A PROFILE OF THE SPEECH OF FRENCH IMMERSION STUDENTS OF GRADES I, II AND III IN NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR

MARGUERITE NOONAN

A PROFILE OF THE SPEECH OF FRENCH IMMERSION STUDENTS OF GRADES I, II AND III IN NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR

by

Marguerite Noonan

A thesis submitted to the School of Graduate Studies in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education

Faculty of Education
Memorial University of Newfoundland

December 1990

ISBN 0-315-73307-1

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to describe the speech of primary level French immersion (FI) students in the province of Newfoundland and Labrador with a view to developing language descriptions which could be used as a basis for evaluation. The description of FI speech which was the objective of this study, constitutes a framework through which to more realistically examine the oral second language (L_2) of FI primary level students than the frequently used native-speaker criterion against which these students often measure somewhat poorly.

The sample consisted of fifteen students, five from each of grades I, II and III. They were interviewed and the speech was scripted and then organized into speech profiles based on grade levels.

In addition to this data nine teachers, three from each of grades I, II and III, were interviewed. Charts based on the teacher descriptions were then produced. The charts were organized based on grade levels. This data was applied as a basis on which to verify that the profiles established from the student data were reflective of the speech of the students in the primary FI grades in this province.

The student profiles indicate that, while there is error in that speech, in most areas of the L_2 there is evidence of real development and that that development can be indicated by the application of descriptors loosely representative of a given level of primary grade FI speech.

Acknowledgements

The writer wishes to express her appreciation to all those who assisted in the completion of this study.

Special appreciation is extended to Mrs. Joan Netten for her constant interest, cooperation and assistance.

The writer wishes to extend a very special word of thanks to her sister, Rita Murray, whose long hours at the computer were invaluable.

The writer wishes to express her gratitude to her husband, Joe and her children, Sarah and Kevin for their support and encouragement through times of considerable inconvenience to the family.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The bilingual status of Canada has ensured the existence, indeed the steady growth of, second language (L_2) programs across this nation. Having observed the frequently limited oral performance of traditional second language programs, a group of English parents in St. Lambert, Québec in 1965, established the first French immersion (FI) program. This program differed from the traditional programs of second language instruction in that it proposed to teach not only the medium of communication but to teach content directly through that medium. Such a radical departure from the traditional approach required consistent monitoring of results. Initial research (Lambert & Tucker, 1972) attested to the success of the program and subsequent research (Genesee, 1978; Lambert, Tucker & D'Anglejan, 1974; Stern, 1978; Swain, Burstal & Carroll, 1976) confirmed the earlier results.

After almost a decade of near euphoria vis à vis the effectiveness of FI, a period which witnessed phenomenal growth of the program, researchers began to question the earlier results (Bibeau, 1984; Hammerly, 1982; Harley, 1984; Harley & Swain, 1978; Lapkin, 1984; Singh, 1986; Spilka, 1976). Native-like command of all aspects of the second language loomed an elusive goal. Expectations plunged. Perhaps FI was not the answer to the "how best to learn an L_2?" question. However, having viewed FI from both extremes

of the success spectrum, a greater awareness of the limitations of FI emerged as well as a much more realistic set of expectations with regard to the products of this linguistic environment.

The more recent research results (Carey & Cummins, 1983; Cummins, 1983; Hammerly & Pellerin, 1986; Jones, 1984; Swain & Lapkin, 1986) indicate that FI students do achieve near native-like ability in the receptive skills of listening comprehension and reading, but remain clearly distinguishable from native-language peers in the productive skills of writing and speaking. Further, there exists a heightened awareness in the literature (Lapkin, 1984; Pawley, 1985; Tardif & Weber, 1987) that native-like ability may be an unrealistic goal. More study is a needed prerequisite to the establishment of clearly stated goals for FI students' writing and to an ever greater degree, speaking.

Recently, researchers have focused on the speech of FI students. The FI interlanguage phenomenon has been observed and described (Carey & Cummins, 1984; Harley & Swain, 1978; Hammerly & Pellerin, 1986; Lyster, 1987; Obadia, 1983; Saville-Troike, McClure & Fritze, 1984; Szamosi, Swain & Lapkin, 1979; Tardif, 1980). This interlanguage focus has placed emphasis on the errors that FI students persistently produce. Such an emphasis juxtaposed against the elusive goal of native speaker perfection has caused concern about

the accomplishments of FI. The poor linguistic performance of FI students appears to reflect on the program. The questions that arise from such findings are: can FI do better? or perhaps more pertinently, are these indices just? Must they be accepted as realistic assessments of bilingual education?

Rationale for the Study

The question "What constitutes proficiency in a language?" is one repeatedly generated by the results of the study of L_2 production. Complicating the already difficult "level of skill" notion that the word "proficiency" suggests is a wide acceptance of the word in the United States. The resulting confusion with the term is akin to the skewing of the term "competence" caused by Chomsky's use of this latter term. He (1959) defined "competence" as the knowledge of an underlying system which gives order and system to language acts. The already difficult term "proficiency" is now similarly skewed because of the growth of proficiency-oriented instruction in the United States (Omaggio, 1986). As Oxford, Lavine and Crookall (1989: 30) explain it:

> The proficiency approach emphasizes the learners reaching a measurable level of proficiency (ability to use the language communicatively) in the four skill areas of listening, reading, speaking and writing.

Although this has become a widely accepted definition of proficiency in the literature, what it means to be proficient in a language continues to be debated.

Oxford, Lavine and Crookall go on to propose an interesting link between the proficiency approach, developed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and the communicative approach. This link is relevant to this study since it is within the construct of communicative competence that we are looking to find realistic oral evaluation directives for FI, yet it is to ACTFL proficiency guidelines that we are looking for practical assistance.

> It might be said that the communicative approach and the proficiency approach are actually one and the same, except that the latter focuses more clearly than the former on measurement issues--that is measuring the degree to which language proficiency or communicative competence is developed (Oxford, Lavine and Crookall, 1989: 30).

More central to this study emerges a skill-specific question, an outgrowth of the above, another which the literature has been unable to satisfactorily answer: What constitutes oral proficiency in a language? The study of oral proficiency is most problematic. It is so because of the nature of the speech phenomenon (Carey & Cummins, 1984; Day and Shapson, 1987; Heike, 1985). The complex and

variable nature of the oral fabric renders any measurement most difficult. Evaluation of oral proficiency remains at best, varied and inconsistent, and at worst: "... replete with vacuous definitions, overlapping terminology and impractical assessment strategies" (Heike, 1985: 135).

Historically, testing reflected the methodology of the day. The grammar/translation methods of the first half of this century saw grammar-oriented tests with little or no concentration on speaking the language. Scoring was very subjective and largely without attention to such statistical checks as validity or reliability. Robert Lado, in 1961, pioneered development in language testing. He (Lado, 1961: 25) described language as being: "built of sounds, intonation, stress, morphemes, words and arrangements of words having meanings that are linguistic and cultural. . . Each of these elements of language constitutes a variable that we will want to test".

This move toward a more valid assessment of language learned was paralleled by sweeping improvements in testing methodology in the broader evaluation field. It was a period characterized by the advent of structuralism; its manifestation in the language learning domain being audio-lingualism. In conjunction with change in testing methodology, L_2 acquisition now began to be measured by

discrete points that were clearly definable and measurable. Reliability was assured. Discrete-point testing gained wide acceptance during the succeeding decade (Lado, 1961; Valette, 1967).

In contrast, contempory testing (Howard, 1980:274) "... focuses on the integrative or global test which attempts to measure the total communicative aspect of utterances". Howard acknowledges that such wholesale testing does not deny the need for systematic assessment but stresses that emphasis is clearly placed on "... mastery of language use in the total context of the goal language" (Howard, 1980: 274).

Communicative competence (CC) cannot be measured by discrete-point methodology. It was developed to measure the goals of audio-lingualism based on the premise that "language is a number of small patterns or habits". Accuracy was primary. When one considers the integrative nature of communicative competence, the lack of validity of such a testing approach is clear.

Communicative testing must assess communicative competence. However, development of such tests has been minimal. Valuable guidelines have been proposed (Howard, 1980; Wesche, 1981), and sound communicative tests are gradually becoming available to the practitioner. Oral communicative testing, though, remains the weak link.

Attempts in this domain of communicative testing are very few (OISE 1982-1983; University of Ottawa, 1983). Such tests that are applicable to FI populations are even more limited.

With the use of the global communicative test comes a concern for reliability. The multi-dimensional nature of the oral product to be measured makes reliability a major concern for developers of such tests. In the United States, some inroads have been made toward an objective, efficient, defined (yet not to a degree of its being a return to discrete-point oral testing) evaluative instrument that attends to the rich, all-encompassing nature of the speech phenomenon.

The Oral Interview developed by the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) pioneered development in this area. ACTFL drew on the FSI type oral interview in producing their own ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines. Proponents of this oral evaluation instrument include: Higgs, 1984; Liskin-Gasparro, 1984; Lowe, 1986; Magnon, 1987; Omaggio, 1983. The Government of New Brunswick, in their attempt to evaluate oral fluency at school leaving for core French students, began to use FSI scales in the development of their own interview program. Recently, the Newfoundland Department of Education instituted an oral interview procedure which adapted the New Brunswick interview to the High School Core French Program for Newfoundland and

Labrador. These tests have this common characteristic: they all rely on a list of clearly stated speech functions which the evaluator rates according to a given scale. They differ in the degree of specificity as well as in linguistic bases for given criteria.

Sandra Savignon best represents the critics (Bachman & Savignon, 1986; Kramsch, 1986; Savignon, 1985) of this attempt to evaluate oral fluency. "Notably absent from the literature promoting these provisional guidelines (ACTFL) is reference to communicative competence as an underlying construct" (Savignon, 1985: 129).

Evaluation of oral proficiency, then, constitutes one of the most alarming gaps in an ever improving FI pedagogy. Because native-like proficiency would seem an unrealistic goal and because FI pupils are very definitely learners in a limited linguistic environment, L_2 pedagogy suggests the possibility of setting more realistic, achievable goals. The communicative competence construct offers help in further defining those goals but it too must be freed from too wide an acceptance of the native-speaker goal. As Davies (1989) puts it: "If it is accepted that the native speaker is no longer at the centre of communicative competence then that liberates language teaching because it means that worthwhile goals are suddenly assessable...".

Evaluation viewed in this way should become more positive and more encouraging. It would lean toward the

formative end of the evaluative task. Learner language is, after all, not an end product, but an intermediary one. Surely, it is as much the work of evaluation to encourage and foster learning as it is to measure error? As a FI primary teacher recently expressed while speaking of her students' oral performance: "I can't get over how much they accomplish, how far they've come by the end of Grade III." Evaluators, seeking to break ground in the evaluation of FI oral fluency might be well guided in approaching this task from the above point of view.

Therefore, what is clearly needed before oral evaluation in FI can take a step forward are descriptions of the language that can be realistically expected from FI learners at a particular level. Evaluation based on descriptive criteria instead of the native-speaker norm would then be possible. Such evaluation would focus on reasonable expectations rather than elusive ideals. This change of focus in attempting to accentuate the positive, while still attending to the negative, could ensure more consistency in oral evaluation procedures and could better foster L_2 learning in the FI classroom thus generating a more positive view of what has been accomplished in FI.

Background of the Study

The Department of Education of Newfoundland and Labrador has made significant improvements in curriculum development for primary FI within the past few years. These improvements, marked particularly by the development of curriculum guides for Grades I, II, and III were needed in an education forum where curricula were developed quickly, locally and largely without consideration of the goals of the program so that immediate needs could be met. In the wake of such improvements which answer teachers' initial queries as to the most effective materials to use in their classrooms, FI teachers continue to ask for direction in their evaluative procedures.

Since the inception of FI type L_2 instruction in this province such programs have been consistently evaluated (Netten, 1988; Netten & Spain, 1979, 1982, 1983). These evaluations confirmed that Newfoundland FI students performed close to the national levels of performance in both first language (L_1) and L_2 reading, oral comprehension and writing skills that were measured. Lack of instrumentation as well as lack of guidelines precluded any measuring of the oral aspects of the L_2 learning of these students. In an attempt to study how the oral skill was taught and evaluated in the FI classrooms in this province, Netten and Spain (1989) undertook a study of processes in the primary FI classroom. However, when participating

teachers were asked to evaluate the oral competence of their students, it became evident that there appeared to be little consistency in evaluating oral performance of students. Teachers frequently complained because of the lack of oral evaluative instruments. The study then, clearly raised the question to which answers are increasingly sought by practitioners in the FI arena: What are teachers to look for when evaluting the oral proficiency of their FI pupils?

