



National Library
of Canada

Bibliothèque nationale
du Canada

Acquisitions and
Bibliographic Services Branch

Direction des acquisitions et
des services bibliographiques

395 Wellington Street
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0N4

395, rue Wellington
Ottawa (Ontario)
K1A 0N4

Your file - Votre référence

Our file - Notre référence

NOTICE

The quality of this microform is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us an inferior photocopy.

Reproduction in full or in part of this microform is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30, and subsequent amendments.

AVIS

La qualité de cette microforme dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de qualité inférieure.

La reproduction, même partielle, de cette microforme est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30, et ses amendements subséquents.

THE EFFECT OF DIFFERENT TEACHING STRATEGIES ON THE
LENGTH AND FREQUENCY OF GRADES 5-7 EARLY
FRENCH IMMERSION STUDENTS' DISCOURSE

by

Michael J. Sayers

B.A. University of British Columbia 1982

B.Ed. Université Laval 1983

THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF MASTER OF ARTS
in the Faculty
of
Education

© Michael J. Sayers 1992

SIMON FRASER UNIVERSITY

July 1992

© All rights reserved. This work may not be
reproduced in whole or in part, by photocopy
or other means, without permission of the author.



National Library
of Canada

Acquisitions and
Bibliographic Services Branch

395 Wellington Street
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale
du Canada

Direction des acquisitions et
des services bibliographiques

395, rue Wellington
Ottawa (Ontario)
K1A 0N4

Your file / Votre référence

Our file / Notre référence

The author has granted an irrevocable non-exclusive licence allowing the National Library of Canada to reproduce, loan, distribute or sell copies of his/her thesis by any means and in any form or format, making this thesis available to interested persons.

L'auteur a accordé une licence irrévocable et non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de reproduire, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de sa thèse de quelque manière et sous quelque forme que ce soit pour mettre des exemplaires de cette thèse à la disposition des personnes intéressées.

The author retains ownership of the copyright in his/her thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without his/her permission.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur qui protège sa thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

ISBN 0-315-03761-6

APPROVAL

Name: Michael Jackson Sayers
Degree: Master of Arts
Title of Thesis: The Effect of Different Teaching Strategies
on the Length and Frequency of Grades 5-7
Early French Immersion Students' Discourse

Examining Committee:

Chair: Janis Dawson

André Obadia
Senior Supervisor

Gloria Sampson
Professor

Geoff Mills
Faculty Research Associate
French Education
Faculty of Education
Simon Fraser University
External Examiner

Date Approved July 27, 1992

PARTIAL COPYRIGHT LICENSE

I hereby grant to Simon Fraser University the right to lend my thesis, project or extended essay (the title of which is shown below) to users of the Simon Fraser University Library, and to make partial or single copies only for such users or in response to a request from the library of any other university, or other educational institution, on its own behalf or for one of its users. I further agree that permission for multiple copying of this work for scholarly purposes may be granted by me or the Dean of Graduate Studies. It is understood that copying or publication of this work for financial gain shall not be allowed without my written permission.

Title of Thesis/Project/Extended Essay

The Effect of Different Teaching Strategies on the Length and Frequency
of Grades 5-7 Early French Immersion Students' Discourse

Author: _____
(signature)

Michael Jackson SAYERS
(name)

July 22 / 92
(date)

ABSTRACT

This study examined the effect of different teaching practices on the length and frequency of Grades 5-7 Early French Immersion (EFI) students' discourse. The project stemmed from a concern that students at this level lose their motivation to speak regularly in French, and that some teachers do not offer pupils enough opportunities to speak in extended discourse.

Four observations were conducted in each of the classes of six Grades 5-7 EFI teachers in School District #43 (Coquitlam). The frequencies of the activities that the teachers' engaged their students in were measured with the COLT coding scheme (Allen et al., 1987), followed by an analysis of the effect of the activities on the length of student discourse (i.e. ultraminimal, minimal, or sustained speech). The teachers and small groups of students were also interviewed to determine the factors that influence the frequency of student discourse, especially the role of the teacher.

The results show that teachers engaged their students in more teacher directed activities (42% of total time) than student centered activities (27%). Communicative teaching strategies generated significantly more sustained (longer than one main clause) discourse than analytic strategies. Conversely, analytic approaches produced more ultraminimal (not more than two words) talk. Teachers and students reported that students should be encouraged to speak in French as much as possible. However, most students indicated that they speak in French only "sometimes".

The findings suggest that teachers can most effectively motivate students to speak frequently in French by (a) communicating their

expectations to students that they speak only in French during designated French time, (b) rigorously implementing at the beginning of the school year a reward system to remind students to speak French, (c) convincing students of the intrinsic value of speaking French, and (d) teaching with communicative strategies that allow students to converse with each other. These measures will help Grades 5-7 EFI students overcome environmental, psycholinguistic, and program forces (e.g. the dominance of the English Language and culture) that encourage them to speak in English.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the members of my examining committee for their assistance and encouragement, especially my Senior Supervisor Dr. André Obadia, as well as the teachers and students in the Coquitlam School District who volunteered to participate in my study. In order to respect their anonymity I cannot name them, but I learned much by observing them teach and learn. Finally, I want to acknowledge my good friend Gail for her friendship and support during the entire project, and my parents for helping me to enjoy and value learning.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | PAGE |
|---|----------|
| APPROVAL | i i |
| ABSTRACT | i i i |
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS..... | v |
| TABLE OF CONTENTS..... | v i |
| LIST OF TABLES..... | x i |
| LIST OF FIGURES..... | x i i |
| INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| CHAPTER 1 LITERATURE REVIEW..... | 8 |
| 1. Introduction..... | 8 |
| 2. Speaking achievement of Early French Immersion students..... | 9 |
| 2.1 Linguistic goals of Early French Immersion | 9 |
| 2.2 Speaking compared to other intralingual skills | 10 |
| 2.3 Components of speaking..... | 12 |
| 2.3.1 Grammatical competence..... | 13 |
| 2.3.2 Discourse competence..... | 16 |
| 2.3.3 Sociolinguistic competence..... | 17 |
| 2.3.4 Strategic competence..... | 18 |
| 2.4 Influence of cognitive ability on EFL students' speaking skills | 20 |
| 2.5 Early French immersion student surveys and self- evaluations of their speaking skills..... | 20 |

| | PAGE |
|---|------|
| 2.6 Summary and explanation of early French Immersion students' speaking skills..... | 22 |
| 2.6.1 Environmental, psycholinguistic, and program factors..... | 23 |
| 2.6.2 The role of the teacher..... | 30 |
| 3. Curriculum orientations and teaching strategies..... | 33 |
| 3.1 Goals teachers hold for their students | 33 |
| 3.1.1 General philosophical goals | 34 |
| 3.1.2 Language goals | 35 |
| 3.1.3 Fluency versus accuracy; experiential versus analytic | 36 |
| 3.1.4 Role and importance of errors | 42 |
| 3.1.5 Summary and explanation of the language and philosophical goals | 45 |
| 3.2 Value and justification of extended student discourse..... | 47 |
| 3.3 Teaching strategies | 51 |
| 3.3.1 Teaching strategies used in Early French Immersion..... | 52 |
| 3.3.2 Teaching strategies and Immersion speaking goals..... | 55 |
| 3.4 Direct instruction | 57 |
| 3.5 Cooperative learning and group work | 62 |
| 3.5.1 Slavin's 'Student Team Learning' | 64 |
| 3.5.2 Kagan's 'Co op Co op' | 66 |
| 3.5.3 Johnsons' 'Learning Together' | 68 |
| 3.5.4 The effect of cooperative learning on Early French Immersion students' speaking skills..... | 71 |
| 3.6 Teaching techniques to prevent students speaking in their mother tongue..... | 72 |
| 4. Summary and Hypothesis..... | 77 |

| | PAGE |
|--|-------------|
| CHAPTER II RESEARCH DESIGN..... | 79 |
| 1. Introduction..... | 79 |
| 2. Subjects | 80 |
| 2.1 Method of selecting the sample of subjects | 80 |
| 3. Sites | 84 |
| 3.1 Method of selecting sites | 85 |
| 4. Instruments and Procedures | 86 |
| 4.1 Classroom observations and coding instruments... 87 | 87 |
| 4.1.1 Limitations of COLT | 90 |
| 4.1.2 Description of observation scheme | 91 |
| 4.1.3 Coding procedures | 99 |
| 4.2 Interviews..... | 103 |
| 4.2.1 Post-observation interviews with teachers..... | 103 |
| 4.2.2 Post-observation interviews with students..... | 104 |
| 4.3 Trial of instruments | 104 |
| 5. Summary..... | 105 |
| CHAPTER III ANALYSIS PROCEDURES AND RESEARCH FINDINGS | 106 |
| 1. Introduction | 106 |
| 2. Research questions - Group A | 107 |
| 2.1 Data analysis procedures | 107 |
| 2.2 Presentation of findings | 112 |
| 2.3 Frequency of activities | 112 |

| | PAGE |
|---|------|
| 2.4 Length of student discourse by activity | 120 |
| 2.4.1 Analytic versus communicative tasks | 125 |
| 2.5 Comparison of student dominated discussion and teacher dominated discussion for four selected activities..... | 127 |
| 2.6 Summary of findings to Group A questions | 130 |
| 3. Research questions - Group B | 131 |
| 3.1 Data presentation and analysis procedures | 131 |
| 3.2 Teachers' and students' perceptions of students' discourse..... | 133 |
| 3.2.1 Teachers' and students' perceptions of the importance of students discourse in French speaking in French | 133 |
| 3.2.2 Teachers' and students' perceptions of the general frequency of students' discourse..... | 136 |
| 3.2.3 Teachers' and students' perceptions of the frequency of students' discourse during the four observed lessons | 139 |
| 3.2.4 Teachers' and students' perceptions of the frequency of student discourse in French..... | 141 |
| 3.2.5 Strategy and reward systems used by teachers to motivate their students to speak in French, and students' perceptions of their teachers' efforts. | 142 |
| 3.2.6 Student perceptions of the quality of their spoken French, and the effect of their perceptions on their efforts to speak French | 149 |
| 3.2.7 Summary of findings to Group B questions | 150 |

| | PAGE |
|---|------------|
| CHAPTER IV DISCUSSION OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESULTS | 152 |
| 1. Introduction..... | 152 |
| 2. Discussion of Group A questions | 152 |
| 2.1 Frequency of direct instruction versus group work..... | 152 |
| 2.1.1 Comparisons with other studies..... | 152 |
| 2.1.2 Interpretation of findings | 153 |
| 2.1.3 Analytic versus communicative orientations..... | 154 |
| 2.2 Length of student discourse..... | 155 |
| 2.2.1 Comparison with other studies | 155 |
| 2.2.2 Whole class discussion versus group work | 156 |
| 2.2.3 Analytic versus communicative orientations..... | 157 |
| 2.2.4 Other factors influencing the length of discourse..... | 157 |
| 3. Discussion of Group B questions | 162 |
| 3.1 Teacher and students' perceptions of the frequency and importance of students discourse in French..... | 162 |
| 3.2 The role of the teacher in increasing the motivation of students to speak in French..... | 163 |
| CHAPTER V CONCLUSION | 171 |
| 1. Summary | 171 |
| 2. Recommendations to Immersion teachers..... | 175 |
| 3. Implications for other second language teachers..... | 176 |
| 4. Suggestions for further study | 177 |
| APPENDICES | 178 |
| Appendix A | 178 |
| Appendices B1-B2 | 181 |
| Appendix C | 183 |
| Appendix D | 187 |
| Appendices E1-E6 | 192 |
| Appendices F1-F2 | 198 |
| Appendices G1-G8 | 203 |
| Appendix H..... | 211 |
| Appendix I | 212 |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY | 213 |

LIST OF TABLES

| TABLE | PAGE |
|---|------|
| 1.1 Experiential and Analytic Features of Second Language Teaching | 38 |
| 1.2 Immersion Teaching Strategies Based on the Type of Activity, the Objectives of the Lesson, and Level of Student Participation | 53 |
| 2.1 Designation of Experiential and Analytic Teachers in this Study..... | 83 |
| 2.2 COLT Features | 88 |
| 3.1A Length of Time per Activity: Mean Proportions of Observed Time for Individual Teachers | 113 |
| 3.1B Length of Time per Activity: Mean Proportions of Observed Time for all Teachers | 114 |
| 3.2A Length of Student Discourse per Activity: Mean Percentages of Observed Time for all Teachers | 121 |
| 3.3 Length of Student Discourse by Teacher: Mean Percentages of Observed Counts for all Activities | 125 |
| 3.4 Significant Differences Between Small Group Tasks and Whole Class Discussions | 129 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| FIGURE | PAGE |
|---|------|
| 3.1A Length of Time per Group of Activities: Mean Percentages of Observed Time for all Teachers..... | 117 |
| 3.1B Length of Time of Most Frequent Activities: Mean Proportions of Observed Time for all Teachers | 118 |
| 3.2 Length of Student Discourse per Group of Activities: Mean Percentages of Observed Time for all Teachers... | 123 |

INTRODUCTION

Since its birth in the 1960's, Canada's Early French Immersion (EFI) program has been overwhelmingly praised by students, parents, educators, and academics across the country. The program aims to facilitate non-Francophone students' acquisition of French, while at the same time educating them in the other school subjects through the medium of the French language. One respected scholar, Stephen Krashen, has described EFI as "the most successful program ever recorded in the professional language teaching literature" (Krashen, 1984:61). Evidence of the program's success include very high student and parent satisfaction, reflected by rapidly increasing enrollment - over 259,000 students by 1990, (Canadian Parents For French Immersion Registry, 1990), and satisfactory achievement scores in French, English, and other academic subject areas affirmed by several researchers across Canada (Genesee, 1984; Swain & Lapkin, 1986).

Although Early French Immersion students appear to develop good oral communication skills, they nevertheless experience some difficulties speaking French. Some researchers (e.g. Pawley, 1985; Swain & Lapkin, 1986) have confirmed that EFI student achievement in oral expression trails their progress in the three other language skills: listening and reading comprehension, and writing ability. Specific difficulties include lack of accuracy in speaking, especially in grammar.

Moreover, studies suggest that EFI students do not have enough opportunity to speak French in class, and that when they do speak it is most often one word and short clause utterances (Harley,

1985; Swain & Lapkin, 1986; Swain & Carrol, 1987). Harley et al. (1990) have found that EFI students speak less than two thirds as much French during the French portion of their day than the amount of English they speak during the equivalent English time.

The relatively poor achievement of the EFI students speaking French as compared to their other language skills, and the lack of opportunities to speak it, pose several problems. First, speaking plays a very important role in the social development of students. With proposed changes to the British Columbia school system in the Ministry of Education's Year 2000 document, B.C.'s educators increasingly recognize the importance of fostering students' social development and their communication skills. These skills would appear to be especially important in the context of B.C.'s pluralistic and multi-cultural society, and in a world where the spoken word is rapidly replacing written text as the primary means of communication. For example, increasing numbers of people now receive their news on television, including public forums, and on radio, including phone-in talk shows, and proportionally fewer people receive their news through newspapers.

Although all language skills influence the development of students' communication and social skills, speaking and listening appear to exert a more direct influence than reading and writing. Reading and writing offer students a means for reflecting upon their learning and life experiences by thinking through their feelings and ideas. Those students who acquire these literacy skills possess an increasingly potent academic tool as they progress from the elementary grades through secondary school and

possibly on to university. Evidence also suggests that literacy in turn enhances oral skills. Perera (1986) argues that as students become increasingly exposed to language they may extend their oral repertoire by 'borrowing' some of the newly-acquired literate structures of the language. However, because oral discussion dominates much of human beings' social activity, speaking and listening appear to play particularly influential roles in the development of students' communication and social skills. Most students learn by engaging in activity. One learns to communicate socially by participating in social activities, which often center around talking.

Second, difficulties in EFL students' achievement in speaking may negatively influence their progress in other French language skills and in other school subjects that they study in French. For example, students' development of language skills may in turn influence their subsequent progress in other subjects such as social studies, science, and problem solving activities in mathematics. Moreover, the grammatical structures employed by EFL students speaking French may influence the same structures that they use when they write, although, as Perera (1986) points out, the literacy skills also enhance the oral ones.

Some evidence suggests that extended student discourse in French has desirable effects on language learning. Increasing opportunities for learners to participate in extended student discourse offer possibilities to enhance their speaking skills. Extended student discourse increases the 'comprehensible input', Krashen's (1982) notion of the amount of the target language

exposed to students. Moreover, extended discourse also increases Swain's (1985) notion of 'comprehensible language output', defined as the production of language in situations where the learner must deliver a precise, coherent, and appropriate message.

Increasing language output offers several advantages to learners. More output provides students with greater opportunity to negotiate meaning, it fosters more active student involvement in their learning, and it increases student motivation. Moreover, Schachter (1984) has suggested that output provides learners with the important opportunity to test hypotheses, to experiment with a variety of means of expression, and to discover if they have succeeded in conveying meaning. In addition, both Krashen (1982) and Swain (1985) argue that language 'output' forces the learner to move from what they refer to as 'semantic processing' (i.e. understanding meaning) to 'syntactic processing' (i.e. knowing the grammar). Krashen suggests that "in many cases we do not utilize syntax in understanding - we can get the message with a combination of vocabulary, lexical information, plus extra-linguistic information" (1982: 66). Thus it is possible for EFL students to understand the input - to get the message- without knowing the grammar of that input. Speaking French, according to Swain, acts as one of the triggers that force EFL students to pay attention to the means of expression (form) needed to successfully convey their intended meaning. If teachers do not provide their students with opportunities to speak French in extended discourse, their grammatical accuracy will not advance to this higher processing level.

The priorities of EFI research studies have evolved since the 1960's to meet the changing concerns of immersion parents, teachers, and administrators. Until the 1980's most EFI research focused on program outcomes, to alleviate initial concerns of student achievement. During the last decade interest has shifted to other issues, including instructional aspects of immersion programming. Researchers have begun to focus on the teacher as one of the key determining factors in the success of the EFI program.

Some researchers (e.g. Lapkin, Swain, & Shapson, 1990; Allen et al., 1990) speculate that teaching strategies eliciting more sustained discourse will improve students' speaking skills, and they call for more studies to test their hypothesis. EFI teachers practice a variety of teaching strategies. Two strategies, direct instruction and group tasks, appear to be very prevalent. This study examines the relationship between teaching practices and the speaking skills of Grades 5-7 EFI students. In particular, it will attempt to answer the following groups of questions:

Research Questions - Group A.

- a. How frequently do Grades 5-7 EFL teachers engage their students in direct instruction and group tasks?
- b. Do some instructional practices increase the amount of student classroom discourse more than others?
- c. Do experiential, fluency approaches such as cooperative learning strategies and group work promote greater student discourse than analytic orientations characterized by lock-step, direct instruction?
- d. What specific activities promote the greatest quantity of EFL student discourse in the target language?
- e. How do other second language constructs influence the length of student discourse for experiential and analytic teaching? These parameters include the sorts of questions asked by teachers and students (pseudo or genuine), the nature of information (predictable or unpredictable) exchanged by teachers and students, the relative restriction placed on student talk and the subject matter and language spoken, discourse initiation by students, and the source and purpose of materials.

Research Questions - Group B

- a. What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of:
 - i) the importance of students speaking in French?
 - ii) the frequency of French generally spoken by students?
 - iii) the frequency of French spoken by students during the observed lessons?
 - iv) the quantity of French spoken by students?
- b. What strategies and reward systems do teachers use (if any) to motivate their students to speak in French? Which are the most effective? How do the students perceive their teachers' efforts?
- c. What are the students' perceptions of the quality of their spoken French, and how do their perceptions influence their efforts to speak French?

Chapter I reviews the existing literature regarding speaking achievement of EFL students and teaching strategies used in second language classrooms. It concludes by stating this study's hypotheses. Chapter II outlines the research design used in this study to test the identified hypotheses. Chapters III and IV present the data collected, and provide an analysis, interpretation, and discussion of the results. Chapter V concludes with a summary, recommendations for EFL practitioners, and suggestions for further research.

* Please note that when referring to unidentified people, (e.g. the teacher, students, or other language learners), the text alternates between the feminine and the masculine from one chapter to the next. 'She' is used in the Introduction, followed by 'he' in Chapter I, 'she' in Chapter II, and so on. The use of one gender or the other indiscriminately encompassed both males and females. This strategy permits the writer of the thesis to recognize both genders, while at the same time providing some stylistic variety in the text. In the presentation of results in Chapter III and the discussion in Chapter IV, reference is made to the unidentified male and female teachers who were subjects in this study. In this section 'he' refers to the men teachers, and 'she' to the women teachers.

CHAPTER I

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. INTRODUCTION

In the first part of Chapter I, I examine EFL students' speaking skills. Some studies are reviewed that have compared student oral expression with other language skills, and several others that have analyzed aspects of speaking itself. EFL student self-evaluations of their speaking skills are presented, as well as some comparisons between their oral abilities and those of Francophones and Late French Immersion students. I conclude with the speculations and hypotheses of several researchers to account for EFL students' relatively weak oral expression in certain aspects of discourse, and some suggestions to improve the difficulties. This analysis provides the framework for the discussion of teaching strategies.

In the second part of this chapter I focus on teaching strategies used in second language classrooms. It is posited that EFL teachers' teaching strategies and the specific language objectives that they hold for their students are embedded in more general philosophical orientations towards life and education. Both the specific language goals and different teaching strategies are then examined. The discussion of language goals examines the 'fluency' versus 'accuracy' debate and the role and importance of errors. The section on teaching strategies compares direct instruction with cooperative, group learning. Evidence from the literature will be provided that suggests that cooperative, group learning offers several advantages over direct instruction with respect to its

effect on EFI students' speaking skills, most notably because it increases the length and frequency of student discourse.

2. SPEAKING ACHIEVEMENT OF EARLY FRENCH IMMERSION STUDENTS

2.1 Linguistic goals of Early French Immersion

The linguistic goals of British Columbia's EFI program, as described by the B.C. Ministry of Education in two policy circulars during the 1980's (Circular #146, 1981; Circular #38, 1987) do not specifically refer to speaking skills. The 1981 policy aimed to provide EFI students with a 'functional bilingualism' by the time they graduate from Grade 12. This means that graduating students would be able to participate easily in French conversations, take post-secondary courses with French as the language of instruction, and be able to accept employment using French as the working language. This 1981 policy originated primarily from similar goals for students taking over 5,000 hours of French instruction developed in Ontario during the late 1970's, outlined by Ontario's Ministry of Education in the 1977 document commonly referred to as the 'Gillen Report'.

In 1987 the B.C. Ministry curtailed and simplified the primary linguistic goal of EFI to the development of 'bilingualism', which it defined as "oral and written fluency in two languages". Although this policy refers to 'oral fluency', it does not outline the specific speaking objectives for the EFI program. Educators refer to 'fluency' in different ways. Therefore, it is useful to examine more closely EFI students' speaking skills, both compared to other intralingual skills and to specific components of speaking itself.

2.2 Speaking compared to other intralingual skills

Several researchers (e.g. Harley, 1984; Pawley, 1984, 1985; Swain & Lapkin, 1986) have consistently confirmed that EFL students' speaking abilities generally compare unfavorably to both three other intralingual skills and to the speaking skills of Francophones. Although second language educators and linguists alike recognize that this simplistic categorization of four language skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) is somewhat inaccurate because it does not correspond exactly to real language use (Brumfit, 1984a), they nevertheless agree that the students' development of receptive language skills (i.e. listening and reading) far exceeds that of their productive abilities (i.e. writing and speaking). Speaking trails all other language skills, including writing.

Obadia (personal communication) has speculated that EFL students' relative difficulty speaking French, as compared to their other three intralingual skills, is to be expected. Most second language learners develop their receptive skills before their productive ones. Second language learners also appear to experience more difficulties learning to speak a second language than they do acquiring their mother tongue. Of the four intralingual skills, EFL students may experience most difficulty with speaking, but due to the obstacles faced by any pupil learning to speak a second language, these difficulties are not surprising.

Catherine Pawley's findings (1984, 1985) illustrate the achievement of EFL students' speaking skills as compared to other intralingual skills. Pawley published the results of longitudinal

evaluations of the four intralingual skills (listening and reading comprehension, and speaking and writing ability) administered over 11 years to French immersion students in Ottawa and Carleton. In one component of her study, oral proficiency interviews were conducted with 97 Grade 11 students using the Foreign Service Institute oral test. Students in these tests scored highest in listening and reading comprehension, followed by writing, and lowest in speaking. Less than one quarter of the students tested were classified as being able to "speak the language with sufficient lexical and structural control to participate in most ordinary or official conversations on practical, social or professional subjects." (Pawley, 1984:17).

In a second component of Pawley's study (1984), data collected from a group of 48 Grade 10 EFI students' speaking skills using the Public Service Language Knowledge Examination provided further indications that speaking is the students' least developed skill. Her data from this test showed that in listening, reading, and writing, most students attained Level B, the ability to function best in a one-to-one situation and also to participate in meetings and discussions dealing with general or work-related topics. In speaking, however, most immersion students only attained the lesser Level A, which is the ability to deal with requests for information and to carry on conversations to a limited extent.

2.3 Components of speaking

Several studies have also examined EFL students' abilities in specific components of speaking itself. During the 1980's, researchers at the Modern Language Center at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE) worked with a theoretical framework that differentiated several components of language proficiency, determined largely by speaking (Canale & Swain, 1980; Harley, 1984). These components included:

1. **grammatical competence**--knowledge of vocabulary, word formation, pronunciation, spelling, and sentence formation.
2. **discourse competence**--the ability to organize (i.e. produce and interpret) logically coherent discourse, including the ability to connect discourse and text with appropriate conjunctions or adverbs.
3. **sociolinguistic competence**--the ability to use the appropriate style of speech in accordance with the topic being dealt with and the relative formality of the situation.
4. **strategic competence**--the ability to overcome communication breakdown and maintain the flow of conversation.

These four domains are not mutually exclusive because they often overlap in speech, but they do help researchers analyze EFL pupils' achievement in specific components of speaking. This framework has guided several studies of EFL students' speaking skills, including large scale projects in Saskatchewan (Lapkin, Swain & Cummins, 1983) and in New Brunswick (Lapkin & Swain, 1984a).

I will review the literature in these four domains in some detail because the discussion provides the context for both the ensuing explanation of EFL students' speaking skills, and the discussion of teaching strategies in the second part of the chapter.

2.3.1 Grammatical competence

Several researchers (e.g. Adiv, 1980; Harley, 1984; Harley & Swain, 1984; Day & Shapson, 1987) have reported that immersion pupils master very few aspects of grammar. Birgit Harley (1984) reported the synthesis of several studies using the grammatical domain of the OISE framework as part of the Development of Bilingual Proficiency Project (DPP), (Allen et al., 1983, and updated in Harley et al., 1987). These studies compared the linguistic proficiency of Grade 1 EFL students with those in Grades 5/6, and then compared this later group with a smaller group of Grade 6 native French speakers.

The following observation by Harley based on her research is indicative of many of the grammatical difficulties experienced by EFL students:

At least some grade one immersion children can on occasion produce such basic tense distinctions when speaking to an interviewer... as past, present, and future (e.g. *Tu vas manger une pomme; Tu l'as mangée; Chez moi on aime beaucoup les pommes.*), although they are unlikely to use them with any consistency. The children also show that they can understand and produce singular and plural noun phrases (*le garçon* versus *les garçons*) ...but they rarely seem to notice gender distinctions (masculine versus feminine), nor are they likely to produce plural forms of verbs or any other more 'advanced' verb forms. Word order in French sentences is generally similar to English, and it is only where differences occur that the grade one children

tend to make errors of this kind. For example: *Il toujours va* 'He always goes' instead of *Il va toujours*. (1984: 57,58)

By the Grade 5/6 level, Harley reported that EFI students had made significant strides in some, but not all, aspects of grammatical competence. She found that they made many grammatical errors which distinguished them from native French speakers of their own age. Harley's data included studies of 70 Grade 6 students' use of syntax, prepositions, and verb forms (use of future forms, the *imparfait*, conditional, and *passé composé*). Their average correct scores in syntax (81.3%) and prepositions (80.5%) compared quite favorably to a small group of Francophones. However the EFI students' results in verbs (57% correct) were much below those of their Francophone peers (96-100% correct in all three areas).

Immersion students do not enjoy the same opportunities to speak French as native speakers. Therefore, Francophone students would be expected to attain higher oral proficiency in French than their EFI peers. Nevertheless, Harley's data suggests that verbs are "clearly ... a problematic area for immersion students" (1984: 58).

In her 1984 report, Harley also noted that at the Grade 5 level, EFI students experienced difficulty with gender. They typically overused the masculine at the expense of the feminine, saying, for example, *mon maison* and *le glace* instead of *ma maison* and *la glace*. In an earlier study of 20 of the original St. Lambert class of Grades 5/6 EFI students, Spilka (1976) observed the same difficulties in gender.

Day and Shapson (1987) reported similar findings in their assessment of the oral communication skills of EFI pupils in British Columbia. They compared the speaking skills of 110 Grade 3 EFI pupils from 11 B.C. school districts with 25 Francophone children in the area of Montreal. They found that although B. C. immersion children had mastered some areas of grammar, such as infinitive formation and negative construction, the students had difficulties with many other areas, including gender of feminine determiners, objective and reflexive pronouns, third person present plural verbs, and choice of the auxiliary with reflexive verbs and verbs requiring *être* in the *passé composé*.

As one would expect, Day and Shapson (1987) observed that overall the B.C. pupils did not perform as well as the native French-speaking children in Montreal in grammar, or vocabulary. The two researchers also compared the results of their study with the data of an earlier study of 114 Grade 3 EFI students conducted by Adiv (1980) in Montreal. Although the instruments and methodologies differed, both research teams found a close similarity in both the frequency and the type of grammatical errors in the two settings. Likewise, the results of the two studies were also similar with respect to the areas of low student error rates, such as their use of third person present singular verbs, and the formation of the infinitive and the past participles of 'er', 'ir', and many irregular verbs.

The types of grammatical errors reported by Day and Shapson (1987) and Adiv (1980) had also been noted in earlier studies of immersion children at other grade levels (Harley, 1979); Harley &

Swain, 1978; Spilka, 1976). Furthermore, in a study of the oral mistakes made by immersion students from kindergarten to Grade 6, Obadia (1983) reported that the youngsters transferred inappropriate English grammatical structures to French, as well as incongruous vocabulary. He also found that 43% of student errors were related to the incorrect use of *avoir* and *être*. Students confused *avoir* and *être* as both the principal verb and the auxiliary of the *passé composé*, and they inappropriately added an additional form of the auxiliary of the verbs when not needed.

b) Secondary students

Harley (1984) found that the gains in the grammatical competence of spoken French of Grades 9/10 EFI students from Grade 6 were not substantial, and that this lack of progress contrasted with their improved grammatical competence in written French. Furthermore, as one would expect, the grammatical competence of secondary EFI students remained significantly lower than that of their Francophone peers.

2.3.2 Discourse competence

Unlike the grammatical domain, EFI students do succeed in developing a high proficiency in discourse competence. According to many studies conducted (e.g. Harley, 1984; Lapkin & Swain, 1984a,b,c; Day & Shapson, 1987), discourse competence comes closest to reaching native speaker proficiency of the EFI students' four language domains. For example, in judging the ability of 70 immersion students to coherently retell the story of a movie, and put forward arguments in spoken French, Harley reported that the immersion students "scored almost, but not quite, as high as the

native speakers" (1984: 59). Day and Shapson reported that over three-fourths of Grade 3 immersion children "organized and presented their stories well enough that the raters felt that they could understand and outline them either very easily or without having to make major assumptions" (1987: 254).

Likewise, in a series of studies examining the speaking abilities of secondary EFL students in Ottawa, Toronto, and elementary students in New Brunswick, Lapkin and Swain (1984a,b,c) concurred with Harley's (1984) findings. They also noted that the tested EFL students came closer in discourse proficiency to Francophone levels than in the other three categories. They concluded that "Discourse skills (of EFL students) appear the least problematic" (Swain & Lapkin, 1986: 6).

2.3.3 Sociolinguistic competence

Harley (1984), and Swain & Lapkin (1987) found that immersion students also experience sociolinguistic difficulties speaking French. Harley (1984) reported that by Grade 6 EFL students have not yet developed good sociolinguistic proficiency, that they still experience difficulty at high school in this area, and that they perform at a much lower level than native French speakers. They experience particular difficulty with the *vous/tu* distinction, and they use the conditional much less frequently than Francophones. Swain and Lapkin (1987) also observed that pupils do not appear to understand the sociolinguistic difference between *tu* and *vous* . However they also noted that Grade 10 Early Immersion students use language more appropriate to the situation than Late Immersion students. As part of their DBP study, Allen et al. (1990) speculated

that much of EFI students' difficulties with the sociolinguistically motivated use of *tu* and *vous* may stem from limited opportunities to observe and practice this distinction.

2.3.4 Strategic competence

EFI students' ability in the strategic domain is better than the grammatical and sociolinguistic competencies, but it is not as advanced as in discourse proficiency. Harley (1984) claimed that in the communicative context of their program students quickly develop strategies that enable them to compensate for gaps in their knowledge of French. They often turn to gestures and try synonyms to overcome words that they do not know, and employ *peut-être* followed by the present tense in hypothetical situations to compensate for their inability to properly use the conditional. Day and Shapson (1987) reported that the majority of the Grade 3 students could speak relatively smoothly and effortlessly in both the retelling of the story (63%) and the group discussion tasks (83%).

In an article reflecting a decade of his own experience teaching in EFI, Saffy observed that students do "learn to communicate in French, spontaneously, naturally, and with a charmingly self-assured and oblivious attitude toward their mistakes" (1989: 551). Native speakers of language, especially young children, appear to learn in a similar way, succeeding to communicate while showing little concern for their mistakes. Saffy's personal observation mirrors quite accurately the quantitative research findings reported by Harley (1984), and Day and Shapson (1987).

Despite their success communicating in French, EFL students experience several difficulties with strategic competence. Harley (1984) noted that many students attempt to fulfill their communicative needs by reverting to an English word (perhaps with French pronunciation) when they face a vacuum in their own French vocabulary, and others overuse *s'il vous plaît* in requests instead of using the conditional form employed by most native speakers. Moreover, Lapkin (1984) has pointed out that many students also successfully avoid the conditional, while still conveying their intended meaning, by using *si*. For example, in *Si j'étais riche, je voyage beaucoup*, the condition, already expressed by *si*, seems to render the use of the conditional redundant. Day and Shapson (1987) noted that students appear to display greater fluency in some situations (e.g. discussion tasks, 83%) than in others (e.g. story retelling, 63%). However, they also pointed out that the discussion task, according to Cummins' (1983) scale of communication tasks, promotes more active negotiation of meaning, and thus fluency, than the story retelling.

To summarize, researchers conclude that EFL students experience greatest success speaking in discourse competence, while facing varying degrees of difficulty in the other three domains, especially in grammar. They perform at higher levels in all domains than students in French as a Second Language (FSL), but not as well as Francophones. Furthermore, EFL students appear to speak better than their Late Immersion peers towards the end of their secondary program, especially with respect to pronunciation and sociolinguistic competence.

2.4 Influence of cognitive ability on EFL students' speaking skills

Some evidence suggests that cognitive ability does not affect the oral performance of EFL students' to the same extent as it does their literacy skills, especially reading. Genesse (1976) analyzed the personal interviews in French of EFL students in Montreal according to their IQ level. He found that the below average students were rated as highly as the above average students in speaking and listening comprehension. On the other hand, he noted that the above average students scored much higher than the below average students in reading, suggesting that the acquisition of literacy skills in French appears to be more closely associated with IQ level than the development of oral skills.

