the least interviewer intervention and the medium exposure students required some but not as much as the LEG.

It is not surprising that the high exposure students were able to communicate their descriptions without too much help from the interviewer when we consider that their opportunities to communicate with other speakers of English are far greater than those of the MEG and LEG. In the classroom, students seldom have the need to transmit 'real' information. What usually happens in this setting is that a question is asked of a student which normally requires one word or sentence response, a response which is known in advance by the teacher. If the reply is correct, the

teacher moves on to the next student. If the reply is incorrect, the student is usually corrected by the teacher or another student is asked to reply to the same question and so on. Students are not given the opportunity to say more than a few words and when they do have occasion to speak, they are almost always prompted by some form of a question by the teacher. The high exposure students, because of their contact with the second language outside the formal classroom do not operate solely on the question/response formula as it is not normally the pattern that communicative activities take. This is not to suggest that the low and medium exposure students are not aware of this, but rather, that they are simply not given the opportunity to speak English in units larger than sentence length in the classroom setting, so their responses become isolated phrases rather than communicative 'chunks' of natural language use.

Because there were so few lapses into French by all groups and the differences between groups was slight, no conclusions can be drawn with respect to this measure. It is interesting to note, however, that there seemed to be a tendency for the medium and high exposure students to use the strategies of partial incorporations of French into English more than the low exposure group.

One possible explanation for this could be that the medium and high exposure students had greater confidence in their ability to adapt French to English. Recognizing

that English and French share a number of cognates (e.g. table, accident), these students were more willing to 'take a chance' and use French items without the slightest hesitation in their speech, assuming that they were probably similar to English in both sound and meaning.

Another explanation could be that the students either assumed their interlocutor would know what the partial incorporation of their first language meant, or that it was not absolutely essential for the interlocutor to understand every single word in order for her to grasp the communicative value of the information they were trying to convey.

With respect to the number of pauses, the low exposure students were more likely to come to a complete stop at various points in their speech than the medium and high exposure students. These lengthy pauses in the learners' speech seem to be directly related to the number of interviewer initiated utterances because it was at this point that the interviewer felt it necessary to intervene in order to get more information from the student.

Again it seems that those students with informal contact with English were more able to carry a conversation without stopping in mid-stream than those with less informal exposure. They have had more practice at conversing with speakers of the target language and know that being able to make themselves understood is of primary importance. They

will try almost anything to transmit information to their interlocutor even if it means using a few words from their first language. The strictly formal learners however, still relied on their interlocutor, as they do their teacher, to intervene after their one word or sentence response.

Lengthy periods of silence are not too frequent in the classroom because the teacher tends to move quickly from one student response to another. When the low exposure students were placed in the communicative context of the picture card game, they discovered that their one word/one sentence replies were not enough. The interviewer was left waiting for more information about the picture in order to 'play the game' and was forced to break these awkward pauses by asking questions to keep the learner talking. The learners with informal contact however, seemed more able at keeping the channels of communication open. They continued describing the pictures in any way they could and were confident about their ability to communicate enough information in English for the interviewer to guess which picture was being described.

In general, the results of these fluency measures indicate that opportunities to use English in communicative contexts outside the classroom have a very positive and favorable effect on the overall fluency of these francophone learners. Access to English in more 'natural' and realistic linguistic contexts permits these learners to develop more

confidence in using their second language, as well as the fluency required for successful communication to take place.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This research was designed to examine the ways in which linguistic variation in the English language development of a group of francophone adolescent learners could be attributed to informal contact with the target language outside the ESL classroom setting. There were two hypotheses: (1) that learners with greater informal contact with English would reflect developmental patterns which were different from those of learners whose exposure to the second language was restricted to the formal classroom setting; and, (2) that learners with greater informal exposure to English would show different levels of oral fluency than those with less informal contact with the second language.

Data were obtained from two administrations of an oral communication game in which students were able to transmit information. Although the primary source of data was the communication game, other data were obtained from learners' performance on grammaticality judgement and language aptitude tests. Data from the communication game were analyzed in two ways. First, the measurement of accuracy and frequency of -s and -ing inflections was undertaken. Accuracy was determined by measuring the percentage of obligatory contexts in which the appropriate inflection was correctly supplied. Frequency was determined by computing the percentage of the

total number of verbs produced with an -ing or -s inflection or no inflection at all. The second analysis involved a measurement of the overall fluency of learners' language using 7 different fluency measures.