Purpose of the Study

This study was conceived as a beginning point from which more effective and more uniform evaluation procedures could be developed for the oral production of FI students. If it can be established that the speech of FI primary students can be profiled, then guidelines could be developed as to how to evaluate students in relation to that profile. The goal of this study, necessarily descriptive in nature, is to begin to chart such a profile.

Further, while recognition of the importance of evaluating oral performance is universal, the established norm for an orally proficient FI pupil, the native speaker, has resulted in a degree of negative fallout. If more attention could be directed towards what is reasonably attainable at FI primary grade levels as well as a practical

description of these outcomes, a significant step toward improving the assessment of this crucial skill in language development could be realized.

The Study

This study seeks to focus on the productive skill--oral fluency. The literature clearly attests to a problem with oral evaluation of L_2 learners. Central to the emergence of FI as an alternate means of learning an L_2 was the demand for an approach which emphasized oral competence; hence the need to begin to find a way to measure the productive skills of the FI student without final reference to an unattainable native-speaker ideal.

The characteristic methodology of most FI research has been the empirical-analytical paradigm. More ethnological or qualitative studies are being increasingly called for (Chaudron, 1986; Long, 1986; Tardif & Weber, 1987). The belief that worthwhile research is limited to large sample comparative studies is eroding. Many researchers, in a call for more process-oriented research, are rejecting the very narrow confines of the scientific method for educational research.

Long (1986: 226) maintains that second language educators are guilty of a narrow approach to research. Some of the research topics in our professional past seem to have been selected not on the basis of their contribution to

knowledge, but rather because they were part of the current bandwagon or because the research could be carried out with minimal problems.

Long (1986: 228) looks to the qualitative type study to add to a relatively small database and to identify potential variables, contexts and problems for future experimental research, as well as to investigate the second language learning/teaching process.

In that vein this study proposes to use a qualitative research approach in order to attempt to describe, with attention to the factors governing the workings of FI, the speech of primary FI students with a view to developing profiles which might be used as a basis for evaluation.

Statement of the Problem

This study, then, looks to the proposal of a list of descriptive criteria of oral fluency that are realistically characteristic of the speech of FI learners at each of the primary levels. These descriptors might later be used to develop an evaluative instrument that would maintain both validity for the FI program and reliability across the immersion population.

Limitations of the Study

The generalizability of the results is perhaps the greatest limitation of this study. Several factors impact on the range of generalizability. Although the interviewers were carefully trained and understood the purpose, the format and the rationale behind the interview procedures, the use of only one or two interviewers will necessitate due consideration of the possibility of data being colored by personal perception or preference. The very small student sample sets a significant limit. The teacher factor must also be studied. The younger of the student subjects will have been influenced largely by only one teacher.

Interpretation of the results of this study must also take into account the particular linguistic environment involved in the province of Newfoundland which is almost completely unilingual anglophone, unlike some other FI environments that are enriched by francophone influences.

Significance of the Study

The results of the study have enabled the researcher to develop a profile of the speech product of FI pupils at the conclusion of grades I, II and III. These profiles, in offering some detailed descriptions, should also offer guidance and insight into the progression of speech development in primary FI learners. The profiles, too, should provide information with which to make

recommendations for the possible future formulation of an oral evaluative instrument to be used in the assessment of FI oral proficiency at the conclusion of the primary grades.

Outline of the Report

A review of selected relevant literature will be presented in Chapter II. Chapter III describes the design of the study, the instruments used for data collection; the teacher and student interview formats and the method used to study the data. An extensive descriptive analysis of the data is contained in Chapter IV. Chapter V includes a summary of the study, discusses the results and contains some recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Politzer's (1980: 291) definitions of both traditional and immersion L_2 programs clearly contrasts the two:

> In immersion-type bilingual education programs, the second language is acquired exclusively or at least to a large extent as a result of being used as a medium of instruction; in foreign language education the second language is learned primarily in the process of formal instruction.

Since the inception of its first immersion project in 1965, Canada has been prominent in the area of research into second language learning as it occurs in an immersion situation. Although immersion programs exist throughout Europe and in parts of the United States, it is Canada that has become synonomous with immersion type L_2 learning programs. The distinctive French-English duality which constitutes the Canadian linguistic fabric made Canada a positive environment for the development of practices and studies of immersion second language programs.

In 1965, a group of anglophone parents in a Montreal suburb, St. Lambert, who were very disillusioned with the traditional instruction of French for their children

undertook to persuade the Quebec Ministry of Education and the local school board to initiate an experimental 'immersion' program in one of its schools. Professor W. E. Lambert and his associates from the psychology department of McGill University consented to conduct extensive research and evaluation of the program. By the end of the decade, the positive results from St. Lambert influenced the spread of immersion programs, first to Ottawa then throughout Ontario. As the 1970's progressed growth of French immersion programs across Canada was phenomenal. The research and evaluation tradition begun by Lambert and G. R. Tucker from McGill was continued at other Canadian universities, most prominently, the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE), the Universities of Ottawa and Carleton. As immersion programs spread to the east and to the west, universities there (Gray, 1986; Netten and Spain, 1982; Shapson and Day, 1982) continued the research and evaluation pattern that had been set.

Early Findings FI

This program evaluation has shown that FI consistently produces more proficient users of the L_2 than traditional core programs. In the early immersion program students at the end of their elementary years achieve near native-like levels in French listening comprehension and reading skills,

although they fall short of this mark in speaking and writing skills (Lapkin, 1984; Lapkin and Swain, 1984; Swain and Lapkin, 1982; Swain and Lapkin, 1986).

Parent's response has been particularly positive toward early French immersion programs. Asked if, given their current experience with early FI, they would repeat their decision to enrol their children in that program: "Ninety-four percent of French immersion parents indicated they would make the same choice again." (Burns, 1987: 58). It is clear that they feel the program is meeting their primary objective of improved conditions for language learning for their children.

This high degree of parental support is significant in that it translates into a very positive public perception of FI. Harley (1985: 11) attributes more importance to this fact than to growing enrollments.

> Even more startling perhaps than the enrolment figures is the percentage of parents across the country who desire bilingualism for today's children. A recent Gallup poll established that 68 percent of adult anglophones surveyed across Canada think that children in their province should learn French at school to become bilingual. And of these parents, the largest number (about 59 percent) prefer early total immersion as the route to bilingualism.

With such support in the public sector, it would certainly seem very likely that FI will remain an integral part of the Canadian educational system.

These evaluative results, as well as the growth and endurance of FI as a popular alternative to traditional language education, speak extremely well of this program. Given that these findings have been consistent across different populations for the last decade, it would seem prudent to register these as proof of the program's worth.

Theoretical Basis FI

Subsequent research has largely confirmed the success of this approach to teaching a L_2 but has also uncovered problems in the quality of that L_2 product (Adiv, 1980; Harley, 1984; Harley and Swain, 1978; Pawley, 1985; Spilka, 1976; Swain and Lapkin, 1986).

In the early 1970s, second language pedagogy was forced to re-evaluate its preferred language learning paradigm, a largely structural one, and consider a more informal, active, unstructured one characterized largely by informal learning which was in direct negative reaction to the audio-lingual one of the 1960s.

During the late sixties and early seventies extensive research was carried out in natural language acquisition (Corder, 1967; Dulay and Burt, 1973; Dulay and Burt, 1974; Ervin-Tripp, 1974; Krashen, 1973; Taylor, 1974; Terrell,

1977). Second language theorists began to make a distinction between learning and acquisition. Brown (1987: 187-188) defines the two concepts as follows:

> . . . acquisition [is] a subconscious and intuitive process of constructing the system of a language not unlike the process used by a child to "pick-up" a language. The second means is a conscious "learning" process in which learners attend to form, figure out rules, and are generally aware of their own process.

Krashen's Input Hypothesis (Krashen 1985: 2) follows directly from this distincton.

> The Input Hypothesis claims that humans acquire language in only one way--by understanding messages or by receiving 'comprehensible input.' We progress along the natural order by understanding input that contains structures at our next 'stage' - structures that are a bit beyond our current level of competence.

Theorists used the FI model to confirm their premises.

> What immersion has taught us is that comprehensible subject-matter teaching is language teaching. Students don't simply learn the rule in the language class and have it "reinforced" in the subject-matter class. The subject-matter class is a language class if it is made comprehensible to

> the language student. In fact, the subject-matter class may even be better than the language class for language acquisition. In language-teaching classes operating according to the principle of comprehensible input, teachers always face the problem of what to talk about. In immersion, the topic is automatically provided--it is the subject matter. Moreover, since students are tested in the subject matter, not the language, a constant focus on the message and not form is guaranteed (Krashen, 1984: 62).

The immersion programs, then, were designed to create many of the same types of conditions that occur during a child's first language learning. The dominant theory of language teaching underlying the immersion approach then became acquisitionist; the learning approach being relegated to the more formal language learning environment of the core classroom.

The Problems and their Causes

At the outset the evaluations (Lambert and Tucker, 1972) confirmed the early claims that the program could break L_2 instruction out of a tired, less than successful, mold and ensure bilingual status to those students who completed it.

Pauley (1985) indicated that speaking was the weakest of the four skills of listening, reading, writing and speaking. When they examined 'the goods and the bads', Swain and Lapkin (1986) found that the productive skills were weaker than the receptive and that that weakness was further evident when the students were forced to access either spoken or written grammars.

As immersion programs matured throughout the 1980s, the literature consistently reported the presence of a high number of errors in immersion students' speech (Adiv, 1980; Hammerly & Pellerin, 1986; Harley, 1984; Lyster, 1987). The 'acquisitionist' methodology was identified as one of the most fundamental problems with FI.

Research attention has further investigated the causes of these problems (Calvé, 1986; Fallon, 1985; Haché. 1985; Lapkin & Swain, 1984; Tardif, 1984) and more recently ways to deal with these problems (Hammerly, 1989; Lyster, 1986; Pellerin and Hammerly, 1986; Safty, 1989; Tardif & Weber, 1987).

As Lyster (1987: 705) affirms:

> It has been assumed since the beginning of French Immersion that its students were in a second-language acquisition situation. They were therefore exposed to the whole language at once even though they were actually in a learning environment, the classroom.

Hammerly, too, (1989: 568) has seriously questioned the premise that immersion is an ideal acquisition environment.

> . five- and six-year-old children already know one language, a fact that has a marked effect on the learning of another language, and that
> . in the classroom environment, each child shares the attention of only one native speaker (if that) while interacting with 25 or 30 other children ignorant of French instead of being surrounded by native speakers of French.

Preceding Hammerly, the literature had begun to give notice to this error in likening the FI learning environment to that of a first language learning environment (Calvé, 1986; Haché, 1985; Jones, 1984; Tardif, 1984).

The curriculum that was used to foster such learning constituted a second cause of difficulty. It would follow that if a naturalistic, acquisitionist environment for language learning exists because of the nature of the immersion classroom, then those responsible for the curriculum of such programs would turn to language arts programs for French first language (L_1) learners. This practice, coupled with the more practical situation which existed as a simple result of immersion-type language programs being a recent innovation, i.e. there were no curriculum materials that had been prepared for this

particular genre of language student, effectively limited the choice of immersion curriculum planners to French L_1 language materials.

As the field began to seriously examine their less than ideal product, the lack of a curriculum appropriate to the needs of the immersion student became more apparent. "Most of their (FI students). . . exposure to the language was through materials designed for native speakers rather than for second-language learners." Lyster's (1987: 705) views grow stronger as he later proposes that "immersion students' fossilized interlanguage results from this teaching methodology which is aimed at first-language users". He indicated further that "most materials developed for native speakers of French are probably inappropiate for the immersion classroom." Some curriculum materials for FI are slowly becoming available but, as recently as 1989, one practitioner stated most emphatically: "One of the most significant academic challenges still facing most French immersion teachers is the scarcity of appropriate curriculum materials to be taught in French." (Safty, 1989: 549-550).

Further, it would seem at the outset that immersion teachers most ideally suited to this naturalist language setting would be francophones or fluent anglophones trained to teach young students of their own language. Evaluators

of the immersion programs across the country attested to this practice but as the 1980s progressed began to see the inherent problems:

> Many immersion teachers have little or no training in second-language teaching. Instead they are trained to use traditional methods and to teach children in their mother tongue. Consequently, there is a serious lack of well-prepared language teachers in the immersion program. The communicative approach requires teachers trained to integrate first and second language methodology. However, basic training in schools of education are not geared for immersion teaching (Cazabon and Size-Cazabon, 1987: 7).