2.5 Early French immersion student surveys and self-evaluation of their speaking skills

EFL students' self-evaluations of their speaking abilities confirm the above findings. Genesse (1978b) asked a group of Grade 6 EFL students to classify in decreasing order their linguistic competencies in French. His results were as follows:

- 1) oral comprehension,
- 2) accent,
- 3) reading,
- 4) ability to make themselves understood by others,
- 5) written expression,
- 6) ability to express themselves correctly,
- 7) ability to express exactly what they want to say.

Ranking their ability to express themselves precisely and correctly at the bottom of this list (i.e. #6 and #7) corresponds to

researchers' findings that EFL pupils perform poorest in the grammatical and strategic domains. Students' lack of French vocabulary could also explain much of their difficulty in the strategic area, as communication often breaks down when a speaker does not know a word and cannot express the desired idea or object in another way. Genesse also found that students judged their own oral competence in French to be superior to pupils enrolled in regular FSL classes.

Other researchers have noted similar results. As part of her comprehensive 1984 study, Pawley found that Grades 12 and 13 Early Immersion students rated their speaking to be the weakest of the four skill areas. However, those EFL students surveyed ranked their speaking proficiency slightly higher than their Late Immersion peers: 41% of the EFL as opposed to 29% of the Late Immersion students in Ottawa felt "confident" about their French speaking abilities. Day and Shapson (1985) obtained comparable results asking Grade 12 students in Coquitlam, British Columbia to evaluate their language skills. These pupils also rated speaking to be their weakest skill. In an earlier study of two groups of Grade 6 EFL pupils, (Shapson & Day, 1982), one-third of those students surveyed believed that they would have difficulty making themselves understood if they had to use French with someone that they did not know. Finally, in Loughrey's (1986) study of 312 Grades 11,12, and 13 immersion students in the Ottawa-Carleton region of Ontario, the students indicated that they were much less confident with their productive language abilities than with their receptive ones.

Student surveys also suggest that EFI students would like more opportunities to speak French. In a British Columbia study comparing secondary EFI pupils who leave the immersion program with those who stay, both groups of students criticized the quality of immersion instruction because their teachers did not offer them enough opportunity to speak French in class (Lewis, 1986). In an earlier study, Pawley (1984) found that graduating EFI students in Ontario expressed similar views. Their most frequent request for program improvement was for more opportunities to speak French.

2.6 Summary and explanation of EFI students' speaking skills

In summary, researchers' studies and EFI students' self-evaluations identify speaking to be the weakest of the four language skills and grammatical competency to be the weakest domain of speaking. EFI pupils are much more confident and proficient with their spoken French than their peers in both FSL and Late Immersion, but they would like more opportunity to speak French.

Researchers and educators have suggested several reasons to explain EFI student's relatively poor speaking skills. Lapkin, Swain, & Shapson (1990) and Allen et al. (1990) speculate that teaching strategies eliciting more sustained discourse will improve students' speaking skills. In this study I focus on the teacher's efforts in the classroom to increase the length and frequency of Grades 5-7 students' discourse in French. Teaching strategies are a concrete, tangible, and important variable that can influence student behavior.

Teachers do not not, however, teach students in a vacuum. Other factors also influence students' desire to speak in French.

Therefore, before examining the role of the teacher, it is useful to examine these other variables that influence and shape the classroom environment in which teachers teach.

Three groups of variables can work against Grades 5-7 students' willingness to speak in French. They include (a) environmental, (b) psycholinguistic, and (c) program influences. Some of the factors exert much more influence than others. Collectively, however, they exert strong pressure on intermediate students to not speak in French.

2.6.1 The environmental, psycholinguistic, and program factors

a) Environmental factors

The environment in which the Grades 5-7 pupils live and study can work against students' willingness to speak in French. These negative influences include (i) the classroom and school environment of the immersion program, and (ii) the dominance of the English language and culture outside the school.

i) The classroom and school environment of the immersion program

Most intermediate EFL students study French in a somewhat artificial classroom environment in the sense that they do not *need* to converse in French to communicate, nor is French their easiest communication tool. They are predominantly English speakers who are asked to speak with each other in a language, French, that is not their mother tongue. Pupils know that they can communicate much more easily in English.

Unlike the *Programme cadre de français* , which caters to Francophone students, EFI students rarely have native French speaking classmates with whom they must converse in French in order to communicate. Many immersion teachers are not native speakers of French either, and the majority of Francophone teachers speak English well. EFI students, therefore, feel very little, if any, genuine 'communicative' need to converse in French.

These circumstances create an artificial situation in the classroom by removing the 'communicative' need for EFI students to converse in French. Bibeau (1984) argues that the EFI program also teaches language skills in an artificial environment because it lacks a strong cultural component. As a result, students learn French for instrumental reasons rather than to integrate into a French-speaking population.

The school environment around the classroom in British Columbia is also not conducive to French. Most EFI students attend Dual-track schools, with one group in the English stream, and another in the French. Outside of class students converse with each other and with many of the teachers in English. Both groups usually participate in joint activities such as assemblies and extra-curricular events in English in order to accommodate the English students, and public announcements are usually made in English. Very few EFI schools offer administrative and counselling services in French. Students therefore receive the message that they are learning French in the classroom for instrumental reasons, but that English is the "real" language of communication when people *need* to communicate.

A small minority of students attend Immersion Center schools where all students participate in the immersion program, and some also have French speaking principals. These Centers can provide more of a French environment than the Dual Track schools. The French experience for most EFL pupils, however, is limited to the classroom.

ii) The dominance of the English language and culture outside the school

The dominance of the English language and culture in which students live also decreases their motivation to willingly speak in French. Outside of their French classroom most EFL pupils live their lives in English, watching television and movies in English, listening to music in English, and communicating almost entirely in English. Shapson (1984) found that most immersion students do not use French outside of school, do not voluntarily read French books, nor do they watch French television. Students have sufficient knowledge of French to meet their communicative needs in the classroom, but their motivation to improve their speaking skills is limited because they rarely use French outside of school.

b) Psycholinguistic factors

Several psycholinguistic factors also negatively influence the motivation of Grades 5-7 students to regularly speak French. These include students' (i) facility speaking in English as opposed to French, (ii) participation in the EFL program for at least five years, (iii) sociopsychological development and peer pressure, and (iv) proficiency and self-assurance communicating in French.

i) Students' facility speaking in English as opposed to French

Even though EFI students have achieved a high proficiency in French by Grade 5, they nevertheless do not speak French as well as native French speakers, nor can they express themselves in French as easily or effectively as in their mother tongue. Language is above all a communicative activity. Students' ability to more easily and effectively communicate in English will strongly motivate them to speak in English as opposed to French, especially when they need to express emotions such as anger and frustration.

ii) Students' participation in the EFI program for 5 years

Another factor that decreases Grades 5-7 students' motivation to speak French is their participation in the EFI program for five years. When they start the program in kindergarten or Grade 1, most students speak French willingly and enthusiastically. French represents a new experience for them. Towards the later half of Grade 1 teachers can relatively easily establish the norm that all students speak in French because all their instruction is in French, and the students have learned enough vocabulary and verb structures to express themselves. These youngsters find joy in expressing themselves in French.

By Grade 5 however, many students have tired of the novelty of speaking in French. Other elements of their lives become more important, especially their peers and social activities.

iii) Students' sociopsychological development and peer pressure

Childrens' sociopsychological development also decreases the 10-12 year old's motivation to regularly speak in French. As children move toward their adolescent years, they start to cut their ties with their parents and teachers as they develop stronger bonds with their peers. They participate increasingly in social activities together. They want to express themselves, and they can do so much more easily in English than in French.

Peer pressure can strongly influence students' frequency of spoken French. If teachers fail to establish a norm for all students to speak only in French during designated French time, and several students develop the habit of speaking English, especially the leaders, individual students who want to speak in French experience considerable pressure to conform to the behavior of their peers and speak in English.

iv) Students' proficiency and self-assurance speaking French

Harley (1984) has pointed out that EFL students' grammatical development of their spoken French ironically suffers as they advance through the program precisely because they succeed in developing a high degree of discourse competence which is quite satisfactory for their communicative classroom needs. As communicative language advocates such as Brumfit (1984a) have suggested, the purpose of language is all important. If immersion pupils regularly succeed in communicating their messages in French, even if they often use grammatically incorrect language, they have

little intrinsic motivation to master the correct grammatical form in their speech and writing.

c) The program

Three program factors can also work against intermediate EFL students' natural willingness to speak in French. These elements include (i) the introduction of English in Grade 3 and the subsequent drop in percentage of French instructional time, (ii) the lack of appropriate resources, and (iii) the increasingly complex curriculum content of the intermediate grades.

i) Introduction of English in Grade 3 and the subsequent drop in percentage of French instructional time

In most school districts in British Columbia, immersion students receive 100% of their instruction in French until the end of Grade 2. In Grade 3, they usually receive 20% of their instruction in English, followed by 40% from Grades 4-7 in most districts. The introduction of English and the corresponding drop in French instructional time can negatively influence the frequency of students' speech in French. Up until the end of Grade 2 the teachers and students speak only in French amongst themselves. With the introduction of English instruction, students begin communicating for an hour a day with both their teachers and peers in English, thus breaking the exclusive French norm. A trend of speaking English can therefore begin that often carries into designated French time. By Grade four the instruction increases to two hours a day, thus reinforcing the English pattern.

ii) Lack of appropriate curriculum resources

Obadia (1984a) and Lyster (1987) have pointed out that too often the curriculum resources used in EFI are materials developed in Quebec for Francophone students. The vocabulary in the novels and text books cause particular problems for EFI students. The authors and publishers of these materials also do not usually take into account the way in which second language pupils learn. Obadia (1984a) has also pointed out that resources prepared for FSL are not appropriate for Immersion either. These inappropriate resources with difficult vocabulary do not encourage students to speak in French.

Resource materials can also influence directly teaching strategies practiced by teachers. Calvé (1985) claims that even if teachers realize that speaking skills are enhanced through the use of the communicative approach, teaching strategies will remain structural if materials available to teachers and students do not reflect the communicative approach.

iii) Increasingly complex curriculum content in the intermediate grades

As EFI students move into the intermediate grades, the curriculum becomes more complex. During the primary years pupils learn basic structures and vocabulary related to their own life experiences that largely fulfill their communicative needs and meet the goals of the curriculum. As they get older, however, students begin to study more complex concepts and content that require a wider range of vocabulary and more sophisticated language structures. For example, the Social Studies curriculum progresses

from examining in Grade 1 the pupil's own community to a study of Canada's history by Grade 5. While the Grade 1 curriculum requires the present verb tense and vocabulary related to services in the community (e.g. the police and the fire department), Grade 5 students require a more sophisticated range of vocabulary out of their own experience (e.g. terms associated to the fur trade), and knowing past verb tenses presented in resource materials (e.g. *le passé simple*).

Studying these Grade 5 themes can of course enlarge students' vocabulary and their knowledge of verb structures. It also provides, however, a great challenge to teachers to find appropriate curriculum materials at the level of the students, and a great challenge to students to discuss these topics in French with a limited vocabulary.

To summarize, several environment, psycholinguistic, and program factors work against students' desire to speak in French. Some of the factors exert more influence than others. Collectively, however, they exert strong pressure on students to not speak in French. They help shape the framework in which teachers teach. Now let us turn to the role that the teacher can play in either increasing or decreasing students' motivation to speak in French.

2.6.2 The role of the teacher

Teaching strategies influence both the length and frequency of student discourse. Several researchers (Bialystok et al., 1979; Harley, 1985; Swain and Lapkin, 1986; Allen et al., 1990) argue that too often immersion teachers do not provide students with enough opportunities to speak French in class, and that when they do have

the chance to speak, it is most often one word utterances. In one study, Harley (1985) found that at the Grade 6 level, "81% of all student utterances consisted of only a word, a phrase or a clause and nothing more (as cited in Swain & Lapkin, 1986: 7).

In a more recent study as part of the DBP project by OISE researchers in Ontario, Allen et al. (1990) measured the opportunities that EFL pupils have to talk French in class, and compared these to their discourse in English during the English portion of the day, by transcribing segments of conversation for 90 minutes in nine classes of Grades 3 and 6 EFL pupils, as well as the English portion of the day in each of the Grade 6 classes for the same students. They found that the number of opportunities students had to speak during the French portion of the day was less than two-thirds as frequent as in English time. Their data also suggested that the student talk in French of the Grade 3's compared similarly with that of the Grade 6's; less than 15% of student turns in French of both groups was sustained (i.e. more than one clause in length) if one does not include reading aloud.

The OISE researchers found that sustained speech was most likely to occur when students (as opposed to the teacher) initiated an interaction and when they had to find their own words. They call for teachers to use teaching strategies that provide the students with direct experience in the language (an 'experiential' approach) and give them the opportunity to interact in French in a wider variety of contexts than those offered in formal grammatical lessons.

Teachers' efforts also influence the frequency that students speak in French as opposed to English. These efforts include teaching strategies and offer interventions such as reward systems.

In the next section I will therefore analyze teachers' teaching strategies. I will start by examining both the major philosophical goals that drive the general school curriculum, and the more specific language objectives of the immersion program, especially with respect to speaking. Supported by evidence and arguments in the literature, I will prioritize the value that immersion educators should place on these respective goals. I will argue that extended student discourse is an important goal. I conclude the chapter by citing some evidence in the literature which suggests that certain teaching strategies promote sustained student discussion, while others block it.

3. CURRICULUM ORIENTATIONS AND TEACHING STRATEGIES

3.1 Goals teachers hold for their students

Although British Columbia's immersion teachers share a common provincial curriculum, they attempt to teach it in different ways. The specific knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values that teachers select for their students to learn and acquire, and the strategies that they adopt to teach them, depend largely on the major goals that they hold for their students (Joyce & Weil, 1986). Teaching strategies are not ends in themselves. They are simply means to achieve other ends, i.e. the goals teachers hold for their pupils. Furthermore, a teacher's specific language goals for his students cannot be examined and evaluated in isolation, because they are embedded in a deeper philosophical view of education. Regardless of whether the teacher has consciously identified these goals, or whether they lie unconscious in his mind, they drive his choice of what and how he teaches.

These major goals of teachers originate from their own experiences as a student, a teacher, and as person. The modelling of their own teachers at school and university, their teacher training, their experience teaching, their family upbringing, and their varied life experiences all contribute to a teacher's evolving perspective of education. This philosophy in turn determines the major goals that a teacher holds for his pupils. Therefore, before turning to different teaching strategies used by EFL teachers, it is useful to examine the major curriculum orientations and general philosophical goals which drive them.

3.1.1 General philosophical goals

Several educators (e.g. Eisner, 1984; Zeichner, 1985; Joyce & Weil, 1986) have categorized some of the major curriculum goals and objectives. Elliot Eisner's (1984) grouping of five primary categories represents one view of the literature in this area. Eisner claims that these orientations include the development of cognitive processes, academic rationalism, personal growth, social adaptation and social reconstruction, and curriculum as technology (i.e. competency in basic skills). He defines the orientations in the following way:

1. **cognitive processes:** helping students learn how to learn, and providing them with the opportunity to use their intellectual faculties.
2. **academic rationalism:** fostering the intellectual and scholarly growth of students in those subjects most worthy of study--by studying the greatest ideas of the greatest writers.
3. **personal growth:** providing real choices to students and treating them as individuals so that they can grow and develop socially and in the effective domain.
- 4a. **social adaptation:** linking what is taught in schools to the current norms and values of society.
- 4b. **social reconstruction:** developing the critical consciousness of students so that they can identify society's ills and become motivated to learn how to alleviate them.
5. **curriculum as technology--competency in basic skills:** developing appropriate technological means to determine and measure the extent to which students have achieved previously

decided goals. These goals refer to testing observable behavior, and therefore mostly include competency in basic skills.

The goals of most teachers fall into a combination of these five groups. The 'social adaptation' and 'competency in basic skills' orientations, however, appear to be most frequently used in British Columbia's public school system. As links strengthen between parents and schools, teachers feel increasing pressure to reinforce the surrounding community's values. For example, recent changes to British Columbia's School Act require each of the province's public schools to form a Parent Advisory Committee. Teachers have concerned themselves with the competency orientation for several decades. Behavioral objectives in the Tylerian tradition presently dominate B.C.'s educational system, from Ministry of Education curriculum guides at the top of the hierarchical ladder down to individual teacher's lessons plans at the bottom, passing through several other stages like district and school goals along the way.

The other orientations prevail to varying degrees in classrooms throughout British Columbia. Some teachers may strive to achieve greater 'personal growth' for their students, whereas others aim for 'cognitive processing', or 'personal reconstruction'; still others may attempt to attain both. None of them, however, appear to be as prevalent as 'social adaptation' and 'competency in basic skills'.

3.1.2 Language Goals

In the framework of these general philosophical orientations, Early French Immersion teachers also select specific language goals for their students. The language goals that a teacher holds for his students correspond to, and indeed originate from, his general world

view. Teachers differ in both the particular language goals that they choose, and the strategies that they adopt in order to achieve them. For example, some teachers elect to focus on improving their students' grammatical competence, while others concentrate more on strategic and discourse competence. Many of these differences manifest themselves in debates of two inter-connected issues--the role and importance of errors, and the discussion of 'fluency' versus 'accuracy'.

3.1.3 Fluency versus accuracy; experiential versus analytic

Several commentators (e.g. Krashen, 1982; Brumfit, 1984; Widdowson, 1984; Harley & Swain, 1984) argue that second language teachers should concentrate above all on assisting their students to develop fluency in the target language by providing them with opportunities to use it. These researchers advocate a 'communicative', 'experiential' approach to language teaching, where the teacher aims to encourage as much 'authentic communication' as possible between students by providing them with experiences using the language. Authentic communication refers to natural language use, where students participate in activities similar to situations in real life where they must use the target language to perform genuine communicative acts motivated by personal and educational needs. These needs include personal introductions, requesting and giving information, self-disclosure, and argumentation, as well as the curriculum content of school programs.

Educators can not easily define experiential language teaching as a general global concept. They can more easily, and accurately,

characterize it by compiling a list of indicators of communicative behavior, each of which can be more easily separately observed and quantified. A cluster of inter-related features, as opposed to any one feature, determines teachers' pedagogic orientations. As Allen et al. (1990) have pointed out, researchers would experience great difficulty distinguishing, for example, experiential and analytic classrooms based on one single feature such as group work versus a whole class activity. Most practitioners teach in an eclectic manner. It is possible, for example, that some teacher-fronted activities under certain conditions could generate more sustained student discourse than group work. However, if researchers find classes where students spend relatively more time engaged in tasks associated with experiential behavior such as genuine communication, they may then classify these classes with an overall experiential profile.

Stern's (1990) list of experiential and analytic features provides one useful framework to conceptualize these two teaching approaches. He has differentiated them in Table 1.1 below.

**Table 1.1 Experiential and Analytic
Features of Second Language Teaching**

| Experiential features | Analytic features |
|--|--|
| 1. Substantive and motivated topic or theme (topics are not arbitrary or trivial). | 1. Focus on aspects of L2, including phonology, grammar, functions, discourse, sociolinguistics. |
| 2. Students engage in purposeful activity (tasks or projects), not exercises. | 2. Cognitive study of language items (rules and regularities are noted; items are made salient, and related to other items and systems). |
| 3. Language use has characteristics of real talk (conversation) or uses any of the four skills as part of purposeful action. | 3. Practice or rehearsal of language items or skill aspects. |
| 4. Priority of meaning transfer and fluency over linguistic error avoidance and accuracy. | 4. Attention to accuracy and error avoidance. |

Note. From "Analysis and experience as variables in second language pedagogy" by H. Stern, 1990, In Harley et al. (eds.). *The Development of Second Language Proficiency*. p. 106. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Some communicative' writers differ quite significantly from others in various aspects of their common approach. For example, Widdowson (1984), Brumfit (1984), and Harley & Swain (1984) reject Krashen's (1982) monitor theory of language acquisition, especially with respect to his claim that no connection exists

between acquisition on one hand, and formal knowledge and conscious learning on the other. According to Krashen (1982, 1984), comprehensible input constitutes the only causative variable in second language acquisition. He posits that production is not a cause but rather a result of acquisition. Harley & Swain (1984) and many of their OISE colleagues challenge this position. However, 'communicative' writers agree that second language teachers should focus much more on developing their students' fluency rather than accuracy, and that educators should view language as a means to another end (i.e. communication) and not as a means in itself.

Second language commentators have defined fluency in various ways. Leeson (1975) defines it in a relatively specific manner:

The ability of the speaker to produce indefinitely many sentences conforming to the phonological, syntactical and semantic exigencies of a given natural language on the basis of a finite exposure to a finite corpus of that language (p.136).

He emphasizes those elements of fluency that linguists can analyze and categorize. Common usage of 'fluency' in ordinary language expands the meaning to include all language which speakers produce freely, easily, and effortlessly. Fillmore (1979) goes one step further by suggesting that the notion of 'fluency' also includes the ability of a language speaker to say appropriate things in different contexts, and to use language creatively and with imagination. In order to achieve Fillmore's notion of fluency, Brumfit (1984a) points out that second language teachers must encourage their pupils to use the target language, whether or not their efforts result in native-speaker-like discourse.

Other writers, (e.g. Hammerly, 1989b), place comparatively less importance on fluency and more on accuracy. Accuracy refers to the correctness, precision, and exactness of student utterances. Second language instructors concerned above all with accuracy aim to assist their students to demonstrate their mastery of the target language as correctly and precisely as possible. They often give their students exercises to analyze, and make them practice specific language features, attempting to make them salient for the learner by isolating them. The exercises help students learn more about language usage (i.e. the structure of the target language) than about the use of the language in communicative situations. Language use requires fluency and more reliance on implicit language knowledge than on the explicit knowledge of grammatical rules.

Other critics of communicative teaching, such as Higgs and Clifford (1982), argue that experiential followers encourage fluency too early and thus arrest learners at too low a level of proficiency by not paying enough attention to accuracy. These critics dispute the experiential strategists' claim that errors will gradually disappear through rich and varied language experiences.

Almost all language teachers are concerned about the accuracy of their students. Even the staunch 'communicative' writers who in recent years have advocated much more emphasis on fluency, such as Brumfit (1984a), recognize the importance of accuracy in successful communication, especially in situations where the complexity of the discussion increases. For those who value above all fluency, accuracy is relatively unimportant in certain discussions, but it is nevertheless essential in others. Calvé has pointed out for example

that student 'X' could probably accomplish his goal in the following utterance's incorrect syntax if his only objective was to communicate understanding -"*Moi vouloir toi venir avec moi si toi avoir argent pour payer taxi*" (1985: 285). In more complex discussions, however, such as a dispute between teacher and student over the evaluation of the student's work, inaccurate syntax such as that used above would likely block communication. Accuracy appears to become increasingly important as the degree of complexity in a discussion rises.

Fluency advocates attempt to win the debate by providing evidence to justify their own position while at the same time attacking the opposition's views. First, writers such as Brumfit (1984a) argue that prioritizing fluency does not necessarily exclude accurate discourse. Rather, it is the relative value or emphasis that the teachers place on it. Second, Brumfit (1984a) claims that accuracy has a role to play in language teaching, but that it has a different function than fluency work, and that its overuse will impede successful language development. He also points out that accuracy activity may not be necessary for everyone, and that it certainly is not sufficient for anyone. For example, those students who learn a language relatively quickly and easily are one group who do not need repetitive accuracy drills.

Third, Stern (1983) points out that dealing with language items one by one in isolation and out of context brings with it the danger of fragmentation, or what he refers to as the "Humpty Dumpty effect". The language may not evolve as a coherent whole in the mind of the learner. Moreover, teaching grammar outside of a

meaningful context has not eradicated the grammatical mistakes in the spoken French of immersion students (Swain & Carrol, 1987). Lightbown (1985) observes that grammatical practice does not necessarily make perfect, while Macnamara (1973) points out that languages are far too complex for the rule system to be learned by conscious techniques of study and practice.

Furthermore, language learned through conventional practice techniques does not automatically transfer to actual language use in real life settings. In addition, language educators' devotion to phonetics and grammar has had negative effects on other aspects of their students' language development. For example, as the DBP 's COLT studies indicate, lexical and functional features do not occupy an equal place in immersion classes today (Allen et al., 1987). Finally, communicative commentators argue that the intrinsic value of language (to express one's thoughts and feelings) requires that second language teachers place more focus on fluency. Learners use speech acts to perform language. They do not perform language in order to use speech acts.

3.1.4 Role and importance of errors

Immersion researchers agree that EFL students at all levels make many errors when they speak French, especially grammatical mistakes. However, many of these same researchers disagree with respect to the importance that educators should place on these mistakes. This section will investigate the role and importance of errors committed by EFL students.

Some researchers, (e.g. Hammerly, 1989b), argue that errors constitute a very important component of language development, and

that in order to prevent fossilization, teachers should systematically and immediately correct pupils' mistakes. Hammerly claims that fossilization is terminal, because once students realize that their "faulty form of speech is perceived as being acceptable, and once they use it for years, it is extremely difficult to change" (1989b: 570). Hammerly believes that the immersion curriculum should therefore emphasize grammatical competence. He also points out that immersion teachers sometimes congratulate their students for inaccurate use of French, although he does not indicate if this claim is based on speculation or observation. If it does occur, this practice would further reinforce the students' incorrect use of structures.

Some educators recognize that EFL students seem unaware that they frequently misuse the French language, and that a temporary fossilization appears to occur quite early in their speech (Calvé, 1986). Harley and Swain (1984) also recognize that even after 6 to 10 years in the program most Early Immersion students appear to express themselves in French in a way that corresponds to their mother tongue language, which in most cases is English. However, they also claim that no evidence confirms that EFL students' mistakes based on negative linguistic transfer will necessarily result in long term fossilization. In other words, Harley and Swain argue that even though EFL students appear to fossilize some errors during their first few years in the program, their speech never stops developing in any specific area. Pupils' progress toward target language norms in the productive language use may appear extremely

gradual, and to perhaps regress during certain periods, but it does continue to grow.

Safty (1989) claims that critics such as Hammerly place too much importance on student errors while ignoring the contextual clues that assist oral communication. These clues include facial expression, voice stress, inflection, and the semantic context of the conversation. He argues that the tape recordings and corresponding written transcripts of classroom discussions and interviews used by researchers such as Hammerly to criticize the French language grammatical proficiency of EFL students do not totally represent the pupils' actual proficiency because they do not provide many of these contextual clues. Furthermore, communicating in a natural environment is less inhibiting and threatening than during test conditions. Moreover, Safty points out that the relatively high percentage of errors in EFL students' speech utterances are less serious than they initially appear because the ordinary speech of native speakers in any language takes liberty with syntax, regresses repeatedly, and obeys rules of its own.

The 'communicative' researchers reject Hammerly's (1989) arguments in much stronger terms. Stern (1980), Krashen (1982), and Long & Porter (1985) point out that committing errors is a natural component in the learning process, that it is an inevitable, healthy part of language development. They argue that learners can not learn without making mistakes.

Swain and Harley (1984) argue that immersion educators should not be overly concerned with errors because EFL students do succeed in communicating, or as some second language communicative

scholars (e.g. Widdowson, 1984) define it, 'schematic performing'. Widdowson defines 'performance' as the actual *use* of language in concrete situations, whereas 'competence' is the speaker - hearer's *explicit knowledge* of the language. He believes that 'schematic performance' precedes 'systematic competence' (1984: 327).

Therefore, these researchers conclude that correcting grammatical errors should not be the teacher's top priority in the classroom. They believe that teachers should not totally dismiss the errors, but that they are not as important as other aspects of communicative performance.

3.1.5 Summary and explanation of the philosophical and language goals

The above discussion suggests that EFL teachers should focus more on assisting students to achieve greater fluency in spoken French, and leave concerns for grammatical accuracy and error correction to important, but nevertheless, secondary roles. 'Communicative' advocates appear to provide much more convincing evidence in the literature for their position than those who call for more emphasis on accurate grammatical structures. The evidence is summarized below.

First, 'communicative' commentators point out that emphasizing fluency will help develop all areas of students' speaking: discourse, sociolinguistic, strategic, and grammatical competence. The development of all areas of oral communication skills constitutes a more important goal than concentrating on one specific grammatical objective. Fluency activities will improve students' discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic abilities in the short and longer term,

and the grammatical competence in at least the medium and long term. Researchers calling for more error correction and accuracy work emphasize the grammatical domain at the expense of the others.

Second, commentators such as Krashen (1982) and Long & Porter (1985) make a sound argument in favor of fluency by pointing out that committing errors is a natural component in the learning process. Too much emphasis on student's language performance or competence will block their natural and healthy tendency of making, and hopefully learning from, their mistakes. Students cannot learn without making mistakes.

Third, as in most learning, one learns more by actually doing something than by merely studying it. By speaking a language in meaningful situations, language learners will better retain what they have already learned. The EFI program was developed on the underlying premise that students will acquire and learn French more effectively by speaking the language than by studying it. Active involvement also tends to increase learner satisfaction of classroom activities, and leads to greater motivation.

Finally, an overly grammatical approach in second language teaching has not stood up to the test of time. Researchers developed communicative methodology during the last two decades as a direct response to the shortcomings of earlier audio-visual, grammatical, and other traditional approaches. Teachers using a methodology concentrating too heavily on grammar and accuracy were not assisting their students to communicate in the target language.

Moreover, these methods often dampened rather than heightened students' motivation to learn.

The position of Hammerly, on one hand, and communicative researchers, on the other, differ primarily because they hold very different major goals for the Early French immersion program. These goals appear to be embedded in strongly held values and beliefs about language learning and education in general. Hammerly believes that students learn most effectively from a structured, behaviorist teaching mode, where the content focuses on grammatical correctness. Teachers most concerned with accuracy tend to focus the course content on a predetermined syllabus, and they offer their students mostly teacher-directed activities. Hammerly's language goals appear to be embedded in Eisner's (1984) notion of competency in basic skills.

The communicative group, on the other hand, advocate a much more experiential approach to language learning. They focus much more on student communicative performance than on grammatical competence. Teachers concerned with fluency tend to engage their students in many more student-centered activities. Their language goals appear to be embedded in Eisner's (1984) notion of cognitive processes.

3.2 Value and justification of extended student discourse

Teachers can best attain fluency by providing second language students with regular opportunities to participate in 'extended', 'sustained' discourse. Sustained, extended discourse refers to speech utterances that are longer than one sentence, or that consist of at least two main clauses. Allen et al. (1990) contrast sustained

speech with discourse that they refer to as 'ultraminimal' (utterances that consist of one word), and 'minimal' (utterances that consist of one clause or short sentence). Several commentators, including Hatch & Long (1980), Wells (1981), Krashen (1982), Swain & Lapkin (1984), and Hester (1984) have called for greater interaction between learners and the target language. As Hester has claimed: "If we want children to become proficient at using language, space must be made for them to 'practice' talking, to do it" (1984: 212).

Considerable evidence in the literature supports this call for more extended student discourse. First, greater pupil discourse will increase Krashen's (1982) notion of language 'input'. Along with written texts, oral discourse constitutes the major source of language input to students. As Krashen (1982) and Long (1980, 1983b) argue, the more language that learners hear and understand, or the more 'comprehensible input' they receive, the more effectively they learn. When a teacher provides his students with regular opportunities to speak together in extended discourse, they will receive much more exposure to the target language than if they spend most of their classroom time engaged in reading and writing activities.

Second, extended pupil discourse also increases Harley and Swain's (1984) notion of language 'output'. These OISE researchers argue that "the simple provision of meaningful input which is comprehensible to the learner ... is not in itself sufficient to promote productive use of a marked formal aspect of the L2 in a classroom setting" (1984: 328). According to them, input may well

be necessary, but it is not sufficient. Harley (1985) and Allen et al. (1990) report that immersion students do not have much opportunity to express themselves in class, at least not in any sustained discourse, and that when they do speak it is most often one word and short clause utterances. Students spend much more time participating in receptive activities than productive ones. More opportunities to speak in sustained discourse would permit learners to practice the target language by 'producing' it--by creating 'output' themselves.

Greater opportunities for producing extended discourse also correspond to a more general view of learning espoused in this thesis that values active participation and involvement more than passive receptivity. One learns most effectively by 'doing'. Stevick (1980) claims that active involvement facilitates language acquisition because it 'charges' the input and permits it to 'penetrate deeply' into the learner. Active involvement also increases student motivation and retention of skills and concepts learned.

Extended discourse also provides greater opportunity for students to 'negotiate meaning' (Varonis & Gass, 1985). Negotiation of meaning refers to conversational adjustments, including clarification requests, confirmation checks, comprehension checks, and repetitions--both self and other--in discourse (Varonis & Gass, 1985; Long & Porter, 1985). Opportunity to negotiate meaning is also useful for students because it forces them to manipulate input. They must experiment with the target language. The students make the input comprehensible and meaningful by negotiating the input.

The provision of opportunities for students to converse in extended discourse will not necessarily ensure that they negotiate meaning--that depends on the nature of the task. However increased opportunities to negotiate meaning will generate more sustained discourse.

One commentator, Hammerly (1989b), and some practitioners, oppose greater opportunities for students to converse with each other in extended discourse. These opponents believe that students cannot learn from speaking with each other, and they fear that students involved in free discussion will in fact regress in their learning because they will reinforce each others' errors. Hammerly suggests that immersion students participating in too much unmonitored discussion learn a form of pidgin French. He refers to this language as "Frenglish".

Advocates of the communicative approach dispute these criticisms. Brumfit (1984a) suggests that there is nothing intrinsically more unusual about talking in a second language in extended discourse than any traditional accuracy-oriented activity. Indeed the immersion program in Canada is based on the premise that EFL students learn French by speaking it in sustained talk. Many immersion teachers provide their students with activities that permit them to use French in extended discourse. In addition, Pica & Doughty (1985b) point out that pupils make no more errors when interacting with each other than they do with the teacher. Finally, despite its limitations and problems, 'pidgin' fluency is more desirable than non-fluency because it does allow some communication.

In summary, evidence in the literature suggests that EFL students might well benefit from conversing with other pupils in more extended discourse. More sustained talk will increase learners' language 'input' and 'output', allow for more active learning, increase motivation and retention, and provide students with more opportunity to negotiate meaning, which in turn will generate more meaningful, comprehensible input. Contrary to the claims made by some critics, more extended discourse does not necessarily lead to 'pidginization' or 'Frenglish'. Rather, it provides EFL students greater opportunity to learn French by speaking it.

In the next section the discussion turns to teaching strategies. I will identify strategies used by EFL teachers, and discuss the possible effect of different strategies on the length and frequency of student discourse.

3.3 Teaching strategies

Over the years teachers have used dozens of teaching strategies in their classrooms; in recent years several researchers have identified and described many of them in the literature. Joyce & Weil (1986) outlined nearly 30 models covering a wide scope of the teaching strategy spectrum. They grouped them into various families depending upon their underlying theories and curriculum goals, similar to Eisner's (1984) categorization. Flanders (1970) claimed that teachers actually use only a very limited number and variety of the models. Fanselow (1977) and Long et al. (1976) reported similar findings in second language classes. They found that most second language teachers use 'direct instruction' or a 'lock-step' approach.