Results on the accuracy measures yielded morpheme orders which were not consistent with those found in previous morpheme acquisition studies. A possible explanation for this lies in the sequence of presentation and practice of different verb forms in the classroom instruction these learners received. That is, all groups of learners were found to use particular forms more accurately and frequently when they had been the focus of explicit classroom instruction for some time, but used them less accurately and frequently when they had either not been introduced, or recently practised in their ESL classes. Although there were similarities in the overall accuracy orders and frequency patterns for the three groups on both administrations, there were differences in the relative accuracy and frequency of particular forms across groups, indicating that the three exposure groups were not all affected by the instructional sequence to the same extent. That is, learners with the least informal contact were affected most by the classroom instruction, whereas learners with greater informal contact were less affected by the formal instruction. Thus, the first hypothesis was confirmed.

It appears that learners whose contact with the second language is solely in the formal classroom setting are not provided with enough contrastive use of language to determine the functions of different linguistic forms. Therefore, a high accuracy rate on a particular inflectional form is not a reflection of learners' knowledge of the language, but rather, of what they have received in the input. 'Acquisition' is taking place, but because the instructional input classroom learners receive is so restricted, focussing on discrete point presentation of isolated items, learners are not able to test hypotheses about the competing forms in the language system. However, learners with greater informal contact are exposed to a much broader range of linguistic forms used contrastively in meaningful contexts. This rich linguistic input provides these learners with greater opportunities for 'acquisition' to take place and more information about the language system to discover the various functions of these forms and the limitations of their use. They are therefore able to use a greater variety of inflections, including some which had not yet been formally introduced in their ESL instruction.

The second hypothesis was also confirmed. Learners with greater access to communicative and realistic-use of English in informal contexts were more fluent than those whose contact with English was restricted almost entirely to the classroom setting. However, it is important to recognize that informal exposure can not be considered as

the only determining variable. The medium exposure students had less contact with English in the informal setting yet their results on most of the fluency measures were identical to those of the high exposure students. As reported in Chapter IV, the tendency for the medium exposure students to benefit most from formal instructional input may have had a direct bearing on their motivation to seek out opportunities to utilize their linguistic knowledge in communicative language use situations. In this way, they have opportunities to benefit from both 'acquisition' and 'learning'. The learners with greater informal exposure (HEG), however, do not seem to be benefitting as much from 'learning' opportunities. Because these learners are more fluent than accurate, constant correction of their grammatical forms in the classroom setting may result in a resistance to formal instruction. On the other hand, because of their opportunities to speak English with parents or friends in active and meaningful ways outside the classroom, these high exposure learners are able to benefit from 'acquisition'. For the low exposure students, the instructional input does not provide sufficient opportunities for communicative use of language. Therefore, they are not as fluent as the other groups with more informal contact.

The results of this study are suggestive but not conclusive. Certain trends have been observed in the second language development of these francophone learners which suggest that even limited contact with the target language

outside the classroom has a favorable effect on the developing language of learners whose principal exposure to English is in the classroom setting. It seems reasonable to conclude that providing more opportunities for contrastive use of linguistic forms embedded in meaningful contexts of language use would lead to a greater understanding of the functions of linguistic forms and the ways in which they can be put to communicative use. A continuation of this research with larger groups of learners at different age levels is required to extend the findings of the present study.

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Appendix 1

Questionnaires Measuring Exposure

Questionnaire 1

Questionnaire Items	Responses	Weighting Scheme: Points
1. Quelle langue parles-tu d'habitude avec ta mère?	Anglais Français	2 -
2. Quelle est la langue maternelle de ta mère?	Anglais Français	1 -
3. Quelle langue parles-tu d'habitude avec ton père?	Anglais Français	2 -
4. Quelle est la langue maternelle de ton père?	Anglais Français	1 -
5. Quelle langue parles-tu d'habitude avec tes frères et soeurs?	Anglais Français	2 -
6. As-tu déjà étudié dans une école anglaise?	Oui Non	2 -
7. Est-ce qu'il y a quelqu'un avec qui tu parles anglais parce que cette personne ne parle pas français?	Non Oui, une personne Oui, plusieurs personnes	- 1 1
8. Est-ce que tu aimes regarder la télévision anglaise. Si oui, quelles sont tes émissions préférées?	Oui, 3 émissions nommées	1