Anglophones fluent in the L_2 and instructed in primary methods began to be viewed more favorably and actively sought. However, such well-suited applicants were in short supply. The call for better, more appropriately trained immersion teachers is repeated through the literature (Calvé, 1986; Haché, 1985; Lapkin, 1984; Obadia, 1981; Safty, 1989; Tardif, 1984).

The recent FI literature has tendered several worthwhile insights into the shortcomings of FI language learning. Lapkin and Swain (1984) maintain that recurring error patterns can be explained by the limited chances for practice in the FI classroom. Increased output, they

contend, could positively effect FI oral performance. Netten and Spain (1989) suggest that theses recurring errors are also a function of the teaching strategies employed by the teacher as "he/she corrects." Lyster (1986: 715) proposes the addition of:

> a linguistic syllabus which would have as its goal the prevention of the early fossilization of immersion French. It should be presented in a systematic and graded way beginning in the first years of French Immersion.

Fallon (1986: 12) suggests

> a shift from a type of instruction that aims to transmit mainly surface language structures unrelated to the child's interest, previous experience and need for growth of mind to teaching strategies based on creative and intrinsically interesting activities in which children are actively committed.

Implications for FI Pedagogy

If FI is not wholly acquisitionist, it must be admitted, by virtue of its very nature which requires that inherent in such a language learning environment are many characteristics of a naturalist one, that "the learning of language per se is made quite incidental to learning how to make and do new and interesting things. The new language

becomes a constant verbal accompaniment rather than the focus" (Lambert, 1984: 12). Yet the language learner coming to such an environment is learning his/her second language and not his/her first. This process, although not totally divorced from L_1 learning, involves a process particular to the L_2 learning task.

Stern (1983: 393) maintains that:

> . . . the distinction between learning from exposure to the second language in the target language environment and learning from a teacher is not rigid. The two conditions can be visualized in a continuum.

He argues that learning and acquisition are complementary. While it is valuable to the learning of a new language to be exposed to the target environment, valuable learning is also to be gained from the formal teaching of the classroom.

Classrooms, given the methodology espoused by the teacher as well as the program being taught, can take on aspects of both the formal and the informal language environment. The FI environment, as it has been described previously, leans fairly heavily toward the acquisition end of Stern's continuum. FI, in the context of the recommendations of such theorists as Hammerly (1982, 1987, 1989); Lyster (1989); Nemmi (1985); Pellerin (1986); Fallon (1986); and Hammerly (1986) in order to include more formal

language learning in the model, needs to move toward the learning end of that continuum. It is in embracing both ends of the continuum that the FI pedagogy can attend more fully to a second, rather a first, language learning task.

FI Interlanguage--Error Correction

The FI interlanguage is the product to be evaluated and this product has been seen to be consistently error ridden. These errors have been observed to be somewhat systematic across different immersion populations. It would seem, then, that prior to more efficient oral evaluation, one must recognize that all errors were not "created equal" but are demonstrative of the mental activity that typifies a fitting together of the many components of a language. Many such errors do not impede communication (Carey & Cummins, 1983; Szamosi, Swain & Lapkin, 1979). As such, they must figure, perhaps even positively, in the development of oral competence.

Traditionally, errors have been very simplistically interpreted as signs that the L_2 student had not mastered those aspects of the L_2 being studied and that those errors must be corrected. Lado (1957) was among the first to look on errors as evidence of creating a new language code that the learner was experiencing.

The hypothesis that these errors should be viewed more objectively, as an indication of what difficulties the

learner was experiencing with the language, was given credence by such later linguists as Nemser (1971) and Selinker (1972) who heavily researched this whole phenomenon of error. From this research was born the view that there exists (Selinker, 1972: 214)

> . . .a separate linguistic system based on observable output which results from a learner's attempted production of a TL (target language) norm. This linguistic system we will call interlanguage (IL).

The phenomenon of a language learner's language was thus recognized and named.

This IL of the L_2 learner possesses certain observable characteristics. It is:

1. systematic
2. separate from and independent of both L_1 and L_2
3. particular to the individual (might be generalized to a particular group with similar linguistic backgrounds and similar L_2 learning environments as is the case of most Canadian FI learners)
4. transitional (Corder, 1978; Corder, 1981; Faerch, 1979; Nemser, 1971; Selinker, 1972; Selinker, Swain & Dumas, 1979; Tarone, 1982).

The IL hypothesis was first thought to be applicable only to adults. However, in a study by Selinker, Swain and Dumas (1971: 140), they present evidence that:

> the IL hypothesis can be extended to child-language acquisition settings, when the second-language acquisition is non-simultaneous and also when it occurs in the absence of native speaking peers of TL.

The IL phenomenon is now effectively an unquestioned product of the French immersion language learning environment, an environment which is reflective of the above characteristics. This IL, while having the potential to aid significantly in the study of L_2 learning, becomes a concern to FI practitioners who are able to concur with three of the four of the above characteristics of IL. However, it is their contention the FI interlanguage, particularly given the absence of many of the fostering conditions of the natural language learning environment, is characterized principally by its tendency to fossilize. Hammerly (1982: 176) explains: "Fossilization refers to approximative rules that do not go away but become part of a stable interlanguage".

In Hammerly's view (1982), the FI interlanguage is subject to fossilization because the central focus of an FI program is communication rather than error correction.

Secondly, he suggests (1982: 268):

> immersion students are expected to acquire the second language within learning conditions--the classroom--which do not resemble acquisition conditions (being surrounded by second language speakers in the environment).

Researchers/theorists have begun to turn their focus to the treatment of error (Pellerin & Hammerly, 1986; Tardif, 1980; Tardif & Anglejan, 1981). Unlike the core French classroom which provides a very limited oral product that no doubt challenges the teacher with regard to the technique of error correction, the FI classroom oral fabric is that very error-ridden language learning product which is in need of improvement.

There has been little empirical evidence to suggest when to correct L_2 errors. Some studies, though, have produced interpretable data. Chastain (1980) suggests that error correction should occur if native speakers are uncomfortable with the message. Hammerly (1982: 277-278) proposes a more definite response:

> it is unrealistic to try to correct all errors, especially during communicative activities... all errors should be corrected during the presentation and manipulation phases of the teaching cycle...

Burt and Kiparsky (1972) have made a useful distinction between global error and local error. Global error is that error which causes the listener to misunderstand a message whereas a local error relates to an element of a message and does not impede communication.

Having considered this global/local view of errors, Hammerly (1982: 278) proposes a hierarchy of errors that should prove a valuable guide as to which mistakes (because it is impossible to correct all) to choose for correction.

1. Errors that interfere with the intelligibility of the message to a monolingual native speaker.
2. Errors that are unacceptable--irritating to native speakers.
3. Errors involving rules that have already been taught.
4. Frequent errors of any kind. (He does admit the Burt and Kiparsky distinction between global and local error. He also admits that if the error is not systematic, it is a mistake rather than an error, and as such should be ignored.)
5. Errors resulting from venturing into linguistically unknown territory, especially those showing native language interference.

Other such hierarchies have resulted from study (Allwright, 1975; Hendrickson, 1978; Holley & King, 1971; Tardif and

d'Anglejan, 1981) and provide some insight into the troubling question of when to correct error.

Agreement is reached on this "when to correct" question only to the rather nebulous level of loosely worded hierarchies of error. How this error is to be treated in the evaluation of the speech product is a question that invites research.

An Alternate Teaching/Learning Model for FI

A language learning theory that has grown from just such a wider understanding of the L_2 learning dynamic is the communicative competence theory that embodies the communicative approach. Although the communicative approach as it has been developed and interpreted by Breen and Candlin (1979), Brumfit (1984), Canale and Swain (1980), Littlewood (1981), Savignon (1972, 1983) pertains specifically to the core L_2 learning environment, there are many tenets of this philosophy of L_2 learning that may be applied to the FI context.

Tardif (1985), a leading practitioner and theorist in FI, has described the communicative approach as being learner-centered with the learner being constantly put into communication trials where skills enabling the learner to successfully communicate a given message are developed.

In an earlier article Tardif, in attempting to describe a methodology attuned to the needs of immersion learners, proposes such guiding principles as (Tardif 1984: 366-367):

1. . . . il faut insister sur la primauté de l'oral.
2. . . . la nécessité d'un enseignement centré sur l'apprenant. L'élève . . . doit être vu comme participant actif.

She clearly states the connection in her presentation of the third principle.

3. L'approche communicative en situation d'immersion exige une nouvelle orientation dans le contenu des cours . . . en mettant l'accent sur le sens plutôt que sur la forme.

Not only is there a marked similarity of these immersion descriptors to those of the communicative approach listed above, these similarities echo through the communicative approach literature (Brumfit, 1984; Gareau, 1987; Littlewood, 1981; Savignon, 1983; Stern, 1983). Thus, the communicative approach, though having its origins in the core L_2 learning context, can be seen to be characteristic of the FI learning context as well.

Communicative Competence

The construct, communicative competence (CC), the goal of the communicative approach seems worthy of study as a means through which FI interlanguage could be first

evaluated, then improved. Native-like oral competence continues to elude even the most skillful graduates of an FI program. The definition of a more achievable linguistic goal could perhaps more realistically lie in the notion of CC. It is through a clearer understanding of this construct that some progress might be effected in the evaluation of FI oral production.

In 1972, the linguist Hymes first coined the term "communicative competence" which as he proposed it (as reported in Stern, 1983: 229), implied a knowledge of: "when to speak, when not and as to what to talk about with whom, where and in what manner."

The ensuing debate as to what learnings were to be mastered before one was communicatively competent grew as the concept earned more and more favour in L_2 pedagogy. The term was subsequently studied very thoroughly (Canale, 1983; Canale and Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1983) and given both a theoretical as well as a practical framework. Gone was the rather tentative, vague proposal of Hymes. The Canale-Swain framework helped to define the construct, but it also opened the way for further interpretation so that universal acceptance of what it means to be communicatively competent still eludes the field.

The literature also bears witness to the absence of universal acceptance of methodology applicable to CC. Swan (1985a, 1985b) sees as its greatest weakness, the use of

broad dogmatic terms that detract from any concrete realization of what CC means linguistically. These broad terms also detract from a clear understanding of its pedagogical implications (Swan, 1985a: 7): "a limited but valuable insight has been over-generalized and is presented as if it applied to the whole of language and all of language teaching."

A second weakness of the CC approach to second language learning, Swan suggests (1985a, 1985b), follows from a widely accepted assumption that young L_2 learners neither possess nor can transfer normal, communicative skills from their native language. This is at the heart of the growing argument (Gareau, 1987; Nemni, 1985; Swan, 1985a; Swan, 1985b), that, although it is conducive to more efficient language learning to simulate real communicative situations (they, at best, remain only simulations) rather than to engage in stilted, rote exchanges, formally taught grammar should have a more valid place within the communicative approach.

The Canale-Swain (1980) framework remains the most universally accepted as well as theoretically sound conceptualization of communicative competence. It stated that embedded in the notion of communicative competence are four components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. The fourth competence, strategic competence, which comprises a set of strategies which the learner is able to call upon

if a communicative exchange breaks down, is central to the question of how FI learners best manifest their communicative competence.

Communicative competence remains the most widely embraced approach to L_2 teaching in spite of criticism. In any attempt to work within the construct of communicative competence, due consideration should be given to view criticism constructively.

Strategies

Communicative competence is the construct through which this study proposes to view FI student speech. Strategic competence is one of the four components that comprise CC (Canale and Swain, 1980) and thus is a fundamental goal of the communicative approach. Vital to strategic competence is the competent use of a variety of strategies to effect language learning or communication in the L_2. Strategic competence, then, derives from a trial and error view of learning and hence includes error as a necessary step toward successful learning. Since it is the intention of this study to look at how to evaluate student L_2 interlanguage, a language phenomenon in which error is an integral part, then a discussion of this one aspect of CC is in order. Through further study, it is hoped that some insight might be gained that would aid in the improvement of the linguistic quality of the FI interlanguage. It is therefore, appropriate to

review this corpus of the L_2 body of literature for any insights that might aid in the improvement in the linguistic quality of the FI interlanguage.