3.3.1 Teaching strategies used in Early French Immersion

Among the long list of teaching strategies, several appear appropriate to serve as means to achieve the goals of British Columbia's French immersion program. Some studies have indirectly examined teaching strategies used by immersion teachers at the primary level in the United States (Lorenz and Met, 1989), and in Ottawa (Allen et al., 1990). Others, such as Day and Shapson's (1991) study, have compared the effects of specific teaching practices on the quality of EFL students' French in British Columbia.

In a document prepared partly for the Modern Language Branch of the British Columbia Ministry of Education on the communicative approach in immersion classes, Cynthia Lewis and Rhoda Tafler (1987) categorized teaching strategies based on the types of activities, the amount of student participation, and the objectives of the lesson. As was pointed out in the discussion above on general philosophical goals and objectives that teachers hold for their students, Lewis and Tafler also noted that immersion teachers use teaching strategies as a tool or a means to help them achieve goals for their students, and that the strategy chosen for a specific lesson will depend on the objectives of the lesson. Lewis' and Tafler's list of teaching strategies practiced in immersion is listed below in Table 1.2.

**Table 1.2 Immersion Teaching Strategies Based
on Activity, Objectives, and Student Participation**

| Degré d'engagement | Genre d'activité | Degré de changement |
|---------------------------|--|-----------------------------|
| Le moins de participation | Cours magistral Information lue Cours magistral avec matériel audio-visuel Trousses audio-visuelles Démonstration Observation Questions Réponses à tour de rôle Pratique guidée Pratique des habiletés Entrevues Remue-méninges Discussion de groupe Résolution de problèmes Activité de problèmes Activité qui exige une décision Echange libre en groupe Jeux et simulation | Connaissances (savoir) |
| Le plus de participation | "Casse-tête" | Comportement (savoir-faire) |

Note. From *L'approche communicative dans la salle de classe* (pps. 13-14), by C. Lewis and R. Tafler, 1987, Victoria: Modern Language Services Branch, Ministry of Education, and the Surrey School District, mimeo. Table reprinted by permission, with an adapted title.

Based on the suitability of certain models at different age levels of the students, and the goals of the teachers, it appears that immersion teachers use certain strategies more than others. From early primary grades EFL teachers' instructional repertoire includes the use of oral games, class discussions, inquiry, songs, and direct

instruction followed by written practice. As the students move into the intermediate grades (i.e. Grades 4-7) or elementary school most EFI teachers continue to use direct instruction and class discussions. Some also plan debates, class meetings, class and individual projects, problem-solving and decision making tasks, drama, role playing, and improvisation. Some EFI teachers organize class exchanges with other immersion students, both within their school or with another school. A small minority of teachers organize exchanges between their students and Franophones in other provinces, either via electronic media and letter writing or actual visits. As EFI students move into secondary school, teachers appear to use fewer instructional models. They appear to rely primarily on direct instruction and a lecture style approach.

Some EFI teachers practice a larger repertoire of models than those listed here. For example, some teachers use inquiry and group investigation; others employ advance organizers. Other teachers use group work and cooperative learning strategies. Some evidence, however, suggests that these teachers constitute a minority. For example, in their large study of 9 Grade 3 and 10 Grade 6 Early French Immersion classes in the Ottawa region, as part of the DBP project, Allen et al (1990) observed almost no group work. They reported that most teachers engaged their students in whole class activities. Fanselow (1977) reported that the majority of second language teachers use lock-step or direct instruction. It appears that EFI teachers at all levels-- primary, intermediate, and secondary-- regularly use these approaches as well.

3.3.2 Teaching strategies and immersion speaking goals

Within the framework of this large repertoire of models, what specific strategies will best facilitate teachers' efforts to help their students to attain the speaking goals of the Immersion program? Studies in the literature presented above suggest that teachers should focus most on developing their students' fluency, and leave grammatical accuracy as an important, but nevertheless, secondary goal.

To attain both of these important goals, some researchers (Allen, 1983; Harley, 1987a,1987b; Day & Shapson, 1991) speculate that educators may require a multi-level framework. Classroom techniques devised by researchers to improve grammar, such as those of Obadia (1984b), and to integrate language with content learning (Lorenz & Met, 1989), may be useful to attain parts of these goals, but they appear incapable of simultaneously achieving all of them. Allen (1983) has proposed an approach with three components: a structural-analytic component that focus on grammar and employs controlled grammatical teaching techniques; a functional-analytic component that focuses on discourse and uses both medium and message oriented teaching practices; and a nonanalytic, experiential component that promotes the natural, unanalyzed use of language for personal, social, or academic purposes and uses fully communicative teaching techniques. The functional-analytic component allows students to simultaneously focus on the meaningful use of particular grammatical forms, and to practice producing these forms. It provides opportunities for focused input, error correction, and guided production within the context of purposeful, task-based

learning. Allen suggests that these three components complement each other; the primary focus will vary from one to another depending on the needs of the particular students and circumstances of a program.

The evidence above promoting the value of extended discourse suggests that educators should focus most on Allen's functional-analytic and experiential components, leaving the structural-analytic to a lesser role. Harley and Swain (1984) agree that immersion programs should prioritize the functional, communicative aspects. They claim that problematic grammatical forms should provide the focused input, and that greater opportunity for students to use the relevant forms in meaningful situations should provide the productive output.

In a control group study aimed to test Allen's (1983) hypothesis, Day and Shapson (1991) found that teachers practicing an approach that integrated formal, functional-analytic, and functional, communicative activities in teaching the conditional to experimental classes helped their students make significantly higher gains writing this verb tense than those in control groups not using this approach. These researchers did not, however, report statistically significant gains in the speaking components of the study. Nevertheless, they claimed that an examination of the individual class data revealed greater and more consistent growth in speaking for the experimental than for the control classes, suggesting that the students in the former group benefitted somewhat from the experimental treatment in this domain.

Allen et al. (1990) suggested that in order to achieve fluency and to increase the amount of sustained student talk, teachers must provide more opportunities for student initiated discourse, and ask more open ended questions that require students to find their own words.

This study compares the effect of teaching strategies such as cooperative learning and direct instruction on the length and frequency of EFL students' discourse. My hypothesis states that group work will generate longer student discourse than analytic approaches such as direct instruction. Cooperative group work will be compared to direct instruction because many EFL teachers appear to use the latter. Before examining the effect of group work and direct instruction on the length and frequency of student discourse, I will describe these two strategies in the next section.

3.4 Direct instruction

Direct instruction aims primarily to teach students pre-determined learning objectives, consisting mostly of basic skills and concepts. It has been widely used for many years by teachers of almost all subjects and age levels, from early primary grades to the university level. Bloom (1971) cites practices similar to direct instruction developed by Carlton Washburn and Henry Morrison in the 1920's. More recently several researchers have investigated this teaching model, and have referred to it under different names. Bloom (1971) and Carrol (1971) wrote of 'mastery learning'. Rosenshine (1985), Brophy & Good (1986) spoke of 'direct instruction', and others have referred to the 'lock-step' approach (Long, 1975). Teaching strategies related to direct instruction

include Madelaine Hunter's (1982) 'Instructional Theory into Practice' (ITIP) and 'teacher effectiveness' (Brophy & Good, 1986).

Direct instruction usually consists of five steps. The teacher begins with an orientation to the chosen objective by reviewing previous learning, making a connection between the previous skill or concept and the new one, and by stating the new objective. Next, he presents the new skill or concept to a large group of students, likely to the entire class, by modelling and explaining it. Third, the teacher offers some structured, controlled practice of the material presented, and provides feedback and reinforcement. At this stage the teacher assesses the students' understanding of the concept or skill taught, usually with oral teacher questions and student answers. Next, the students undertake some guided practice, usually written seat work in class under teacher surveillance. Finally, the teacher assigns some independent practice of the skill or concept for homework, usually followed by a test to evaluate their mastery of the material presented.

Direct instruction has several important implications for EFL teachers' efforts to improve their students' French speaking skills. First, direct instruction requires a highly structured teaching environment with high levels of teacher direction. Teachers select and direct the learning tasks, and they judge the accuracy of student work. Students do not usually choose what skills and concepts they will learn, nor how to learn them. This restriction of choice can dampen students' curiosity and intrinsic motivation to learn. Direct instruction relies on the extrinsic lever of tests to motivate students. Moreover, it does not cater well to divergent learning

styles of students nor to students' different speeds of learning because the teacher usually teaches the same skill to the entire group. Finally, direct instruction does not appear to offer students much opportunity to develop their higher level thinking skills because it focuses on basic skills and recall information.

Second, teachers using direct instruction tend to dominate classroom conversation. In a comprehensive observational study of classrooms, Flanders (1970) found that a typical teacher using direct instruction talks for at least half, and as much as two thirds, of any class period. When one considers administrative tasks such as taking attendance and collecting and distributing assignments, this approach allows even less time for student discourse. Moreover, teachers practicing direct instruction initiate almost all classroom discussion; students merely respond to teacher initiated discourse. Very little pupil initiated or sustained discourse occurs.

Furthermore, direct instruction tends to produce a highly conventionalized form of classroom discourse, one rarely found outside of courtrooms, wedding ceremonies, and classrooms (Long & Porter, 1985). The teacher usually poses a series of 'pseudo' or 'known information questions', such as *"Did you observe the accused leave the apartment at 1141 Baker Street at or around 10:p.m. on the evening of June 24?"* or *"Quel est le féminin de grand?"*- questions for which there is usually only one answer, and for which the teacher usually already knows the response. This answer is often yes/no, or a word or short utterance. Therefore, even when students do speak in a direct instruction lesson, their discourse is very limited and conventionalized.

In order to prevent student attention from wandering, teachers using direct instruction often maintain a brisk pace to the question/answer exchange. This fast pace also diminishes the length of students' utterances, and reduces students' 'think time' to respond in extended discourse and to reflect cognitively. Mary Budd Rowe defines a teacher's 'wait-time' as "the pause that follows a question by a teacher" (Rowe, 1978: 273). Her research suggests that when teachers increase their 'wait-time' to three seconds or longer, students benefit by increasing the number and length of their own responses to the teacher's questions, increasing their confidence to participate in class, and increasing their involvement in speculative thinking. Long & Porter (1985) suggest that this drill work *may* be useful for developing grammatical accuracy, although they point out that researchers have not yet proven it. They claim that direct instruction will not promote the kind of conversation skills students need outside the classroom.

Direct instruction concentrates more on analytic exercises and accuracy than on experiential activities and fluency. It corresponds most to Eisner's (1984) curriculum orientation of competency in basic skills. Teachers give their students exercises and tests of language performance. Joyce & Weil (1986) acknowledge that research on "teacher effectiveness" suggest that direct instruction can increase student achievement in areas such as explicit, analytic grammar exercises, mathematics, and reading. They point out, however, that direct instruction does not succeed in increasing student ability in more complex areas of abstract and creative thinking, and problem solving. Its success with analytic exercises

does not mean that it increases students' opportunities to use and experience language in communicative situations.

Swain and Lapkin (1986) have observed that efforts in the past to improve students' grammatical errors with more structural exercises have not worked. In a study of Grade 6 EFL students' use of the conditional, Harley and Swain (1984) found that mastery of the form of this verb tense in exercises did not correlate with students' ability to use it appropriately in free speech. They claimed that "learners may have knowledge of a particular form but that they may not be able to use it appropriately to reflect its various functions" (1984: 308).

To summarize, direct instruction aims to increase student achievement in basic skills. This drill work may provide good results for mastery learning of grammar skills in exercises, although Long & Porter (1985) point out that researchers have not yet proven it. Moreover, direct instruction requires highly structured, teacher-directed classrooms where student choice and independence are minimal, and where emphasis lies on mastery of basic skills at the expense of activities requiring higher levels of thinking. In addition, students have little opportunity to talk, and when they do converse they often must participate in conventionalized conversations rarely found outside the classroom. Finally, direct instruction does not lend itself well to different student learning styles, nor to varying speeds of learning. Despite its widespread use in classrooms, it does not appear to increase the frequency and length of EFL students' discourse.

3.5 Cooperative learning and group work

During the 1980's increasing numbers of educators in North America have adopted cooperative learning strategies (Johnson & Johnson, 1984). Individual teachers, schools, school districts, and the B.C. Ministry of Education increasingly advocate a cooperative learning approach. For example, in the Lower Mainland area around Vancouver, British Columbia, Abbotsford and Coquitlam school districts' instructional literature now encourage their teachers to use it. (Challenge Ahead Report, Coquitlam; Abbotsford instructional mimeo), as does the Ministry of Education's Year 2000 document.

Extensive research into cooperative learning has confirmed its advantages for those students that learn with it (Johnson & Johnson, 1974, 1984; Slavin, 1983). These benefits include:

- 1) higher achievement at both mastery and higher level thinking levels,
- 2) better retention,
- 3) more positive heterogeneous relationships with peers,
- 4) better attitudes toward school,
- 5) better attitudes towards teachers,
- 6) higher self-acceptance and self-esteem,
- 7) greater social support from peers,
- 8) greater collaborative and communication skills.

The roots of most cooperative learning models used today stem from two sources. John Dewey (1916, 1937) emphasized the social democratic aspects of learning. Later, Morton Deutsch (1949) studied group dynamics. From this foundational work, educators later developed several different cooperative learning models.

Simply placing students together in groups does not constitute cooperative learning. Groups are not necessarily effective pedagogical tools in themselves. They become effective when

teachers have students engage in classroom activities that promote (a) positive interdependence between group members, (b) individual accountability, and (c) opportunities for all students to succeed (Johnson & Johnson, 1984; Kagan, 1985). In other words, the nature of the tasks that teachers offer their students are more important than simply grouping the students together.

Most cooperative learning approaches share certain common elements that distinguish them from other teaching strategies. For example, students seat in groups of two or more students, and some form of positive interdependence links them together, such as the task itself, or team rewards if all team members succeed in the mastering the material presented.

However, the cooperative models also differ considerably amongst themselves. There is no one cooperative learning strategy. The distinctions include (a) the different philosophies of education that underlie them, (b) the importance placed on the primary goals that teachers hold for their students, (c) the role of individual student accountability, (d) the motivation source, (e) techniques of evaluation, (f) the source of positive interdependence, (g) teacher and student roles, (h) group sizes, and (i) the grouping strategies.

In recent years increasing numbers of British Columbia's immersion teachers have adopted cooperative learning strategies. It appears that many have particularly turned to 'Student Team Learning' (Slavin, 1983, 1986), to 'Learning Together' (Johnson & Johnson, 1974, 1984), and to a lesser extent to 'Coop Coop' (Kagan, 1985). All immersion teachers do not of course only use these three models; for example, the Sharans' (1976) 'Group Investigation' is

also used in science and social studies. However, my experience teaching EFI in District #43 (Coquitlam) in several schools has indicated that most immersion teachers practice the Slavin and Johnson models, and to a lesser extent Kagan's model. The next section examines the specific characteristics of these cooperative learning models.

3.5.1 Slavin's Student Team Learning

Working out of John Hopkins University, Robert Slavin (1983, 1986) has developed several cooperative learning practices.

Educators best recognize him for the following three strategies:

- a) Student Teams Achievement Divisions (STAD),
- b) Jigsaw II,
- c) Teams Games Tournament (TGT).

Four fundamental principles underline each of Slavin's models:

- a) individual accountability,
- b) instrumental learning and extrinsic motivation through team rewards,
- c) equal opportunity for success,
- d) positive interdependence based on team rewards.

Individual accountability encourages all students to master certain basic concepts. Students learn the material together, but teachers test them individually. Slavin recommends using criteria-based evaluation strategies. Team rewards constitute the external, extrinsic motivation that Slavin believes best motivates students to work hard and strive to succeed. Slavin's heterogeneous grouping favours equal success opportunity for all students. He defines success in terms of achievement; cooperation in itself is not a goal. Slavin recommends selecting groups based on achievement results, largely ignoring personal, social and leadership considerations.

Slavin's approach corresponds directly to Eisner's (1984) competency orientation of educational philosophies. Despite the 'cooperative' name, his strategies require direct instruction of mastery level material that corresponds closely to behavioral objectives. The teacher presents the targeted information and provides the resources for students to learn it. Students receive the information, master it, and then reproduce it for a test.

Slavin's strategies contain some strengths and several weaknesses. On the positive side, his models encourage students to teach each other the course content. Students teaching each other increases student participation, highlights material for those teaching, and helps retention. Most importantly, it increases the frequency and length of student discourse. In addition, accountability through limited testing provides an incentive, albeit external, for students to master the material and to fully participate. Lastly, Slavin makes some good suggestions regarding team building, especially one which aims to generate enthusiasm for the team by requesting students to create a team name, a logo, and a general team identity at the outset of their work together.

On the other hand competition, obsession with points, and external motivation all adversely dominate Slavin's models. The pressure of competition can increase achievement results for some students, but for others it leads to unneeded stress and frustration, and can decrease achievement. Furthermore, the competition between teams can have negative social and personal consequences both between and within groups. Letting down one's group through poor achievement correlates directly to loss of peer acceptance and

lower self-esteem. The obsession with external motivation, testing, and points produces few meaningful results compared to the considerable time and energy invested.

3.5.2 Kagan's 'Co op Co op'

Working out of Riverside California, Spencer Kagan (1985) has developed a cooperative learning model quite different from Slavin's three strategies. Whereas Slavin concentrates on a teacher directed, content mastery approach, Kagan's 'Co op Co op' encourages students to establish and direct their own learning goals. Most teachers use Kagan's model for inquiry, although Kagan claims that it does have other applications. He reasons that a more 'process oriented' approach, combined with greater democratic power-sharing in the classroom, will stimulate and increase student curiosity and achievement. Kagan's model corresponds primarily to Eisner's (1984) 'Academic' orientation philosophy, but does not exclude 'Social Reconstruction' and 'Personal growth'.

Kagan's 'Co op Co op' inquiry encourages students to play a much more dynamic role in their own learning. After the teacher establishes the general learning context and generates some enthusiasm for the chosen topic, the students take control. In small, heterogeneous groups of four, they define more specifically what they will study, and how. The teams simultaneously study one overall class topic. They formulate their own questions, locate their own resources, generate their own hypotheses, and analyze and synthesize the knowledge learned. They then share it with classmates through presentations, first to their own group, and then to the entire class. The teacher facilitates the students in these

tasks, but the pupils play the dominant role. The students thus experience the process of learning, and they learn to learn in a democratic environment.

Teachers can use 'Co op Co op' for a variety of learning strategies other than inquiry, including concept and content mastery, value clarification, and self-discovery. It is most often used in social studies and science, but it can also be used in other subjects. The teacher can use only one text, or a broad range of learning resources.

The fundamental principles of Kagan's model include:

- a) two equally important primary goals: cooperate to achieve better results; and learn to cooperate (cooperation becomes a goal in itself)
- b) positive interdependence based primarily on task structure,
- c) intrinsic motivation to learn,
- d) individual accountability.

Kagan's joint primary goals of cooperation and achievement differ from those of Slavin who concentrates solely on academic achievement. Slavin bases his positive interdependence on group rewards, whereas Kagan emphasizes task structure to link the students together. Both writers recognize the importance of individual accountability. Slavin's model relies on extrinsic motivation through rewards and marks, whereas Kagan's 'Co op Co op' encourages intrinsic self-motivation.

Although students conduct their inquiry cooperatively by collectively defining their topic, formulating their own questions, and gathering resources, Kagan recommends that group members gather information, analyze it, and prepare their written reports individually. He argues that students will benefit more from the

collective group synthesis if they bring to it different, individual perspectives that they have previously formulated on their own. Kagan aspires to a collective synthesis that represents more than the sum of the individual analyses. He also maintains that this approach will strengthen individual accountability, encouraging all students to fully contribute to the study.

Kagan proposes three levels of criteria-based evaluation. First, he suggests that the different groups evaluate the individual contribution of each of their members. Second, he recommends that the entire class evaluate the oral team presentations. Third, the teacher should evaluate the written and artistic work of each student and group.

3.5.3 Johnson and Johnson's 'Learning Together'

Working out of the University of Minnesota's Cooperative Learning Center that they established in the 1970's, David and Roger Johnson have conducted extensive research into several aspects of cooperative learning and developed their own approach. The fundamental principles underlying their 'Learning Together' model do not differ greatly in substance from those of Kagan, but they do differ in intensity and focus. They also differ from those of Slavin. The principles include:

- a) positive interdependence (sink or swim together mentality);
- b) individual accountability (no hitchhikers allowed);
- c) face to face interaction;
- d) individual and team rewards;
- e) heterogeneous grouping, based on achievement levels, sex, and social and leadership considerations;
- f) three primary goals: learn to cooperate; cooperate to develop your personal and social skills; and cooperate to achieve better results.

The Johnsons specify much more clearly than their colleagues the internal group dynamics of cooperation within the student teams. Slavin does not emphasize cooperation within the group as an important goal in itself; for him it is merely a means to attain another end--higher mastery achievement. Kagan recognizes the value of cooperation, but he assumes that it will develop naturally by allowing the students to interact together. The Johnsons maintain that teachers must actively teach the needed collaborative group skills, using both direct instruction and by encouraging students to reflect on group processes.

'Learning Together' corresponds primarily to Eisner's (1984) 'Personal growth' orientation, although the Johnsons encourage teachers to also use it to venture into both the 'Competency' and 'Academic' domains. The Johnsons focus on building students' social skills, their self-acceptance, self-esteem, self-awareness, their acceptance and liking of others, their relationships with peers, their leadership qualities, and their skills in resolving conflict and making collective group decisions. The Johnsons argue that if educators sufficiently emphasize these social skills, the students will consequently receive spin-off benefits in the 'Competency' and 'Academic' domains.

In 'Learning Together', the teacher plays a more active role than in Kagan's models, but not as dynamic as in Slavin's Student Team Learning. The Johnsons suggest that the teacher establish the heterogeneous teams, based on academic ability, sex, and social and leadership considerations. Teachers also intervene to create the learning context, and to establish the goals and tasks. They must

also coordinate the learning of both academic and collaborative social/group skills. In this sense the Johnson's model is much more structured than Kagan's model, although the Johnson's do encourage teachers to assign tasks that involve controversy and discrepancy and that challenge students to use higher level thinking skills. However, the more teachers intervene in their students' learning, regardless of their good intentions, the more structured the learning becomes.

In 'Learning Together' teachers engage students in similar tasks to those in Kagan's model. Each student makes a unique contribution to a collective group effort. The teacher encourages students to reflect not only on their academic participation and progress, but also on their social involvement and development in the group. Teachers direct their students to regularly observe each other with checklists to note behavior and progress. The students should play varied roles within the group, both academically and socially. The teacher evaluates the students for academic achievement and group, collaborative skills.

Strengths of the Johnsons' model include (a) the heterogeneous grouping, (b) individual accountability, (c) the importance placed on recognizing and teaching the social, collaborative, and cooperative skills to the students, and (d) the personal and social development of the students. Weaknesses include (a) the high level of teacher imposed structure, (b) a lack of student directed learning, and (c) the extrinsically motivated individual and team rewards. The information gathered from student observations with checklists constitutes good base-line data to promote discussion and

reflection. However, teachers must navigate a fine line between fostering reflection and over-structuring their students' learning.

3.5.4 The effect of cooperative learning on EFL students' speaking skills

Cooperative learning strategies can influence EFL students' speaking skills in several ways. First, they offer numerous and varied opportunities for teachers to increase the frequency and length of student discourse. More students can practice the target language if several groups participate in simultaneous conversations as opposed to a whole class discussion where only one person can speak at one time. In a study comparing teacher-fronted and small-group discussions of low-intermediate level English as a Second Language (ESL) students, Pica & Doughty (1985b) observed that individual students talked significantly more often in their groups than in a whole class discussion. Moreover, students in small groups have the opportunity to speak in extended discourse, and are not limited to the short utterances often found in the classes of teachers using direct instruction. Brumfit (1984a) claims that students cannot attain fluency without some form of flexible small group system.

Second, cooperative learning offers EFL students a much more natural setting for conversation than large class discussions. Children naturally speak in pairs and in small groups when out on the playground and at home with their families. Small group conversations in the classroom of two to five students correspond much more to pupils' daily reality outside the classroom than

conventionalized, whole class discussions which are more characteristic of parliament and courtrooms.

Long (1975) and Fanselow (1977) suggest that group work also offers second language learners much more variety, and thus quality, in the type of language they use in the classroom. Long points out that while direct instruction limits students' use of language to recall of information, group work allows them to "define, hypothesize, classify, promise, apologize, and command" (1975: 219). Fanselow (1977) conceptualizes language use with his own vocabulary in FOCUS--Foci for Observing Communication used in Settings. He argues that group work expands students' options of 'moves', from merely 'responding' to questions and information to 'responding', 'soliciting', 'reacting', and even 'structuring'--the preparations and organization accompanying the learning activities.

Group work also provides greater opportunity for students to negotiate meaning. Opportunities to negotiate meaning allow students to manipulate the language 'input', and therefore increase the meaning of the 'input'. Pica and Doughty (1985b) found that students in small groups negotiate much more meaning in their discourse than those in a teacher fronted activity while working on a similar skills. They also found that teacher fronted activities led to less negotiation as a percentage of total classroom conversation--teacher included--than group work. Less negotiation of meaning results in less comprehensible input for the students. Long & Porter (1985) also pointed out that group activities provide L2 learners with opportunities to learn functional skills, such as how to summarize, infer, and disagree.

The nature of the task also influences the amount of negotiated meaning. Researchers differentiate one-way tasks from two-way tasks in classroom discourse. One-way tasks refer to situations where one speaker has all the information to communicate to a listener. Two-way tasks require both students to provide information to the other in order to successfully complete the assigned task. Siavin's 'Jig Saw' is an example of this type of task.

Evidence suggests that two-way tasks generate significantly more negotiation of meaning than one-way tasks in small groups, whereas little difference appears to exist between the two in teacher fronted activities (Pica & Doughty, 1985b); Long, 1983b). Furthermore, Varonis and Gass (1985) found that familiarity with the task seemed to decrease the need for negotiation, even when the teacher requested that students alternate their prescribed roles in the two-way tasks.

Somewhat surprisingly, evidence also suggests that non-native speakers (NNS) generate greater opportunity for negotiation of meaning when speaking between themselves in small groups than when speaking with native speakers (NS) (Varonis & Gass, 1985). Varonis and Gass suggest that NNS share a common incompetence in the target language, both as speakers and listeners, which makes them more likely to respond to errors and communication breakdown with each other than with NS. NNS might be more embarrassed to show their incompetence to a NS, and thus might be more unlikely to monitor each other's discourse and to respond to errors and communication breakdown. NNS cannot provide each other with the

accurate and sociolinguistic input that NS's provide, but they can offer each other genuine communicative practice.

In addition to the general benefits to the students using cooperative learning--higher achievement, better retention, more positive social relationships with peers, higher self acceptance and self esteem, better attitudes towards teachers and school, and greater collaborative and communicative skills--group work also offers psychological support to language learners as they struggle with a new language. Most students experience less stress and embarrassment speaking in small groups than 'performing' in front of the teacher and the whole class. Pica and Doughty's (1985b) finding that less negotiation of meaning occurs in teacher fronted lessons suggests that students may be reluctant to indicate a lack of understanding in front of the teacher and/or in front of the entire class. Small group work provides second language learners with the opportunity to manipulate 'input' and to negotiate meaning without taking as much risk of displaying their incompetence and the resulting embarrassment.

Group work also increases student involvement and student motivation. Students learn best by 'doing'. Placing students in groups and giving them tasks in which they must work together provide them with opportunities to become involved in the activity. This involvement leads to greater commitment, motivation, learning, and retention.

Finally, Brumfit (1984a) claims that group work promotes more individualization of instruction for learners than lock-step. Teachers using direct instruction usually proceed by teaching one

skill to the entire class, regardless of whether or not all students are at this level. Some students may not yet have mastered the chosen level, whereas others are far past it. Small groups allow students who have already mastered a skill to provide a form of individualized instruction to their slower peers. This benefits both groups of pupils. The weaker students receive tutoring, while the stronger ones get a boost of self-confidence teaching the skill. The teaching act also reinforces their own mastery of the skill. All students benefit by speaking French in extended discourse during the tutoring.

In summary, cooperative learning strategies offer several advantages to EFI teachers endeavoring to improve their student's French speaking skills. First, group work increases the length and frequency of student discourse. Second, cooperative learning offers EFI students a much more natural setting for conversation than whole class discussions. Third, it increases the variety of language that pupils use in the classroom, extending students' language from simply responding to discourse from the teacher to initiating their own conversation. Fourth, group work provides greater opportunity for students to negotiate meaning, especially in two-way tasks. Fifth, it offers psychological advantages to EFI students, including increased student involvement, increased motivation, and greater support as they sometimes struggle with a new language. Finally, cooperative learning offers students more opportunity for students to tutor each other.

3.6 Teaching techniques to prevent students speaking their mother tongue

Wong-Fillmore (1985) claimed that group work is often counter-productive if most of the language learners come from the same language background because pupils revert to their native tongue. Although this can happen, teachers can take several measures to prevent it. Allen et al. (1990) suggested that teachers ask their students to perform tasks that require the outcome to be a spoken or written text in French, one that is ideally presented to real audiences. They cited examples of the preparation of published books and classroom newspapers, the production of a radio show, and student participation in classroom decisions. Students will more willingly speak French in groups if they know at the outset that they will subsequently have to make a presentation to others. Pupils will know that they will have to learn and practice specific vocabulary to use in their presentation. These sorts of activities correspond to Swain's (1985) notion of 'comprehensible output', the production of language in situations where the learner must deliver a precise, coherent, and appropriate message.

The teacher's successful implementation of a reward system to promote the use of French can also restrict the overuse of the student's speech in the mother tongue during group discussions. Some Grades 5-7 EFL teachers succeed in motivating their students to speak in French in their classrooms, usually at the beginning of the school year when they establish most norms, by using a variety of systems. The successful implementation of these systems appear to be especially important after Grade 3, when many students begin

to lose the initial enthusiasm and intrinsic motivation to speak French that they enjoyed during the primary grades when they found both the program and speaking French to be a novel experience. The system's initial implementation can require considerable rigor, consistency, and patience for the teachers. However, once teachers succeed in establishing French as the classroom norm, students continue to speak it for the rest of the school year with occasional reminding.

4 SUMMARY AND HYPOTHESES

In the first part of this Chapter I examined the speaking achievement of Early French Immersion students. I cited results of studies which suggest that EFI students' speaking skills are not as strong as their other language skills, even though this finding is to be expected. Students perform best in discourse and strategic competencies, whereas they experience most difficulty in grammar. Student surveys and self-evaluations confirm these findings. Evidence also suggests that EFI students do not have enough opportunity to speak in extended discourse, and that they would like to speak French more frequently.

In the second part of this chapter I examined curriculum orientations and teaching strategies. I argued that teachers' specific language objectives and the teaching strategies that they adopt to attain them are embedded in more general philosophical goals that they have in life and education. I presented evidence in the literature which suggests that EFI teachers should focus more on assisting their students to achieve greater fluency in their spoken French, leaving concerns for grammatical accuracy and error

correction to important, but nevertheless, secondary roles. Errors are an important, natural, component of learning. I concluded the chapter by comparing the effect of cooperative learning's and direct instruction's on EFL students' speaking skills. I hypothesized that cooperative group work offers more opportunity for students to speak frequently, and in more sustained discourse. Experiential teaching strategies also offer other benefits, including a more natural setting in which to converse, a greater variety in the type of language to speak, more opportunity to negotiate meaning, more potential for peer tutoring, and several psychological advantages such as reduced stress and greater motivation to learn.

In the next chapter I describe the research design used in this study. The subjects and site selections are described, and the instruments are presented and explained.

CHAPTER II RESEARCH DESIGN

1. INTRODUCTION

The research design of this study is presented in the first section of this chapter. In Sections 2 and 3 the subject and site selections are described and justified. The choice of instruments and the proposed coding procedures are explained in Section 4.

Data were collected from three sources: interviews with teachers, interviews with students, and classroom observations. I began by interviewing prospective intermediate (Grades 5-7) teachers in order to identify six of them willing to participate in the study (see Appendix A). The next step consisted of conducting four classroom observations of each teacher with an observation coding scheme (see Appendix B). I concluded by interviewing the six teachers and six groups of five students from each class after the observations (see Appendices C and D).

The follow-up interviews were conducted because the qualitative information that they generate can shed considerable meaning on the quantitative data collected from the observation scheme. The interviews allowed me to verify my perception of the subjects' intentions, and to probe for greater understanding.

2. SUBJECTS

Six intermediate (Grades 5-7) EFL teachers from School District #43 (Coquitlam) participated in this study. These grades were selected for two reasons. First, several studies examining the oral production of Grade 6 EFL students have been conducted in recent years in Ontario (Harley, 1985; Swain & Carroll, 1987; Allen et al., 1990). I wanted to collect some data in British Columbia in order to compare it to these earlier studies.

Second, EFL teachers and researchers (e.g. Stern, 1984b; Parkin et al., 1986) have claimed that EFL students' speaking skills appear to level off, and in many cases deteriorate, as they reach the upper intermediate level. Stern refers to this occurrence as the 'ceiling effect', while Parkin speaks of the 'plateau effect'. When the students enter the EFL program they have a natural desire to communicate in French. By the intermediate grades, however, the pupils have learned to speak well enough to meet their basic communicative needs, and they have little incentive to continue upgrading and refining their productive skills (Calvé, 1986). I aim to analyze the length and frequency of French spoken by EFL students at this level in order to generate some data that could perhaps be used in a future study to examine possible correlations with the apparent plateau in their speaking skills.

2.1 Method of selecting the sample of subjects

The procedure in Appendix A (Subject Solicitation and Preliminary Interview Questions) was used in order to select six appropriate subjects. The first objective of this interview was to identify two sorts of activities in which the teacher engaged her

students: one which generated considerable student discourse (*beaucoup de français*), and one which generated relatively little student talk (*peu de français*). The interview also indicated the teacher's perception of the effect of the activities on the students' oral production of French. These activities formed the basis for the selection and focus of the subsequent classroom observations. The questions also provided some insight into the teachers' general instructional approach.

The second objective was to categorize, albeit tentatively, the participating teachers into two groups based on the teaching strategies they predominantly use in the classroom: experiential, fluency approaches, such as cooperative learning and group work versus analytic, teacher-fronted orientations. Teachers indicating that they frequently practiced strategies producing "*beaucoup de français*" spoken by their students were then tentatively assigned to the experiential, fluency group; those instructors reporting that they frequently engage their students in activities producing "*peu de français*" spoken by students were assigned to the teacher-fronted, analytic group.

This study also aimed to compare the effect of experimental and analytic teaching strategies on the length of student discourse. The sample included a diversified group of subjects that collectively practiced a wide cross-section of teaching strategies. It was assumed that an equal number of experiential and analytic, lock-step teachers would provide this desired range of strategies.

This study did not attempt to define experiential and language teaching as a concept. Rather, a list of indicators of communicative

behavior was compiled. Each one could be separately observed and quantified in order to provide a relative overall profile (see Appendix B). Therefore, the participating teachers were not pre-screened based on one feature, but by a cluster of interrelated features.

Furthermore, this preliminary teacher categorization based on six questions was only a starting point for this study. From the outset I realized that I could possibly mis-assign some of the teachers to the inappropriate category, or that some teachers may use a totally eclectic approach and therefore not fall into either category. However, these possible categorization difficulties were not viewed as a major obstacle because the focus of this study remained on the effect of specific teaching strategies on the length and frequency of French spoken by students, not on the effect of general pedagogical orientations. All teachers participating in the study had been requested to teach two 'communicative' lessons which they believed would generate "*beaucoup de français* ", and two lessons where the students would speak relatively "*peu de français* ". The two groups could then be compared.