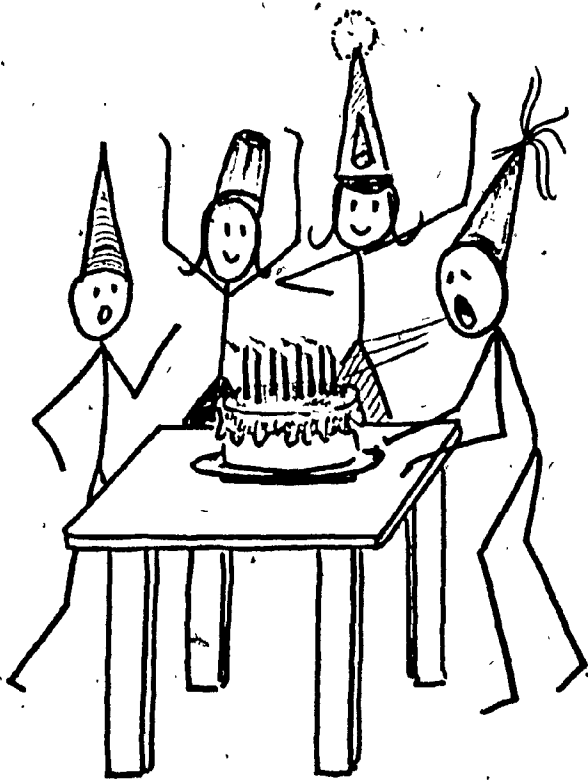
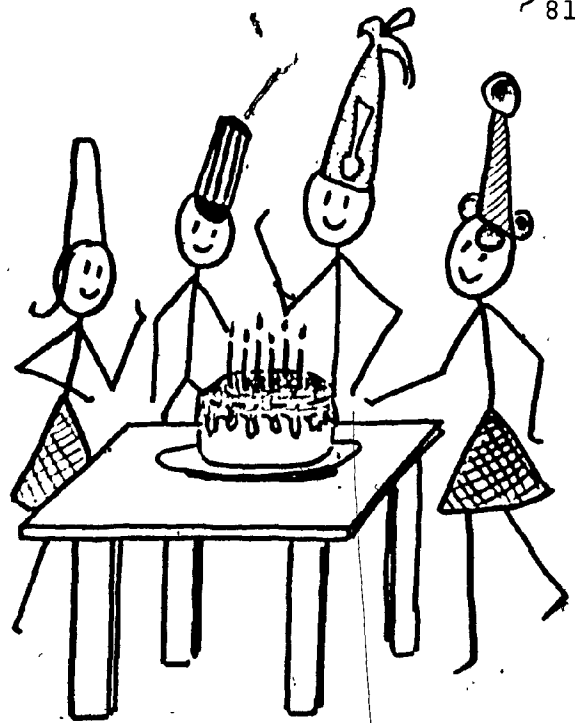
 Total 12

Questionnaire 2

<u>Questionnaire Items</u>	<u>Responses</u>	<u>Weighting Scheme: Points</u>
1. Avez-vous étudié l'anglais comme langue seconde autre part, par exemple dans une école de langues ou dans un camp d'été?	Oui	1
	Non	-
2. Avez-vous des parents avec qui vous parlez souvent l'anglais?	Oui, (père, mère, soeurs, frères)	2
	Oui, (tantes, oncles, cousins)	1
	Non	-
3. Avez-vous des amis avec qui vous parlez anglais exclusivement ou la plupart du temps? Si oui, avec combien de personnes?	Oui, (une ou plusieurs)	2
	Non	-
4. Est-ce que vous regardez la télévision anglaise? Si oui, combien de fois par semaine? et quelles émissions?	Oui, 3 émissions nommées	1
	Non	-
5. Dans les 6 derniers mois, avez-vous vu des films en anglais au cinéma? Si oui, pouvez-vous les nommer?	Oui, un film	1
	Non	-
6. Pour quelles raisons êtes-vous motivé d'apprendre l'anglais?	_____ *	1
Total		8

* For this question, a point was given to a response which indicated a desire to learn English for communication purposes, that is, to talk to English speaking friends, relatives, etc. Otherwise, this question was used to measure language expectation and attitude.

One Group of Picture
Cards from the
Oral Communication Game



Grammaticality Judgement/
Sentence Correction Task *

* This task was devised by P.M. Lightbown, N. Spada &
R. Wallace.