The interlanguage of L_2 learners has been found to be indicative of strategy use (Bialystok, 1984; Faerch and Kasper, 1983; Tarone, 1983) and from this IL, taxonomies of strategies employed by L_2 learners have been proposed (Bialystok, 1984; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Oxford, Lavine and Crookall, 1989; Paribakht, 1985; Tarone, 1980). A concise beginning point definition of a strategy is proposed by Reiss (1986: 513): "a conscious approach used by an individual to facilitate learning." Tarone's (1983: 72) definition seems to refer more to the heart of the communicative dynamic, negotiation:

> a communicative strategy is a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared. (meaning structures include both linguistic and sociolinguistic structures.)

In earlier discussions of strategy use by L_2 theorists, t ere labelled either communicative (Corder, 1983; Fa d Kasper, 1983; Tarone, 1983) or learning (Bialystok, 1984). There seemed to be no clear agreement as to what constituted the difference between the two.

Paribakht (1985: 142) in suggesting that strategic competence should embrace the two does make that distinction stating that: "learning strategies [are] used to expand the speaker's competence and communication strategies [are] used to exploit it."

Bialystok (1984: 4-5) identifies three criteria of the notion of strategy:

1. Problematicity: strategies are adapted when problems in either learning or production are perceived.
2. Consciousness: refers either to the learner's awareness that the strategy is being employed for a particular purpose, or the awareness of how that strategy might achieve its intended effect.
3. Intentionality: the learner's control over those strategies so that particular ones may be selected from the range of options and deliberately applied to achieve certain effects.

Bialystok (1984: 7) raises the question of the extent to which learners are "in control of the selection of these devices and [are] at least somewhat conscious of their application and effect." Wenden (1986) identified metacognitive strategies such as paying attention, consciously practicing specific language tasks where the degree of consciousness and intentionality was extremely high. Bialystok (1984) argues that child language learners

use many of the same problem-solving techniques as adults when faced with the task of acquiring the language. It is in the degree to which these problem-solving techniques include the three criteria: problematicity, consciousness and intentionality that adult use and child use of strategies is different; young L_2 learners being somewhat less metacognitively active than adult L_2 learners. From a study in early FI, Marrie (1989: 95) found that:

> Young subjects may not be aware of actually choosing strategies. They are aware of language problems and try to communicate; however, they do not appear to be consciously choosing a strategy to overcome the problem. They are perhaps copying the language which they have heard or read.

Immersion methodologies have tended to emphasize the communicative dimensions of the language. However, "a second purpose of language which is often overlooked is that of language for discovery and learning" (Tardif and Weber, 1987: 73). If this purpose of language is considered more closely then both pedagogues and evaluators must become more acutely aware of L_2 speakers as "active meaning-makers continually attempting to make sense of their experiences" (Tardif and Weber, 1987: 73).

Paribakht (1985: 142) makes the suggestion that: "Strategic competence appears to develop in the speakers L_1 with the individual's increasing language experience and to

be freely transferable to L_2 learning situations." This is significant when one considers that the FI primary learner has between five and nine years of strategy expertise from which to draw. Harley's (1984) reporting of pronounced ability on the part of FI learners to use strategies effectively would seem to support the above contention. A caution is in order that, while strategy use is a skill that would seem to carry over to new learning situations, the processes of learning a L1 and a L_2 are distinct.

FI strategy use vis à vis the FI interlanguage, a remarkably consistent classroom variety of flawed L_2, seems to be in contrast to adult L_2 use which produces learner behavior that is "transitional and dynamic" (Paribakht, 1985: 141). Further to this task, the strategy methodology is ever improving. Several recent works have proposed taxonomies of strategies that go beyond the surface features in learner speech and concentrate more fully on the mental processes being activiated by the L_2 learner (Paribakht, 1985; Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989). Such advances can only assist in the search for ways to improve FI instruction and the learning which is its product.

Communicative Language Testing

Kelleen Toohey (1984: 389) in paraphrasing Canale and Swain (1980) and Wesche (1981) stated that:

> the language teacher, as well as the language tester, has come to see language proficiency as something broader than mastery over a limited set of structural items.

This is particularly true when oral proficiency is considered in the CC context. The above contention is adhered to in any attempts to describe or formulate oral tests that measure CC (Swain, 1984; Toohey, 1984; Wesche, 1981). In an integrative oral language test, then, the ability to keep the message going in the face of linguistic limitations is what is to be ultimately measured. Some guidelines for the formulation of such tests exist (Howard, 1980; Newsham, 1989; Toohey, 1984; Wesche, 1981).

The direction of those few oral communicative tests which have been formulated has been toward the setting of levels of spoken ability. The ACTFL interview widely used across the United States to measure oral L_2 performance uses this approach. The French 3200 Oral Interview developed for the province of Newfoundland has derived from this type of format. The high school core L_2 students evaluated by this interview are rated on a scale from one to five. Each level on the scale is marked by a set of general language descriptors which characterize the speech of that level.

For example, Level 2 of that scale is marked by the following descriptors:

- speaks more in phrases than isolated words
- uses memorized sentences
- uses a store of stock expressions
- tries to create but not often successful
- links learned elements
- is unable to consistently speak in sentences
- is heavily dependent on use of the present tense

The trained interviewer using this format is also set the task of evaluating the continuity and comprehensibility of the student's message. CC is clearly the organizing framework of such an evaluative approach.

This study seeks to go beyond giving lip service to the fact that strategy use is a positive sign of language processing on the part of the L_2 learner and attempts to chart an evaluative direction which would more realisitically define oral proficiency for primary FI second language learners.

Summary

This chapter has reviewed those aspects of L_2 accepted theory that are relevant to the FI language learning environment. The history, types, theoretical foundations, problems, as well as possible causes and implications of those problems have been discussed.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE FOR THE STUDY

Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the type and design of the study, the sample, the instruments, the procedures for the collection and analysis of the data. It concludes with the question which directed this study.

Type of Study

"A study that seeks to establish normative information . . . requires the descriptive approach." This contention of F. C. Helmstander's (1970: 69) is borne out in most qualitative research methodologies which suggest that when the researcher is looking to find how people act in a given situation, the qualitative is the research tradition used.

This study has the traits of a qualitative study in that it attempts to describe wholistically the phenomenon of the speech of FI primary students. It derives from qualitative tradition also in that the data for this study were collected in words and have been presented as such rather than numerically. Further, the basis of the reasoning of this study is grounded in the qualitative tradition. This researcher approached the task of examining that speech inductively. Finally, qualitative research is formulated to discover and explain similarity rather than

variance. In that the stated goal of this study was to discover the common characteristics of a given speech sample, it also illustrates this characteristic. The study, then, is guided by several of the precepts of qualitative research.

There are elements of another research tradition at work here also. It is the survey approach that enables researchers to describe the specific behaviors of people across a given population. The oral product of the primary FI pupil in Newfoundland could best be sampled by surveying that product across schools. The study, then, borrows from and is shaped by both these traditions.

Design of the Study

The study was a two-tiered one. Firstly, 15 primary FI students were interviewed. During an interview designed to work them through various language functions, the students spoke with a trained interviewer. The interviews were recorded on audio tape. This first stage yielded the speech samples.

Following this stage the data was then analyzed in order to determine its characteristics. The researcher listened to the tapes, transcribed them, perused the data in order to distinguish similarities and differences in the students' speech. Those characteristics were then separated

by grade levels where possible. Models illustrative of the development of FI speech from grades I to III were then produced.

In a second stage, nine FI primary teachers were interviewed and asked how they would describe the speech of FI primary students. The descriptions sought and received were open-ended, generalized conceptualizations of the students L_2. The teacher data was then compared to the speech profiles yielded from the student data.

There seems to be agreement among research methodologists that there is need for a 'rough working frame' (Miles, 1979: 119) to give some guidance in the shaping of the study. While this researcher approached the study with no clear statement of what was thought to be contained in the data, there existed a 'rough working frame.' The literature researched for the study, coupled with years in the core French classroom and some experience with FI primary children, provided the researcher with a frame of reference from which to look at the data. Further, the speech which the data exemplified is a simple learner's speech. It has not yet attained a degree of sophistication so as to render the task of seeing what is clearly salient difficult. It is from that frame of reference that the characteristics and configurations of FI speech presented in the following chapter were conceived.

Sample

The population consisted of 15 FI primary students and 9 FI primary teachers all of Newfoundland and Labrador.

Student Sample. The students were chosen to be representative of all types of FI schools across the province. Caution was applied so that no one school or school system was over represented. Of the fifteen students in the sample:

- 5 students came from Grade I
    - 3 students came from urban schools; 2 from rural
- 5 students came from Grade II
    - 3 students came from urban schools; 2 from rural
- 5 students came from Grade III.
    - 3 students came from urban schools; 2 from rural.

All students began learning French in Kindergarten. While in Kindergarten they received one hundred percent of their instruction in French. In Grades I and II instruction was about eighty percent in French while in Grade III the instruction was about seventy-five percent in French.

The students who participated in the study were chosen late in the spring of the school year while they were in either Grades I, II or III. Owing to difficulties caused by both school schedules and the interviewer's schedule, they were interviewed in the early fall of the next year. Because the subsequent school year had progressed very

little, it was felt that the students' speaking ability in the L_2 reflected that of their previous year and so are recorded as speakers of Grade I, II and III

Teacher Sample. The teachers were chosen so as to be representative of FI schools across the province and avoid sampling a concentration of teachers from the largest urban centre on the island. Thus, there was a cross-section of both urban and rural, large and small FI school contexts investigated. The teachers brought to the study varying degrees of experience in working with FI. Several had helped pioneer the first FI programs in the province, although, there were others who became involved in teaching FI more recently. No teacher interviewed had less than three years teaching experience in FI. A large part of the teacher population had been included in a major FI classroom processes project for the Department of Education and Memorial University, and they were working on that project at the time of interviewing. They were, therefore, well-versed on the current FI literature, thus bringing to the interviews, opinions that had been developed in a period of reflection on results of FI instruction. There was also a mix of francophone and anglophone teachers who, in addition to having different linguistic backgrounds, were representative of different professional preparation schools. Each teacher was interviewed separately in conditions apart from classroom activity so as to be

conducive to continuous conversation. The nine teachers were divided as follows:

- 3 teachers--Grade I
- 3 teachers--Grade II
- 3 teachers--Grade III.

Instrumentation

There were two different interview formats used for the purposes of data gathering.

Student Interview. The student interview was structured to the degree that it was designed to encourage students to function in a variety of ways and at a variety of levels in the L_2. However, attention was paid to a level of open-endedness so that students were encouraged to expound at any point where interest in the question was evidenced. At no point were students ever stopped from continuing in order to keep to a rigid interview format. Any addends or digressions away from the specific question asked were considered valid and a most valuable contribution to the data. To this end various prompters, both verbal and non-verbal, were employed throughout the interview. The student interview is appendixed. For furthur reference, see Appendix B.

Teacher Interview. The teacher interview was very loosely structured so as to effect as closely as possible an open-ended conversation. There was a set of guideline

questions which gave direction to the interview although teachers were encouraged to elaborate freely on any given point. The guideline questions were chosen with the intention of illiciting optimum amounts of description of FI oral speech. The text of the interview is appendixed; for furthur reference, see Appendix A.

Data Collection Procedures

Student Data. The student interviews were conducted by a trained interviewer other than the researcher who interviewed each student in his/her respective school. All subjects were individually interviewed. Efforts were made so that during the data collection process, interviews be held in a quiet area, separate from the classroom. Each interview was recorded on audio tape. This researcher then scripted each interview. This procedure yielded complete scripts of all interviews.

Teacher Data. The teacher interviews were conducted by this researcher. It was decided not to use audio-tapes for this stage of data collection. Notes were taken during the interview and each interview was fully written up by the researcher immediately following the interview session. For this writing up procedure, each interview report was organized around questions asked during the interview.

Data Analysis Procedures

Organization and Analysis of Student Interview Data.

The aim of this study was to present a descriptive portrait of FI primary speech. It was decided, therefore, to attempt to isolate salient features of the speech sample based on those features of the speech which consistently repeated within single interviews, across grade level interviews and often across the whole student sample that are reflected in the profiles. Comparison of the three grade profiles is used as the first criteria on which to analyse the data. The profiles were then charted to reflect the speech descriptions contained within each grade.

Teacher Interview Data. Teachers' responses were marked by a great degree of similarity and that similarity increased within grades. At no time was one teacher contradictory of what another had said. Therefore, it was decided that the most meaningful organizing schema would be grade levels. Within grade levels the high degree of concurrence of teacher responses would also be conceptualized in student speech profiles. Any additional insights that impact on the speech profiles but do not directly involve characteristics of spoken language are added.