Ten prospective Grades 5-7 EFL immersion teachers in District #43 (Coquitlam) were contacted. From this list, six teachers were identified as falling into the two tentative groups, thus representing a wide cross-section of teaching strategies. Table 2.1 illustrates the sampling and designation strategies.

**Table 2.1 Designation of
Experiential and Analytic Teachers**

| Teachers | | Type and # of Lessons | |
|--------------------|------------|-------------------------|--|
| <hr/> | | | |
| Analytic group | 'Analytic' | 'Communicative' | |
| A | 2 | 2 | |
| B | 2 | 2 | |
| C | 2 | 2 | |
| Experiential group | | | |
| D | 2 | 2 | |
| E | 2 | 2 | |
| F | 2 | 2 | |
| <hr/> | | | |
| Total teachers, 6. | | Total lessons, 4X6 =24. | |

3. SITES

School District #43 (Coquitlam) is a large district in the Lower Mainland of South-Western British Columbia covering an area of approximately 80 square miles in the Municipality of Coquitlam, the Cities of Port Moody and Port Coquitlam, and the Villages of Belcarra and Anmore. It serves a student population of over 23,000 students in 48 elementary and 12 secondary schools.

District #43 has a long established immersion program, with 22 years experience offering the program. In 1958/69 Coquitlam was the first school district in British Columbia to offer EFL. Since its beginning, District #43's EFL program expanded very rapidly. For example, the Early Immersion population quickly rose from an initial total of 47 kindergarten students registered at Alderson Elementary in 1968-69 to over 600 students at six schools in 1978-79 (Burdikin, 1985), and then from a 1984-85 total of 1,689 students to 2720 in September, 1989 (Daneault, personal communication). The EFL program is now offered at 11 of the 48 elementary and 5 of the 12 secondary schools in the district to over 2650 students.

District #43's ethnic, linguistic, and socioeconomic (SES) population varies from one area of the district to another. Although no known (SES) studies have been conducted specifically of District #43's immersion population (Daneault, personal communication), studies elsewhere in Ontario (e.g. Burns, 1983) suggest that traditionally EFL's cliental has differed from the rest of the school population. Immersion students tend to come from families that value education and whose parents want their children to learn French. Burns suggests that during the first two decades of EFL

immersion students came from predominantly middle and upper class families, although he has observed that in recent years the program has attracted a wider range of socioeconomic backgrounds as the program's popularity and resulting expansion has increased accessibility and interest. With its rapid expansion in the 1980's, Coquitlam likely compares similarly to this trend in Ontario.

3.1 Method of selecting sites

District #43 was selected for this study for several reasons. First, it offered a large number and variety of well established prospective EFI schools. The five schools participating all started the immersion program before 1980. Second, limiting the data to one district minimized the possible discrepancy of other program variables that can vary from one district to another. For example, some districts, such as Coquitlam, currently have a policy of offering 60% of instruction in French to intermediate students, while others such as Surrey and North Vancouver offer 80%. Districts such as Coquitlam and Burnaby offer all of their immersion programs in dual-track schools, whereas others like Vernon, Vancouver, Nanaimo, and West Vancouver offer EFI at both dual-track schools and immersion centers. These variables could potentially influence the amount of French spoken by EFI students, so the researcher decided to limit his data base to one district where the variables are constant from one school to the next.

Third, at the time of data collection, I have taught immersion in District #43 for eight years at four different schools, and have acquired a good contextual understanding of several of the schools, their teachers, and some of the students. This understanding was

useful in identifying six subjects who use a wide range of teaching strategies, and for later interpreting the qualitative data from the interviews.

4. INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES

4.1 Classroom observations and coding instruments

After identifying the six subjects, the first step of the data collecting process was the classroom observations. I conducted four classroom observations over a one week period in each of the six classes using parts of the COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) observation code (Allen et al., 1987), identified in this study as Appendix B. The observations periods varied from 20 to 60 minutes, depending on the length of the lesson. The researcher attempted to conduct the observations at a time and in an environment that did not differ substantially from the regular routine of the classroom. The observations aimed to categorize both the specific teaching practices in immersion classes and the quantity and nature and length of French spoken by students, as well as to generate data that could explore possible correlations between the two.

Several researchers, including Flanders (1970), Fanselow (1977), and Lightbown (1990), have pointed out that researchers cannot easily characterize classroom interaction. Classroom life contains a large number of variables, many that are not mutually exclusive one from another. Students' and teachers' behavior can vary considerably during the day. Moreover, researchers cannot ascertain whether the subjects' behavior that is observed corresponds to the subjects' intentions.

From the several observation codes for second language classrooms that educators have developed (e.g., Moskowitz, 1970; Faneslow, 1977; Bialystok et al., 1979), the writer of this study chose to use parts of the COLT scheme developed by a team of OISE researchers for the Development of Bilingual Proficiency (DBP) project in Ontario. Allen, Frohlich, and Spada first developed the COLT code in 1984, and then later refined it in 1987 for the second phase of the DBP project. They developed COLT in order to provide a broad picture of activities that characterize the second language class by attempting to accurately describe what actually occurs.

Parts of COLT were selected for several reasons. Most importantly for this study, the COLT scheme contains specific components which help describe both the instructional practices used by teachers, including communicative teaching strategies, and the nature and length of student discourse. The communicative and analytic observation components are especially important because of the hypothesis of this study: that experiential, communicative teaching practices such as group work will increase the length and frequency of student discourse more than analytic approaches characterized by lock-step instruction. However, the COLT scheme does not limit itself to observing one aspect of teaching, like group work versus teacher-fronted activities. Rather, it reflects the diversity of communicative teaching by incorporating several features.

Table 2.2 illustrates these numerous and varied features identified by the COLT developers.

Table 2.2 COLT Features

| Experiential feature | Analytic feature |
|--|------------------------------------|
| COLT Part I | |
| Group activity | Whole-class activity |
| Classroom management | |
| Function/discourse/socio-linguistic focus | Form focus |
| Broad/limited range of reference | Narrow range of reference |
| Student or shared control of topic | Teacher control of topic |
| Extended text | Minimal text |
| L1/L1 adapted/student-made materials | L2 materials |
| COLT Part II | |
| Use of French | Use of English |
| Giving unpredictable information | Giving predictable information |
| Information request | Display request |
| Sustained speech | Minimal speech |
| Reaction to message | Reaction to code |
| Comment, expansion, clarification, elaboration | Correction, repetition, paraphrase |
| Discourse initiation by student | Discourse initiation by teacher |
| Unrestricted language form | Restricted form |

Note. From "Analysis and experience as variables in second language pedagogy" by H. Stern, 1990, In Harley et al. (eds.). *The Development of Second Language Proficiency*, p. 112. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Most of these features were included in the modified version of COLT (Appendix B) used in this study, and described later in this chapter.

Second, COLT is a valid instrument. It was developed for the observation of a wide variety of second language classes, including Early French Immersion. As part of their extensive, four year study, the DPB researchers used it in a wide variety of program settings in Ontario, including 4 Core French, 2 EFI at the grade 7 level, 2 Extended Immersion, and 5 ESL classes. These researchers concluded that COLT was capable of capturing both differences in the communicative orientations of language programs and the nature and length of student discourse. The successful deployment of COLT in these settings offers it validity, as does its development by a group of researchers (Allen, Frohlich, Spada) who have worked as part of a team at OISE that has been at the forefront of immersion research in North America during the last decade.

Lastly, COLT was selected in order to add to recent research studies in 'second language output' (Swain, 1985; Swain & Lapkin, 1986; Swain & Carrol, 1987; Allen et al., 1990). In particular, I attempted to compare some of the data gathered in this study in British Columbia with Swain and Carroll's (1987) finding in Ontario that EFI pupils do not have many opportunities in class to engage in sustained talk (less than 15% of students' speech consisted of more than one clause).

4.1.1 Limitations of COLT

Although it has several strengths, COLT, like any instrument used to collect data in the social sciences, also has some limitations. Although COLT includes several varied descriptors, it is nevertheless very difficult to completely differentiate experiential and analytic pedagogical orientations. Most teachers use eclectic approaches. I attempted to compensate for this deficiency by electing to observe the same instructor using different teaching strategies, thus focusing more on how the strategy affects student oral expression as opposed to attempting to categorize teachers' general orientations.

Second, the quality of instruction, regardless of the pedagogical orientation, is perhaps more influential in learner outcomes than the method used. For example, good instructors using a teacher-fronted approach may well in fact solicit more production in French by the students than other teachers using experiential approaches poorly. Nevertheless, quality instruction using effective methods should produce better results than quality instruction using inferior methods. One cannot discard the method debate by simply arguing that some teachers teach better than others.

As Stern (1990) has pointed out, despite its limitations, COLT remains the most comprehensive and effective coding scheme yet developed to observe immersion classroom interactions. It will assist this study to describe teaching behavior and students' classroom discourse.

4.1.2 Description of observation scheme

The COLT scheme used in this study contains two parts: classroom events, including teaching strategies, and communicative features, which includes students' discourse. This study uses some, but not all, sections of both parts of the original COLT scheme, those that relate to speaking skills. The sections relevant to this study are listed below, as presented in Harley et al. (1990: 78-81), and explained in the DBP report (Allen et al., 1987, Vol. 2, 23-35). Part I describes the teaching strategies (Classroom events) used by instructors, whereas Part II assesses the resulting oral discourse of the teacher and students (Communicative features).

The abbreviations for the categories on the coding sheets (Appendix B), are described below between parentheses. For example, "Teacher to student or class, and vice versa", is represented by '(T - s/c)'.

Part I: Classroom events (Appendix B1)

The five sections of 'Classroom events' attempt to describe the teaching act. Classroom events consist of five categories: I Activities; II Participant organization; III Content; IV Materials; and V Coder's Notes. The activities in which teachers engage their students, the manner in which they organize the physical setting of their classrooms, the content of the subject matter discussed in class, and types of materials presented to students all help describe the teaching act. These factors also reflect the teacher's priorities in the classroom, as she has made choices to engage her students in certain activities while excluding others, and to discuss this material but not that. These five categories of "Classroom events" are described in the following way:

I Activities

The first parameter is open-ended; that is, no predetermined descriptors have to be checked off by the observer. Each activity

and its constituent episodes are separately described: drill, translation, discussion, game (separate activities). For example, the teacher introduces dialogue, teacher reads dialogue aloud, and students repeat dialogue parts after teacher. These are three episodes of one activity. The activities noted in this parameter are more specifically defined in the next chapter.

II Participant organization

This parameter describes three basic patterns of organization:

Whole class

1. Teacher to student or class, and vice versa - on Appendix B1 coded as (T - s/c).
2. Student to student, or student to class and vice versa (S - s/c).
3. Choral work by students (Choral).

Group work (where appropriate).

1. Groups all work on the same task (Same).
2. Groups work on different tasks (Different).

Combination (Comb.)

1. Individual seat work (Individual).
2. Group/individual work--some students are involved in group work, other work on their own (Gr/Ind.).

Groups When the teacher engaged her students in group work, the researcher indicated:

1. The number of groups in each class (# of groups).
2. The average number of students in each group (# of stu./group).
3. The extent to which the teacher monitored the groups during group tasks, but not during whole class discussions (Tea. monit.). Sometimes the students sat in desks that were already in groups, while at other times they sat on the floor in groups.

III Content

This parameter describes the subject matter of activities--that is, what the teacher and the students are talking about--and the language used to discuss the topics.

Language

1. Form: Explicit focus on grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation, including teacher providing French expression for English words spoken by students.
2. Function: Explicit focus on illocutionary acts such as requesting, apologizing, and explaining.

3. Discourse: Explicit focus on the way sentences combine into cohesive and coherent sequences.

4. Sociolinguistics: Explicit focus on the features of utterances that make them appropriate to particular contexts (Soc. ling.).

These four subcategories correspond to the four components of speaking outlined in sections 2.3.1--2.3.4 of the Literature Review of Chapter I (grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence). Form refers to grammatical competence, function to strategic competence; discourse and sociolinguistics keep the same label.

Subject matter

This is a tripartite system which deals with the subject matter of classroom discourse apart from the explicit focus on language. Three ranges of reference are included, as well as topic control, when they generated classroom discussion. Instances where students worked individually on written tasks, but did not talk, were not included in this category.

1. Narrow range of reference--references to the immediate classroom environment, and formulaic exchanges such as "Good morning", "How are you?", and references to the date, day of the week, and the weather, discourse that promotes discussion but has little conceptual content.

2. Limited range of reference--information that goes beyond the classroom while remaining conceptually limited: concrete personal experiences involving movies, hobbies, holidays, school topics including extra-curricular activities, and topics that relate to students' personal and family affairs, such as place of residence, number of brothers and sisters. This range includes definitions of conceptually limited vocabulary terms such as objects, classroom directions concerning activities and assignments, and discussions relating to classroom management.

3. Broad range of reference--topics that go well beyond the classroom and immediate personal experience and involve reference to public issues, world events, abstract ideas, and reflective personal information. Communicative theorists such as Brumfit (1984a) believe that teachers should spend more time promoting realistic broad range discussions. This range includes definitions of abstract vocabulary terms, such as

ideas, as well as much of the subject material in curriculum school subjects such as Social Studies, Math, and Science.

Topic control Who selects the topic that is being talked about--the teacher, the student, or both?

1. Teacher: If the teacher selects the topic, this may be done in conjunction with the subject of the materials presented to the class, such as the textbook.
2. Teacher/Student: Both teachers and students determine topic control in situations where the teacher may select a topic, and then give students considerable freedom in developing it, such as in creative writing and classroom discussions (Teacher/Student).
3. Student: Student(s) alone select the topic.

IV Materials (Material.)

This parameter introduces categories to describe the source and purpose of materials when used in connection with classroom activities.

1. L2--specifically designed for L2 teaching (Pedagogic L2). This category includes French grammar texts regardless of whether they were designed for second language learners or for native francophones.
2. L1--adapted, utilizing L1 materials or real objects and authentic texts, but in a modified form (Semi-Pedag.). This category includes Science, Social Studies, and Math texts that have been adapted for instructional purposes to the appropriate student level.
3. L1--materials originally intended for L1 or non-school purposes (Non-Pedag.). Advocates of the communicative approach have claimed that 'authentic' materials are essential in order to prepare students for the kinds of discourse they will encounter outside the classroom (Brumfit, 1981).
4. Other, including student made materials produced by the students themselves (student made).

V Coder's notes

Field notes supplementing the check marks provide contextual, background information and allow the researcher to indicate observations, insights, and potential questions that may arise during the coding operation. These questions could then be later pursued during the subsequent teacher and student interviews. The coder also noted the seating plan used during group work in this section.

Part II: Communicative features (Appendix B2)

Part II "Communicative features" codes the discourse spoken by teachers and students. It consists of four categories: I Activities; II Teacher verbal interaction; III Student verbal interaction; and IV Coder's notes. The new coding in this section occurs in "Teacher verbal interaction" and "Student verbal interaction". They are described in the following way:

I Activities (same as Part I, Appendix B1)

II Teacher verbal interaction

Use of target language (Target Lng.)

1. Use of first language (L1)
2. Use of second language (L2).

This feature is based on the assumption elaborated in Chapter I above that in order to acquire the target language students must speak it.

Information gap

This feature refers to the extent to which the information requested and/or exchanged is unpredictable (not known in advance). The discussion in the literature in Chapter I above suggests that communication is characterized by a high degree of unpredictability in language. This unpredictability fosters greater 'negotiation of meaning', as described above by Varonis and Gass (1985). The two categories designed to capture this feature are:

Giving information (Giv. Info.)

1. Predictable (Predic.)--the message is easily anticipated in that there is a very limited range of information that can be given. In the case of responses, only one answer is possible semantically, although there may be different correct grammatical realizations. This includes instances when the teacher orally repeats aloud information given by students.
2. Unpredictable (Unpred.)--the message is not easily anticipated in that there is a wide range of information than can be given. If a number of responses are possible, they can provide different information.

Requesting information (Requ. Info)

1. Display request (Pseudo)--the speaker already possesses the information requested.
2. Information request (Genuine)--the information requested is not known in advance.

Sustained speech (Sust. Sp.)

This feature is intended to measure the extent to which speakers engage in extended discourse in French, or restrict their utterances to a minimal length of one sentence, clause, or word. Utterances in English are not counted. This feature addresses the findings of several researchers which suggest that immersion students do not have enough opportunity to speak French in extended discourse (Harley, 1985; Swain & Carrol, 1987; Harley et al, 1990). The categories designed to measure this feature are:

1. Ultraminimal--utterances that consist of one word (for students only), including one word with articles (e.g. *les pommes*).
2. Minimal--utterances that consist of one clause or sentence.
3. Sustained--utterances that are longer than one sentence, or that consist of at least two main clauses.

Oral discussion is included in this category, but oral reading is not.

Reaction to code or message (Rct. Co/Mes.)--where applicable*

1. Explicit code--a correction or other explicit statement that draws attention to the linguistic incorrectness of an utterance (Explicit Code).
2. Reaction message (Re. Message)--a correction or other explicit statement that draws attention to the factual incorrectness of an utterance.

This feature is closely related to the 'content' parameter of Part I, specifically to the debate surrounding whether language learners should focus on the grammatical correctness of the form or on the meaning and message of discourse. This study hypothesizes that learners should focus more on the message than on form because message corresponds more to natural language use, and it provides more opportunity for students to negotiate meaning.

*'Reaction to code or message' was only completed when there was a verbal response by the listener to the speaker. In some cases, as in student oral presentations or in teacher directions, the listener did not verbally respond.

III Student verbal interaction

In addition to the same four parameters of Teacher verbal interaction, Student verbal interaction also has three further measures that apply only to student talk: Choral responses, Discourse initiation, and Form Restriction.

Choral

This measure codes the number of choral responses by students during classroom discussion.

Discourse initiation (Disc. Initiation)

This feature measures the frequency of self-initiated turns (spontaneously initiated talk) by students. This discourse initiation often occurs when students speak out of turn in small and large groups discussions by interrupting their interlocutor. Advocates of the communicative language approach argue that students should be encouraged to initiate more discourse themselves, much like children learning their first language, instead of merely responding to questions imposed on them by their second language teacher. Although it would have perhaps been easier to code the discourse initiation in Part I, I chose to include it in Part II because it did not describe classroom events like the other parameters of Part I. I noted raw scores of discourse initiation, unlike the scores of other features which were tabulated according to minutes spent on each activity.

Relative restriction of linguistic form (Form Rest.)

Two categories examine the degree of restriction placed on student talk:

1. Restricted: The production or manipulation of one specific form is expected, as in a transformation or substitution drill, or in the form of a short answer, such as yes or no.
2. Unrestricted: There is no expectation of any particular linguistic form, as in free conversation, oral reports, or personal diary writing.

The literature on communicative teaching calls for activities in which learners can practice getting a message across with whatever resources happen to be available, thus developing the type of skill referred to in Chapter I above as 'strategic competence' (Canale & Swain, 1980). Many L2 teachers appear to restrict their students

use of free language. This category describes the degree of restriction imposed on students' discourse.

Note. From "Aspects of classroom treatment: towards a more comprehensive view of second language education" by P. Allen et al., 1990, In B. Harley et al. (eds.), *The Development of Second Language Proficiency*, pps. 78-81, by P. Allen. Adapted by permission.

4.1.3 Coding procedures

I conducted the coding in Part I, 'Classroom events', in real time, that is, while present in the classroom during the observation period. The activities were timed, with the starting time for each activity entered in the left-hand margin of the coding form. A new coding line was used for each new activity. Transitional time between activities was treated as an activity in itself, and coded separately. I attempted to divide activities that continued longer than 20 minutes into sub-categories. For example, a 34 minute math lesson on fractions was subdivided into sub-activities of review, teacher directions, guided practice, and a small group task.

I began by describing each activity. For the major categories generating quantitative data in Part I--Participant organization, Content, and Materials--vertical check marks were placed in the appropriate boxes. During a single activity several subsections were often marked as I swept across the coding sheet several times placing check marks in the appropriate columns. For example, under the category 'Subject matter', there were sometimes instances of all sub-categories (narrow, limited, and broad ranges of reference). In these cases, I placed check marks in the appropriate boxes for each of the participants' range of reference.

After all the data were collected, the check marks were totalled for each category in accordance with the time spent on that activity. In cases where two or more categories were marked under the same heading (for example, length of student discourse during a 10 minute whole class discussion), each of the 'ultraminimal', 'minimal', and 'sustained' categories received proportional credit for the 10

minutes based on their number of total check marks. For example, if 'ultraminimal' received 6 check marks, 'minimal' 10, and 'sustained' 4, for a total of 20 check marks, 'ultraminimal' would receive credit for 3 minutes, 'minimal' (5), and 'sustained' (2)--for a total of 10 minutes. The credit for similar categories in identical activities in the same lesson were then collapsed together in preparing the final data profile for each teacher. Categories under different headings were coded separately. For example, during a five minute class discussion, both teacher and students would be credited for a total of five minutes.

This same coding strategy was used for the other quantitative categories in Parts I and II. I also wrote supplementary field notes (Parameter V, Coder's notes) to provide greater contextual observations and insight to the data generated by the check marks.

I performed the coding for Part II, "Communicative features", after the observed lesson. This coding was based on audio recordings of each of the activities. I had taped the lessons using a "Bell/Howell 31916 tape recorder" and a "Realistic PZM" microphone, so the data for Part II could always be consulted and verified by reviewing the audio-recordings. The cassette was allowed to continue recording during the entire observation period, but coding in Part II only started at the beginning of each activity and lasted for only one minute, resuming after a two minute interval. I had to therefore move the cassette forward two minutes after each one minute of coding the same activity. Thus approximately one-third of the observed time for each class was coded in Part II.

During the one minute coding periods, the frequency of occurrence of each subcategory of the communicative features was noted on one line of the coding sheet. As in Part I, I swept across the coding sheet several times during the one minute interval, checking in the appropriate columns for each speaker. The tape recorder could always be stopped and replayed in cases of uncertainty. One minute represented an advance of approximately 13 to 20 points on the cassette player counter (depending on the cassette tape), so with a time clock it proved relatively easy to monitor accurately the appropriate advance.

During student group tasks and discussion, teacher discourse time was only indicated for the portion of the activity that the teacher was involved in the discussion of the one minute segments that were being taped.

The following class discussion between the teacher (T) and two students (S1 & S2) illustrates this coding strategy

| <u>Utterance</u> | <u>Communicative Feature</u> |
|---|---|
| T. <i>Classe, sortez vos cahiers de sciences humaines.</i> | L2/ Unpredictable giv. info./ minimal. |
| T. <i>Qui peut résumer ce que nous avons appris hier? Daniel.</i> | L2/ Genuine info. request/ sustained. |
| S1. <i>Nous avons appris la sorte de musique que jouaient les Incas au Pérou.</i> | L2/ Unpred. info. giv./ Minimal/ Unrestricted/ Re. message. |
| T. <i>D'accord. Qu'est-ce que nous pouvons dire de leur musique? Sarah.</i> | L2/ Pseudo info. req./ Sustained/ Re. message. |
| S2. <i>Qu'ils faisaient des instruments de bois, des flutes.</i> | L2/ Unpred. info. giv./ Minimal/ Unrestricted/ Re. message. |

Some lessons included both whole class and small group science activities, while others consisted of only one or the other. During activities involving the whole class, the teacher and all students were included on the same coding sheet. During group work, I focused my recording and coding on one group of students, chosen randomly, for 10 minutes, and then changed to another group every subsequent 10 minutes until the end of the observed lesson. During these activities the microphone was placed in the group, and I withdrew in order to reduce the influence of my presence.

4.2 Interviews

4.2.1 Post-observation interviews with teachers

The teachers were interviewed using the questions of Appendix C after each of the four lessons, and for a longer period after the last observation. Appendix C (Interview Questions with Teachers after the Classroom Observations) consists of 10 questions designed to provide the following information: 1) greater contextual understanding of the particular sites than could be acquired during the three days of observations; 2) greater insight into the teachers' and students' perceptions of the events that occurred during the observed lessons, and 3) better understanding of the intentions and motivations of the subjects' behavior during the observations. Although the COLT scheme provides useful data, the numbers generated can prove even more meaningful through subsequent discussion and further probing. Moreover, the teacher's perceptions of what has occurred may differ from those of the researcher, thus providing the latter with information for further reflection.

Question 1 solicited the teachers' general perceptions of the four observed lessons. The four parts of Question 2 (A,B,C,D) attempt to place the observed lessons into the daily reality of the classroom by asking the teacher to compare the oral expression of her students during the observed activity with their normal production in similar lessons. I asked this question as soon as possible after each observed lesson.

Question 3 asks the teacher to assess the normal length and frequency of oral production of her students. The answers to this question will also place the observed lessons in a more normal

context of the classroom. Questions 4 and 5 aim to judge the value placed by the teacher on the length and frequency of her students' discourse in French .

In a similar vein, Questions 6, 7, and 8 intend to identify the strategies, if any, used by EFI teachers to promote the use of French in class by their students. I hypothesize that the teachers' efforts will influence the frequency of French spoken by students.

4.2.2. Post-observation Interviews with Students

Following the final classroom observation, I also conducted group interviews with five students using Appendix D. The teachers selected the students, attempting to form a representative sample of the entire class in terms of academic achievement, their social status with peers, and sex. The teachers also chose students who tended to freely express their opinions regarding classroom events. The interviews were primarily designed to determine the effect of different teaching strategies on the students' perceptions of the length, frequency, and quality of their French speaking skills, the importance they place on speaking French, and any relationship that they may perceive between the teaching strategies used by their teacher and their own oral expression.

4.3 Trial of instruments

The successful development, deployment, and published results of data collected using the COLT scheme by the OISE researchers offered a model to guide this current study. I also practiced using the coding scheme on several occasions in different immersion classrooms before collecting the data, and I clarified some minor obstacles by consulting with COLT's main architect, Dr. Patrick

Allen, at OISE. The interview questions were also informally tested on some teachers before the study began.

5. SUMMARY

This chapter described the research design. Data were collected from three sources: (a) interviews with teachers, (b) interviews with students, and (c) classroom observations.

I began by conducting four classroom observations of six Grades 5-7 EFI teachers in School District #43 (Coquitlam) using an adaptation of the COLT coding scheme (Appendix B). I designated 3 of the 6 teachers as experiential and 3 as analytic based on preliminary interviews (Appendix A). Regardless of their designation, all teachers were asked to teach 2 communicative lessons and 2 structural lessons. Therefore, I observed a total of 24 lessons, 12 analytic and 12 experiential.

After the four classroom observations in each class, I interviewed separately the teacher and a group of five students (Appendices C and D). The qualitative data generated from the interviews was designed to complement the quantitative findings from the observations. The observations analyzed the length of student discourse, whereas the interviews examined the frequency. In the next chapter I present the data analysis procedures and research findings.

CHAPTER III ANALYSIS PROCEDURES AND RESEARCH FINDINGS

I. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the data which address the research questions posed in Groups A and B. Most of the Group A data was generated from the quantitative results from the COLT coding scheme. Some qualitative field notes also supplemented the check marks. The qualitative findings from the interviews with students and teachers correspond to the Group B questions. The applicable data are presented in tables and charts, and the accompanying text draws the reader's attention to the most noteworthy findings. The results are discussed in more detail in Chapter IV.

2. RESEARCH QUESTIONS - GROUP A

Group A consists of five guiding questions. They include:

- a. How frequently do EFL teachers engage their students in direct instruction and group tasks?
- b. Do some instructional practices increase the amount of student classroom discourse more than others?
- c. Do experiential, fluency approaches such as cooperative learning strategies and group work promote greater student discourse than analytic orientations characterized by lock-step, direct instruction?
- d. What specific activities promote the greatest quantity of EFL student discourse in the target language?
- e. How do other second language constructs influence the length of student discourse for experiential and analytic teaching? These parameters include the sorts of questions asked by teachers and students (pseudo or genuine), the nature of information (predictable or unpredictable) exchanged by teachers and students, the relative restriction placed on student talk, the subject matter and language spoken, discourse initiation by students, and the source and purpose of materials.

2.1 Data analysis procedures

To address these questions I began by categorizing the observed activities (Column I, "Activities", Appendix B--Part I): into four main groups:

- I. Student dominated discussion,
- II. Teacher dominated discussion,
- III. Activities characterized by teacher monologue,
- IV. Activities characterized by little or no teacher or student talk.

This categorization was based on the evidence presented in Chapter I which supports the desirability of extended student discourse in classroom activities. Group I is characterized by active student oral participation. Group II involves discussion with some student participation, but with more teacher participation. This second approach is more of a lock-step, direct instructional one as opposed to one oriented toward fluency. Groups' III and IV approaches offer little opportunity for students to speak French in extended discourse, and like Group II, they tend to be oriented toward student accuracy.

The observed activities are defined as follows:

I. STUDENT DOMINATED DISCUSSION

- Oral presentation (ORAL PRESENT.). Student(s) make(s) an oral presentation to a small group or to the entire class.
- Whole class discussion-student led (WHOLE CLASS DISC.-STUDENT) Oral discussion with entire class, with a student playing the dominant role.
- Small group discussion (SMALL GROUP DISC). Students discuss a topic in small groups, without simultaneously working on another non-oral task (e.g. conducting an experiment, or answering written questions). Small group discussion also includes brainstorming.
- Small group task. This activity is similar to small group discussion, but it differs in that it includes discussion as well as students simultaneously completing a non-oral task.
- Class meeting. A form of whole class discussion guided by the issues that students raise as opposed to subject matter introduced by the teacher.

II. TEACHER DOMINATED DISCUSSION

- Whole class discussion-teacher dominated. (WHOLE CLASS DISC.-TEACH.). Oral discussion between teacher and entire class of students, with the teacher playing the dominant role. This activity often takes the form of a lock-step lesson.

- Introduction. A form of whole class discussion where the teacher aims to introduce the main theme of the lesson.
- Vocabulary definitions. Teacher discusses/provides definitions of vocabulary terms with/to students.
- Text analysis. A reading activity where the teacher combines oral reading with an explanation and analysis of the text, such as vocabulary and the author's style. This activity differs from "Vocabulary definitions" in that the vocabulary is discussed in the context of the text.
- Error analysis. Identification of errors in written and oral French; led by the teacher with participation from the entire class.
- Exercise correction. Teacher orally corrects written exercise(s) with students. The teacher may sometimes display the correct answer on the overhead or blackboard.
- Oral game. A form of whole class discussion guided by a game.
- Review. Teacher orally reviews concepts and knowledge already covered in previous lessons. This would include homework.
- Conclusion. Teacher provides closure to a lesson, usually by giving final directions and instructions.

III. (MONOLOGUE ACTIVITIES) Activities characterized by teacher monologue.

- Teacher directions. Teacher gives directions to students, describing the task and identifying the materials that students require to complete it.
- Oral reading. Predominantly students perform, but occasionally teacher orally reads a written text.
- Teacher instruction. Teacher explains a concept to students.

IV. (NO DISCUSSION ACTIVITIES) Activities characterized by little or no teacher or student talk.

- Written task. Students completed written tasks individually, while seated in their desks. This category includes open ended tasks such as free compositions.
- Written exercise. A specific type of written task where students complete closed activities (e.g. verb conjugations and work sheets) with one correct answer.
- Guided practise (GUID. PRACT.) A form of written exercise that is corrected soon after completion, in order to give students prompt feedback in one specific skill area.

- Organization (ORGANIZATN). Students prepare for the next activity by putting away books and materials from the previous activity, and in some cases, taking out new ones for the next activity. This category also includes classroom and desk housekeeping.

An association is made between the activity in which teachers engage their students and the teaching strategies that they use. Other factors can also contribute to the definition of the instructional strategy practiced by a teacher. Many of these other variables were observed and measured in this study with the COLT observation scheme (Appendix B), and they are presented later in this section. This study proceeds, however, with the premise that the task given to students constitutes the primary determining variable, and that the others only play descriptive, supporting roles. The activities, and their corresponding effect on the length of classroom discourse spoken by EFL students are presented first. This discussion is followed by a comparison of some of the coding scheme's other measures--e.g. discourse initiation and restriction on student talk--for selected experiential and analytic activities.

After the observed activities were categorized, the check marks were totalled for each category and for each teacher in accordance with the time spent on that activity. For example, in an eight minute segment of the activity "Whole class discussion - teacher led" of one of Teacher E's lessons, the coder noted a total of 16 check marks for the parameter "Whole Class" in category II, "Participant Organization" (see Appendix B1). Ten of the check marks were allocated to "Teacher-student/class", and 6 check marks to "Student-student/class". Based on the length of eight minutes, a

count of 5 was therefore allocated to "Teacher-student/class" ($10/16=5/8$), and 3 was allocated to "Student-student/class" ($6/16=3/8$).

Next, I calculated the proportion of time of each lesson devoted to different activities by each teacher over four lessons. This was done by dividing the total length of the lesson by the total number of minutes each teacher spent on each activity. The total time of the four observed lessons varied from one teacher to the next. Teacher A was observed for a total of 122 minutes, Teacher B 131 minutes, Teacher C 126 minutes, Teacher D 124 minutes, Teacher E 149 minutes, and Teacher F 102 minutes. Due to the variation in times, the counts for each activity were allocated in accordance with the proportion of time each teacher spent on the particular activity.

For example, teacher A spent 6 minutes out of a 38 minute lesson on student "Oral presentations" in Group I, thus receiving a score of .16 ($6/38$) for that activity. Teacher A used oral presentations in only one lesson. If he had used this activity in other lessons, the scores would have been added to .16 to determine the final score for that teacher and that activity. In one of his Group II activities, "Introduction", his coincidentally same score of (.16) was a combination of 2 out of 28 minutes in one lesson (.07), 2 out of 38 minutes in another (.05), and 1 out of 26 minutes in a third (.04). Therefore $.07 + .05 + .04 = .16$.

The credit for similar parameters (e.g. "Teacher-student/class") in the same activity (e.g. small group task) were then collapsed together in preparing the final data profile of each teacher. Activity

and category totals were then calculated for all 6 teachers by adding together the teacher totals.

2.2 Presentation of findings related to Group A questions

2.2.1 Frequency of activities

Tables 3.1A and 3.1B display these results. Table 3.1A presents the proportion of time spent by individual teachers on the observed activities over four lessons, and Table 3.1B displays the proportion of time of the six teachers combined. Each lesson was statistically represented as a discourse unit of 1.0. Thus, the totals for each teacher in Table 3.1A is approximately 4.0 (4 lessons), and for all 6 teachers in Table 3.1B is approximately 24.0 (4 X 6=24).