NOM _____

CLASSE _____

CONCORDIA UNIVERSITY

PHRASES CORRECTES AND PHRASES INCORRECTES

Parmi les phrases suivantes il y en a qui sont complètement correctes et d'autres qui contiennent une faute. Lisez chaque phrase très attentivement et suivez les directives ci-dessous.

1. Si la phrase est correcte, écrivez un C sur la ligne à côté de la phrase.

Exemple:

Lucy is a happy girl. C

2. S'il y a un mot qui n'est pas correct dans la phrase encerclez le mot et écrivez le mot correct sur la ligne.

Exemple:

The boys is playing ball. are

3. S'il manque quelque chose dans la phrase, mettez un petit cercle à la place où il faut ajouter quelque chose et écrivez le mot ou la lettre qui manque sur la ligne.

Exemple:

He is playowith the cat. ing

4. S'il y a un mot ou une lettre en trop, encerclez le mot ou la lettre et écrivez un X sur la ligne.

Exemple:

The boy is holding some redo books. X

N.B. Si la phrase doit être corrigée elle ne contient pas plus d'une seule faute.

1. The cat's food is on the floor..... (1) _____
2. The student are in the classroom..... (2) _____
3. Billy has eleven years old today..... (3) _____
4. She eats two orange for lunch..... (4) _____
5. He drinking some water..... (5) _____
6. The flower are very pretty..... (6) _____
7. Two students are sick today..... (7) _____
8. She teach English on Tuesday morning..... (8) _____
9. There some milk in the bottle..... (9) _____
10. She always walks to school..... (10) _____
11. Susan come from France..... (11) _____
12. He want a glass of milk..... (12) _____
13. Tom's house is near the park..... (13) _____
14. Kate going to the park..... (14) _____
15. The twins have 4 years old..... (15) _____
16. The teacher book is on her desk..... (16) _____
17. It a difficult exercise to do..... (17) _____
18. He's ten years old..... (18) _____
19. There a book on the desk..... (19) _____
20. Dick coat is on the chair..... (20) _____

21. The teacher usually tells us a story	(21)
22. There are two box on the table	(22)
23. The cat's running from the dog	(23)
24. The new car very big	(24)
25. He's wants a new bicycle	(25)
26. He usually make mistakes in his homework	(26)
27. It cold in the winter	(27)
28. She watch TV after school	(28)
29. The class is going to the movies	(29)
30. Pat eyes are brown	(30)
31. John going to the party	(31)
32. The teacher's usually late for class	(32)
33. It often rain in Vancouver	(33)
34. There's is a box on the table	(34)
35. Margaret standing beside the car	(35)
36. My mother has forty years old	(36)
37. They have two friends in Toronto	(37)
38. He like football	(38)
39. He going to school early today	(39)
40. That's is the new boy	(40)

Appendix 4

Language Aptitude Test

Nom: _____

Groupe: _____

Date de naissance _____

EXAMEN D'APTITUDE AUX LANGUES

Peter S. Green
University of York
Language Teaching Centre

Traduction française: André Cyr
Bruce Barkman

Beaucoup de noms français forment leur pluriel en ajoutant un "s", par exemple: un livre, des livres. Il y a cependant de nombreuses exceptions à cette règle, comme: un cheval, des chevaux; un oeil, des yeux.

En suédois, il y a de nombreuses manières de former le pluriel des noms. Certaines de ces manières sont indiquées plus bas. Lisez les tables suivantes attentivement et essayez de trouver les mots manquants dans les espaces indiqués par les flèches.

1.

une fille	en flicka	trois filles	tre flickor
un crayon	en penna	trois crayons	tre penkor
un tableau	en tayla	trois tableaux	tre taylor
une lampe	en lampa	trois lampes	



2.

un chien	en hund	trois chiens	tre hundar
une chaussette	en sock	trois chaussettes	tre sockar
une cuillère	en sked	trois cuillères	tre skedar
un couteau	en kniv	trois couteaux	




3.





une maison	ett hus	trois maisons	tre hus
une jambe	ett ben	trois jambes	tre ben
un verre	ett glas	trois verres	tre glas
une table	ett bord	trois tables	



4.	une abeille	ett bi	trois abeilles	tre bin
	un roseau	ett rö	trois roseaux	tre rön
	une jument	ett sto	trois juments	tre ston
	une mite	ett fly	trois mites	




5.	une voiture	en bil	trois voitures	
6.	un nid	ett bo	trois nids	
7.	une lettre	ett brev	trois lettres	
8.	un bas	en strumpa	trois bas	

L'article défini n'est pas un mot en suédois, mais plutôt une terminaison qui s'ajoute au nom. Lisez les exemples donnés dans les tables suivantes et essayez de trouver les mots manquants dans les espaces indiqués par des flèches.