In order that induction be the guiding reasoning philosophy it was decided to fully explore both sources of data separately and later to assess how they fitted into the whole.

Research Question

The question which has motivated this study and guided this report is as follows:

What are the characteristics of the oral production of FI pupils in the primary grade levels in Newfoundland and Labrador?

This question was posed with a view to the possibility of its being a springboard to the generating of guidelines for the evaluation of oral production of FI primary level students.

Summary

This chapter has explained that the students were selected to represent rural and urban centers and grades from I to III of the FI situation in Newfoundland and Labrador. Data was collected through interviews with students and open-ended interviews with teachers. The interviews were then scripted and analyzed both across and within grade levels. An analysis of that data follows in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter is divided into two sections. Section I deals with the student interview data and Section II presents the data of the teacher interviews. In Section I a brief description of the characteristics of the speech of the students interviewed by grade level: Grade I, Grade II and Grade III is given. The characteristics observed during the study of the data fell either into a specific grammatical category or were thought to describe in a more general way how the student spoke. Therefore, each profile is subdivided into two categories:

1. General characteristics: These are general speech characteristics that do not belong to any specific grammatical unit of the French language.

2. L_2 Specific Characteristics: These are characteristics particular to a specific grammatical unit of the French language. Within the L_2 Specific Characteristics there are subdivisions when more than one characteristic pertains to a specific grammatical unit.

The three profiles are followed by an analysis of the profiles. The analysis presented attends to (a) how the data took shape, and (b) the content contained in the data.

Section II presents the data of the teacher interviews. The speech profiles are presented in the same format as those from the student interviews; however, there is a third section to these teacher profiles which reflects insightful teacher comments that, though they do not attend directly to attributes of speech, provide valuable insights into the understanding of the contents of FI student interlanguage. Each teacher description is presented in this way.

1. General Characteristics: as for student interview data.
2. L_2 Specific Characteristics: as for student interview data.
3. Additional Comments: This section contains any insights from the teacher interviews considered to be of importance to this researcher.

Descriptions are given for each of the three grade levels, I, II and III, which are the same as for the student profiles and are followed by an analysis section.

SECTION I

Student Interviews

The fifteen FI students, five from each of Grades I, II and III responded to a prepared set of questions formulated in such a way as to have the student perform a variety of language tasks. A list of the language features from those

interviews considered to be important is given. For each language feature presented there is a minimum of one example and a maximum of two. A list of additional illustrative examples is found in Appendix D where a complete chart of the student interview data is presented.

The speech of the Grade I FI pupils studied was marked by the following characteristics:

GRADE I FI LEARNER

Student Speech Profile

General Characteristics	Examples
1. Frequent, dramatic use of English	- il a ses 'ears pierced' - tu fais le chien 'paddle comme ça
2. Phrases/sentences based on English syntax	- tu besoin de donner il [un]* carte - quelqu'un's place
3. Very simplified sentence structure; verbs, adjectives, connectors and qualifiers often being omitted	- tu besoin lire - je pense je [va] pour regarde livres
4. Question often asked in simplest form	- Où tu habites?
5. A developing accent; however, pronunciation is sometimes anglicized or simplified, e.g. difficult consonants are sometimes removed	- Je mache

6.	Onomatopoeic speech which enhances meaning	- quelqu'un fait 'pqrr' avec un [bullitte] - le petit souris 'ha ha ha' le grand souris
7.	Some aborted messages	- je vois des st... st... st...** - Je ... je ... peux pas dire en français
8.	Ability to reduce in order not to be forced to abort	- J'aime les mathématiques et ... les choses
9.	A fairly consistent reliance on 'catch phrases' that fill in verbal gaps: ça, tout ça, comme ça	- Il les casse et tout ça - Il fait de ça avec ... je sais pas ... comme ça ... après il fait comme ça
10.	Good inquiry skills; in direct dialogue requests for aid are common and clearly made	- Qu'est-ce que ça veut dire?
11.	Some examples of sound phrasing	- Je ne sais pas mais j'ai joué avec mon frère, des fois je joue avec Papa.
12.	Some instances of successful paragraphs; often in their simplest forms	- Il a avait un party avec tout le pizza et un personne a prend un pizza--par folding en half là--il a made it et il a mangé tout.

<u>4. Specific Characteristics</u>		<u>Examples</u>
1.	Verb system:	
	(a) Common use of infinitive as universal verb form	- moi, je lire - tu mettre

(b)	Heavy dependence on the present tense (within this use of the present the most commonly used forms are: je, tu, il; the il singular form often being extended and used with all subjects.)	- je va - nous va
(c)	Some concept of when to use the past forms both imperfect and past but there is very little control of the form.	- J'ai déjà voir
(d)	Some control being evidenced with regular 'er' verbs and some commonly used verbs. However, the verb system is simplified so that most verbs are made to fit the 'er' pattern or simplified in other ways.	- Mme. Marche a donné [moi] - J'ai allé
(e)	The appearance of the imperfect but that use is limited to commonly used forms.	- c'était - il avait
(f)	A fairly accurate sense of when to use the future. Future with 'aller' is commonly used form and this is often simplified to 'il' form.	- je va jouer

2. Pronoun system:

(a) An underdeveloped pronoun system. Subject pronouns are most commonly used and are often extended and used as objects.	- je [va] être gentil à il
(b) Sometimes inaccurate use of the subject pronouns; je and tu are used fairly accurately; others are simplified to 'il'.	- [ma bébé] soeur--il a sept mois
(c) Some sense, although inaccurate, of the relative pronoun.	- les amis [choisir] les choses qui aiment bien
(d) Interrogative pronouns confused with relative pronouns	- je ne sais pas qu'est-ce qu'il fait

3. Other L_2 Specifics:

(a) Possessives and articles often used inaccurately; they seem to be often simplified to masculine singular form.	- Quelquefois je me rends [ ] mon grand-papa ou mon grand-mama ... et mon deux autres habitent Bay Bulls.
(b) Avoidance of contractions	- à le professeur - à les maisons

* [ ] represents error other than point being illustrated.

** ... represents pauses in speech by student.

The speech of the Grade II pupil is characterized by the following traits:

GRADE II FI LEARNER

Student Speech Profile

General Characteristics	Examples
1. L_2 frequently interrupted by English	- Je ne sais pas mais c'est très scary. - Mais, je get frustrated quand je fais du ski.
2. Phrases/sentences influenced by English syntax	- C'est mon Papa travail - le noir un s'appelle Sparky
3. Incidental inclusion of French sounding English words made to 'fit'	- J'aime 'speller'
4. Good inquiry skills	- un grand quoi? - Qu'est-ce que ça veut dire?
5. A tendency to (pause) hesitate effectively, to use frequent breaks as information/assistance-getting devices	- J'aime regarder les ... les ... ah ... um ... je ne [comment] pas le dire mais j'aime regarder ... um ... qu'est-ce que c'est ... c'est ... (interviewer does not aid) les ... cartoons.
6. An overuse and inappropriate use of crutch 'catch phrases'; e.g. C'est, C'était	- C'est trois hommes qui ... (for il y a)
7. An English interference error that seems to be fairly common	- J'ai a [des petits patines]
8. Emerging sense of 'French' structure but still little accuracy	- Il sont petits et je l'aime. - [le] façon de fait marcher le robot
9. A good degree of accuracy with stock phrases.	- Oui, j'en ai une

10.	Frequently successful circumlocutions	- Mlle Hearne a une chose qu'elle fait ... une ... une ... c'est comme de peinture ou quelquechose--elle [mis] sur une autre carte dans le livre.
11.	Onomatopoeic speech which adds meaning where vocabulary is lacking	- il ... il parle ... (demonstrates with sounds) ... comme ... [weird]
12.	Sound strings of sentences as ability to paragraph develops	- dans Back to the Future ... C'est Michael J. Fox ... il était dans le ... il est va 'back' 'way back' dans le ... pas dans le futur ... il était dans le futur et il avait excellent auto et ... et ... il ... fait 'vroom' et le feu ... le feu ... c'est comme ça ...il guide et il est ... et il est dans le 'past' et il [raconté] sa mère et elle n'est pas mariée.
13.	Messages sometimes unintelligible but rarely aborted	- ... et trop de choses sont musiques et [son] chanson sont voir quelquetemps

L, Specific Characteristics		Examples
1.	Verb system:	
	(a) Frequent use of infinitive as verb that can do all	- Je mettre la carte ...
	(b) Heavy reliance on present tense; this verb system is still somewhat skewed toward inappropriate use of 'il' form with all subjects, although there is growing accuracy with common 'je' and 'tu' forms	- je va - nous habite - tu dois - j'ai
	(c) An awareness of when to use past but with little accuracy	- j'ai oublie - il a tout faire

(d)	A simplified past system	- il a cassé
		- il a sauté
	- which often behaves as 'er' system; there is some accuracy with true 'er' verbs	
	but	- il a metté
	- which relies heavily on 'avoir' as almost universal auxiliary	- il a allé
		- elle a revenu
	- in which some learned forms are delivered accurately	- il a détruit
(e)	Accurate use of the imperfect with 'je', 'tu', and 'il' of être and less frequently avoir	- il était un robot
		- il avait [excellent] auto
(f)	Knowledge of when to use more sophisticated forms of imperfect but with little accuracy	- les polices étaient essayer (é) d'attraper
		- J'étais glisser
(g)	Appropriate use of the future	
	- Future with 'aller' is more developed than simple future though errors are still frequent	- je vais parler
		but
		- je vais reçois
	- Simple future is emerging; although occasionally accurate, there is still tendency to use 'il' form	- j'apportera

(h) Tendency to gravitate toward 'il' form in all tenses	- je va - nous a appris
3. Pronoun system:	
(a) Still underdeveloped pronoun system; subject pronouns are most commonly used correctly	- ils sautent partout - Mlle Hearne, elle va venir avec moi
(b) Emerging object pronoun system though they are often placed incorrectly or inaccurate	- ils sont petits et je l'aime - j'ai eu le pour ma fête
(c) Some confusion of interrogative and relative pronouns	- Je ne sais pas qu'est-ce que je vais reçois
(d) Developing relative pronoun system	- pas beaucoup de choses que je n'aime pas - Mlle a quelquechoise qu'elle fait - La fille qui s'appelle Laura Ingles

Other L, Specific:	Examples
1. Simplified article/possessive system	
(a) The article often becomes the universal 'le' 'un'	- le porte - un fois
(b) The possessive sometimes seems gender related to speaker	- mon petit soeur (boy speaking) - ma dos (girl speaking)
(c) The article is sometimes omitted	- Papa et frère - C'est natation
2. Frequent avoidance of contractions	- de le robot - à les animaux

Grade III speech is marked by the following characteristics:

GRADE III FI LEARNER

Student Speech Profile

General Characteristics	Examples
1. L_2 sporadically interrupted by English	- Elle ne peut pas parce que ... son 'spine' ... ça va pas droit. - J'étais dans la toilette avec mes amis et le ... le ... le lock s'est fermé.
2. Phrasing influenced by English syntax	- J'étais quatre - Dans le différent episode, le différent personne gagne
3. A growing ability to circumlocute	- C'est [un] chose [fait] ... on met la bouche sur la bouche et tout ça (for artificial respiration)
4. A tendency to 'Frenchify' an English word to fit a specific French structure	- j'allais 'slider' sur la [grand] montagne - Elle a besoin de porter un 'brace' (pronounced brasse)
5. Growing awareness of sense of 'il y a'	- il y avait des [les] Guerres des Étoiles - est-ce qui'il y a va [être] d'autres personnes
6. Reduction of message when needed vocabulary is lacking	- On chante des ... et ... eh ... tout ça - Je ne sais ... sais ... mais c'est excellent ... les étoiles

7. Some attention to adjustment and correction even though correct form is not always produced	- C'est ... c'était à Corner Brook ou quelquechose ... ou quelque sort - [un] [petit] fille ... il avait ... elle avait
8. A continued dependence on 'catch all' phrases: c'est, c'était, tout ça, ça	- C'est trois enfants et ils ont construit un fusil
9. Clearly distinct paragraphs	- un de les frères qui s'appelle Alex, il voulait entrer dans un club du ... eh ... université ... et ... um ... son ami voulait entrer aussi mais il ne pouvait pas et si son ami ne pouvait pas, il ne voulait pas alors ... il n'[a] pas entré