**Table 3.1A Length of Time per Activity:
Mean Proportions of Observed Time for Individual Teachers**

| ACTIVITY TIME (4 LES.) | <i>Analytic Teachers</i> | | <i>Experiential Teachers</i> | | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------|------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | TEACHER A | TEACHER B | TEACHER C | TEACHER D | TEACHER E | TEACHER F |
| I | STUDENT | DOMINATED | DISCUSSION | | | |
| ORAL PRESENT. | 0.16 | 0.20 | 0 | 0 | 0.14 | 0.20 |
| WHOLE CLASS DISC. - STUD. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.27 | 0 | 0 |
| SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION | 0. | 0.65 | 0 | 0.37 | 0.36 | 0.23 |
| SMALL GROUP TASK | 0 | 0.30 | 0.50 | 0.56 | 1.31 | 0.84 |
| CLASS MEETING | 0 | 0 | 0.40 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| GROUP I TOTALS | 0.16 | 1.15 | 0.90 | 1.20 | 1.81 | 1.27 |
| II | TEACHER | DOMINATED | DISCUSSION | | | |
| WHOLE CLASS DISC. - TEACH. | 0.66 | 0.81 | 0.77 | 0.93 | 0.48 | 0.74 |
| INTRODUCTION | 0.16 | 0.15 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ORAL GAME | 0 | 0 | 0.86 | 0.14 | 0 | 0 |
| VOCABULARY DEFINITIONS | 1.53 | 0.08 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| TEXT ANALYSIS | 0 | 0 | 0.74 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ERROR ANALYSIS | 0.79 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.24 | 0 |
| EXERCISE CORRECTION | 0 | 0.23 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| REVIEW | 0 | 0 | 0.25 | 0 | 0.06 | 0 |
| CONCLUSION | 0.07 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.2 | 0 |
| GROUP II TOTALS | 3.22 | 1.27 | 2.62 | 1.16 | 0.98 | 0.74 |
| III | MONOLOGUE | ACTIVITIES | | | | |
| TEACHER DIR. | 0.08 | 0.48 | 0.25 | 0.77 | 0.34 | 0.56 |
| ORAL READING | 0.07 | 0.40 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.30 |
| TEACHER IN. | 0.15 | 0.10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| GROUP III TOTAL | 0.30 | .98 | 0.25 | 0.77 | 0.34 | 0.86 |
| IV | NO | DISCUSSION | ACTIVITIES | | | |
| WRITTEN TASK | 0.17 | 0 | 0.20 | 0 | 0 | 0.10 |
| WRITTEN EX. | 0 | 0.28 | 0 | 0.67 | 0 | 0 |
| GUID. PRACT. | 0 | .20 | 0 | 0.20 | 0.74 | 0 |
| ORGANIZATN. | 0.15 | 0.12 | 0.07 | 0 | 0.13 | 1.03 |
| GROUP IV TOTALS | 0.32 | 0.60 | 0.23 | 0.87 | 0.87 | 1.13 |
| GROUP TOTALS | 4.00 | 4.00 | 4.00 | 4.00 | 4.00 | 4.00 |

Numbers represent proportion of time devoted to different activities by each teacher during each of the four observed lessons. Thus the total for each teacher (rounded off to the nearest one hundredth) is approximately 4.0, and for all 6 teachers combined is approximately 24.0.

Table 3.1B Length of Time per Activity: Mean Proportions and Percentages of Observed Time for all Teachers

| I ACTIVITY | II PROPORTION OF | III TIME |
|-------------------|-------------------|---------------|
| TIME (24 LESSONS) | TIME PER ACTIVITY | PERCENTAGE |
| | | OF EACH GROUP |

| I | STUDENT DOMINATED | DISCUSSION |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------|-------------|
| ORAL PRESENTATION | 0.70 | |
| WHOLE CLASS DISCUSSION - STUDENTS | 0.27 | |
| SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION | 1.62 | |
| SMALL GROUP TASK | 3.51 | |
| CLASS MEETING | 0.40 | |
| GROUP I TOTALS | 6.50 | 27 % |

| II | TEACHER DOMINATED | DISCUSSION |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|-------------|
| WHOLE CLASS DISCUSSION - TEACHER | 4.39 | |
| INTRODUCTION | 0.45 | |
| ORAL GAME | 0.86 | |
| VOCABULARY DEFIN. | 1.62 | |
| TEXT ANALYSIS | 0.74 | |
| ERROR ANALYSIS | 1.03 | |
| EXERCISE CORRECTION | 0.23 | |
| REVIEW | 0.41 | |
| CONCLUSION | 0.27 | |
| GROUP II TOTALS | 10.00 | 42 % |

| III | MONOLOGUE | ACTIVITIES |
|-------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| TEACHER DIRECTIONS | 2.48 | |
| ORAL READING | 1.08 | |
| TEACHER INSTRUCTIONS | 0.20 | |
| GROUP III TOTALS | 3.76 | 16 % |

| IV | NO DISCUSSION | ACTIVITIES |
|------------------------|---------------|-------------|
| WRITTEN TASK | 0.47 | |
| WRITTEN EXERCISE | 0.94 | |
| GUIDED PRACTICE | 0.98 | |
| ORGANIZATION | 1.35 | |
| GROUP IV TOTALS | 3.81 | 15 % |

| | | |
|--------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| TOTALS ALL GROUPS | 24.00 | 100 % |
|--------------------------|--------------|--------------|

Numbers in Column I represent the proportional frequency all 6 teachers each spent on each activity during 4 lessons. Thus a max. score for Col. II is 24.0 (i.e. 6 teachers x 4 lessons each = 24.0). The numbers in Column III represent the percentage of frequency all 6 teachers spent on each group of activities.

In Table 3.1A for example, Teacher A has a score of (.16) for "Oral presentations", and a score of (.16) for the entire Group I because this activity was the only one that Teacher A practiced in this group. His highest group score is Group II, 3.22¹, which represents almost 80% of his 4.0 total score over four lessons.

a) Student dominated discussion

The teachers designated experiential (Teachers D, E, F) spent more time (1.2, 1.81, 1.27 respectively, for a total of 4.28) on activities in Group I than teachers designated analytic (Teachers A, B, C--16, 1.15, .9 respectively, for a total of 2.21). Teacher A in particular used very little (.16) fluency oriented activities, whereas Teacher E scored the highest at (1.81). "Small group task" was the most prevalent activity in Group I (3.51), and the second most frequent in all groups. If it were combined with a very similar activity, "Small group discussion", (1.62), the combined score for this activity (5.13) would make it the most frequently used activity. Moreover, the teachers designated analytic, A, B, and C, scored very high on group II activities. Teachers A (3.22) and C (2.62) were particularly high. On the other hand, the teachers designated experiential (D, E, and F--1.16, .98, and .74 respectively) were not prevalent in Group II.

Table 3.1B synthesizes the individual teacher results from Table 3.1A and displays the proportion of observed time per activity and

¹ Scores for the proportion of length of time per activity are presented in decimal form. 1.0 represents the maximum score for 1 lesson, and 4.0 the maximum for 4 lessons. Therefore some of the scores are sometimes greater than 1.0 (e.g.3.22) for Teacher A in Group II. This decimal format of scores contrasts with the percentages used in Section 2.4 below to indicate the length of student discourse by activity. The percentages are presented as X% (e.g.16%).

the percentage of time spent on each group by all teachers. Column II displays the proportion of time all teachers spent on each activity. Column III displays the percentage of time spent on each group of activities by all teachers, i.e., the total of each group divided by 24 (4 lessons X 6 teachers).

b) Teacher dominated discussion

Table 3.1B and Figure 3.1A show that the second largest block of time (27%--Col. III, Table 3.1B) was spent on Group I activities (Student dominated discussion). The largest block of time (42%) was spent on Group II (Teacher dominated discussion) activities. Teachers had been asked to teach two communicative lessons producing "*beaucoup de français*" by students and an equal number of structural lessons producing "*peu de français*". Instead, the structural activities were 15% (42%-27%) more frequent.

"Whole group discussions-teacher dominated" was the most common activity in all groups. It received the highest number of check marks, and scored 4.39 out of a maximum of 24 for all activities. "Whole group discussion-teacher led" was also fairly well distributed among all teachers, ranging from a low of .48 (Teacher F), to .93 (Teacher E).

Figure 3.1A presents in graphic form the data from Tables 3.1A and 3.1B. It indicates the average percentage of observed time for each group of activities. Group II has the highest percentage (42%), Group I next at (27%), and Group IV the lowest, with (15%). Figure 3.1B shows the relative proportion of time each teacher spent on the most prevalent activities. "Whole class discussion-teacher led" was the single most frequently observed activity at (4.39).

Fig 3.1A

Figure 3.1A Length of Time per Group of Activities: Mean Percentages of Observed Time for all Teachers

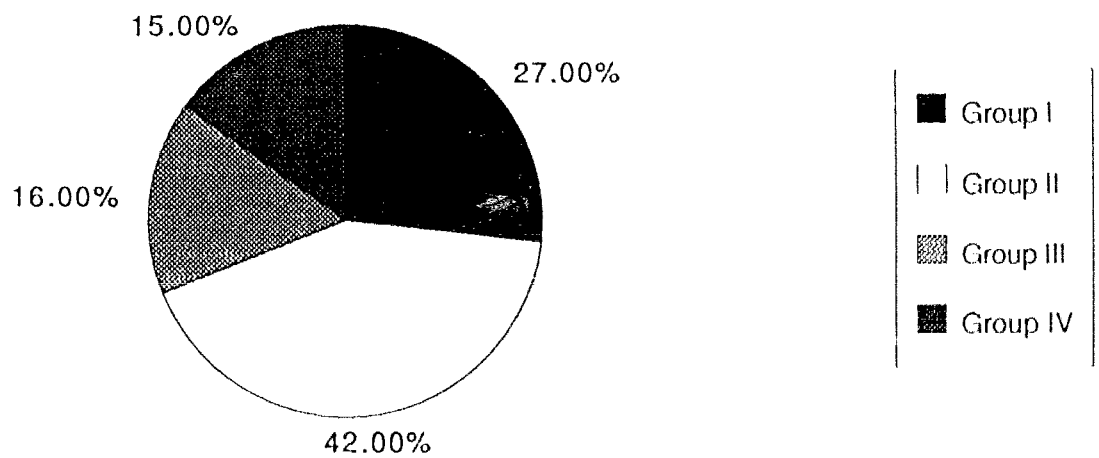
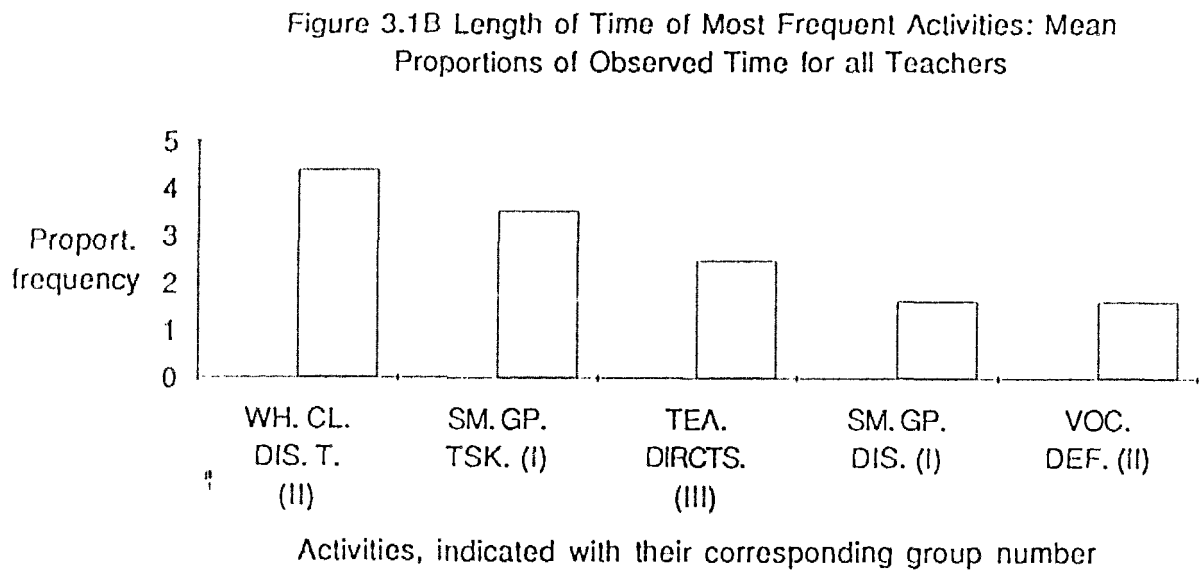


Fig 3.1B



c) Monologue and no discussion activities

Relatively little time (.16 and .15) was spent on Group III and IV activities. The data for these groups does not appear noteworthy, except that the experiential Teachers (D, E, F) engaged their students in more "No discussion activities" of Group IV (.87, .87, 1.13) than their analytic counterparts.

d) Classroom observations

I noted several examples of direct instruction and cooperative learning while coding the classroom observations. Several teachers frequently used direct instruction. For example, even during designated communicative lessons, Teachers A and B used direct instruction. Teacher A in particular used it almost exclusively. Teacher B would sometimes interrupt his teacher dominated activity with a short group task, but soon after revert back to direct instruction.

Teachers C, D, and E used direct instruction for the two designated structural activities, and mostly group tasks for the communicative ones. Teacher F did not practice any direct instruction at all. She did lead her students in several whole class discussions. They were, however, very conducive to extended student participation, and they were not designed to directly instruct the pupils.

Although students in 5 of the 6 classes were regularly seated in groups, this seating arrangement did not necessarily mean that they participated in group tasks. Conversely, Teacher E had her students in rows (where they sat for the structural activities), but they later sat on the floor in groups for the communicative tasks.

I observed some of the cooperative learning models described in Chapter I. Teacher D used Slavin's Teams Games Tournament, Teacher F practiced a version of Kagan's Coop for a Science project, and Teachers B, C, D and E engaged their students in versions of the Johnsons' Learning Together approach. These models were most prevalent when teachers gave students tasks which linked them together with positive interdependence. In other cases, especially during discussion, the group work could not be categorized as cooperative learning.

e) Summary

To summarize, the six teachers instructed their students using direct instruction much more frequently than with group work. Both the quantitative data from the coding scheme and my classroom observations confirmed this finding. Some teachers in some lessons offered group tasks to their students, but collectively they did not do so as often as they used direct instruction.

2.4 Length of student discourse by activity

Table 3.2A presents results correlating the different activities with the length of student discourse. It displays the percentage of student discourse allocated to ultramiminal, minimal, and sustained discourse for each activity by all teachers. Columns II, III, and IV for each row of Table 3.2A equal 1.0.

**Table 3.2A Length of Student Discourse per Activity:
Mean Percentages of Observed Time for all Teachers**

| I ACTIVITY TIME (24 LESS) | II ULTRAMIN. | III MINIMAL | IV SUSTAINED | V PROPORT. COUNTS |
|--|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------------------|
| I STUDENT DOMINATED DISCUSSION | | | | |
| ORAL PRESENTATION | 0.04 | 0.29 | 0.67 | 24 |
| WHOLE CLASS DISCUSSION - STUDENT | 0 | 0 | 1.00 | 5 |
| SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION | 0 | 0.38 | 0.62 | 52 |
| SMALL GROUP TASK | 0.11 | 0.33 | 0.56 | 80 |
| CLASS MEETING | 0 | 0.14 | 0.86 | 14 |
| GROUP I AVERAGE | .03 | .23 | .74 | GP. TOT. 175 |
| II TEACHER DOMINATED DISCUSSION | | | | |
| WHOLE CLASS DISCUSSION.- TEACHER | 0.35 | 0.40 | 0.25 | 144 |
| INTRODUCTION | 0.37 | 0.38 | 0.25 | 16 |
| ORAL GAME | 0.16 | 0.50 | 0.34 | 18 |
| VOCABULARY DEFINIT. | 0.43 | 0.45 | 0.12 | 42 |
| TEXT ANALYSIS | 0.30 | 0.60 | 0.10 | 33 |
| ERROR ANALYSIS | 0.22 | 0.64 | 0.14 | 45 |
| EXERCISE CORRECTION | 0.22 | 0.67 | 0.11 | 9 |
| REVIEW | 0.38 | 0.50 | 0.12 | 16 |
| CONCLUSION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 27 * |
| GROUP II AVERAGE | .30 | .52 | .18 | GP. TOT. 323 |
| III MONOLOGUE ACTIVITIES | | | | |
| TEACHER DIRECTIONS | 0.26 | 0.56 | 0.18 | 60 |
| ORAL READING | 0.11 | 0.44 | 0.45 | 9 |
| TEACHER INSTRUCTION | 0.93 | 0.07 | 0 | 14 |
| GROUP III AVERAGE | .43 | .36 | .21 | GP. TOT. 83 |
| IV NO DISCUSSION ACTIVITIES | | | | |
| WRITTEN TASK | 0 | 0.63 | 0.37 | 8 |
| WRITTEN EXERCISES | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| GUIDED PRACTICE | 0.16 | 0.65 | 0.19 | 31 |
| ORGANIZATION | 1 | 0.61 | 0.29 | 31 |
| GROUP IV AVERAGE | .08 | .63 | .29 | GP. TOT. 70 |
| | | | | |
| | | | | 651 TOTAL |

* This total of .27 for the "Conclusion" is due to Teacher discourse. Students did not generate any discourse during this activity.

Numbers represent the percentage of checkmarks that the coder allocated to students speaking in ultraminimal, minimal, and sustained discourse for each activity over the 4 observed lessons by all 6 teachers. Thus each row is calculated over a possible 24 lessons.

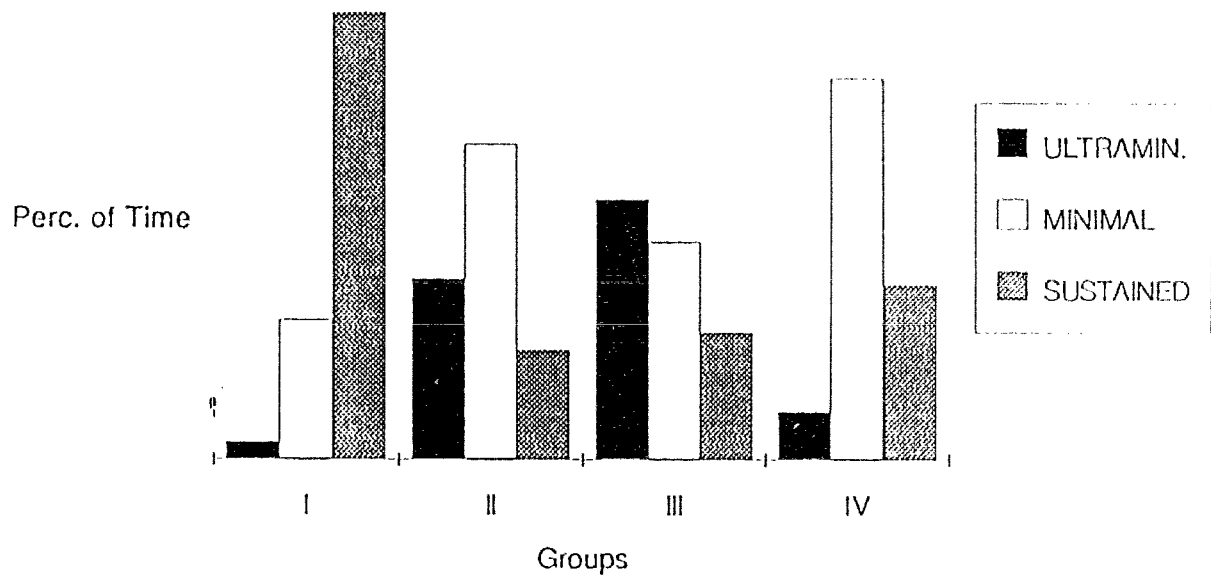
a) Sustained talk

Table 3.2A and Figure 3.2 show that most sustained student talk (utterances that are longer than one sentence, or that consist of at least two main clauses) occurred during Group I activities, with an average of (74%). "Class meetings" (86%), "Oral presentations" (67%), "Small group discussion" (62%), and "Small group tasks" (56%) were the individual activities which produced the most sustained discourse.

The least sustained talk occurred in Group II (18%). The activities in Group II which focused on language accuracy, such as "Vocabulary definitions" (12%), "Error analysis" (14%), "Text analysis" (10%), and "Exercise correction" (11%) were especially low. While conducting the observations I noted that much of the sustained discourse in Group III came from students' clarification of teacher directions (44%).

Fig. 3.2

Figure 3.2 Length of Student Discourse per Group of Activities: Mean Percentages of Observed Time for all Teachers



b) Ultraminimal talk

Most "ultraminimal" student discourse (utterances that consist of one word, or one word with an accompanying article) occurred in Group III (43%) and Group II (30%) activities. The activities that produced the most ultraminimal talk were "Teacher instruction" (93%) in Group III, and "Vocabulary definitions" (43%), "Review" (38%), "Introduction" (37%), and "Whole class discussion-teacher led" (35%) in Group II. The least "minimal" speech occurred in Group I (3%). "Whole class discussions-student led", "Small group discussions", and "Class meetings" were the activities that produced the least ultraminimal talk. All these activities were 0%. I observed that most of the ultraminimal talk in these groups was one word student answers to teacher questions and directions. These were most prevalent during "Whole class discussions" dominated by teachers.

c) Minimal talk

"Minimal" student talk (utterances that consist of one clause or short sentence) was comparable among the four groups. It ranged from 23% (Group I) to 63% (Group IV).

For reference Appendices E1, E2, E3, E4, E5, and E6 present the percentage of observed time of student discourse allocated to ultraminimal, minimal, and sustained speech individually for each teacher. Appendix E1 illustrates Teacher A's results, Appendix E2 Teacher B's results etc.. This data was collectively tallied to prepare Table 3.2A.

2.4.1 Analytic versus communicative teachers

Table 3.3 compares the length of student discourse by teachers. Teachers A and B generated the most "ultraminimal" student talk (3% and 38% respectively), whereas Teachers E and F scored lowest at (15% and 8%). Conversely, Teachers E and F scored highest in "sustained" speech (45% each), while Teachers A and C were the lowest at (13% and 15%). The 6 teachers compared most favorably for the "minimal" speech measure, ranging from a low of 31% for Teacher B to a high of 57% for Teacher A.

**Table 3.3 Length of Student Discourse by Teacher:
Mean Percentages of Observed Counts for all Activities**

| Teacher | Ultraminimal | Minimal | Sustained |
|---|--------------|---------|-----------|
| <hr/> | | | |
| Analytic group | | | |
| A | 30% | 57% | 13% |
| B | 38% | 31% | 31% |
| C | 24% | 51% | 25% |
| <hr/> | | | |
| Experiential group | | | |
| D | 15% | 45% | 40% |
| E | 15% | 40% | 45% |
| F | 08% | 47% | 45% |
| <hr/> | | | |
| Mean | 23% | 45% | 32% |
| Restricted (Ultraminimal + Minimal, 23+45=68%) | | | |
| <hr/> | | | |

Total counts N= 291

These data suggest that I had correctly designated Teachers A, B, and C as analytic, and Teachers D, E, and F as experiential. The analytic teachers' (A, B, C) students spoke significantly more ($p < .05$) ultraminimal speech (30%, 38%, 24%) than the experiential teachers (15%, 15%, 08%--D, E, F)). The experiential teachers' students, on the other hand, spoke significantly more sustained talk (40%, 45%, 45%) than the analytic group (13%, 31%, 24%).

Teachers A and B differed markedly in all the measures from Teachers E and F, while Teachers C and D appeared to score rather similarly to one another. The individual teacher data for Teachers A, B, C, and D remained relatively consistent for all four lessons. On the other hand the data for Teachers C and D markedly differed depending on the type of lesson. For example, Teacher D presented two very structured lessons with little sustained student talk. These lessons increased his ultraminimal scores and decreased his sustained talk totals. Upon closer analysis, it was evident that all of his ultraminimal speech counts (24 out of 24) originated from one structured activity, and almost all his sustained speech counts (19 out of 24) came from his two communicative lessons.

To summarize, experiential fluency approaches characterized by Group I activities appear to generate significantly more sustained discourse than analytic orientations characterized by Group II activities. Group II activities produced the most ultraminimal talk. The amounts of restricted and sustained talk for all teachers varied from one lesson to the next. In general, the teachers designated analytic produced the most ultraminimal student talk, whereas the

teachers designated experiential produced the most sustained speech.

In the first part of this chapter, I have attempted to give the reader a global sense of the effect of a wide range of different activities on the length of classroom discourse spoken in French by EFI students. In the next section I will focus on four activities characteristic of the two most predominant groups: Groups I and II. I will present findings which compare several of the measures of Appendix B for "Small group task" and "Small group discussion" of Group I with the corresponding constructs for "Whole class discussions-teacher dominated" and "Vocabulary definitions" of Group II.

2.5 Comparison of "Student dominated discussion" and "Teacher dominated discussion" for four selected activities

To avoid repetition in this discussion, "Whole class discussion" and "Vocabulary definitions" are collectively referred to as whole class activities or whole class discussion. "Small group task" and "Small group discussion" are collectively referred to as (small) group task, (small) group activities, and (small) group work.

I chose to compare these activities for several reasons. First, they were the most prevalent. Collectively they counted for almost 50% of all activities. Second, the 4 activities created a balance for the comparison, with 2 activities coming from Group I and 2 from Group II. Third, the length of time observed for both groups was identical--160 minutes--thus creating a desirable time balance for statistical analysis. Finally, I chose to compare these activities because they provide a good contrast between the two opposing

teaching orientations. "Whole class discussion" and "Vocabulary definitions" took the form of a lock-step lesson with strong teacher involvement. Conversely, the group activities were typically less structured and more fluency oriented.

Data for these comparisons was retrieved from the coding sheets (Appendices B1 and B2). Information was analyzed for each teacher² for several constructs of the two groups of targeted activities. The data for each measure were then compiled to generate a profile for all teachers for each group of activities. Appendices F1 and F2 display these totals.

Statistical analysis (chi-square tests, " χ^2 ") comparing whole class discussions and small group activities were conducted for the following measures described in Chapter II, Section 4.1.2: Length of student discourse, Information gap for information given and requested by teachers and by students, Relative restriction of linguistic form, Subject matter, and Materials. The data originate from Appendices B1 and B2. The full statistical analysis is included in Appendices G1 - G8.

Table 3.4 presents the results comparing whole class discussions and small group activities for these measures. It indicates a significant difference ($\chi^2 p < .001$) between the two groups for all of the parameters except for information requests by students.

² In order to achieve the identical balance of 160 minutes for both groups, information was assessed for all teachers for "Small group tasks", "Small group discussions", and "Whole class discussions", but only from Teacher A for "Vocabulary definitions". Teacher A used this activity extensively. "Vocabulary definitions" was only used by one other teacher, Teacher B, who used it for a very brief period in only 1 lesson. Limiting the data for "Vocabulary definitions" to only Teacher A provided this exact observation time.

**Table 3.4 Significant Differences of Language Constructs
Between Small Group Tasks and Whole Class Discussions**

| Measure | X ² | Probability | # of Counts, N= |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|-------------|-----------------|
| Length of student discourse | 53.109 | *<.001 | 291 |
| Information exchange of teachers | 8.114 | *<.001 | 105 |
| Information requests by teachers | 30.075 | *<.001 | 74 |
| Information exchange of students | 100.251 | *<.001 | 250 |
| Information requests by students | 2.61 | .101 n.s. | 45 |
| Relative restriction of student talk | 40.265 | *<.001 | 295 |
| Subject matter and language spoken | 36.226 | *<.001 | 323 |
| Source and purpose of materials | 47.610 | *<.001 | 118 |

*Significant Difference ($p < .001$)

n.s. Not significant ($p > .05$)

2.6 Summary of findings to Group A questions

To summarize the answers to the questions of Group A, data from this study suggests the following:

- a). EFI teachers instruct their students with direct instruction much more frequently than they engage them in group tasks. The relative frequency which these two strategies were practiced varied from one lesson to another, as well as between teachers. In general, the teachers designated analytic tended to teach their students with direct instruction, whereas the experiential teachers used more group tasks.
- b). Some instructional practices appear to increase the amount of student talk more than others.
- c). Experiential, fluency approaches, as characterized by the Group I activities, appear to promote significantly more sustained student discourse than analytic orientations characterized by Group II activities. Group II activities produced more ultraminimal talk. The amounts of restricted and sustained talk for all teachers varied from one lesson to another. The teachers designated analytic generally produced the most ultraminimal student talk, whereas the teachers designated experiential produced the most sustained speech.
- d). "Small group task" and "Small group discussion" of Group I produced the most sustained discourse. Conversely, "Whole class discussions-teacher dominated" of Group II produced the most ultraminimal talk.
- e). Statistically significant differences ($\chi^2, p < .05$) exist between whole class discussion and small group work for almost all of the measured parameters: Length of student speech, Information exchange of teachers, Information requests by teachers, Information exchange of students, Relative restriction of student talk, Subject matter, and Source and purpose of materials. A statistically significant difference ($\chi^2, p > .05$) between whole class discussions and group work was not found for Information requests by students.

3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS - GROUP B.

The previous section presented the quantitative data from the classroom observations. This section presents the qualitative findings from the interviews with teachers and students that address the following questions:

- a. What were the teachers' and students' perceptions of:
 - i) the importance of the students speaking in French?
 - ii) the frequency of French generally spoken by students?
 - iii) the frequency of French spoken by students during the four observed lessons?
 - iv) the quantity of French spoken by students?
- b. What strategies and reward systems do the teachers use (if any) to motivate their students to speak in French? Which are the most effective? How do the students perceive their teachers' efforts?
- c. What are the students' perceptions of the quality of their spoken French, and how do their perceptions influence their efforts to speak French?

3.1 Data presentation and analysis procedures

The data analysis procedures used in both the preliminary interviews and the subsequent follow-up ones were borrowed from Miles' and Huberman's (1984) book, *Qualitative Data Analysis: A Source Book of New Methods*. During the interviews, I summarized the teachers' and students' responses, writing them directly onto the sheet below the questions (see Appendices A, C, and D). Sufficient time and occasional requests for repetition and clarification of the subjects' responses allowed me to adequately summarize all responses. After each interview, I also noted my initial impressions and summarized information pertaining to the target questions. I

made special note of revelations which surprised me or that appeared to be inconsistent with my classroom observations or with information provided by the students.

Next, the data addressing each question for each teacher were collated on one master sheet. Some of the responses could be quantified. For example in response to the "importance of students speaking in French" 3 out of 6 teachers claimed that it was "very important", two claimed that it was "important", and 1 teacher stated that it was "not important".

The data on the master sheets was also reduced by coding some of the responses into categories and then collapsing similar categories together. Several codes were established in advance to reflect the research questions identified in the interviews, while others were added later to address unexpected themes and issues. For example, students in several different classes stated that one of the reasons why they did not always speak in French was because it "is easier to speak in English". Thus the notion of "difficulty speaking in French" became one category.

The coding clarified and quantified the data, allowing for easier retrieval, organization, and reduction. When combined with quotations, which retained the richness of the subjects' words, coding was an effective strategy to prepare the data for analysis and presentation.

The teacher and student interviews were conducted in French. I translated the subjects' responses into English for the benefit of those readers who do not read French.

3.2 Teachers' and students' perceptions of students' discourse

3.2.1 Teachers' and students' perceptions of the importance of the students speaking in French

a) Teachers' perceptions

Most teachers (5 out of 6) maintained that it is "extremely important", "very important", or "important" for their students to speak in French as much as possible. However, these teachers differed in their respective reasons. Several of these different views appear to be linked to their communicative/analytic orientation to language teaching, and to a more underlying approach to teaching and learning.

Of the 3 teachers designated communicative, 2 stated that it was "extremely important" for their students to speak French as much as possible. One of these teachers, Teacher D, observed,

"To speak fluently is the basis for learning a language. The more they (the students) talk, the more fluency they have, the more ability they have to think in the target language, and the less need they have to speak in English".

Thus, for this communicative teacher, as for communicative language theorists, fluency becomes a goal in itself.

Another teacher designated communicative, Teacher F, who had also declared that it is "extremely important" for students to speak together in French, maintained,

"We (people in general) learn to speak while speaking. The only way to learn it (French) is to use it. (Teachers) ... must remove the choice (from students), force student communication. Communication makes students more independent and responsible for their own learning. If we (the teachers) force them (the

students) to communicate in the target language, they will end up being able to more easily come up with the needed vocabulary than by using an English word."

The third teacher designated communicative, Teacher E, stated that it is "important" for students to speak in French. This teacher reiterated the view of Teacher D, stating,

"The process of thinking in another language is important. Students must speak the target language in order to avoid translating, so that they finish by thinking in the language."

Teacher E also stated,

"We learn to speak by speaking ... we learn by correcting ourselves as we speak, trying out new structures and vocabulary, and judging the reaction of the person we are speaking with to see if we have succeeded in communicating our message."

Lastly Teacher E observed that students need to speak together in French because, of the four language skills, speaking will be the most useful to them in the future.

Two factors prevented Teacher E from attempting to force her students to speak in French all the time at any price (*à tout prix*), *"to force the students to speak French at any price, to remove the choice from students"*, as Teacher F had stated. First, Teacher E maintains that her relationship with her students and the general classroom feeling or *"ambiance "* is far more important than any negative repercussions generated from her aggressive efforts to force them to speak in French. Second, she noted that teachers already have so many regular, ongoing classroom events to monitor, such as ensuring that students work on task. For teacher E,

monitoring student discourse in French is yet one more demanding task for her to monitor, so she has chosen not to do it.

Two of the 3 teachers designated analytic also indicated that it was important for their students to speak in French but for different reasons than those reported by Teachers D, E, and F. Teacher A stated, *"School is the only place where they (the students) can practice their French. It is by practicing, repeating, that they learn it."* Teacher A wants his students to speak French, but in a repetitive, controlled environment, where he can control the input through activities such as structural exercises. This approach is consistent with "analytic" second language theory.

Teacher B was the only teacher who indicated that it was "not too important" for his students to speak French. He argued that it was much more important for him to concentrate on teaching concepts and knowledge, and that *"even if (he) really pushes them (the students), it only gives average results. It won't help the quality of their French."*

b) Students' perceptions

In general, most students from all classes believed that it is important for them to speak French as much as possible. Students made comments such as the following:

- *"You will learn more by speaking, not only listening. You have to speak."*
- *"It's important to speak. We'll speak better if we speak more often."*
- *"We should speak as much as possible because that's why we're here!"*

3.2.2 Teachers' and students' perceptions of the frequency of students' discourse in French

a) Teachers' perceptions

Teachers indicated that the frequency in which their students spoke in French as opposed to English ranged from a high of "always" (1 teacher) to a low of "sometimes" (2 teachers). Two teachers indicated "often", and the sixth specified that his students spoke in French between themselves "almost always". Of the 3 teachers whom I designated communicative, 2 observed that their students spoke in French "always" and "almost always", while the third indicated "sometimes".

b) Students' perceptions

Students noted that the frequency of French they spoke and that their classmates spoke varied considerably from one student to another. Some students spoke "almost always" in French, and others "rarely" or "never". One student stated, "*Some students make more of an effort than others.*" Nevertheless, the students were able to identify a general level of French spoken in each class.

In addition, most students judged the amount of French that they spoke in class to be less than the amount rated by their teachers. Four of the groups of students indicated that most of the students in their classes spoke "sometimes" in French, and 2 groups indicated "often". For example, Teacher F indicated that her students "always" spoke in French, whereas one half of her students stated "often", and the other half "sometimes".

I confirmed this discrepancy during my classroom observations. I often noted that students who spoke in French when the teachers

were near them reverted to English when the teacher went away. Moreover, I noted that two of the teachers who indicated that their students "often" spoke in French together had several students who spoke almost always in English, even when the teacher was present. These findings and observations suggest that many teachers often incorrectly and/or naively believe that their students are speaking in French.

Students noted several reasons why they do not speak in French all the time. Four of the 6 groups claimed that they find it easier to speak in English. One girl stated, *"It's easier to speak in English-- it's our first language."*

Students from two of the older Grade 7 groups also pointed out that they prefer to speak in English when talking about personal experiences which occur outside of the classroom. One girl stated, *"It's easier and more natural to speak about those things (personal experiences) in English."* Other students in the same class observed that they find it easier to speak in French when discussing an experience that they have had in French, such as a French film.