9.	un livre	en bok	le livre	boken
	une chaise	en stol	la chaise	stolen
	une cuillère	en sked	la cuillère	skeden
	un chat	en katt	le chat	



Nombre de points _____

10.	un crayon	en penna	le crayon	pennan
	une lampe	en lampa	la lampe	lampan
	un tableau	en tavla	le tableau	tavlan
	une fille	en flicka	la fille	



11.	un pont	en bro	le pont	bron
	un nuage	en sky	le nuage	skyn
	une chaussure	en sko	les chaussures	skon
	un village	en by	le village	



12.	une jambe	ett ben	la jambe	benet
	un verre	ett glas	le verre	glaset
	une lettre	ett brev	la lettre	brevet
	une maison	ett hus	la maison	



13.	une main	en hand	la main	
14.	une vache	en ko	la vache	
15.	un ruban	ett band	le ruban	
16.	un bas	en strumpa	le bas	



Nombre de points _____

La terminaison indiquant l'article défini (le, la, les) est différente quand le nom est pluriel. Regardez les exemples et essayez de trouver les mots manquants.

17.

une fille	en flicka	les filles	flickorna
une lampe	en lampa	les lampes	lamporna
un tableau	en tavla	les tableaux	tavlorna
un crayon	en penna	les crayons	

18.

un chien	en hund	les chiens	hundarna
une chaussette	en sock	les chaussettes	sockarna
une cuillère	en sked	les cuillères	skedarna
un couteau	en kniv	les couteaux	

19.

une table	ett bord	les tables	borden
une jambe	ett ben	les jambes	benen
une maison	ett hus	les maisons	husen
un verre	ett glas	les verres	

20.

une abeille	ett bi	les abeilles	bina
une mite	ett fly	les mites	flyna
un roseau	ett rö	les roseaux	röna
une jument	ett sto	les juments	

Nombre de points _____

21.	un nid	ett bo	les nids	
22.	un bas	en strumpa	les bas	
23.	une voiture	en bil	les voitures	
24.	une lettre	ett brev	les lettres	

En français, nous disons "je m'assois", "elle s'assoit" et "ils s'assoient". Regardez les exemples en suédois et essayez de trouver les mots manquants.

25.	je m'assois	jag sitta	je joue	jag leker
	elle s'assoit	hon sitta	elle joue	hon leker
	ils s'assoient	de sitta	ils jouent	

26.	je parle	jag talar	je dessine	jag ritat
	elle parle	hon talar	elle dessine	hon ritat
	ils parlent	de talar	ils dessinent	

27.	Je suis	jag är	je demeure	jag bor
	elle est	hon är	elle demeure	hon bor
	ils sont	de är	ils demeurent	

Nombre de points _____

28.	j'écris	jag skriver	ils écrivent	
29.	elle lave	hon diskar	je lave	
30.	ils voient	de ser	elle voit	
31.	j'ai	jag har	elle a	



32.	j'écris	jag skriver	
	elle lave	hon diskar	
	ils jouent	de leker	
	je m'asseois		



Vous avez maintenant étudié de nombreux noms et verbes suédois et vous pouvez essayer de former des phrases.. Au besoin, consultez les tables afin de trouver les mots dont vous avez besoin. Les deux premières phrases sont données comme modèle.

Hon bor i London.

Elle demeure à Londres.

Nombre de points _

Flickan ritar med en penna.

La fille dessine avec un crayon.

33.

Katten leker med en sko.

34.

Flickorna bor i byn.

35.

Stolarna är i huset.

36.

Jag diskar glaset.

37.

Bordet har tre ben.

Nombre de points _____

La fille est dans la maison.

38.

[Empty response box for question 38]



Ils ont trois voitures.

39.

[Empty response box for question 39]



J'écris une lettre

40.

[Empty response box for question 40]



Ils voient une vache.

41.

[Empty response box for question 41]



Je joue avec les chiens.

42.

[Empty response box for question 42]



Nombre de points _____

FIN DE L'EXAMEN