L, Specific Characteristics	Examples
1. Verb system:	
(a) Incidental use of infinitive as universal verb form; now used in other tenses	- je lire - elle a ouvrir
(b) Fairly accurate use of the infinitive phrase; although it is sometimes simplified to two 'il' verb forms	- je veux lire - elle veut pas met ça
(c) Limitedly accurate present tense with je, tu, and il, although some old errors continue to occur	- je va - je va lire
(d) Inaccuracy with nous and vous forms of the present tense	- et ma gardienne et moi ... allaient chercher

(e)	Very sound sense of when to use the past has developed; there is a tendency to simplify the 'il' form and the 'er' transitive pattern	- les autres strumphs a [vient] - elle a allé
(f)	Some awareness of different past tense patterns but attempts to use them are often inaccurate	- qui a vient - il a prend
(g)	Wider use of the simple future although future with 'aller' more commonly and correctly used; there is still a tendency to overuse 'il' form more markedly with the simple future	- je cherchera - je dira
(h)	Good sense of when to use imperfect; there is growing control when using être, avoir, pouvoir, vouloir; structural errors still occur	- elle voulait être - la gardienne était pleuré
(i)	An awareness of need to use tense other than present but a tendency to return to best known tense	- elle voulait être ... elle ne peut pas dire non
(j)	An emerging sense of the conditional and pluperfect tenses; some limited correct use is present but cannot be sustained	- j'aimerais aller

2. Pronoun system:

(a) Broadening pronoun schema, good use of 'on', occasional correct use and placement of different pronouns	- Je [seulement va] avec mon ami, on joue - Je vais pas le dire - Je les oublie tous les teenagers ... ils étaient même plus grands
(b) Frequent incorrect pronoun forms	- Qui [ ] a fait moi rire - Et prend il à son travail
(c) Pronoun placement errors	- Monsieur conduit nous - j'ai vu le - le gorille voulait venir prendre nous

Other L, Specifics:	Examples
1. Inaccurate articles; article is still occasionally omitted	- un petit et grand
2. Tendency to still use 'le' and 'un' as universal article	- un chose - un fois
3. Article/possessive sometimes reflective of gender of speaker	- ma père (girl speaking)
4. Frequently avoided contractions	- à les contractions
5. Incorrectly formed contractions	- du le neige

Tables 1, 2 and 3 present speech characteristics of these profiles.

Table 1

SPEECH PROFILE: GRADE I FI LEARNER

General	Specific	
	Verbs	Other
English is needed	Infinitives everywhere	Possessives/Articles: - often omitted
English syntax influences	Present--main reference system je, tu, and il	- simplified to masculine singular
Simple L_2 structures	Past tense simplified to 'er'	Few contractions
Catch phrases	Simple future simplified to 'il'	
Skilled questions	Imperfect tense simplified to 'stock phrases'	
Accent influenced by L_1	PRONOUNS	
Sounds abound	Subjects everywhere--je, tu, and il	
Messages aborted	Relatives/interrogatives: - when to use--appropriate	
Good reducers	- how to use--inaccurate	
Some sound phrasing		
Mini-paragraphs		

Table 2

SPEECH PROFILE: GRADE II FI LEARNER

GENERAL	SPECIFIC	
	VERBS	OTHER
English interrupts	Infinitive frequently over-used	Possessives/Articles: - sometimes omitted - masculine singular form often used
English syntax influences	Present--main reference system; je/tu--better; il--still over used	Contractions: - often avoided
Frenchified English words	Most used forms of emerging tenses:	
Catch phrases	Past: il/er--verbs with avoir	
Effective pauses	Future with 'aller': all forms with error	
First L_2 structures	Imperfect: je, tu, and il--être/avoir	
Repertoire of common structures	All tenses: tendency to over-use 'il' form	
Circumlocutions appear	PRONOUNS	
Sounds abound	Subject pronouns--main pronoun system	
Messages rarely aborted	Object pronouns--represented by subjects	
Messages sometimes vague	Relative/Interrogatives: - when to use--good - how to use--confused	
Developing paragraphs		

Table 3

SPEECH PROFILE: GRADE III FI LEARNER

GENERAL	SPECIFIC	
	VERBS	OTHER
English here and there	Infinitives here and there	Possessives/Articles: - sometimes omitted - masculine singular often used - gender related to speaker
English syntax influences	Good infinitive phase	
Catch phrases	Present tense often used: - je/tu/il--good - nous/vous--limited	
Frenchified English words	Most used verb forms:	Contractions: - often avoided - often incorrect
Good circumlocutions	Past: il/er--verbs with avoir	
Message reductions	Future with 'aller': good control	
Beginning correctors	Simple future: il	
Flawed grammar	Imperfect: 'il' is frequent; other subjects used with avoir, être, pouvoir, and vouloir	
Distinct paragraphs	Conditional: occasional use	
	Past perfect: occasional use	
	PRONOUNS	
	Good subject pronouns	
	Better object pronouns	
	Pronoun forms mixed--subject for object	
	Pronoun placement--objects after verb	

Analysis of Student Interview Profiles

Configuration of Data. One clearly evident characteristic of the speech sample described is the definite progression in L_2 ability that is indicated both in the General and L_2 Specific sections of the profiles. The following characteristics taken from Tables 1, 2, and 3 are illustrations of that progression:

GRADES:	I	II	III
CHARACTERISTICS:			
General:	- lack of circum-locutions	- circumlocutions appear	- good circumlocu-tions
	- messages aborted	- messages rarely aborted	- beginning correction
	- simple structures	- first L_2 structures	- sound L_2 structures
	- mini-paragraphs	- developing paragraphs	- distinct paragraphs
	- English is needed	- English interrupts	- English here and there
Specific:	- infinitives everywhere	- infinitives frequent	- infinitives here and there
	- present tense (little control)	- present tense (growing control)	- present tense (more consistent control)
	- use of other tense extremely limited: past, future with 'aller', and imperfect	- broadened awareness of other tenses; simple future begins to appear	- growing use, but still not well controlled of other tenses: conditional and pluperfect appears
	- je, tu, and il main pronouns	- all subject pronouns appearing	- more consistent use of all subject pronouns

- other pronoun systems confused (subjects overused)	- other pronoun systems more frequently appearing	- other pronoun systems broadening, (eg) more consistent use of objects

Juxtaposed against this progression is the recurrence of traits that would seem to point to a lack of progress on the part of the L_2 learner.

GRADES:	I	II	III
CHARACTERISTICS:			
General:	- English syntax influences	- English syntax influences	- English syntax influences
	- Dependence on catch phrases	- Dependence on catch phrases	- Dependence on catch phrases
Specific:	- Articles and possessives omitted or simplified	- Articles and possessives omitted or simplified	- Articles and possessives omitted or simplified
	- Contractions avoided	- Contractions avoided	- Contractions avoided

Initially, it would seem that to indicate progress on the one hand and the lack thereof on the other is contradictory. Because a student masters an element of the language in one context, it does not mean that the element has been mastered for all linguistic contexts. Clearly then, it is possible on the one hand to see indicators of progress while on the other hand to see indicators of lack of progress in the same linguistic sample.

The presence of errors in great number and variety is clearly observable in all student FI speech sampled. Instances of error are documented throughout the General

Characteristics and L_2 Specific Characteristics of the profiles. Given the aim of arriving at a description of the FI speech, explanations of the nature of the error were used instead of simply denoting the existence of the error. Examples of the General Characteristics which attend to error include:

(a) in the grade I sample, phrases/sentences based on English syntax

(b) in the grade II sample, incidental inclusion of French sounding English words made to 'fit', and

(c) in the grade III sample, a continued dependence on catch all phrases.

Similarly, that error is evidenced very clearly in the L_2 Specific Characteristics of the profiles:

(a) in the grade I sample, common use of infinitive as universal verb form

(b) in the grade II sample, an awareness of when to use past tense but with little accuracy, and

(c) in the grade III sample, frequent incorrect pronoun forms.

Interlanguage studies (Corder, 1967; Nemser, 1972; Selinker, 1972) give testament to the presence of error in all learner languages. This particular learner language is clearly typical in this respect.

Other studies of FI speech (Adiv, 1980; Day & Shapson, 1987; Obadia, 1983; Pellerin & Hammerly, 1986) have used error as the organizing feature and in the listing,

enumerating and charting of error have produced insightful renderings of FI speech. Within such a limited focus, though, what the student typically can do is often lost. Admittedly, some attention has also been focused on the positive outcomes (Swain & Lapkin, 1986) but more such attention is needed.

It would be equally limiting to focus on what FI students can do without admitting the high occurence of error. However, this researcher has chosen to represent that error by what a student is 'Trying to do' so as to ensure that the positive as well as the negative aspects of that error be considered. The following charts presented in Tables 4, 5, and 6, attempt to re-conceptualize the original profiles presented in this chapter. This conceptualization aims at balancing the question, 'what can they do?',in reference to student speech with the question, 'what are they still trying to do?'. It aims also at studying where the students use correct speech patterns and where they are in error. Also, this second configuration of the data under the headings 'Can do' 'Trying To Do' has attempted to provide a context in which to consider the qualities evidenced in the speech sample without using the criterion of the native speaker. The accent then shifts so that both progress and the need for progress can be considered away from the overwhelming perfection of the native speaker.

Table 4

CAN DO/TRYING TO DO: GRADE I FI LEARNER

CAN DO	TRYING TO DO
General	General
Speak in simple L_2 phrases	Operate without L_1
Use idioms	Speak using L_2 sound system
Ask questions	Complete longer more complicated messages
Use non-linguistic aids to enhance meaning	
Reduce and simplify	
Specific	Specific
Use present tense	Broaden present tense
Use limited version of past, future with 'aller' and imperfect	Sort out use of infinitive
Use subject pronouns: je, tu, il	Fit other tenses into linguistic system
Use elements of article system	Sort out interrogative and relative pronouns
Use elements of possessive system	Broaden article system
	Broaden possessive system
	Use contractions when appropriate

Table 5

CAN DO/TRYING TO DO: GRADE II FI LEARNER

CAN DO	TRYING TO DO
General	General
Speak in L_2 structured phrases	Operate without L_1
Use idioms	Eliminate the interference of L_1
Ask questions	Clarify messages
Pause effectively	
Store a repertoire of useful phrases	
Circumlocute	
Use non-linguistic aids (sound) to enhance meaning	
Get over difficulty and avoid aborting	
Produce sentence strings	
Specific	Specific
Use present Tense	Sort out use of infinitive
Use limited version of: past, future with 'aller', simple future and imperfect	Broaden use of present tense
Use subject pronouns	Sort out role of specific subjects with present tense
Use elements of article system	Continue to fit other tenses into linguistic system
Use elements of possessive system	Eliminate use of 'il' as universal subject
	Sort out use and place of object pronouns
	Particularize article system
	Particularize possessive system
	Use contractions correctly

Table 6

CAN DO/TRYING TO DO: GRADE III FI LEARNER

CAN DO	TRYING TO DO
General	General
Often avoid L_1	Eliminate the interference of L_1
Use good L_2 structures	Effectively self correct
Use idioms	Organize the grammatical schema of L_2
Ask questions	
Pause effectively	
Store a repertoire of useful phrases	
Circumlocute	
Reduce effectively	
Paragraph	
Specific	Specific
Regulate present tense in most cases	Eliminate infrequent misuse of infinitive
Use infinitive correctly in most cases	Perfect use of present tense
Use broadened version of: past, future with'aller', simple future and imperfect	Complete version of: past, future with 'aller', simple future and imperfect
Use limited version of conditional and past perfect	Broaden use of conditional and past perfect
Use subject pronouns	Further clarify object pronouns
Use limited object pronoun system	Particularize article system
Use elements of article system	Particularize possessive system
Use elements of possessive system	Use contractions correctly

Having studied Tables 4, 5 and 6 the FI students' documentable progress is again clearly evidenced. Testimony to that growth can be observed in the growth of the 'Can Do' section of the charts as they portray the learner through the primary grades. Conversely, however, the 'Trying to Do' section has also increased rather than decreased. This pattern in the FI primary speech development has already been noted in the analysis of the Learner Profiles where, on the one hand, growing control of given linguistic structures was evidenced and on the other lack of control of those structures in other contexts (See page 76).