One Grade 7 student suggested that she does not speak in French all the time because of social pressure. She stated, *"I want to speak more French, but I don't do it because the others (students) speak in English. I want to be part of them."* This student assumes that her peers will not fully accept her if she speaks in French when they speak in English.

The students' responses also suggest that they do not speak in French all the time because they experience some difficulties expressing themselves in French. Even though almost all the

students indicated that they speak French "well" or "very well" (those from 5 of the 6 groups interviewed), and "excellently" (1 group of students), several students stated that they sometimes switch from French to English because they do not succeed in making themselves understood in French. Some students mentioned that they sometimes lack the necessary vocabulary to express in French what they want to say. They reach a point in their discourse when they do not know the French equivalent to an English word or phrase. At this point some students persist in French by struggling to communicate their ideas in other ways, but many students simply revert to English.

Speaking too often in English appears to create a pattern or habit for the pupils that becomes increasingly difficult to break the longer they do it. Two of the 6 groups of students indicated that they forget to speak in French, and that they have acquired the habit of speaking English. The longer they maintain this habit, the easier it becomes to "forget" to speak in French, and the more difficult it becomes to do it

This student observation was reinforced by one of the teachers who maintained that the amount of French spoken by students in previous years will influence the quantity of French that they currently speak. Teacher D claimed that the students in his class had rarely spoke in French during their two previous school years. He argued that it was much more difficult for him to encourage or force them to speak in French this year because of the ingrained bad habits that they had acquired.

Three of 6 teachers observed that they have to regularly remind their students to speak French or they quickly revert to English.

Teacher B stated, *"Someone must always remind them, push them, insist ... otherwise, they quickly return to English."*

3.2.3 Teachers' and students' perceptions of the frequency of students' discourse in French during the four observed lessons

a) Teachers' perceptions

Teachers stated that the length and frequency that their students spoke in French during the four observed lesson varied according to the type of activity. They affirmed that some activities (e.g. small group work) tend to produce much more student discourse than others (e.g. a teacher demonstration). Teacher B mentioned that his students did not speak much French in the observed lessons, because even in the two lessons designated communicative it was not his priority. He stated:

"(In class)...my main priority is not the oral production of the students. It's to teach concepts in subjects such as mathematics and science. If I have to speak in English to teach these concepts, I'll do it. It's the concept that's important."

Teacher E declared that the students spoke most French in *"activities less controlled (by the teacher)."* She also contended that her students spoke most in Social Studies. She stated that, *"the students like to speak French in social studies. I give them a wide variety of activities."* Furthermore, the teachers noted that their students spoke the most French in small group discussions, small

group tasks, oral games and class meetings. The quantitative data from the classroom observations also supported these results.

Teachers (4 out of 6) generally indicated that students tend to speak the least amount of French during math as compared to other subjects, and 3 teachers indicated that they themselves speak more English during Math. Teacher E stated,

"(In mathematics) ... there is more English spoken because of the complexity of the concepts and vocabulary, and the technical words...why not speak English in these cases?"

Teacher B had a similar perspective, stating,

"It's the concept that is important. So, in subjects like mathematics, if I have to speak in English for the students to learn the concept, I'll do it."

During my observations, I noted that Teacher B often switched from French to English while he taught mathematics. The students informed me that this teacher regularly taught this subject in both English and French, teaching some lessons predominantly in French, others in English, and that he regularly switched back and forth between the two languages.

b) Students' perceptions

Two groups of students also stated that they spoke most French in group activities. Another two groups of students indicated that they tended to speak the most during activities when they discussed a topic that really interests them, especially when they had a specific goal for their task. For example, one group reported that they enthusiastically discussed a school dance the week before.

Their task was to make some recommendations which the teacher would raise at the next staff meeting.

3.2.4 Teachers' and students' perceptions of the quantity of French spoken by students

a) Teachers' perceptions

Most teachers (4 out of 6) were generally satisfied with the quantity of French spoken by their students. Teacher D, who had claimed that his students spoke in French "almost all the time", stated that,

"It is impossible for them (the students) to speak (in French) 100% of the time ... they relapse occasionally, especially mine who spoke so little French during their past two school years (in other teachers' classes). I'm happy with their output."

Teacher E, a Francophone, who had claimed that her students spoke in French together "sometimes", was also satisfied, even though they did not speak in French all the time. She said that she could understand their position.

"Yes, if they speak to me in French, I'm happy. That's enough. If they speak more French to each other, it's a bonus. I would like them to speak more, but there are some barriers, like the vocabulary. I can understand their position. I speak in French all the time with them, even during English period, so I understand why they speak in English. It's their first language, and it's easier for them."

Two of the 6 teachers indicated that they were not happy with the frequency of French spoken by their students. Both these teachers had been designated as "structural/analytic". Teacher B, who had claimed that his students spoke French together "sometimes", was not satisfied with their quantity of French because *"the result is a mediocre quality. Even if I really push them,*

it only gives average results." Teacher B also argued that it was not an important priority for him to encourage or force his students to speak in French. He maintained that it was much more important for him to successfully teach the concepts.

b) Students' perceptions

Of the 30 students interviewed, approximately 50% were satisfied with the amount of French that they spoke in class together, while 50% were not satisfied. Some students in each of the six groups were both satisfied and not satisfied. The students who were satisfied generally believed that they already spoke French well enough, and that they did not require further practice. Those students who were not satisfied stated that they should speak more French, presumably so that they would get more practice and learn to speak better.

3.2.5 Strategies and reward systems used by teachers to motivate their students to speak French, and students' perception of their teachers' efforts

Five of the 6 teachers believed that it is important for them to use strategies and reward systems to motivate their students to speak in French. These teachers stated that they used the following strategies to achieve this goal: extrinsically motivated dollar and point systems, positive encouragement and reinforcement, efforts to rationally sell to the students the intrinsic value of speaking French, attempts to schedule the timetable to promote the use of French, student-analyst checklists, specific teaching strategies, and negative consequences (e.g. detentions, writing lines, and phone calls home to the students' parents). Some of the teachers

implemented these strategies in September and enforced them during the entire school year, whereas other teachers employed them more selectively and for shorter periods of time.

a) The dollar system

Teachers D and F used the most comprehensive strategy--the dollar system. Both teachers considered it very important that their students speak in French as much as possible. They had used this system for several years to achieve this goal. Teacher F mentioned that she had originally borrowed the idea from Teacher D several years before. With minor exceptions, both teachers used the system the same way.

The dollar system operated in the following manner. All students individually maintained a bank account. The number of dollars in their account was recorded on cards posted on a classroom bulletin board. If Student X heard another student Y speaking in English during designated French time, Student X repeated in French Student Y's English utterance. Student Y then had to give Student X one of his imaginary dollars by signing his name on Student X's card. Each signature from another student represented a dollar deposit to their account, and each signature on another students' card represented a dollar debit. After a specific period of elapsed time, students could liquidate their acquired dollars for different purposes (e.g. gaining free time, not having to do their homework for one night, or purchasing objects sold in a class auction).

Both Teachers D and F stated that they used this system because over their teaching career it had proven to be effective, relatively simple, and free of additional administrative tasks for them. They

also indicated that they had shared the dollar system with several colleagues, some who had also experienced success with it, and with others who had not used it for long because it had not worked for them. Like many innovations in education, different teachers have varying degrees of success attempting to implement new strategies.

Although Teachers D and F shared the same general goal of motivating their students to speak in French, they appeared to differ in their view of the specific role of the dollar system in achieving this goal. For Teacher F, the dollar system "*removed the **choice** of what the students would otherwise normally do--speak English.*" Teacher D, on the other hand, maintained that ultimately students do have the final **choice**. Despite the teacher's most rigorous efforts to implement a dollar system or a comparable motivation system, it is in the end the students who choose to speak or not to speak in English. Interestingly, Teacher F believed that she had successfully removed the choice from her students to speak English. She thought that they spoke French all the time. My classroom observations and my interviews with her students confirmed that Teacher F was incorrect and that students do have the final say. I observed that several of her students regularly spoke in English when she was not near them.

Teacher D maintains that the dollar system can only remind students to speak French. He contends that before implementing it teachers must sell the rational intrinsic value of speaking in French, as students will ultimately respond more according to reason and intrinsic benefits to themselves than to extrinsic, behavioristic rewards. Moreover, Teacher D believes that a teacher's sales

promotion should include regular reinforcement of the advantages of speaking in French as well as the beauty of the French language.

b) Students' perceptions of the dollar system

Although the students in the classes of Teachers D and F did not speak French all the time, they did appreciate the efforts of their teachers to motivate them to speak French, and they believed that the dollar system quite effectively encouraged them to speak more French than if there was no system. Pupils in Class F mentioned that the system would work even better if the teacher gave the prizes more often and if she gave better prizes (e.g. free time, instead of merely a chance to not do one night of homework by pulling names randomly from a hat). They also raised, as did students in Class D, the issue of taking dollars from other students. They feared that this practice could negatively influence their social relationships with their peers. Students in Class D appreciated the efforts of their teacher to positively encourage them. One student stated, *"He encourages us, and tells us that French is such a beautiful language. That makes us want to speak in French more often."*

c) Teaching strategies and scheduling

The other teachers used different strategies and systems to motivate their students to speak French. Teacher E emphasized the importance of teaching strategies. She stated,

"The teacher must give the students projects and activities that interest them, and also create situations where the students have the opportunity to speak in French. I find they will speak a lot more when we have debates, special events like Greek Day and Greek

councils, oral presentations, theater sports, small group tasks, and oral discussions ."

Teacher C also stressed the value of oral presentations and using the video camera to film oral discourse. Teacher B also noted that students will speak more when discussing subjects that interest them. Students (4 of 6 groups) confirmed that they were motivated to speak more French during these sorts of oral activities.

Teacher E also used other strategies to motivate her students to speak French. She pointed out that arranging the timetable so that the entire morning is in French, and the afternoon exclusively in English, can benefit the students. This scheduling facilitates the students' efforts to remember to speak in French by helping them to adapt to a regular timetable routine with expected French times. She also noted that she tries to give them more oral work in the morning, leaving the bulk of written work for the afternoon. Second, Teacher E and F also emphasized the motivating influence of regularly changing the activities. They found that variety increases interest and motivation for this age group of youngsters, as does having the teacher enter into the student group discussions with them. Third, Teacher E contends that assigning some students the task of monitoring the quantity of French spoken by their peers during group work can also increase the amount of French spoken. Students are told that the data collected by these monitors will contribute toward their speaking letter grade on their report card. Both Teacher E and her students reported that this technique effectively increased the quantity of student discourse in French.

d) Point systems

Teachers A, C, and E indicated that on different occasions they have used various types of point systems to motivate their students to speak French. These systems were often associated with other behavior and general motivation schemes. Teachers A and C stated that they had on occasion divided their classes into teams. Students could gain points for their team by speaking in French. Teachers A and E tried a system where each student had a sheet of paper on their desk, and the teacher would reward students speaking in French by ticking their sheet.

Both teachers and students gave these point systems mixed reviews. They both acknowledged that the systems initially motivated students to speak French. However, as is the case with many extrinsic motivation schemes, their effect declined after a short period of time, and the teacher had to award increasing number of points or ticks to maintain student interest. At the time of the interviews none of the teachers were currently using these point systems.

e) Negative consequences

Several of the teachers (A, B, C, and D) also mentioned the use of negative consequences. Teachers A, B, and C spoke of the threat of detentions, writing lines, and phone calls to parents of students speaking in English. During my observations I heard much English being spoken, especially in classes B and C, but I did not observe any of these consequences being enforced. However, in many cases it appeared that the teachers did not enforce the consequences because their physical distance from the students prevented them from being

aware that their students were speaking in English. I asked the students of classes A, B, and C about these negative consequences. They stated that their teachers occasionally but not regularly enforced them, and that usually the same students were punished.

Teacher B sometimes used the threat of detentions if his students spoke too much English. His students criticized him for not doing more to encourage them to speak in French. They especially disliked his tendency to speak in English during lessons he had started in French, because it confused them. They suggested that he teach each subject in only one language rather than switch back and forth from French to English.

Teacher D spoke of perhaps the most severe, but nevertheless the most logical consequence. He mentioned that he threatens to remove students from the immersion program who persist in regularly speaking in English during designated French time. Teacher D tells the parents of these students that if their children are not prepared to speak French, they are wasting their own time because they will not learn any French, and they will also discourage other students who want speak French from doing so. Even students with the best intentions to speak in French will likely finish by replying in English to a peer who continuously addresses them in English.

3.2.6 Students' perceptions of the quality of their spoken French, and the effect of these perceptions on their efforts to speak French

The majority of students in 4 of the 6 groups stated that their spoken French was "very good" or excellent", whereas most students in the other two groups indicated "good". These students who indicated "good" were all in Grade 5, whereas the "very good" or "excellent" responses were from students in Grades 6 and 7. This age difference may have contributed to their differing perceptions of their speaking abilities. Nevertheless, all students viewed their speaking skills positively.

These positive perceptions appeared to influence the efforts of some students to speak French. Several of the Grade 7 students in three classes indicated that it was "important", but not "very important" to speak in French because they believed that they already spoke well enough, and so they did not need to continue practicing their French. One student stated, *"I could speak more French, but I don't because I already speak (it) well enough."* These were often the same students who had mentioned that they speak in English because it is easier, and that they revert from French to English because they sometimes cannot express in French what they want to communicate. These students may not speak French as well as they claim. Their positive perception of their speaking skills may have diminished their perceived need to practice their French. Teachers could change the lack of perceived need of these students by pointing out this discrepancy.

3.2.7 Summary of findings to Group B questions

To summarize, data from the Group B questions suggest the following:

i) Teachers' and students' perceptions of the frequency of French generally spoken by students varied considerably from one student to another. The majority of teachers indicated that students speak in French "often" and "almost always", whereas the majority of students indicated "sometimes". Students therefore judged the frequency of French that they generally spoke to be less than the frequency rated by their teachers.

Students reported that they do not "always" speak in French because (a) they find it easier to speak in English, (b) they experience some difficulties expressing themselves in French, especially with vocabulary, and (c) they experience pressure to conform to the norm of their peers (who speak English).

ii) Teachers' and students' perceptions of the frequency of student discourse in French during the four observed lessons varied according to the type of activity. Teachers and students noted that students speak most often in French during activities which are not teacher-directed such as group work, especially during subjects such as social studies. The majority of teachers indicated that students speak French the least frequently during math because of the complexity of the concepts and vocabulary. Students stated that they speak most often in French during activities in which they discuss a topic that really interests them.

iii) The majority of teachers (66%) were generally satisfied with the frequency of French spoken by students, whereas 50% of students were satisfied.

iv) Most teachers and students believed that it is important for students to speak in French as much as possible because (a) speaking in French leads to fluency, (b) language students best learn to speak by speaking, and (c) school is often the only place where students can practise their French.

v) Teachers used various techniques to encourage their students to speak in French, including motivation strategies such as dollar systems, teaching strategies that facilitate communication, scheduling, and negative consequences. The dollar system was practiced by 33% of the teachers, and it appeared to be the most effective. Teachers that made the greatest effort to implement and maintain the dollar system were those that valued most highly students speaking regularly in French. Students generally appreciated the efforts of these teachers to encourage them to speak in French.

vi) Most students stated that they speak French well. Their positive perceptions of their speaking skills ironically appeared to diminish their perceived need to speak French, even though they recognize that they often experience difficulties expressing themselves precisely in French.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESULTS

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the findings presented in the previous chapter. Section 2 addresses the research questions of Group A, while Section 3 discusses questions of Group B, especially the role of the teacher in increasing the frequency of student discourse in French. I conclude this chapter with some speculations about other factors which work against students' natural willingness to speak in French.

2. DISCUSSION OF GROUP A QUESTIONS

2.1 Frequency of direct instruction versus group work

Both the quantitative and qualitative data indicate that EFI teachers engage their students in many more teacher-directed activities than student-centered tasks. Teachers had been asked to teach two communicative lessons commonly associated with group work and an equal number of structural lessons usually linked to direct instruction. Therefore, one might have expected to observe approximately the same percentage of each group. However, the teacher-dominated lessons were observed 42% of the time, as opposed to only 27% of student-centered activities (e.g. group work). Monologue or quiet seat work activities were observed the remaining 31% of the time.

2.1.1 Comparisons with other studies

My results differ significantly from Swain and Carroll's (1987) finding that almost no group work was observed in the 19 Grade 3 and 6 immersion classes who participated in their Development of

Bilingual Proficiency project in Ontario. Five of the 6 teachers participating in my study engaged their students in group tasks, 4 of them more than one-half of the time.

My sampling strategy and research design, however, could partly explain the difference between my findings and those of Swain and Carrol. Half of my teachers (3 of 6) were designated communicative. Furthermore, I requested all my subjects to offer their students communicative activities in 2 of the 4 lessons, thus increasing the likelihood of group work. Swain and Carroll, on the other hand, had not made specific requests to teachers regarding the types of activities to offer their students.

Despite the differences in sampling strategies and research design between our two studies, it is nevertheless noteworthy that my sample of 6 teachers in Coquitlam practiced much more group work than the 19 observed in Swain and Carroll's study in Ontario.

2.1.2 Interpretation of findings

Teacher-directed activities were more frequent than communicative tasks in this study possibly because the teachers placed a high priority on students learning basic skills. Eisner (1984) claimed that the major goals teachers hold for their students drive their choices of activities. The results of this study suggest that, according to Eisner's model, teachers spent more time engaging their students in teacher-directed activities than in student-centered ones because they valued most student competency in basic skills. The teachers have then chosen direct instruction to teach the skills.

The particular teaching styles of the six teachers also contributed to the high percentage of teacher-dominated activities. The three analytic teachers tended to teach with direct instruction during all four lessons, including the two activities designated communicative. They may have intended to teach two communicative lessons, but it would appear that they did not possess the necessary skills in their repertoire of teaching strategies. Teacher A in particular taught all of his lessons in the same manner, using direct instruction. The three communicative teachers, on the other hand, taught two lessons of each. They used communicative strategies for the communicative lessons, and direct instruction for the analytic lessons. Therefore, collectively the six teachers taught with more direct instruction than with student-centered activities.

2.1.3 Analytic versus communicative orientations

Despite the teachers' collective orientation toward Eisner's (1984) notion of competency, the analytic and communicative teachers differed in their philosophical approaches. The analytic teachers made frequent reference to the importance of teaching concepts, knowledge, and skills. For example, Teacher B repeated on several occasions: *"It's the concept that is important."*

The communicative teachers, on the other hand, appeared to concentrate as much on Eisner's notions of cognitive processes and personal growth as on competency. For example, Teacher F's students worked on an astronomy research project which was similar to Kagan's (1985) Group investigation model. Students developed their own research questions, conducted the research, and

shared the findings with their peers. The communicative teachers also engaged their students in activities which allowed them to interact socially with each other. However, when they wanted to teach a specific skill or concept, as in mathematics, even the communicative teachers reverted to direct instruction.

2.2 Length of student discourse

In chapter I, I cited some studies which investigated the opportunities for EFL students to speak French in sustained discourse. I also presented evidence from the literature which promoted the benefits for second language students when their teachers engage them in extended discourse. This section compares my findings with those of these earlier studies. It also links the data concerning the effect of different activities on the length of student discourse with the discussion regarding the benefits of sustained talk.

2.2.1 Comparison with other studies

My results support Harley's (1985) and Swain & Carroll's (1987) findings that EFL students engage in much more restricted talk than sustained discourse. Harley (1985) found that 81% of the Grade 6 students she observed spoke in ultraminimal or minimal speech (one word or phrase), and only 19% in sustained discourse. Swain and Carroll (1987) observed even less sustained talk in their study of Grade 3 and 6 students in their DBP project (less than 15%). The students in my study spoke statistically significant ($t, p < .05$) more sustained talk (32%), and less ultraminimal (23%) and minimal (45%) speech, than the students from both of these earlier studies.

I also compared the length of student discourse generated from two types of activities: student-dominated discussion and teacher-dominated talk. My results confirm Brumfit's (1984a) hypothesis that experiential tasks (student-centered discussion) produce much longer student talk than analytic tasks (teacher-directed discussion). Pica and Doughty (1986b) had also found that students talk more in group work than in whole class discussion. My data shows that student-dominated discussion generated 3% ultraminimal and 74% sustained talk, whereas teacher-dominated discussion produced 30% ultraminimal and 18% sustained talk.

Due to my research design and sampling strategies, the differences in the length of student talk between the two groups of activities in my data is more revealing than the comparisons between my findings and those of Harley (1985) and Swain and Carroll (1987). My study likely generated more total sustained student discourse because I had asked teachers to teach 50% of their lessons with communicative activities designed to generate "*beaucoup de français*". My data is noteworthy because it strongly suggests that experiential activities generate significantly more sustained discourse (74%) than analytic activities (18%).

2.2.2 Whole class discussion versus group work

Part of my data analysis included a comparison of two specific activities: whole class discussion and group tasks. I found that direct instructional activities such as teaching vocabulary definitions and whole class discussion dominated by the teacher generated significantly ($\chi^2=53.109$, $p<.001$) more ultraminimal student talk than group tasks. Conversely, students talked in

sustained discourse significantly more during group work than in teacher-directed discussion.

2.2.3 Communicative versus analytic orientations

Analytic teachers' students in this study spoke significantly ($t, p < .05$) more ultraminimal speech than the experiential teachers. The experiential teachers' students, on the other hand, spoke significantly more ($t, p < .05$) sustained talk than the analytic group. The analytic teachers' predominant use of teacher-dominated activities likely increased the students' use of ultraminimal speech. Conversely, the students of the experiential teachers likely spoke more sustained discourse because their teachers offered them more student-centered activities.

This apparent cause-effect correlation between the teaching strategy and the length of student discourse was confirmed when I examined the data from specific lessons of specific teachers. For example, Teacher D gave two very structured lessons with little sustained student talk, and two communicative lessons with relatively greater sustained discourse. The communicative lessons generated the most sustained talk and the analytic lessons the most ultraminimal discourse.

2.2.4 Other factors influencing the length of student talk

This study proceeded with the premise that the activity in which teachers engage their students constitutes the primary variable in determining the length of student utterances. My results have supported this premise. I also speculated at the outset that other factors likely influence the amount of student talk. These include the parameters I quantitatively measured, and others that I

informally observed as the data collection progressed. These other factors played important roles in influencing the length of student discourse in my observed lessons.

a) measured constructs

These factors included the sorts of questions asked by teachers and students (pseudo or genuine), the nature of information (predictable or unpredictable) given by teachers and students, the relative restriction placed on student talk, the subject matter and the language spoken, discourse initiation by students, and the source and purpose of materials. I measured these constructs, and statistically compared them for group work and teacher fronted activities.

I found a significant difference ($\chi^2, p < .001$) between whole class discussions and small group activities for all measures except information requests by students. It appears that students tend to talk in more sustained speech when: (a) teachers ask students genuine questions (i.e. questions for which they do not know the answer in advance); (b) students and teachers give unpredictable information (i.e. the message is not easily anticipated); (c) student talk is unrestricted (i.e. there is no expectation of any particular linguistic form); (d) classroom discussion centers on a broad range of reference and not on language form; (e) students use authentic materials; and (f) when students initiate discourse.

I suspect that a statistically significant difference in the length of student discourse was not found between whole class discussion and small group activities for information requests by students due to 10-12 year old childrens' natural spontaneity and lack of

inhibition. When youngsters want to request information they will use the number of words and clauses they require in order to express themselves, regardless of whether they are in small groups or in whole class discussions. The length of talk, therefore, did not differ between the two sorts of activities for information request by students. The length of discourse between the two groups differed, on the other hand, for students giving information because teachers could exert more influence on the length of responses by the sorts of questions they posed to students. For example, open ended questions solicit longer responses than closed questions.

Although I measured the total tally of student discourse initiation, this study did not conduct a contingency analysis between initiated speech and the length of student talk. Allen et al. (1990) have suggested that more sustained student speech will occur when students themselves initiate classroom discourse as opposed to the teacher. Too often, they argue, students merely respond to teacher initiated discussion, and consequently speak predominantly using restricted talk. During my observations I noted that students tended to initiate discourse most often during group work. The data of this study confirm that group tasks generate the most sustained speech.

c) Unmeasured observations

In addition, I speculate that other elements of second language learning influence the amount of student talk. At the outset I did not measure these elements with instruments, but as the study progressed I noted several observations related to aspects of language acquisition. They included increased opportunities for students to: (a) negotiate meaning (Varonis & Gass, 1985); (b)

become actively involved in their learning (Stevick, 1980); (c) increase their language input (Krashen, 1982) and output (Harley & Swain, 1984); and (d) increase their think time following teachers' questions (Rowe, 1978).

During my observations I noted that students tended to speak in more sustained discourse during tasks that: (a) increased the opportunities for students to negotiate meaning; (b) allowed them to participate actively; (c) increased their language input and output; and (d) provided them with at least three seconds of think time before responding to teachers' questions. I noted some particularly interesting observations regarding negotiation of meaning and think time.

I noted for example, that students had to negotiate much more meaning in some activities than in others. Pica and Doughty (1985b) have suggested that students in small groups have much more opportunity to negotiate meaning in their discourse than those in teacher-fronted activities, especially when they are engaged in two-way tasks (Long, 1983b). I confirmed that students appeared to negotiate most meaning in small group tasks. The communicative teachers engaged their students most often in these sorts of tasks. This was especially true for Teacher F's Science lesson on astronomy where students were conducting a group investigation, Teacher E's science lesson where students in pairs observed samples of pond life with microscopes, Teacher D's students' discussion of student-led parent interviews, and Teacher C's class meeting. I did not observe Teacher A and B offering their students tasks that required them to negotiate meaning.

In my study group work appeared to generate the most negotiation of meaning and it also produced the most sustained student talk. Therefore, increased opportunities for students to negotiate meaning could contribute, albeit indirectly, to greater sustained student speech.

Rowe (1978) has suggested that when teachers increase their wait time (the pause that follows a question) to three seconds or longer, students benefit because they increase the length of their responses. Less think time therefore leads to more restricted talk; more think time leads to more sustained talk, presumably because the students are allowed more time to formulate their responses.

In several of the lessons I observed, especially in those characterized by direct instruction, teachers tended to provide their students with less than three seconds to respond. Indeed, some teachers often gave their students less than one second, while maintaining a brisk pace of conventionalized questions such as those found in courtrooms. The analytic teachers appeared to give students the least think time. This group of teachers asked the most questions (usually pseudo questions) and at a very brisk pace. The experiential teachers asked fewer questions, and when they did ask a question they provided students with more time to respond. Therefore, increased think time offered to students by the communicative teachers could be another contributing factor to their greater sustained talk, while less think time offered by the analytic teachers could have contributed to their students greater restricted talk.

3. DISCUSSION OF GROUP B QUESTIONS

3.1 Teachers' and students' perceptions of the frequency and importance of students' discourse in French

Four of the 6 teachers in this study reported that their students speak "often" or "almost always" in French. Five of the 6 teachers claimed that their pupils speak "sometimes" in English, and 4 stated that several of them speak too much English. The teachers generally recognized that Grades 5-7 students do not naturally nor willingly speak in French, and that it represents a challenge for teachers to encourage them to do so.

Students judged the frequency of French that they spoke in class to be less than the level rated by their teachers. Students also reported that the amount of French varied considerably from one student to another. They reported that some of their peers speak in French "often", but that others speak only "rarely" or "never".

Teachers and students in this study both confirmed my claim in the Chapter I (Section 3.2) that students benefit by frequently speaking in French. They cited several benefits including: (a) the link between talking regularly and achieving the goal of fluency; (b) that one learns to speak by doing it (i.e. speaking); (c) that one must regularly speak in the target language in order to "think" in the language; and (d) that of the four language skills (speaking, listening, reading writing), speaking will be the most useful to students in the future. The reasons varied from one teacher and student to another, but (with the exception of Teacher B) they all believed that it is important for students to speak frequently in French.

A discrepancy therefore exists between the frequency that teachers and students believe that pupils should speak French and the actual amount that they do speak. On one hand almost all the teachers and students maintained that students should speak in French as much as possible. Conversely most students and some teachers believed that pupils actually speak in French only "some of the time".

I believe that the combination of environmental, psycholinguistic, and program factors discussed in Chapter 1 (Section 2.6.1) explain much of this discrepancy. Grades 5-7 EFI students report that they would like to speak in French more often, but variables such as their participation in the immersion program for at least five years and the dominant English language and culture around them at school and outside of school encourage them to speak in English. Fortunately, however, the results of this study suggest that the teacher can intervene to motivate the students to do what they otherwise would not willingly do--to speak in French.

3.2 The role of the teacher in increasing the motivation of students to speak in French

The teacher plays an important role in determining the frequency of student discourse in French. My quantitative data from the Group A research questions confirm that teaching strategies influence the *length* of discourse. My qualitative results from the Group B questions confirm that in several ways the teacher also determines the *frequency* of student talk. These teacher interventions include: (a) communicating to students the expectation that students speak in French; (b) implementing reward systems; (c) selling to students

the intrinsic value of speaking French; (d) teaching strategies; (e) evaluating the frequency; (f) organizing French cultural activities and exchanges; (g) and providing positive reinforcement to students.

a) Teacher expectations

EFI teachers' expectations regarding students' use of French as opposed to English strongly influence the frequency of pupil discourse in French. The data in this study suggest that those teachers who place a high priority on their students speaking in French and who expect them to do so have much better success encouraging their students to speak in French than those who do not. However, teachers' high expectations do not succeed alone in motivating students to speak in French. Five of the 6 teachers reported that they place a priority on students speaking frequently in French, but only 2 appeared to succeed. Teachers must also successfully communicate these expectations to their pupils.

Teachers must balance their prioritizing of students speaking French with other priorities. For example, Teacher E stated that it was a priority for her that her students speak in French, but not so high a priority that she would force them to do so. She valued her relationship with her students too much to jeopardize it by insisting that they speak French. Teacher B stated that encouraging or forcing his students to speak French was not a priority. He considered it much more important to teach concepts, even if he had to revert to English to do it.

b) Reward system

Evidence from this study suggests that the successful implementation of a reward system also plays a critical role in encouraging pupils to speak frequently in French. Teachers D and E had implemented a dollar system, and their students spoke French the most frequently of the six classes. These teachers succeeded because they valued their students speaking French, they communicated their expectations to the pupils, and they rigorously implemented a reward strategy such as the dollar system at the beginning of the school year that successfully reminded the pupils of the importance of regularly speaking in French. The system rewarded those students who remembered to speak French, and included a negative reinforcement for those who forgot.

The dollar system is by no means the only reward strategy that teachers can use to encourage pupils to speak in French. Other teachers not participating in this study have spoken of several other successful techniques, such as point systems. Three of the teachers in this study tried unsuccessfully to implement other systems during the middle of the school year. I concluded that they did not succeed because they were not committed enough to their goal, and they did not display enough rigor in implementing them. Several systems can work effectively as long as teachers (a) believe in it, (b) rigorously implement it, preferably near the beginning of the year when norms are established, and (c) do not have to spend too much time administering it after the first few weeks of implementation.

Once the teachers have successfully introduced the reward system, it serves as a norm for students to follow for the rest of the school year. Most teachers recognize the importance of successfully establishing norms and routines in September. Training students to speak in French will provide them with considerable opportunity to practice the target language. Speaking in French then becomes the norm for all pupils to follow which they adopt as almost an unconscious habit. If the teachers fail to establish this norm however, they then have the daunting task of constantly reminding students to speak in French, and students have to make a conscious effort to do it.

A teacher's success in encouraging students to speak in French is influenced by the norms of the students' previous teachers in preceding years. A teacher can much more easily encourage and train pupils coming from classes where they regularly spoke in French to continue to do so than to reverse the trend of those who spoke predominantly in English. For example, Teacher D in this study referred to the difficulties he faced attempting to change the bad habits of his students who had spoken regularly in English for three consecutive years.

c) Efforts to sell to students the intrinsic value of speaking French

As Teacher D pointed out, teachers must also sell to students the rational intrinsic value of speaking French. Reward systems can only serve as reminders and extrinsic motivations in the establishment of classroom norms. In the long run students will behave more according to reason and intrinsic benefits to

themselves than to behaviorist rewards. Teachers should take time at the beginning of the school year to discuss with students the advantages to them and their peers of frequently speaking in French (e.g. increasing language input and output and practicing new vocabulary and oral structures), and review these benefits throughout the year.

Bélanger (1987) claims that teachers must sell French to EFL students living outside of French speaking areas because they do not naturally appreciate the value of French in their English speaking environment. EFL students in British Columbia would fall in this category due to the province's very low percentage of native French speakers.

d) Teaching strategies

Teaching strategies also play an important role in determining the frequency of student talk in French. Teachers' expectations, extrinsic reward systems, and even their efforts to sell the intrinsic benefits of speaking French provide the appropriate setting for students to speak French, and get them off to a good start. Teachers must also, however, engage their students in communicative tasks which provide them with frequent opportunities to speak French in extended discourse if they expect students to continue to speak regularly in French.

The communicative tasks observed in my study include small group work and discussion, class meetings, student oral presentations, and whole class discussions led by the students. Moreover, students benefit when the task requires them to negotiate meaning, and when the topic interests them, especially after an

experience they have enjoyed in French such as a film or cultural event. In these cases the EFL students can express their experience in French directly with their French language skills, and they do not have to transfer it through their mother-tongue.

Some commentators (e.g. Wong-Fillmore, 1985) claim that group work is counter-productive because pupils revert to their mother tongue. I noted this occurrence during my observations of Teachers B, C, and E. Allen et al. (1990) have suggested that teachers can avoid this by asking their students to perform tasks that require the outcome to be a written or spoken text in French, and one that is ideally presented to real audiences. Teacher E's students, for example, regularly spoke in English together, but when she asked them to discuss in groups some recommendations to improve their next Grade 7 dance, with the subsequent task of presenting them to the rest of the class, they spoke in French. These pupils realized that they could more effectively practice the required vocabulary and present their ideas if they talked in French.

e) Evaluation of frequency

Another aspect of the teacher's intervention is evaluating the frequency as well as the quality of French. Teachers D and E experienced some success encouraging their students to speak regularly in French by evaluating the frequency. Teacher E assigned student analysts during group work to monitor with a checklist the amount of French spoken by each pupil. This data would then contribute toward their letter grade for Speaking. Her students reported that this evaluation motivated them to speak in French more regularly.

f) French cultural activities and exchanges

Teachers organization of cultural activities in French and exchanges with Francophones can assist EFL students to overcome the artificial environment of the immersion classroom and allow them to interact with native French speakers. Most intermediate EFL students study in a somewhat artificial classroom environment in the sense that they do not *need* to converse in French to communicate, nor is French the easiest medium of communication available to them. They are predominantly English speakers who are asked to speak with each other in a language, French, that is not their mother tongue. Pupils know that they can communicate much more easily in English.

Participation in French cultural activities allows students to make a direct connection between the target language and its culture, and it motivates them to speak it. The activities can occur in the classroom, such as viewing French films or singing French songs, or outside the class, such as cultural festivals. Teachers can encourage students to watch French television programs.

Exchanges with Francophone students act as perhaps the strongest motivator for EFL students to speak in French because they can interact with native speaking peers. Teachers and students in this study had not participated in an exchange. However other teaching colleagues with whom I have spoken informally have organized exchanges and they speak highly of the benefits. Students are surprised to discover that the language they have studied actually fills a communicative need by real people.

g) Positive reinforcement, and students' perceptions of success in EFI

Lastly, teachers play an important role in students' perception of success in EFI. Teachers can increase students' confidence speaking French by positively reinforcing their efforts to speak, especially when they speak well. Presumably students that feel confident about their French skills will more likely speak frequently in French than those that lack confidence.

EFI students generally possess surprising confidence and self-assurance with their ability to orally express themselves in French. The majority of students in this study judged their speaking abilities in French to be very good or excellent, with the remaining indicating good. This self-confidence possibly deceives some pupils into believing that they no longer need to frequently practice their French. Teachers can therefore help students by pointing out some of their errors to them so that pupils are reminded that they still need need to practice their French by speaking it regularly.

This chapter has discussed the quantitative and qualitative results. The next chapter summarizes the findings and discussion, offers some recommendations to teachers, and makes some suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER V CONCLUSION

1. SUMMARY

This study has examined the effect of different teaching practices on the length and frequency of Grades 5-7 EFL student discourse. I started by measuring the frequency of activities which EFL teachers offer their students. Next, I measured and compared the effect of experiential and analytic teaching strategies on the length of student discourse. I then examined the role of immersion teachers in increasing the frequency of the pupils' discourse.

The Group A results suggest that EFL teachers instruct their students with teacher-directed activities such as direct instruction more frequently than student-centered activities such as group tasks. My data supports the hypothesis that experiential, communicative approaches generate significantly more sustained discourse (i.e. talk of more than one clause) than analytic orientations. Small group tasks and Small group discussion were the two activities in this study that generated the most sustained talk. Conversely, analytic approaches produced significantly more ultraminimal discourse (i.e. talk of one or two words), especially Whole class discussions-teacher led.

The Group B results suggest that most teachers and students believe that it is important for students in class to speak in French as much as possible. The most commonly reported reasons cited were that (a) speaking in French leads to fluency, (b) language students best learn to speak by speaking, and (c) school is often the only place students can practise their French.

Teachers and students perceived the actual frequency that students generally speak in French to vary considerably from one teacher and student to another. The majority of teachers indicated that students speak in French often and almost always, whereas the majority of students indicated sometimes. Students therefore judged the frequency of French to be less than the amount rated by their teachers. My classroom observations suggest that the students more accurately rated the frequency, and that several teachers naively and/or incorrectly believed that their pupils speak often in French.

Students reported that they do not always speak in French because (a) they find it easier to speak in English, (b) they experience some difficulties expressing themselves in French, especially with vocabulary, and (c) they experience pressure to conform to the norm of their peers (who often speak in English).

The teacher can play an important role in increasing the frequency of student discourse in French. The following teacher factors appear to play particularly influential roles: (a) teachers' expectations; (b) reward systems; (c) efforts to sell to students the intrinsic value of speaking French; and (d) teaching strategies. Other teacher interventions play influential but less significant roles, such as evaluating the frequency of student speech, organizing French cultural activities and exchanges, and providing positive reinforcement.

The data in this study suggest that those teachers who highly value their students speaking in French and who expect them to do so have much better success encouraging their students to speak in

French than those who do not. Teachers must also successfully communicate these expectations to the pupils, and rigorously implement some strategies to achieve them.

The successful implementation of reward strategies such as a dollar system also plays a critical role in encouraging pupils to speak frequently in French. The rigorous implementation of a reward strategy at the beginning of the school year reminds the pupils of the importance of regularly speaking in French. Once the teachers have successfully implemented the system, it serves as a norm and standard for students to follow for the rest of the school year. Training students to speak in French will provide them with considerable opportunity to practice the target language.

The dollar system is by no means the only reward strategy that teachers can use to encourage pupils to speak French. Several systems can work effectively as long as teachers (a) believe in it, (b) rigorously implement it, preferably near the beginning of the year when norms are established, and (c) do not have to spend too much time administering it after the first few weeks.

Teachers must also sell to students the rational intrinsic value of speaking French, such as practicing new vocabulary and language structures. Reward systems can only serve as reminders in the establishment of classroom norms. In the long run students will behave more according to reason and intrinsic benefits to themselves than to extrinsic rewards.

Teaching strategies also play a very important role in determining the frequency of student talk in French. Teachers' expectations, their extrinsic reward systems, and even their efforts

to sell the intrinsic benefits of speaking French provide the appropriate setting for students to speak in French. Teachers must also, however, engage the pupils in communicative tasks that provide them with frequent opportunities to speak French in extended discourse if the students are to continue to speak regularly in French for the entire school year.

The communicative tasks observed in this study include small group work and discussion, class meetings, student oral presentations, and whole class discussions led by the students. Students benefit when the tasks require them to negotiate meaning and when the topic interest them, especially after an experience they have enjoyed in French, such as a film or cultural event. In these cases the EFL students can express their experience directly with their French language skills, and not have to transfer it through their mother-tongue.

Contrary to the claims of some observers (e.g. Wong-Fillmore, 1985), students do not necessarily revert to speaking in English during group work, especially if teachers request them to perform tasks that require the outcome to be a written or spoken text in French, one that is ideally presented to real audiences.

Teachers can also motivate their students to speak in French by organizing cultural activities and exchanges. These events can assist EFL students to overcome the artificial environment of the immersion classroom and allow them to interact with native French speakers. Participating in French cultural activities allow students to make a direct connection between the target language and its culture. The activities can occur in the classroom, such as viewing

French films or singing French songs, or outside the class, such as cultural festivals.

Exchanges with Francophones students act as perhaps the strongest motivation for students to speak in French because they have the opportunity to converse with native speaking peers. Pupils are often surprised to discover that the language they have studied in the classroom actually fills a genuine communicative need by real native speakers. The exchange helps students make the transition from viewing their study of French for purely instrumental reasons to one including partial integration into a Francophone community.

2. RECOMMENDATIONS TO IMMERSION TEACHERS

Based on the evidence of this study, I recommend that Grades 5-7 EFI teachers:

- (a) value their students speaking in French, and always speak in French to their students during designated French time;
- (b) communicate to their students at the beginning of the school year that they expect them to always speak in French during designated French time;
- (c) reinforce their expectations to speak in French by pointing out to students the intrinsic benefits to them (i.e. practicing new vocabulary and oral structures, and increasing language input and output);
- (d) establish and rigorously implement at the beginning of the school year a reward system to remind students to speak in French;
- (e) practice communicative as opposed to analytic teaching strategies. Communicative activities increase the frequency of sustained student discourse, and provide students with regular opportunities to speak in French. Analytic activities increase the frequency of ultraminimal discourse, and do not provide students with regular opportunities to converse in French;

(f) organize cultural activities and/or exchanges. These events help remove the artificiality of the immersion program by helping students make a direct connection between the target language and its culture. The exchanges allow the EFI students to interact with native speakers;

(g) recognize that environmental, program, and psycholinguistic factors work against students willingly speaking in French, and try to combat these negative forces with the above recommendations (a-f).

3 IMPLICATIONS FOR OTHER SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHERS

Although this study examined the discourse of a specific group of language learners--Grades 5-7 EFI students--my findings suggest possible implications for other second language teachers. The same recommendations for Grades 5-7 EFI teachers are likely to be equally applicable for secondary EFI teachers who often face even greater obstacles than their elementary colleagues in encouraging their students to regularly speak in French.

Furthermore, teachers of English as a Second Language (ESL) at all levels might also benefit from these recommendations, especially regarding the length of discourse. The clientele of students in ESL (children, adolescents, and adults) vary considerably from Grades 5-7 EFI students. This difference makes the recommendations regarding frequency less applicable because ESL students experience much more intrinsic motivation to learn the target language so that they can integrate into their surrounding English-speaking community. The above recommendations could nevertheless also help ESL teachers to further increase the length of their students' discourse.

4. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In their 1990 article citing a French Immersion research agenda for the 1990's, Lapkin, Swain & Shapson called for more studies to examine the relationship between teaching strategies which elicit sustained student discourse and the quality of the students' speaking skills. My findings have supported the hypothesis that some teaching practices, including communicative teaching strategies, increase the length and frequency of student speech. Further research could now examine the effect of the teachers' interventions on the quality of student speech.

My data also suggest that educators might learn more about the willingness of intermediate EFI students to speak in French by researching the programmatic, environmental, and psychological student factors that appear to counteract the teacher's efforts to increase the frequency and quantity of students' speech. The environmental and psycholinguistic factors cannot be easily changed, but the programmatic influences can be altered.

Appendix A

Subject Solicitation and Preliminary Phone Interview

Contact type:
Visit _____
Phone _____

Site _____
Today's Date _____
Subject's Name _____

Bonjour. C'est Mike Sayers au téléphone. Pour ma thèse de maîtrise à l'Université Simon Fraser je fais une étude sur l'expression orale des élèves en immersion précoce. Je cherche six collègues qui seraient prêts à participer à mon étude. (Pause, réponse de l'interlocuteur(e)). Il s'agit de me permettre d'observer une série de quatre leçons durant une période d'une semaine en automne de cette année: deux leçons ou activités dans lesquelles vos élèves habituellement participent beaucoup oralement, et deux leçons où vos élèves parlent peu de français. Dans chacune des leçons, j'observerai l'expression orale de vos élèves à l'aide d'une grille d'observation. J'aimerais également vous interviewer après les observations, et un groupe de cinq de vos élèves.

Les données recueillies ne serviront que pour cette étude et bien sûr l'anonymat et la confidentialité seront complètement respectés.

1. Est-ce que vous aimeriez participer à cette étude? _____

Si non, fin d'interview.

Si oui, continuer avec les questions 2 à 7.

J'aimerais vous poser sept questions supplémentaires pour obtenir quelques renseignements de plus. D'accord?

2. Nommez-moi deux leçons/activités où vos élèves ont tendance à parler beaucoup de français comparé au reste du temps dans votre classe? A quels jours et à quelles heures se donnent-elles?

3. Nommez-moi deux leçons/activités où vos élèves ont tendance à parler peu de français comparé au reste du temps dans votre classe? A quels jours et à quelles heures se donnent-elles?

4. En ce qui concerne les stratégies d'enseignement utilisées durant les leçons ou activités exigeant une participation orale active en français, vous servez-vous de ces approches ou stratégies très souvent, souvent, de temps en temps, ou rarement au cours de la semaine?

5. En ce qui concerne les stratégies d'enseignement utilisées durant les leçons ou activités exigeant peu de participation orale, vous servez-vous de ces approches ou stratégies très souvent, souvent, de temps en temps, ou rarement au cours de la semaine?

6. En général, quel est l'arrangement des pupitres de votre classe?

Merci d'avoir répondu à ces questions et d'avoir accepté de participer à mon étude. Je vous contacterai bientôt pour préciser l'horaire de la semaine d'observation. Avez-vous des questions?

Au revoir.

Interviewer's observations:

7. Anything else that struck me as salient, interesting, illuminating or important in this first contact?

8. What new (or remaining) target questions do I have in considering the next contact with this site?

(Part I) - CLASSROOM EVENTS

Date _____
Observer _____

[illegible]

(PART II) - COMMUNICATIVE FEATURES

Date _____
Observer _____

182

Appendix C

Interview Questions with Teachers after Classroom Observations

Contact type:

Site _____

Visit _____

Phone _____

Today's Date _____

Subject's Name _____

Remerciements d'avoir permis au chercheur d'observer les leçons, et commentaires d'introduction.

1. Comment avez-vous trouvé la production du français parlé par vos élèves dans les quatre leçons observées en général, et plus particulièrement le montant de français ?

2. Questions aux professeurs après chacune des observations.

Lesson A. Sorte de leçon désignée par le professeur:

communicative _____ structurale _____

Comment se compare l'expression orale de vos élèves de cette leçon que je viens d'observer à leur production orale habituelle en classe?

Lesson B. Sorte de leçon désignée par le professeur:

communicative_____ structurale_____

Comment se compare l'expression orale de vos élèves de cette leçon
que je viens d'observer à leur production orale habituelle en classe?

Lesson C. Sorte de leçon désignée par le professeur:

communicative_____ structurale_____

Comment se compare l'expression orale de vos élèves de cette leçon
que je viens d'observer à leur production orale habituelle en classe?

Lesson D. Sorte de leçon désignée par le professeur:

communicative_____ structurale_____

Comment se compare l'expression orale de vos élèves de cette leçon
que je viens d'observer à leur production orale habituelle en classe?

3. En général dans votre classe, vos élèves parlent-ils en français
lorsqu'ils communiquent oralement entre eux

- ___ tout le temps
- ___ souvent
- ___ de temps en temps
- ___ rarement
- ___ jamais

Expliquez.

4. Etes-vous satisfait(e) de cette fréquence de français parlé par vos élèves?

Expliquez.

5. Durant le temps consacré à l'usage du français en classe, que pensez-vous de l'importance pour vos élèves de parler français le plus possible?

Expliquez.

6. Vous servez-vous de procédés pédagogiques, techniques, ou de systèmes pour promouvoir l'usage du français en classe? Lesquels?

7. Avez-vous eu du succès avec ces stratégies? Lesquelles suscitent le plus d'usage du français parmi les élèves?

8a. D'après vous, de quelles autres stratégies d'enseignement les professeurs pourraient-ils se servir pour promouvoir l'usage du français par leurs élèves?

1. **Identify the problem:** The problem is that the company is not meeting its sales targets.

2. **Analyze the problem:** The company is not meeting its sales targets because it is not effectively marketing its products.

3. **Develop a solution:** The company should develop a new marketing strategy that focuses on reaching its target audience.

4. **Implement the solution:** The company should implement the new marketing strategy by launching a series of targeted advertising campaigns.

5. **Evaluate the solution:** The company should evaluate the effectiveness of the new marketing strategy by tracking sales and customer feedback.

8b. Pourquoi ne les utilisez-vous pas?

Interviewer's observations:

Anything that struck me as salient, interesting, illuminating or important in this contact?

Blank page.

What new (or remaining) questions do I have in considering this site?

1. **Introduction:** This document provides a comprehensive overview of the project's objectives, scope, and the methodology employed for data analysis. It serves as a foundational reference for all stakeholders involved in the project.

2. **Objectives:** The primary goal of this project is to analyze the impact of various factors on the system's performance. Specific objectives include:

- Identifying key variables influencing the outcome.
- Establishing a baseline for comparison.
- Conducting controlled experiments to isolate individual effects.
- Formulating hypotheses based on theoretical models.

3. **Scope:** The project focuses on the analysis of data collected from the system over a period of six months. The scope is limited to the specific parameters and conditions defined in the experimental design.

4. **Methodology:** The research methodology is structured as follows:

- Data Collection:** Data was gathered from the system logs and sensor outputs, ensuring accuracy and consistency.
- Data Cleaning:** The collected data was meticulously cleaned to remove any noise or outliers that could skew the results.
- Statistical Analysis:** Advanced statistical techniques, including regression analysis and hypothesis testing, were applied to the data.
- Validation:** The findings were validated through cross-validation and comparison with existing literature.

5. **Results:** The analysis revealed several significant findings:

- Factor A had a positive and significant impact on the system's performance.
- Factor B showed a negative correlation with the outcome.
- The interaction between Factor A and Factor C was statistically significant.

6. **Conclusion:** The project successfully achieved its objectives, providing valuable insights into the system's behavior. The results suggest that further optimization can be achieved by adjusting the identified factors.

7. **Future Work:** Future research should explore the long-term effects of the identified factors and investigate additional variables that may influence the system's performance.

Appendix D

Interview Questions with Students after Classroom Observations

Site_____

Today's Date_____

Subjects' Names_____

Remerciements d'avoir pris le temps de venir à cette interview, et commentaires d'introduction.

1. Comment avez-vous trouvé la production du français parlé par vous dans les quatre leçons observées en général, et plus particulièrement le montant de français? (Si c'est nécessaire, préciser en leur demandant s'ils ont trouvé qu'ils ont parlé beaucoup, un montant normal, ou peu de français)

2. Questions aux élèves après chacune des observations.

Lesson A. Sorte de leçon désignée par le professeur:

communicative_____ structurale_____

Comment se compare votre expression orale de cette leçon que je viens d'observer à votre production orale habituelle en classe? (Si c'est nécessaire, préciser, en leur demandant s'ils ont trouvé qu'ils ont parlé plus que d'habitude, moins que d'habitude, ou à peu près normal).

Lesson B. Sorte de leçon désignée par le professeur:

communicative_____ structurale_____

Comment se compare votre expression orale de cette leçon que je viens d'observer à votre production orale habituelle en classe?

Lesson C. Sorte de leçon désignée par le professeur:

communicative_____ structurale_____

Comment se compare votre expression orale de cette leçon que je viens d'observer à votre production orale habituelle en classe?

Lesson D. Sorte de leçon désignée par le professeur:

communicative_____ structurale_____

Comment se compare votre expression orale de cette leçon que je viens d'observer à votre production orale habituelle en classe?

3. En général dans votre classe, parlez-vous en français lorsque vous communiquez entre vous

- ___ tout le temps
- ___ souvent
- ___ de temps en temps
- ___ rarement
- ___ jamais

Expliquez.

4. En général dans votre classe, les autres élèves parlent-ils en français lorsqu'ils communiquent oralement entre eux

- ☐ tout le temps
- ☐ souvent
- ☐ de temps en temps
- ☐ rarement
- ☐ jamais

Expliquez.

5. Etes-vous satisfait(e)s de cette fréquence de français parlé par vous?

Expliquez.

6. Durant le temps consacré à l'usage du français en classe, que pensez-vous de l'importance de parler en français le plus possible?

Expliquez

7. Croyez-vous que plus vous parlez français en classe, plus votre français s'améliore? Expliquez.

8. Comment votre professeur arrive-t-il à vous encourager à parler français en classe? Expliquez.

9. Lesquels de ses systèmes ou techniques vous font parler le plus? Expliquez.

10. D'après vous, qu'est-ce qu' il/elle peut encore faire pour vous faire parler en français?

10. Croyez vous qu' actuellement, votre niveau de français parlé est:

- ☐ excellent
- ☐ très bon
- ☐ bon
- ☐ moyen
- ☐ faible

Interviewer's observations:

Anything that struck me as salient, interesting, illuminating or important in this contact?

1. **Introduction:** This document provides a comprehensive overview of the project's objectives, scope, and the methodology employed for data analysis. The primary goal is to identify key trends and patterns within the dataset, enabling informed decision-making.

2. **Methodology:** The data was collected through a series of structured interviews and surveys, ensuring a high level of accuracy and reliability. The analysis was conducted using advanced statistical software, allowing for the identification of complex relationships and correlations.

3. **Findings:** The analysis reveals several significant trends. Firstly, there is a strong correlation between the variables studied, indicating a clear relationship. Secondly, the data suggests that certain factors are more influential than others, which can be leveraged for strategic planning.

4. **Conclusion:** The findings of this study are highly relevant and provide valuable insights into the current state of the project. It is recommended that the identified trends be incorporated into future planning and implementation strategies to ensure continued success.

5. **Recommendations:** Based on the findings, several key recommendations are provided. These include implementing specific measures to address identified challenges and leveraging the strengths of the project. Regular monitoring and evaluation are advised to ensure the effectiveness of these recommendations.

What new (or remaining) questions do I have in considering this site?

1. **Introduction**

The purpose of this report is to provide a comprehensive overview of the current state of the market for renewable energy sources, with a particular focus on solar and wind power. The report will analyze the key factors influencing the growth of these sectors, including government policies, technological advancements, and public opinion.

The report is structured as follows: Section 2 provides an overview of the renewable energy market, while Section 3 focuses on the solar energy sector. Section 4 discusses the wind energy sector, and Section 5 examines the challenges and opportunities facing the industry. Finally, Section 6 provides a conclusion and recommendations for future research.

2. **Renewable Energy Market Overview**

The renewable energy market has experienced significant growth in recent years, driven by a combination of factors. Government policies, such as feed-in tariffs and renewable energy targets, have played a crucial role in stimulating investment and development. Additionally, technological advancements have led to a significant reduction in the cost of renewable energy, making it a more competitive alternative to fossil fuels.

Public opinion has also shifted in favor of renewable energy, with many consumers now prioritizing sustainable and environmentally friendly energy sources. This has led to an increase in demand for renewable energy products and services, further driving market growth.

3. **Solar Energy Sector**

The solar energy sector has emerged as one of the fastest-growing segments of the renewable energy market. This is primarily due to the significant reduction in the cost of solar panels, which has made solar power a more viable option for both residential and commercial applications. Additionally, government incentives, such as the federal solar investment tax credit, have encouraged investment in solar energy projects.

Technological advancements in solar panel efficiency and energy storage have also contributed to the sector's growth. These innovations have improved the performance and reliability of solar energy systems, making them a more attractive investment for businesses and homeowners alike.

4. **Wind Energy Sector**

The wind energy sector has also experienced rapid growth, driven by a combination of factors. Government policies, such as the Renewable Energy Act, have provided a strong regulatory framework for the sector, encouraging investment and development. Additionally, technological advancements in wind turbine design and manufacturing have led to a significant increase in the capacity and efficiency of wind energy systems.

Public opinion has also shifted in favor of wind energy, with many consumers now viewing wind power as a clean and sustainable energy source. This has led to an increase in demand for wind energy products and services, further driving market growth.

5. **Challenges and Opportunities**

While the renewable energy market shows strong growth potential, there are several challenges that must be addressed to ensure its long-term success. These challenges include the intermittency of renewable energy sources, the need for improved energy storage and grid infrastructure, and the potential for land use conflicts.

However, there are also significant opportunities for the renewable energy sector. Continued technological innovation, coupled with supportive government policies and growing public demand, could lead to a significant increase in the share of renewable energy in the overall energy mix. This would not only help to reduce greenhouse gas emissions but also create new jobs and economic opportunities.

6. **Conclusion and Recommendations**

In conclusion, the renewable energy market is poised for continued growth and development. To maximize the potential of this sector, it is essential to address the challenges identified in this report and to continue to support innovation and investment in renewable energy technologies. By doing so, we can ensure a sustainable and secure energy future for generations to come.

**Appendix E1 Length of Student Discourse per Activity:
Mean percentages of Observed Time for Teacher A**

| ACTIVITY | TEACHER A | TEACHER A | TEACHER A | TOTAL CHECK |
|----------|-------------|-----------|-----------|----------------|
| | ULTRAMINIM. | MINIMAL | SUSTAINED | MARKS |

| GROUP I | STUDENT | DOMINATED | DISCUSSION | |
|----------------------------|---------|-----------|------------|---|
| ORAL PRESENTATION. | 0.17 | 0.50 | 0.33 | 6 |
| WHOLE CLASS DISC.- STUDENT | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| SMALL GROUP TASK | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| CLASS MEETING | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP II | TEACHER | DOMINATED | DISCUSSION | |
|----------------------------|---------|-----------|------------|----|
| WHOLE CLASS DISC. -TEACHER | 0.50 | 0.33 | 0.10 | 30 |
| INTRODUCTION | 0.20 | 0.60 | 0.20 | 5 |
| ORAL GAME | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| VOCABULARY DEFINITIONS | 0.40 | 0.48 | 0.12 | 40 |
| TEXT. ANALYSIS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ERROR ANALYSIS | 0.27 | 0.64 | 0.09 | 33 |
| EXERCISE CORRECTION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| REVIEW | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| CONCLUSION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP III | MONOLOGUE | ACTIVITIES | | |
|---------------------|-----------|------------|---|---|
| TEACHER DIRECTIONS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ORAL READING | 0 | 1.00 | 0 | 3 |
| TEACHER INSTRUCTION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP IV | NO DISCUSSION | ACTIVITIES | | |
|-------------------|------------------|------------|------|-----------|
| WRITTEN TASK | 0 | 0.40 | 0.60 | 5 |
| WRITTEN EXERCISES | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| GUIDED PRACTICE | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ORGANIZATION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | | | | |
| | | | | TOTAL 123 |

Numbers represent percentage of check marks allocated to: student discourse in Teacher A's four observed lessons

**Appendix E2 Length of Student Discourse per Activity:
Mean percentages of Observed Time for Teacher B**

| ACTIVITY | TEACHER B | TEACHER B | TEACHER B | TOTAL CHECK |
|----------|-------------|-----------|-----------|----------------|
| | ULTRAMINIM. | MINIMAL | SUSTAINED | MARKS |

| GROUP I | STUDENT | DOMINATED | DISCUSSION | |
|----------------------------|---------|-----------|------------|----|
| ORAL PRESENTATN. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| WHOLE CLASS DISC. -STUDENT | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION | 0 | 0.33 | 0.67 | 21 |
| SMALL GROUP TASK | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| CLASS MEETING | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP II | TEACHER | DOMINATED | DISCUSSION | |
|----------------------------|---------|-----------|------------|----|
| WHOLE CLASS DISC. -TEACHER | 0.46 | 0.27 | 0.27 | 26 |
| INTRODUCTION | 0.33 | 0.33 | 0.33 | 6 |
| ORAL GAME | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| VOCABULARY DEFINITIONS | 1.00 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| TEXT ANALYSIS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ERROR ANALYSIS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| EXERCISE CORRECTION | 0.22 | 0.67 | 0.11 | 9 |
| REVIEW | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| CONCLUSION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP III | MONOLOGUE | ACTIVITIES | | |
|----------------------|-----------|------------|------|----|
| TEACHER DIRECTIONS | 0.46 | 0.30 | 0.20 | 13 |
| ORAL READING | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| TEACHER INSTRUCTIONS | 0.93 | 0.07 | 0 | 14 |

| GROUP IV | NO | DISCUSSION | ACTIVITIES | |
|-------------------|------|------------|------------|----------|
| WRITTEN TASK | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| WRITTEN EXERCISES | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| GUIDED PRACTICE | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ORGANIZATION | 0.67 | 0.30 | 0 | 3 |
| | | | | |
| | | | | TOTAL 94 |

Numbers represent percentage of check marks allocated for student discourse in Teacher B's four observed lessons.

**Appendix E3 Length of Student Discourse per Activity:
Mean Percentages of Observed Time for Teacher C**

| ACTIVITY | TEACHER C ULTRAMINIM. | TEACHER C MINIMAL | TEACHER C SUSTAINED | TOTAL CHECK MARKS |
|----------|--------------------------|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
|----------|--------------------------|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|

| GROUP I | STUDENT | DOMINATED | DISCUSSION | |
|-----------------------------|---------|-----------|------------|----|
| ORAL PRESENTATION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| WHOLE CLASS DISC. - STUDENT | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| SMALL GROUP TASK | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| CLASS MEETING | 0 | 0.16 | 0.84 | 12 |

| GROUP II | TEACHER | DOMINATED | DISCUSSION | |
|----------------------------|---------|-----------|------------|----|
| WHOLE CLASS DISC. -TEACHER | 0.37 | 0.39 | 0.22 | 23 |
| INTRODUCTION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ORAL GAME | 0.17 | 0.50 | 0.33 | 18 |
| VOCABULARY DEFINITIONS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| TEXT ANALYSIS | 0.30 | 0.60 | 0.10 | 33 |
| ERROR ANALYSIS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| EXERCISE CORRECTION. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| REVIEW | 0.27 | 0.64 | 0.09 | 11 |
| CONCLUSION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP III | MONOLOGUE | ACTIVITIES | | |
|------------------|-----------|------------|---|---|
| TEACHER DIRCTS. | 0 | 1.00 | 0 | 5 |
| ORAL READING | 1.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| TEA. INSTRUCTION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP IV | NO DISCUSSION | ACTIVITIES | | |
|-------------------|---------------|------------|---|---|
| WRITTEN TASK | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| WRITTEN. EXERCISE | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| GUIDED PRACTICE | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ORGANIZATION. | 0 | 1.00 | 0 | 1 |

TOTAL 103

Numbers represent percentage of check marks allocated for student discourse in Teacher C's four observed lessons

**Appendix E4 Length of Student Discourse per Activity:
Mean percentages of Observed Time for Teacher D**

| ACTIVITY | TEACHER D | TEACHER D | TEACHER D | TOTAL CHECK |
|----------|-------------|-----------|-----------|-------------|
| | ULTRAMINIM. | MINIMAL | SUSTAINED | MARKS |

| GROUP I | STUDENT | DOMINATED | DISCUSSION | |
|--------------------------------|---------|-----------|------------|----|
| ORAL PRESENTATION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| WHOLE CLASS DISC. - STUDENT | 0 | 1 | 1 | 5 |
| SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION | 0 | 0.47 | 0 | 7 |
| SMALL GROUP TASK | 0.20 | 0 | 0.33 | 15 |
| CLASS MEETING | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP II | TEACHER | DOMINATED | DISCUSSION | |
|-------------------------------|---------|-----------|------------|----|
| WHOLE CLASS DISC.- TEACHER | 0.28 | 0.39 | 0.33 | 36 |
| INTRODUCTION | 0.60 | 0.20 | 0.20 | 5 |
| ORAL GAME | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| VOCABULARY DEFINITIONS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| TEXT ANALYSIS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ERROR ANALYSIS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| EXERCISE CORRECTION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| REVIEW | 1.00 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| CONCLUSION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP III | MONOLOGUE | ACTIVITIES | | |
|--------------------|-----------|------------|---|---|
| TEACHER DIRECTIONS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ORAL READING | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| TEACHER INSTRUCT. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP IV | NO | DISCUSSION | ACTIVITIES | |
|--------------------|----|------------|------------|---|
| WRITTEN TASK | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| WRITTEN. EXERCISES | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| GUIDED PRACTICE. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| ORGANIZATION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

TOTAL 78

Numbers represent percentage of check marks allocated for student discourse in Teacher D's four observed lessons

**Appendix E5 Length of Student Discourse per Activity:
Mean Percentages of Observed Time for Teacher E**

| ACTIVITY | TEACHER E ULTRAMINIM. | TEACHER E MINIMAL | TEACHER E SUSTAINED | TOTAL CHECK MARKS |
|----------|--------------------------|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
|----------|--------------------------|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|

| GROUP I | STUDENT | DOMINATED | DISCUSSION | |
|-------------------------------|---------|-----------|------------|----|
| ORAL PRESENTATION | 0 | 0 | 1.00 | 7 |
| WHOLE CLASS DISC.- STUDENT | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION | 0 | 0.22 | 0.78 | 18 |
| SMALL GROUP TASK | 0.09 | 0.27 | 0.64 | 44 |
| CLASS MEETING | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP II | TEACHER | DOMINATED | DISCUSSION | |
|------------------------------|---------|-----------|------------|----|
| WHOLE CLASS DISC. TEACHER | 0.36 | 0.32 | 0.32 | 19 |
| INTRODUCTION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ORAL GAME | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| VOCABULARY DEFINITIONS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| TEXT ANALYSIS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ERROR ANALYSIS | 0.08 | 0.67 | 0.25 | 12 |
| EXERCISE CORRECT. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| REVIEW | 0 | 0.50 | 0.50 | 2 |
| CONCLUSION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP III | MONOLOGUE | ACTIVITIES | | |
|-------------------------|-----------|------------|------|----|
| TEACHER DIRECTIONS | 0.50 | 0.20 | 0.30 | 10 |
| ORAL READING | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| TEACHER INSTRUCTIONS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP IV | NO | DISCUSSION | ACTIVITIES | |
|---------------------|------|------------|------------|----|
| WRITTEN TASK | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| WRITTEN. EXERCISES. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| GUIDED PRACTICE | 0.20 | 0.80 | 0 | 25 |
| ORGANIZATION. | 0 | 1.00 | 0 | 4 |

TOTAL 141

Numbers represent percentage of check marks allocated for student discourse in Teacher E's four observed lessons

**Appendix E6 Length of Student Discourse per Activity:
Mean Percentages of Observed Time for Teacher F**

| ACTIVITY | TEACHER F | TEACHER F | TEACHER F | TOTAL CHECK |
|----------|-------------|-----------|-----------|-------------|
| | ULTRAMINIM. | MINIMAL | SUSTAINED | MARKS |

| GROUP I | STUDENT | DOMINATED | DISCUSSION | |
|-----------------------------|---------|-----------|------------|----|
| ORAL PRESENTATION | 0 | 0 | 1.00 | 5 |
| WHOLE CLASS DISC. - STUDENT | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION | 0 | 0.29 | 0.71 | 7 |
| SMALL GROUP TASK | 0.10 | 0.33 | 0.57 | 21 |
| CLASS MEETING | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP II | TEACHER | DOMINATED | DISCUSSION | |
|----------------------------------|---------|-----------|------------|----|
| WHOLE CLASS DISCUSSION - TEACHER | 0.25 | 0.55 | 0.20 | 20 |
| INTRODUCTION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ORAL GAME | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| VOCABULARY DEFINITIONS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| TEXT ANALYSIS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ERROR ANALYSIS | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| EXERCISE CORRECTION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| REVIEW | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| CONCLUSION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP III | MONOLOGUE | ACTIVITIES | | |
|---------------------|-----------|------------|------|----|
| TEACHER DIRECTIONS. | 0 | 0.58 | 0.42 | 12 |
| ORAL READING | 0 | 0.20 | 0.80 | 5 |
| TEACHER INSTRUCTION | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| GROUP IV | NO | DISCUSSION | ACTIVITIES | |
|---------------------|------|------------|------------|----|
| WRITTEN TASK | 0 | 1.00 | 0 | 3 |
| WRITTEN. EXERCISES. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| GUIDED PRACTICE | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ORGANIZATION. | 0.05 | 0.57 | 0.38 | 21 |

TOTAL 94

Numbers represent percentage of check marks allocated for student discourse in Teacher F's four observed lessons.