There are two plausible interpretations of a development pattern which, instead of seeing the increase of ability proportionate to the decrease of error, sees the increase of ability and a proportionate increase of error or inability. One might first interpret this type of development as indication of a deterioration in the FI students spoken ability or perhaps a leveling off of that ability with greater instances of error showing up because that ability is challenged in new and more difficult linguistic contexts as the student matures and progresses through increasing grade levels at school. The second interpretation, the one which this study favors, views the increase in the 'Trying to Do' portion of FI student language as an indication of the growth of that language as the students enter new, more sophisticated levels of the L_2.

When beginning to use this new linguistic material, the level of error increases also. While the tendency to rely on structures previously proven to be reliable was observed in the speech sample and documented in the profiles, this increase in error level does seem to indicate a less than total reliance on such structures and a certain willingness to try the new; this phenomenon represents to this researcher an indication of growth.

Content of Data: Grade I. This is a very simple, reduced language. It is highly dependent on the L_1 for structure and much of the incidental, out of ordinary, use of vocabulary is also borrowed from the L_1. It is a language rich in para-linguistic features such as sounds, gestures, expression. With commonly used idioms, questions, and certain verb constructions a measure of control is reached.

Content of Data: Grade II. Of the three grade levels it is at this level that the FI speech seems to make its largest step forward. This speech sample is representative of L_2 students who quickly attain a surprising level of sophistication in the L_2. Although English, both structurally and semantically, remains in evidence, the degree of the influence of the L_1 would seem to have lessened. Ability to manipulate often used structures has increased rather than a fairly static use of them as evidenced in Grade I. Fairly consistent control of several

idioms, questions and commonly used structures is attained. A greater variety of error begins to occur as the student gains skill enough to experiment further in the L_2.

Content of Data: Grade III. There is considerably less difference between the Grade II and Grade III profiles than there is between those for the Grade I and Grade II student. When the Grade II Learner Profile is compared to that of Grade III, the similarity between the two is clearly observable. The comparison of the I and II profiles does indicate similarities but also important differences. There are, however, several features that emerge in Grade III which have not been observed previously. English is less in evidence as the L_2 gains definition as a separate system. The L_2 gains yet another level of sophistication as the pluperfect and conditional verb tenses emerge having, prior to this level, been rarely and only incidently used. It is at this grade level that the students seem to make a conscious effort to correct. They are confident, skilled message-givers as their language attests to a sound level of comprehensibility.

Conclusion of Section I

While the profiles outline a pattern of error, and more serious, a recurrence of error which has probably been repeatedly corrected, a clear path of progress is documented throughout these profiles.

SECTION II

Teacher Interviews

Nine primary teachers were interviewed in a one-on-one context with this researcher. There were three teachers for each of the three grades being described. The interviews were structured only in that a guideline set of questions were used. Efforts were made to ensure that each interview attended as completely as possible to the qualities of the speech of FI students in the grade taught by the teacher being interviewed.

The format for presentation of these data is similar to that used for the Learner Profiles presented earlier in this chapter. This is defensible because the teachers' descriptions of their students' speech are easily grouped around what the FI learner does orally (a) in a general sense and (b) with reference to specific units of the L_2 . There are no examples given in this section because when tendered these examples were very similar or identical to those used by the students, and therefore, it was felt that repetition of examples was unnecessary.

GRADE I FI LEARNER

Teacher Descriptions

The teachers who participated in the study described the speech of the Grade I FI Learner as follows:

General Characteristics.

1. A great degree and variety of error;
2. A French-English mix;
3. Intonation patterns that derive largely from English;
4. Emerging sentences--two to three word strings;

L, Specific Characteristics.

1. Very little control of verb forms;
2. Verb system limited largely to the present tense.

Additional Comments. In spite of the fact that the orientation of the interview was what the student typically says, it is worthy of note that, unique to the Grade I teacher interviews, they isolated specific teacher behaviors they felt to be conducive to an environment where the student is as vocal as possible.

The teacher should:

1. Encourage students to speak as often as possible;
2. Seek all possible means of motivating students to speak without forcing;
3. Accept all sincere attempts at communication;
4. Correct selectively;

5. Endeavour to help students enjoy the satisfaction of a successful communication.

One teacher characterized these students as testors of a new and yet untried linguistic system: "Students are starting to try what they've learned."

GRADE II FI LEARNER

Teacher Descriptions

The Grade 2 teachers interviewed described their students' speech as follows:

General Characteristics.

1. Numerous errors which because of recurrence become predictable;
2. Developing accent and improving intonation but English sentence rhythms often remain;
3. English construction super-imposed on the L_2 sentence;
4. A continuing dependence on English where the L_2 is unknown;
5. Improving clarity of meaning;
6. Some ability to express feelings;
7. Increasing range of vocabulary;
8. Increasing degree of facility with previously taught vocabulary;
9. Emerging ability to circumlocute;
10. Increasing ability to communicate in L_2 in a variety of classroom situations;

11. A limited ability to incorporate previously taught grammar;
12. Incorrect use of idiomatic expressions.

L_2 Specific Characteristics.

1. Gender errors;
2. Pronoun placement errors;
3. An inaccurate verb system which relies heavily on the present tense;
4. A sound sense of when to use other tenses particularly the future with 'aller' and the past but mechanics are weak.

Additional Comments. Two of the three teachers in this portion of the sample stated their belief that mastery is an impossible goal for L_2 students of this age and in this linguistic environment. They do not view mastery as a realistic goal.

GRADE III FI LEARNER

Teacher Descriptions

Participating Grade III teachers described their students' speech as having the following characteristics:

General Characteristics.

1. Repetition of previously corrected errors;
2. Some original errors as new knowledge is tested;
3. Phonetic errors;
4. Incorrect idiomatic expressions;

5. Tendency to rely on a limited range of previously tried structures;
6. Developing but faulty grammatical system;
7. Tendency to resort to English when first confronted with unknown;
8. Non-French, literally translated structures;
9. English sentence rhythms evident;
10. Wider range of vocabulary;
11. Growing ability to attend to detail;
12. Growing ability to circumlocute;
13. Growing ability to attend to all basic needs in French;
14. Growing ability to sustain dialogue:
    (a) peer to peer;
    (b) student to adult;
15. A high degree of clarity of meaning.

L, Specific Characteristics.

1. Emerging control of most commonly used forms of present tense;
*2. Nous and vous present verb forms are often inaccurate;
**3. Overuse of singular forms of present tense;
4. Emerging imperfect tense; largely limited to singular first person;

5. Some control of the future with 'aller'; singular forms stronger than plural.

* Characteristics 2 and 3 approach contradiction of characteristic 1 of Grade III--Language Specific Characteristics, yet they do not. One behavior does not preclude the other. Even though control of the present tense verb system is improving, because the system is still incomplete, students can on the one hand evidence greater control while they continue to make certain errors.

** This same clarification holds true between characteristics 7 and 10 & 12 in Grade III - General Characteristics.

Additional Comments. One of the three teachers of this portion of the sample added the following two comments. Firstly, she stated that students do not seem to have a mental model of the L_2 from which to correct. This remark was an attempt to explain a recurrence of previously corrected error which disturbed her. Secondly, she remarked that she felt that mastery is an unrealistic expectation for these L_2 students.

A second teacher stated that she felt strongly that there was a definite link between oral ability and the ability to read.

Analysis of Teacher Descriptions

Configuration of the Data. Prevalent among the nine teachers interviewed was their pride in, and swift indicating of, what they deemed to be phenomenal progress in the learning of the L_2 during the students' primary years in FI. Realists, though, they were not hesitant in admitting that they, too, saw problems with that development and in outlining the nature of these problems. Amid such discussion the temptation to speculate about the causes for both the successes and the failures was strong. However, the goal of this study being the description of FI primary speech, such discussions were not within the mandate of this study.

The Grade I teachers' descriptions tended to lend themselves to few descriptors of a fairly general nature. It would seem to follow that, if this early speech is simplified beginning-talk, the description of that speech would also be simple and lack the specificity of deeper, more language-rich samples. According to these teachers, teacher behaviors in the classroom are important factors that influence the formation of oral skills.

The Grade II teachers' descriptions are significantly more informative. The profile gleaned from these descriptions yields a very definite indication of what can be expected in the speech of this level of FI student. Significant, too, is the difference in level between the

oral product of the Grade I student and that of the Grade II student. There would seem to be a very definite, fairly large step forward between Grade I and Grade II in the students' ability to perform orally in the L_2.

The Grade III profile also yields a rich characterization of the calibre of this particular oral product. It is important to note that the degree of difference in the level of spoken ability does not seem to advance from Grade II to Grade III as dramatically as it does from Grade I to Grade II. It is also worthy of notice that seeming contradictions become more problematic at this level. Different from the very simplistic speech at Grade I, this speech product is developed enough to have place for an error on the one hand showing an inability to adjust the language to a given situation and an absence of that error on the other hand showing the ability to make that adjustment given another context.

Content: Grade I. According to the teachers, the L_2 language seems quite fixed in an English framework that influences the semantic, structural and phonetic output of these students. It is a fledgling linguistic system, the most evident limitation of which seems to manifest itself in a very limited verb system. Errors of all types characterize this speech.

Content: Grade II. The teachers have characterized the speech sample in more detail at this level. The influence of an English frame of reference is still being indicated; however, a separate, distinct albeit very tentative L_2 system seems to have been begun. That L_2 system is limited to the most commonly accessed grammatical schemata such as verb, pronouns and within these, students can operate only at a very basic level. That L_2 system, though, has achieved a degree of fluidity so as to be able to be used in conveying messages normal to those students' environment. Sustained conversation although sporadically achieved marks a level not yet attained. Errors of various types and degrees seemed to be an expectation of the three teachers interviewed about this level of FI speech.

Content: Grade III. A distinctively shaped speech sample is the product of the teachers' descriptions at this level. The influence of the English frame of reference is still being felt but has lessened. The L_2 system has strengthened to the degree that all daily needs can be met while operating in the L_2 as well that L_2 can be sustained in context where the message requires elaboration. The limits of the L_2 are still clearly discernable. Again only

the principal grammatical schema are accessed and in those there is growth in the development of only those schemata most commonly used (i.e) verbs, pronouns. They are far from complete. One disturbing note appears at this level as teachers indicate concern about the recurrence of previously corrected errors. Errors are again both expected and accepted. Table 7 summarizes these points.

Table 7

TEACHER DESCRIPTIONS OF FI SPEECH: GRADES I - III

GRADE	GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS	L_2 SPECIFIC CHARACTERISTICS
Grade 1	1. Much error 2. French - English mix 3. Intonation 4. Two and three word strings	1. Little verb control 2. Simplified verb system
Grade II	1. Numerous errors--some recur and become predictable 2. Developing accent; improving intonation 3. Improving clarity of meaning 4. Some ability to express feelings 5. Increasing range of vocabulary 6. Increased facility with known vocabulary 7. Emerging ability to circumlocute 8. Increasing ability to communicate in L_2 in a variety of classroom situations 9. A limited ability to incorporate previously taught grammar 10. A dependence on English where L_2 is unknown 11. English construction super-imposed on French sentence 12. Incorrect idioms	1. Gender errors 2. Pronoun placement errors 3. An inaccurate verb system which relies heavily on present tense 4. Sense of when to use other tenses; e.g., past and future with 'aller'; mechanics weak

(Table continues.)

GRADE	GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS	L_2 SPECIFIC CHARACTERISTICS
Grade III	1. Repetition of previously corrected errors 2. New errors as new knowledge is tested 3. Phonetic errors 4. Incorrect idioms 5. Tendency to rely on 'tried and true' structures 6. Developing but faulty grammatical system 7. Tendency to resort to English 8. Non-French literally translated structures 9. English sentence rhythms evident 10. Wider range of vocab 11. Growing ability to attend to detail 12. Growing ability to circumlocute 13. Can attend to all basic needs in L_2 14. Can sustain dialogue with peers 15. A high degree of clarity of meaning	1. Emerging control of most commonly used forms of the present tense 2. Nous and vous present tense forms are often inaccurate 3. Over-use of singular forms of present 4. Emerging imperfect tense--limited use; je often used 5. Some control of the future with 'aller'--singular forms stronger than plural

Conclusion: Section II

The most apt concluding statement about the grade I speech profile has already been proffered by the teacher quoted at the end of that section who said: "Students are starting to try what they've learned." The grade II and III profiles seem to more closely approach each other. The grade II student would seem capable of performing the same language tasks as the grade III students; however, the Grade III student seems to be able to complete these tasks either with less instance of error or at a more sophisticated level of language.

Summary

This chapter has included the presentation and analysis of two separate sets of data relating to FI oral language. Each set was described in different sections; Section I contained Student Interview data, its presentation and analysis and in Section II the same was presented of Teacher Interview data.