Appendix F1: Totals for Part I of COLT coding scheme

| | Activity | Lenth. | T - S/C |
|---|----------|---------|---------|
| Totals of Whole Class Discussions for all teachers for Part I | 160 | minutes | 107 |
| Totals of Small Group Tasks for all teachers for Part I | 160 | minutes | 0 |

Appendix F2: Totals for Part II of COLT coding scheme

| | Activity | Lenth. | L1 -TEACHER |
|--|----------|---------|-------------|
| Totals of Whole Class Discussions for all teachers for Part II | 160 | minutes | 1 |
| Totals of Small Group Tasks for all teachers for Part II | 160 | minutes | 0 |

| S - S/C | CHORAL | SAME GR. WK. | DIFF. GR. WK. | INDIVIDUAL | GR/IND. |
|---------|--------|--------------|---------------|------------|---------|
| 52 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 | 0 | 133 | 27 | 0 | 0 |

| L2 | PREDIC. | UNPRED. | PSUEDO | GENUINE | MINIMAL |
|-----|---------|---------|--------|---------|---------|
| 142 | 30 | 58 | 57 | 9 | 16 |
| 42 | 0 | 17 | 0 | 8 | 10 |

Appendix F1-F2

| # OF GROUPS | # OF ST./GP. | TEA. MONIT. | FORM | FUNCTION | DISCOURSE |
|-------------|--------------|-------------|------|----------|-----------|
| 0 | 0 | | 39 | 0 | 0 |
| 111 | 42 | | 4 | 0 | 0 |

| SUSTAINED | EX. CODE | RE. MESSAGE | L1-STUDENT | L2 | CHORAL |
|-----------|----------|-------------|------------|-----|--------|
| 139 | 4 | 150 | 3 | 150 | 13 |
| 17 | 0 | 27 | 28 | 124 | 0 |

1

| SOC. LING. | NARROW | LIMITED | BROAD | TEACHER | TEA/STUD. |
|------------|--------|---------|-------|---------|-----------|
| 0 | 0 | 30 | 94 | 134 | 29 |
| 0 | 3 | 48 | 105 | 4 | 129 |

| PRED | UNPRED. | PSUEDO | GENUINE | ULTRAMINIM. | MINIMAL |
|------|---------|--------|---------|-------------|---------|
| 96 | 52 | 0 | 11 | 58 | 66 |
| 2 | 100 | 7 | 27 | 9 | 46 |

Appendix F1-F2

| STUDENT | PEDAG. L2 | SEMI-PED. | NON-PED. | STUD. MADE |
|---------|-----------|-----------|----------|------------|
| 0 | 19 | 29 | 0 | 0 |
| 27 | 0 | 41 | 29 | 0 |

| SUSTAINED | EX. CODE | RE. MESSAGE | DISC. INITIAT. | RESTRICTED | UNRESTRICT. |
|-----------|----------|-------------|----------------|------------|-------------|
| 35 | 0 | 157 | 15 | 66 | 93 |
| 77 | 2 | 134 | 82 | 12 | 124 |

9

**Appendix G1 Length of Student Speech :
Mean Percentages of Observed Time of Small Group Tasks
and Whole Class Discussions**

| Activity Group | Statistic | Ultramin. | Minimal | Sust. | Totals |
|---|-----------|-----------|---------|-------|--------|
| Group I Small group tasks | Frequency | 9 | 46 | 77 | 132 |
| | Percent | 3.09 | 15.81 | 26.46 | 45.36 |
| | Row Pct | 6.82 | 34.85 | 58.33 | |
| | Col Pct | 13.43 | 41.07 | 68.75 | |
| ----- | | | | | |
| Group II - Whole class discussions | Frequency | 58 | 66 | 35 | 159 |
| | Percent | 19.93 | 22.68 | 12.03 | 54.64 |
| | Row Pct | 36.48 | 41.51 | 22.01 | |
| | Col Pct | 86.57 | 58.93 | 31.25 | |
| ----- | | | | | |
| Total | | 67 | 112 | 112 | 291 |
| | | 23.02 | 38.49 | 38.49 | 100. |
| ----- | | | | | |
| Statistic | DF | Value | Prob. | | |
| ----- | | | | | |
| Chi-Square | 2 | 53.109 | 0.000 | | |
| Likelihood Ratio | 2 | 57.109 | 0.000 | | |
| Chi-square | | | | | |

Sample Size = 291

**Appendix G2 Information Exchange of Teachers:
Mean Percentages of Observed Time of
Small Group and Whole Class Discussions**

| Activity Group | Data | Predictable | Unpredictable | Totals |
|----------------|------|-------------|---------------|--------|
|----------------|------|-------------|---------------|--------|

| | | | | |
|---------|-----------|------|--------|-------|
| Group I | Frequency | 0 | 17 | 17 |
| Small | Percent | 0.00 | 16.19 | 16.19 |
| group | Row Pct. | 0.00 | 100.00 | |
| tasks | Col Pct. | 0.00 | 22.67 | |

| | | | | |
|-------------|-----------|--------|-------|-------|
| Group II | Frequency | 30 | 58 | 88 |
| Whole | Percent | 28.57 | 55.24 | 83.81 |
| Class | Row Pct. | 34.09 | 65.91 | |
| Discussions | Col Pct. | 100.00 | 77.33 | |

| | | | | |
|-------|--|-------|-------|--------|
| Total | | 30 | 75 | |
| | | 28.57 | 71.43 | 100.00 |

| Statistic | DF | Value | Prob. |
|------------------|----|--------|-------|
| Chi-Square | 1 | 8.114 | 0.004 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 1 | 12.709 | 0.000 |
| Chi-Square | | | |

Sample Size = 105

**Appendix G3 Information Requests of Teachers:
Mean Percentages of Observed Time of
Small Group and Whole Class Discussions**

| <u>Activity</u> | <u>Data</u> | <u>Predictable</u> | <u>Unpredictable</u> | <u>Total</u> |
|------------------|-------------|--------------------|----------------------|--------------|
| <u>Group</u> | | | | |
| Group I | Frequency | 0 | 8 | 8 |
| Small | Percent | 0.00 | 10.81 | 10.81 |
| group | Row Pct. | 0.00 | 100.00 | |
| tasks | Col Pct. | 0.00 | 47.06 | |
| ----- | | | | |
| Group II | Frequency | 57 | 9 | 66 |
| Whole | Percent | 77.03 | 12.16 | 89.19 |
| Class | Row Pct. | 86.36 | 13.64 | |
| Discussions | Col Pct. | 100.00 | 52.94 | |
| ----- | | | | |
| Total | | 57 | 17 | 74 |
| | | 77.03 | 22.97 | 100.00 |
| ----- | | | | |
| Statistic | DF | Value | Prob. | |
| Chi-Square | 1 | 30.075 | 0.000 | |
| Likelihood Ratio | 1 | 27.1888 | 0.000 | |
| Chi-Square | | | | |

Sample Size = 74

**Appendix G4 Information Exchange by Students:
Mean Percentages of Observed Times of
Small Group and Whole Class Discussions**

| <u>Activity Group</u> | <u>Data</u> | <u>Predictable</u> | <u>Unpredictable</u> | <u>Total</u> |
|-----------------------|-------------|--------------------|----------------------|--------------|
| Group I | Frequency | 2 | 100 | 102 |
| Small | Percent | 0.80 | 40.00 | 40.80 |
| group | Row Pct. | 1.96 | 98.04 | |
| tasks | Col Pct. | 2.04 | 65.79 | |
| ----- | | | | |
| Group II | Frequency | 96 | 52 | 148 |
| Whole | Percent | 38.40 | 20.80 | 59.20 |
| Class | Row Pct. | 64.86 | 35.14 | |
| Discussions | Col Pct. | 97.96 | 34.21 | |
| ----- | | | | |
| Total | | 98 | 152 | 250 |
| | | 39.20 | 60.80 | 100.00 |
| ----- | | | | |
| Statistic | DF | Value | Prob. | |
| ----- | | | | |
| Chi-Square | 1 | 100.251 | 0.000 | |
| Likelihood Ratio | 1 | 123.239 | 0.000 | |
| Chi-Square | | | | |

Sample Size = 250

**Appendix G5 Information requests of Students:
Mean Percentages of Observed Time of
Small Group and Whole Class Discussions**

| <u>Activity</u> <u>Group</u> | <u>Data</u> | <u>Predictable</u> | <u>Genuine</u> | <u>Total</u> |
|---------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|----------------|--------------|
| Group I | Frequency | 7 | 27 | 34 |
| Small | Percent | 15.56 | 60.00 | 75.56 |
| group | Row Pct. | 20.59 | 79.41 | |
| tasks | Col Pct. | 100.00 | 71.05 | |
| ----- | | | | |
| Group II | Frequency | 0 | 11 | 11 |
| Whole | Percent | 0.00 | 24.11 | 24.44 |
| Class | Row Pct. | 0.00 | 100.00 | |
| Discussions | Col Pct. | 0.00 | 28.95 | |
| ----- | | | | |
| Total | | 7 | 38 | 45 |
| | | 15.56 | 84.44 | 100.00 |
| ----- | | | | |
| Statistic | DF | Value | Prob. | |
| ----- | | | | |
| Chi-Square | 1 | 2.682 | 0.101 | |
| Likelihood Ratio | 1 | 4.326 | 0.038 | |
| Chi-Square | | | | |

Sample Size = 45

**Appendix G6 Relative Restriction on Student Talk:
Mean Percentages of Observed Time of
Small Group Tasks and Whole Class Discussions**

| <u>Activity</u> <u>Group</u> | | <u>Data Restricted</u> | <u>Unrestricted</u> | <u>Total</u> |
|---------------------------------|-----------|------------------------|---------------------|--------------|
| Group I | Frequency | 12 | 124159 | |
| Small | Percent | 4.07 | 42.03 | 46.10 |
| group | Row Pct. | 8.82 | 91.18 | |
| tasks | Col Pct. | 15.38 | 57.14 | |
| ----- | | | | |
| Group II | Frequency | 66 | 93136 | |
| Whole | Percent | 22.37 | 31.53 | 53.90 |
| Class | Row Pct. | 41.51 | 58.49 | |
| Discussions | Col Pct. | 84.62 | 42.86 | |
| ----- | | | | |
| Total | | 78 | 217295 | |
| | | 26.44 | 73.56 | 100.00 |
| ----- | | | | |
| Statistic | DF | Value | Prob. | |
| ----- | | | | |
| Chi-Square | 1 | 40.265 | 0.000 | |
| Likelihood Ratio | 1 | 43.805 | 0.000 | |
| Chi-Square | | | | |

Sample Size = 295

**Appendix G7 Subject Matter and Language Spoken:
Mean Percentages of Observed Time of
Small Group Tasks and Whole Class Discussion**

| Activity | Data | Form | Narrow | Limtd. | Broad | Total |
|------------------|-----------|--------|--------|--------|-------|--------|
| Group | | Range | Range | Range | Range | |
| Group I | Frequency | 4 | 3 | 48 | 105 | 160 |
| Small | Percent | 1.24 | 0.93 | 14.86 | 32.51 | 49.54 |
| group | Row Pct. | 2.50 | 1.88 | 30.00 | 65.63 | |
| tasks | Col Pct. | 9.30 | 100.00 | 61.54 | 52.76 | |
| ----- | | | | | | |
| Group II | Frequency | 39 | 0 | 30 | 94 | 163 |
| Whole | Percent | 12.07 | 0.00 | 9.29 | 29.10 | 50.46 |
| Class | Row Pct. | 23.93 | 0.00 | 18.40 | 57.67 | |
| Discussions | Col Pct. | 90.70 | 0.00 | 38.46 | 47.24 | |
| ----- | | | | | | |
| Total | | 43 | 3 | 78 | 199 | 323 |
| | | 13.31 | 0.93 | 24.15 | 61.61 | 100.00 |
| ----- | | | | | | |
| Statistic | DF | Value | | Prob. | | |
| ----- | | | | | | |
| Chi-Square | 3 | 36.226 | | 0.000 | | |
| Likelihood Ratio | 3 | 41.927 | | 0.000 | | |
| Chi-Square | | | | | | |

Sample Size = 323

**Appendix G8 Source and Purpose of Materials:
Mean Percentages of Observed Time of
Small Group Tasks and Whole Class Discussions**

| Activity | Data | Pedag. | Semi- | Non- | Totals |
|-------------|-----------|--------|-------|--------|--------|
| Group | | Lang 2 | Pedag | Pedag. | |
| Group I | Frequency | 0 | 41 | 29 | 70 |
| Small | Percent | 0.00 | 34.75 | 24.58 | 59.58 |
| group | Row Pct. | 0.00 | 58.57 | 41.43 | |
| tasks | Col Pct. | 0.00 | 58.57 | 100.00 | |
| ----- | | | | | |
| Group II | Frequency | 19 | 29 | 0 | 48 |
| Whole | Percent | 16.10 | 24.58 | 0.00 | 40.68 |
| Class | Row Pct. | 39.58 | 60.42 | 0.00 | |
| Discussions | Col Pct. | 100.00 | 41.43 | 0.00 | |
| ----- | | | | | |
| Total | | 19 | 70 | 29 | 118 |
| | | 16.10 | 59.32 | 24.58 | 100.00 |

| Statistic | DF | Value | Prob. |
|------------------|----|--------|-------|
| ----- | | | |
| Chi-Square | 2 | 47.610 | 0.000 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 2 | 64.484 | 0.000 |
| Chi-Square | | | |

Sample Size = 118



Appendix H

May 1, 1992

Mike Sayers
74-1195 Falcon Drive
Coquitlam, B.C.
V3E 2H1

Dear Mr. Sayers,

Thank you for your letter of March 14, in which you request permission to include some of my copyrighted material in your masters thesis.

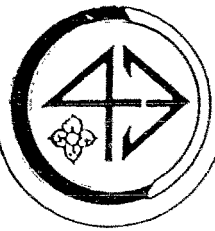
I am pleased to grant you permission to reproduce in the methodology section of your thesis previously copyrighted material from the appendix (pages 78-81) of an article 'Aspects of classroom treatment: towards a more comprehensive view of second language education' which I coauthored with M. Swain, B. Harley and J. Cummins, and which was published as Chapter 5 of *The Development of Second Language Proficiency*, edited by Harley, Allen, Cummins and Swain (Cambridge University Press 1990).

I also hereby allow the National Library of Canada the right to reproduce the above copyrighted material (i.e., pages 78-81 of *The Development of Bilingual Proficiency*) in your thesis for loan or sale to interested researchers.

Yours sincerely,

J.P.B. Allen
Associate Professor
Modern Language Centre

JPBA/caj



School District No. 43 (Coquitlam)

550 Poirier Street ~ Coquitlam, B.C. ~ V3J 6A7 ~ Tel. 939-9201 ~ Fax. 939-7828

Appendix I

1991-06-12

Mr. Mike Sayers,
c/o Kilmer Elementary School,
1575 Knappen Street,
Port Coquitlam, B.C.
V3C 2P8

Dear Mike:

I am writing to confirm that District permission has been given for you to proceed with your study on the effect of different teaching strategies on EFL students' speaking skills in the Fall of 1991. I understand that this study is in partial fulfillment of your Masters thesis at Simon Fraser University.

I have approached the principal of each school identified in your letter: Alderson, Glenayre, Kilmer, Hillcrest and Irvine, and found them to be supportive of your study.

As you are aware, however, the following general requirements are in effect for research projects undertaken in the District:

- voluntary participation (principal, teachers, students, parents)
- information to parents at the discretion of the principal
- parental consent if deemed necessary by the principal
- anonymity preserved
- no cost to the District
- reports made available to the District.

Good luck with your study, it promises to provide information of interest on teaching style as it relates to students' oral communication skills. Feel free to call me if you have any questions.

Yours truly,

Alan R. Taylor, Ed.D.,
Director Instruction, Curriculum/Assessment

AT/pks

Encl.
cc

- Principals
Assistant Superintendents

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abbotsford School District Office, (1988). *District Instructional Expectations*. School District #34 (Abbotsford), mimeo.

Adiv, E. (1980). An analysis of second language performance in two types of immersion programs, *Bulletin of the Canadian Association of Applied Linguistics*, (2), 139-52.

Allen, P. (1983). A three-level curriculum model for second-language education. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 40, 23-43.

Allen, P., Cummins, J., Harley, B., Lapkin, S., and Swain, M., (1989). Restoring the balance: A response to Hammerly. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 45 (4), 770-782.

Allen, P., Cummins, J., Mougeon, R., and Swain, M. (1983). *The Development of Bilingual Proficiency: Second Year Report and Appendices*. Toronto: Modern Language Center, O.I.S.E., mimeo.

Allen, P., Frohlich, M., & Spada, N. (1984). The communicative orientation of language teaching: an observation scheme. In J. Handscombe, R.A. Orem, & B.P. Taylor (eds.), *On TESOL '83*. Washington, D.C.: TESOL.

Allen, P., Frohlich, M., and Spada, N. (1987). COLT observation scheme: development and validation. In B. Harley, P. Allen, et al. (eds.), *The Development of Bilingual Proficiency: Final report, Volume II, Chapter 3*. O.I.S.E., Modern Language Center, Toronto, Ont., mimeo.

Allen, P., Swain, M., Harley, B., & Cummins, J. (1990). Aspects of classroom treatment: towards a more comprehensive view of second language education. In B. Harley, P. Allen, J. Cummins, and M. Swain (eds.), *The Development of Second Language Proficiency*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Bélanger, P. (1987). Television and the learning of French: a functional approach. *Contact*. 6 (2), 2-3.

Beretta, A. (1986). Program-fair language teaching evaluation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20, 3, 431-44.

- Bialystok, E., Frohlich, M., & Howard, J. (1979). *Studies on Second Language Learning and Teaching in Classroom Settings: Strategies, Processes and Functions*. O.I.S.E., Toronto, mimeo.
- Bibeau, G. (1984). No easy way to bilingualism. *Language and Society*, 12, (Winter), 44-47.
- Bloom, B.S. (1971). Mastery learning. In J.H. Block (ed.), *Mastery Learning: Theory and Practice*, New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.
- British Columbia Ministry of Education, (1981). *Circular #146*, Victoria: Queens Printer, mimeo.
- British Columbia Ministry of Education, (1987). *Circular #38*, Victoria: Queens Printer, mimeo.
- Brophy, J.E. & Good, T.L. (1986). Teacher behavior and student achievement. In M.C. Witrock (ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching*, (pp. 328-375), New York: MacMillan.
- Bruck, M. (1979). Switching out of French immersion. *Interchange*. 9 (4), 86-94.
- Brumfit, C. (1981). Teaching the 'general' student. In K. Johnson and K. Morrow (eds.), *Communication in the Classroom*. London: Longman.
- Brumfit, C. (1984a). *Communicative Methodology in Language Teaching: The Roles of Fluency and Accuracy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brumfit, C. (1984b). Theoretical implications of interlanguage studies for language teaching. In A. Davies et al. (eds.), *Interlanguage*, (pp.312-323). Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Bruton, A. & Samuda, V. (1980). Learner and teacher roles in the treatment of oral error in group work. *RELC Journal*, 11(2), 49-63.
- Burdikin, J.J. (1975). *Review of French Immersion Provisions in School District #43 (Coquitlam) and some Recommendations*. School District #43 (Coquitlam), mimeo.
- Burns, G.E. (1983). Charges of elitism in immersion education: The case for improving program implementation. *Contact*, 2 (May), 2-7.

Burt, Marina K. and Heidi, Dulay (eds.) 1975, *On TESOL '75: New Directions in Language Learning, Teaching, and Bilingual Education*, Washington DC, TESOL.

Calvé, P. (1985). Les programmes de base: des principes à la réalité. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 42(2), 271-87.

Calvé, P. (1986). L'immersion au secondaire: Bilan et perspectives, *Contact*, 5 (3), 21-28.

The CPF Immersion Registry 1989/90 (1990). Ottawa: Canadian Parents for French.

Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J.C. Richards and R.W. Schmidt (eds.), *Language and Communication*. London: Longman.

Canale, M. & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47.

Carey, S., and Cummins, J. (1984). Communication skills in immersion programs. *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 30, 270-83.

Carroll, J.B. (1971). Problems of Measurement Related to the Concept of Learning for Mastery. In J.H. Block (ed.), *Mastery Learning: Theory and Practice*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Coquitlam School District. (1989). *For our Children: The Final Report of the Challenge Ahead Project*. School District #43 (Coquitlam).

Cummins, J. (1983). Language proficiency, biliteracy and French immersion. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 8, 117-38.

Davies, A., Cripser, C. & Howatt, A. (eds.) (1984). *Interlanguage*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Day, E.M. & Shapson, S.M. (1985). *A Study of the French Language Skills, Attitudes, and Opinions of Secondary Immersion Graduates in Coquitlam School District (#43)*. Burnaby, B.C.: B.C. French Study, Simon Fraser University.

Day, E.M., & Shapson, S.M. (1987). Assessment of oral communicative skills in early French immersion programmes. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 8(3), 237-260.

Day, E.M. & Shapson, S.M. (1989). Provincial assessment of French immersion programs in British Columbia, Canada. *Evaluation and Research in Education*, 2, 1-17.

Day, E.M., & Shapson, S.M. (1991). Integrating formal and functional approaches to language teaching in French immersion: an experimental study. *Language Learning*, 41(1), 25-58.

Day, E.M. , Shapson, S.M. & Rivet, M.A. (1985). *Examiner's Manual. British Columbia French Speaking Test: Grade 7. B.C. French Study*, Faculty of Education, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, B.C.

DeFrenza, S. A. (1990). *Administrative and Pedagogical Issues Affecting the Implementation of the Primary Program in an Early French Immersion Setting*. Master's thesis, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, British Columbia.

Deutsch, M. (1949). A theory of cooperation and competition. *Human Relations*, 2, 129-152.

Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and Education*. New York: Macmillan Press.

Dewey, J. (1937). *Experience and Education*. New York: Macmillan Press.

Doughty, C. & Pica, T. (1986). 'Information gap' tasks: Do they facilitate second language acquisition? *TESOL Quarterly*, 20 (2), 305-325.

Dulay, H., Burt, M, & Krashen, S. (1982). *Language Two*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Eisner, E. (1984). Five basic orientations to the curriculum. In E.W. Eisner, *The Educational Imagination*. New York: Collier Macmillan.

Fanselow, J.F. (1977). Beyond Rashomon- conceptualizing and describing the teaching act. *TESOL Quarterly*. 11(1), 17-39.

Fanselow, J.F. (1987). *Breaking Rules: Generating and Exploring Alternatives in Language Teaching*. New York: Longman.

Fillmore, C.J. (1979). On fluency. In C.J. Fillmore, D. Kempler, & W.S.Y. Wang (eds.), *Individual Differences in Language Ability and Language Behavior*. New York: Academic Press.

Flanders, N.A. (1970). *Analyzing Teaching Behavior*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley.

Genesee, F. (1976). The role of intelligence in second language learning. *Language Learning*, 26, 267-80.

Genesee, F. (1978a). A longitudinal study of an early immersion school program. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 3 (4), 31-50.

Genesee, F. (1978b). Second language learning and language attitudes. *Travaux de recherche sur le bilinguisme*. 16, 19-42.

Genesee, F. (1984). French immersion programs. In S. Shapson and V. D'Oyley (eds.), *Bilingual and Multicultural Education: Canadian Perspectives*, (pp.33-54). Avon, England: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Genesee, F. (1987). *Learning Through Two Languages: Studies of Immersion and Bilingual Education*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Gustafson, R. (1983). *A Comparison of Errors in the Spoken French of Grades Two, Four, and Six Pupils Enrolled in a French Immersion Program*, Master's thesis, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, B.C.

Hammerly, H. (1982). *Synthesis in Language Teaching: An Introduction to Linguistics*. Blaine, WA.: Second Language Publications.

Hammerly, H. (1989a) French immersion (does it work?) and the 'Development of Bilingual Proficiency Report'. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 45(3), 567-577.

Hammerly, H. (1989b). *French Immersion: Myths and Reality*. Calgary, Alta.: Detselig Ent. Ltd.

Harley, B. (1979). French gender 'rules' in the speech of English-dominant, French-dominant, and monolingual French-speaking children. *Working Papers on Bilingualism*, 19, 129-56.

Harley, B. (1984). Mais apprennent-ils vraiment le français? *Langue et Société*, 12, 57-62.

Harley, B. (1985). *Second language proficiency and classroom treatment in early French immersion*. Paper presented at the FIPLV/ Eurocentres Symposium on Error in Foreign Language Learning: Analysis and Treatment, University of London.

Harley, B. (1987a). Functional grammar in French immersion: A classroom experiment. In B. Harley, P. Allen, J. Cummins, and M. Swain (eds.), *The Development of Bilingual Proficiency: Final Report: Vol. II*, (pp. 342-415). Toronto, Ontario: The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Harley, B. (1987b). Developing and evaluating second language materials in early French immersion. *Evaluation and Research in Education*, 1, 75-81.

Harley, B., Allen, P., Cummins, J., & Swain, M. (eds.), (1987). *The Development of Bilingual Proficiency: Final Report: 3 volumes*. Modern Language Center, OISE, Toronto, mimeo.

Harley, B., Allen, P., Cummins, J., and Swain, M. (eds.), (1990). *The Development of Second Language Proficiency*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Harley, B. & Swain, M. (1978). An analysis of the verb system used by young learners of French. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin*, 3, 35-79.

Harley, B. & Swain, M. (1984). The interlanguage of immersion students and its implications for second language teaching. In A. Davies, C. Crippen, and A. Howatt (eds.), *Interlanguage*, (pp.291-312). Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Hatch, E. & Long, M. (1980). Discourse analysis, what's that? In D. Larsen-Freeman (ed.), *Discourse Analysis in Second Language Research*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Hatch, E. (1983). *Psycholinguistics: A Second Language Perspective*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

Hester, H. (1984). Peer interaction in learning English as a second language. *Theory into Practice*, 23, 208-217.

Higgs, T.V. & Clifford, R. (1982). The push toward communication. In T. V. Higgs (ed.), *Curriculum, Competence and Foreign Language Teacher*. Skokie, Ill.: National Textbook Company.

Hunter, Madelaine. (1982). *Mastery Learning*. El Segundo, CA: ITIP Publishing.

Jakobovitis, L.A. & Gordon, B. (1974). *The Context of Foreign Language Learning*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Johnson, D.W. & Johnson, R.T. (1974). Instructional goal structure: cooperative, competitive, or individualistic. *Review of Educational Research*, 44, 213-240.

Johnson, D.W. & Johnson, R.T. (1984). *Circles of learning*. Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Joyce, B. & Weil, M. (1986). *Models of Teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.

Kagan, S. (1985). Co op Co op: A Flexible Cooperative Learning Technique. In R. Slavin et al. (eds.), *Learning to Cooperate, Cooperate to Learn*. New York: Plenum Press.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Krashen, S. (1984). Immersion: why it works and what it has taught us. *Language and Society*, 12, 61-64.

Lapkin, S. (1984). How well do immersion students speak and write French? *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 40 (5), 575-585.

Lapkin, S. & Swain, M. (1984a). *Final Report on the Evaluation of French Immersion Programs at Grades 3, 6, and 9 in New Brunswick*. Toronto: Modern Language Center, The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Lapkin, S. & Swain, M. (1984b). *Second Language Maintenance at the Secondary School Level: Final Report to the Carleton Board of Education*. Toronto: Modern Language Center, OISE.

Lapkin, S. & Swain, M. (1984c). *Second Language Maintenance at the Secondary School Level: Final report to the Toronto Board of Education*. Toronto: Modern Language Center, OISE.

Lapkin, S. & Swain, M. (1984d). Research update. *Language and Society*, 12, 48-54.

Lapkin, S., Swain, M., & Cummins, J. (1983). *Final Report on the Development of French Language Evaluation Units for Saskatchewan*. Toronto: Modern Language Center, The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Lapkin, S., Swain, M., & Shapson, S. (1990). French Immersion research agenda for the 90's, *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 46,4, 638-674.

Leeson, R. (1975). *Fluency and Language Teaching*. London: Longman.

Lewis, C. (1986). *Secondary French Immersion: A Comparison of Those Students who Leave the Program and Those who Stay*. Master's thesis, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, British Columbia.

Lewis, C. & Tafler, R. (1987). *L'approche communicative dans la salle de classe*. Modern Language Services Branch, British Columbia Ministry of Education & Surrey School Board, mimeo.

Lightbown, P. (1985). Great expectations: second-language acquisition research and classroom teaching. *Applied Linguistics*, 6(2),173-89.

Lightbown, P. (1990). Process-product research on second language learning in classrooms. In B. Harley, P. Allen, et al. (eds.), *The Development of Second Language Proficiency*, Chapter 6, (pp.82-92), New York: Cambridge University Press.

Littlejohn, A. (1983). Increasing learner involvement in course management. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17, (4), 595-608.

Long, M. (1975). Group work and communicative competence in the ESOL classroom. In M. Burt and H. Dulay (eds.) *On TESOL '75: New Directions in Language Learning, Teaching, and Bilingual Education*, (pp.217-23), Washington D.C.: TESOL.

Long, M. (1980). Inside the "black box": methodological issues in classroom research on language teaching. *Language Learning*, 30,1-42.

Long, M. (1983a). Linguistic and conversational adjustments to non-native speakers. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 5(2), 177-193.

Long, M. (1983b). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation in the second language classroom. In M. Clarke and J. Handscombe (eds.), *On TESOL '82*. Washington, D.C., TESOL.

Long, M. (1983c). Does second language instruction make a difference? *TESOL Quarterly*, 17(3), 359-82.

Long, M., Adams, L, McLean, M, & Castanos, F. (1976). Doing things with words: verbal interaction in lockstep and small group classroom situations. In R. Crymes and J. Fanselow (eds.), *On TESOL '76*. Washington, D.C.,TESOL.

Long, M. & Porter, P. (1985). Group work, interlanguage talk, and classroom second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(2), 207-228.

Lorenz, E., & Met, M. (1989). *What it means to be an immersion teacher*. Rockville, Maryland: Montgomery County Public Schools.

Loughrey, M. (1986). A report on French for the post-secondary English-speaking student held at Carleton University prepared for the CPF national colloquium on post-secondary French education. In: *A Report on the Canadian Parents for French Conference on French at the Post-Secondary Level: A National Perspective*. Ottawa, Ontario, 67-86.

Lyster, R. (1987). Speaking immersion. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 43 (4), 701-717.

- Macnamara, J. (1983). Nurseries, streets and classrooms: some comparisons and deductions. *Modern Language Journal*, 57 (5), 6, 250-254.
- Miles, Mathew. & Huberman, A.M. (1984). *Qualitative Data Analysis*, Newbury Park, California: Sage Publications.
- Morrison, D. & Low, G. (1983). Monitoring and second language learner. In J. Richards and R. Schmidt (eds.), *Language and Communication*, (pp.228-250). New York: Longman.
- Moskowitz, G. (1970). *The Foreign Language Teacher Interacts*. Chicago: Association for Productive Teaching.
- Moskowitz, G. (1976). The classroom interaction of outstanding foreign language teachers. *Foreign Language Annals*, 9 (2), 135-157.
- Netten, J.E. & Spain, W.H. (1989). Student-teacher interaction patterns in the French Immersion classroom: implications for levels of achievement in French language proficiency, *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 45 (3), 485-500.
- Obadia, A. (1981). Procédés de prévention ou de correction de fautes orales en immersion. *Les Nouvelles de l'ACPI*, 4, 3-6.
- Obadia, A. (1983). *Relevé des fautes orales les plus fréquentes et persistantes de la maternelle à la sixième année*, Simon Fraser University, mimeo.
- Obadia, A. (1984a). The teacher, key to the success story. *Language and Society*, 12, 15-19.
- Obadia, A. (1984b). *Procédés de prévention ou de correction de fautes orales en immersion*, Simon Fraser University, mimeo.
- Ontario Ministry of Education, (1977). *Teaching and Learning French as a Second Language. 'Gillen Report'*. Toronto: Queens Printer.
- Parkin, M., Morrison, F., & Quirouette, P. (1986). *Enhancing Language Development in Early French Immersion with Classroom Television*. Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Education.

Pawley, C. (1984). *How Well do Graduates of Immersion Speak French?, Research Report 84-10*, Ottawa: Research Center of the Ottawa Board of Education, mimeo.

Pawley, C. (1985). How bilingual are French immersion students? *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 41, 865-76.

Pellerin, M. & Hammerly, M. (1986). L'expression orale après treize ans d'immersion française. *La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 42(3), 592-606.

Perera, K. (1986). *Children's Writing and Reading*. London: Basil Blackwell.

Pica, T. & Doughty, C. (1985a). The role of group work in classroom second language acquisition, *SSLA*, 7, 233-248

Pica, T. & Doughty, C. (1985b). Input and interaction in the communicative language classroom: a comparison of teacher fronted and group activities. In S. Gass and C. Madden (eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition*, (pp.115-132), Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Rosenshine, B. & Stevens, R. (1986). Teaching functions. In M.C. Wittrock (ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching*. (pp.376-391), New York: Macmillan.

Rosenshine, B. (1985). Direct Instruction. In T. Husen and N. Postlethwaite (eds.), *International Encyclopedia of Education*. Vol. 3, (pp.1395-1400). Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Rowe, Mary Budd. (1978). *Teaching Science as Continuous Inquiry: A Basic*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Safty, A. (1989). Some reflections on a decade in the French immersion classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 45(3), 549-61.

Schachter, J. (1984). A universal input condition. In W. E. Rutherford (ed.), *Language Universals and Second Language Acquisition*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Shapson, S. (1984). Bilingual and multicultural education in Canada. In S. Shapson and V. D'Oyley (eds.), *Bilingual and Multicultural*

Education: Canadian Perspectives (pp. 1-11). Avon, England: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Shapson, S. & Day, E. (1982). A Longitudinal Evaluation of an Early Immersion Program in British Columbia. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 3(1), 1-16.

Shapson, S. & Day, E. (1984). *Evaluation Study of the Grade 3 Early and Grade 7 Early and Late French Immersion Programs in British Columbia*. B.C. French Study, Faculty of Education, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, B.C.

Sharan, S. & Sharan, Y. (1976). *Small Group Teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Educational Technology Publications.

Sharan, S. (1985). Cooperative Learning and the Multiethnic Classroom. In R. Slavin et al. (eds.), *Learning to Cooperate, Cooperate to Learn*, New York, Plenum Press.

Simon, A. & Boyer, E.G. (eds.), (1974). *Mirrors for Behavior III; An Anthology of Classroom Observation Instruments*. Wyncote, Penn.: Communicative Materials Center.

Slavin, R. (1983). *Cooperative Learning*. New York, Longman.

Slavin, R. (1986). *Using Student Team Learning*. Baltimore, MA., John Hopkins University Press.

Smith, F. (1978). *Reading Without Non-sense*. New York, N.Y.: Teachers' College Press.

Smith, F. (1982). *Writing and writer*. New York, N.Y.: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Spilka, I.V. (1976). Assessment of second language performance in immersion programs. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 32, 543-61.

Stern, H. (1983). *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Stern, H. (1984a). The immersion phenomenon, *Language and Society*, 12, 4-7.

Stern, H. (1984b). A quiet language revolution: second language teaching in Canadian contexts: assessments and directions. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 42(2), 271-287.

Stern, H. (1990). Analysis and experience as variables in second language pedagogy. In Harley et al. (eds.). *The Development of Second Language Proficiency*, (pp.93-109). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Stevick, E. (1976). *Memory, Meaning, and Method*. Rowly, Mass.: Newbury House.

Stevick, E. (1980). *Teaching Languages: A Way and Ways*. Rowly, Mass.: Newbury House.

Stevick, E. (1981). 'The Levertov machine'. In R. Scarcella and S. Krashen (eds.), *Research in Second Language Acquisition*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Swain, M. (1981). Linguistic expectations: core, extended and immersion programs. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 37, 486-497.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass and C. Madden (eds.) *Input in Second Language Acquisition*, (pp.235-253). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Swain, M. & Carroll, S. (1987). The immersion observation study. In B. Harley, P. Allen, et al. (eds.), *In the Development of Bilingual Proficiency: Final Report*. Toronto, OISE Center, Vol. II.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1982). *Evaluating Bilingual Education: A Canadian Case Study*. Avon, England: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1986). Secondary French immersion: The 'goods' and the 'bads'. *Contact*, 5(3), 2-9.

Swain, M. & Lapkin, S. (1987). Aspect of the sociolinguistic performance of early and late French immersion students. In B. Harley et al. (eds.), *The Development of Bilingual Proficiency: Final Report*. Toronto: OISE.

Tafler, R. (1983). Des élèves en immersion nous parlent. *Contact* , 2(1).

Varonis, E. & Gass, S. (1985). Non-native/non-native conversations: a model for negotiation of meaning. *Applied Linguistics*, 6(1), 71-90.

Wells, G. (1981). *Learning Through Interaction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Widdowson, H. G. (1978). *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, H.G. (1984). Discussant to text by Christopher Brumfit, "Theoretical Implications of Interlanguage Studies for Language Teaching". In A. Davies et al., (eds.), *Interlanguage*, (pp.324-330). Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Wilton, F., Obadia, A., Roy, R., Saunders, B., & Tafler, R. (1984). *National Study of French Immersion Teacher Training and Professional Development*. Ottawa: ACPI.

Wong-Fillmore, C.J. (1985). When does teacher talk count as input?" In S. Gass & C. Madden (eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition*, (pp.17-50), Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

Year 2000: A Framework for Learning. (1989). British Columbia Ministry of Education. Victoria, Queens Printer.

Zeichner, K.M. (1985). Alternate paradigms of teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*. 34 (3), 3-9.