While the two sets of data contained in the study have been presented separately, it becomes increasingly evident as the Learner Profiles from the interview data are presented that there is a high degree of similarity between the two.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The findings of the study are based first on a comparison of the yield between the two data sources--student and teacher and second, on a comparison across grade levels. Conclusions from these findings are then proposed followed by recommendations for both the possible applications of the findings and for further research that would seem to follow from this study.

Findings of the Study

Comparison between Student Profiles and Teacher Descriptions. It is interesting to note that the traits identified by the teachers in the interview data as being characteristic of the speech of primary FI pupils appear to consistently reinforce those traits that came from the student speech sample. Consider the following comparisons.

1. The path from an intrusive presence of English in Grade I to its incidental presence in Grade III is observable in both sets of data.
2. The growth in fluency is another umbrella trait for many characteristics observed in the student speech data and indicated in the teacher descriptions of that speech. Again, when a comparison is

undertaken of how that growth in L_2 ability is denoted in both groups the similarities are reinforced. Table 8 illustrates this point.

3. Oral language is by nature more simple and less strictly regulated than the more formalized written language. In addition, the language being observed in this study is a further simplified learner's language. It follows, then, that the verb and those units that work with the verb, noun subjects and often (especially in spoken language) the simpler pronoun subjects, would emerge as the most used units of speech. These emerge as central to the "L_2 Specific" characteristics of the FI speech documented for this study. A comparison of the yield of both the student and the teacher data demonstrates how one is clearly supportive of the other when "L_2 Specific" characteristics are considered. See Table 9.

Table 8

COMPARISON OF GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS THAT DENOTE GROWING FLUENCY

	Student Speech Profile	Teacher Descriptions Of Student Speech
Grade I	Speak in simple L_2 phrases	Two to three word strings
	Ask questions	
	Use idioms	
Grade II	True L_2 structures	Improving clarity
	Store a repertoire of phrases	Some ability to express feelings
		Increasing range of vocabulary
	Circumlocute	
	Avoid aborting messages	Increased facility with known vocabulary
	Produce strings of sentences	Emerging ability to circumlocute
		Increasing ability to communicate in L_2 in variety of classroom structures
Grade III	Growing ability to attend to detail	Paragraphs emerge
	Can attend to all basic needs in L_2	
	Can sustain dialogue: - peer to peer - peer to adult	

Table 9

COMPARISON OF L, SPECIFIC CHARACTERISTICS

Grade	Learner Profiles Student Speech Sample	Teacher Descriptions of Student Speech
Grade I	1. Infinitive overused 2. Present--main tense 3. Present tense limited 4. Very limited with other tenses 5. Pronouns used largely: je, tu, il 6. Relative/ interrogative: confusion 7. Possessive/articles: - one form-- masculine singular - often omitted 8. Contractions--very scarce	1. Little verb control 2. Simplified verb system-- almost exclusively present tense
Grade II	1. Infinitive frequently used 2. Present--main tense 3. More control of present tense 4. Other tenses stronger; still limited (eg.) simple future, future with 'aller', past and imperfect 5. 'il' form often over-used 6. Subject pronouns-- main pronoun system 7. Emerging object pronouns--still some confusion with subjects 8. Relative/ Interrogative: - when to use--clear - how to use-- confused	1. Gender errors 2. Pronoun placement errors 3. An inaccurate verb system which relies heavily on present tense 4. Sense of when to use other tenses (eg.) past, future with 'aller'; mechanics weak

(Table continues.)

Grade	Learner Profiles Student Speech Sample	Teacher Descriptions of Student Speech
Grade II	9. Possessives/articles: - gender problems - often omitted 10. Contractions often omitted	
Grade III	1. Infinitive here and there 2. Good infinitive phrase 3. Present tense--fair control 4. Past, imperfect, simple future, future with 'aller' growing but limited 5. Conditional and past perfect appearing 6. Subject pronouns--good 7. Object pronouns--improved use of object pronouns but still placement problems 8. Possessives/articles limited 9. Contractions often omitted	1. Emerging control of most commonly used forms of present tense 2. Nous and vous--present tense forms often inaccurate 3. Over-use of singular forms of present 4. Emerging imperfect tense--limited use; 'je' often used 5. Some control of future with 'aller'; singular forms stronger than plural

* The lack of specificity of the teacher data as compared to the student data is explicable. The teachers were away from the L_2 environment and consequently unable to bring to their conceptualizations of the L_2 the same degree of richness characteristic of actual speech sample.

4. Clearly observable throughout both sets of descriptions is the presence of error in FI student speech. The teachers spoke of error in very definite terms:

Grade I--much error

Grade II--numerous errors--some recur and become predictable

Grade III--repetition of previously corrected errors.

The teacher profiles also contain other indicators of error by the use of such descriptors as: incorrect, inaccurate, limited, simplified, and in a positive vein with indicators such as: emerging or developing. These descriptors are also found throughout the student speech sample profiles and are indicative of error. Both the profiles and the teachers' descriptions of the students' speech depict error in FI primary spoken language in very similar ways i.e. use of English, inaccurate verb systems, gender difficulties. Because quantification has not verified whether or not the proportion of error is also similar, this specific point of comparison cannot be established. However, the types of errors found in the IL being studied are consistent enough across both the student profiles and the teachers' descriptions of

student speech so as to be considered supportive one of the other.

5. On one point the student speech profiles and the teacher descriptions seem to be contradictory. The Grade II and III profiles based on the teacher data both indicate 'incorrect idioms' as problematic under General Characteristics. In the second Can Do/Trying To Do configuration of the student speech data, however, 'use idioms' appears as 'can' be done. While the teachers were mindful of instances when idiomatic expressions were used incorrectly, this researcher observed instances of idioms being correctly used. Also, the student data profiles point out an over reliance on 'Catch Phrases', (this researcher's indicator) sometimes incorrectly used, which echo the incorrect use of idiom concern expressed by the teachers.

The student profile data has been consistently supported by the teacher description data as these findings have indicated. They are also consistent with other studies of FI speech. Day and Shapson (1987) found similar verb and gender problems as have been indicated in this study. Other studies are supportive of both the type and the consistency of error observed in FI student speech (Adiv, 1980; Harley & Swain, 1978; Pauley, 1985; Spilka, 1976; Swain & Lapkin, 1986), but they also support the contention that there is

observable oral skill development. It might thus be concluded that this study has produced a picture consistent with that of these researchers of the oral component of the L_2 of the Grade I, II and III pupils in FI in Newfoundland and Labrador.

Comparison Across Grade Levels. The learning of language is so multi-dimensional that learning is happening on numerous levels in many different directions at the same time. This phenomenon is particularly true of the L_2 learning situation in the FI context where the L_2 learning environment is considerably richer than that of conventional L_2 classroom environments.

Fundamental to that which is being proposed in this section is the view that grade levels constitute a line that is random and artificial and falsely gives a box shape to a process that is on-going, in which each individual learner is moving forward at his/her own pace.

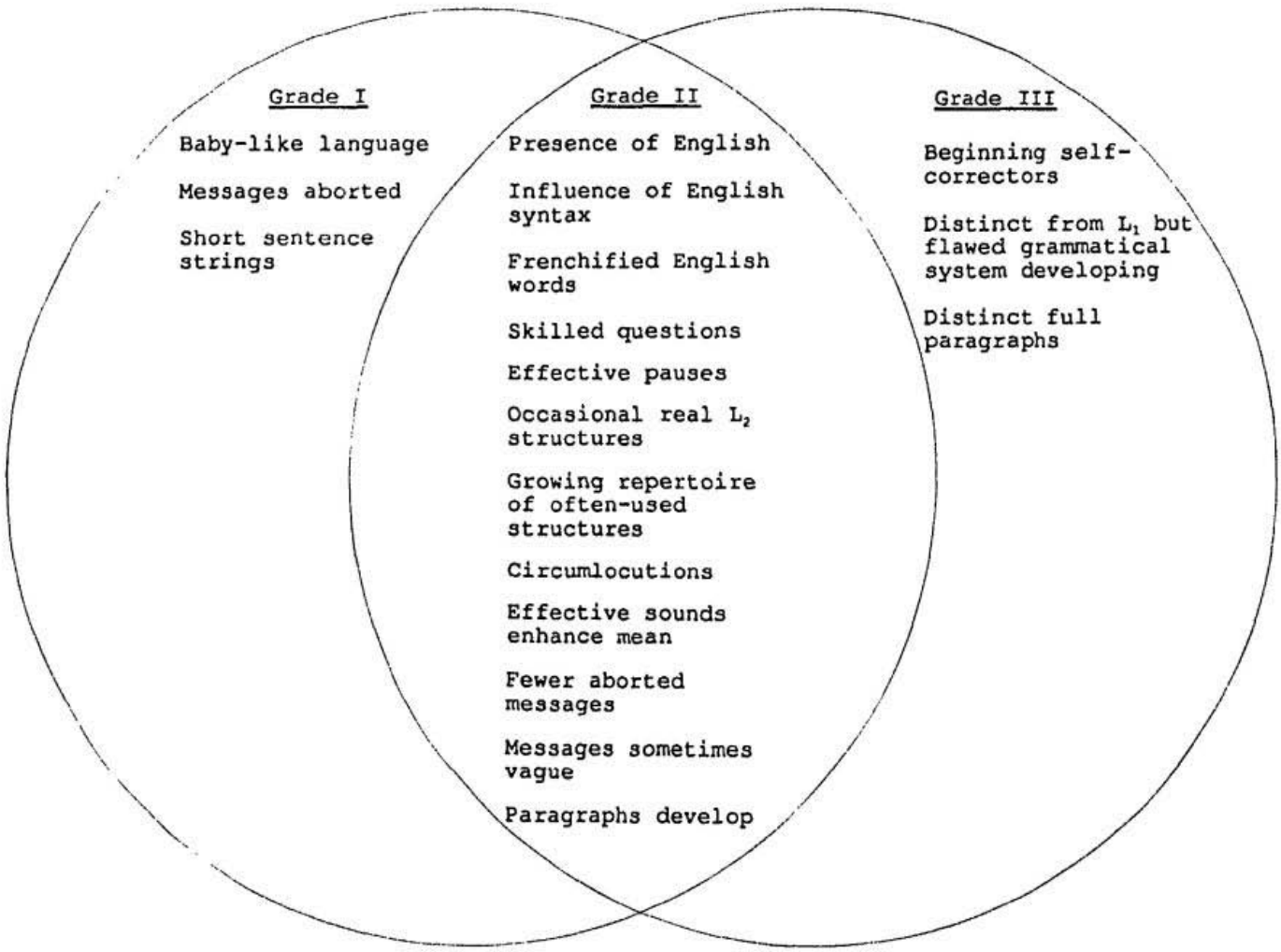
1. When the student speech is viewed from the perspective of grade levels, this study has demonstrated that (a) progress can be clearly charted through the profiles and that (b) certain of the characteristics of oral language of one grade carry over to the next. It, therefore, is suggested that L_2 development for FI students can be best conceptualized as a continuum. These tendencies are conceptualized in Table 10. This

table is based on the General Characteristics sections of the student profiles and shows the bulk of the observed characteristics in the middle. The linking of the three grades by interlocking circles reflects the view of this researcher that certain characteristics from each level consistently overlap. Although several characteristics have been placed in the areas of the circles represented by Grade I and Grade III because they most consistently fell there, it is not unlikely that those characteristics too could be descriptive of the middle group. The ending of the circles at Grade III artificially closes a process that is on-going.

2. Notwithstanding the above stated view, that prescription of language characteristics so that they fall within grades does not constitute a true rendering of the nature of the L_2 learning process in this primary FI context, several indicators generally reflective of what a primary FI student can typically say should be considered.

Table 10

CONTINUUM OF DEVELOPMENT



GENERAL DESCRIPTORS OF FI LANGUAGE

Grade I

- very dependent on L_1 schema
- can speak in simple L_2 phrases
- use of L_2 grammatical systems very limited
- tendency to reduce and simplify messages
- can question effectively
- can produce 2 - 3 word strings

Grade II

- dependent on L_1 schema
- use of L_2 grammatical systems limited
- use of idioms is flawed
- has repertoire of commonly used structures
- can circumlocute
- can pause very effectively
- paragraphs begin

Grade III

- distinct but flawed L_2 schema emerging
- use of L_2 grammatical systems broadening
- use of idioms used as 'catch all', do-all phrases remains flawed
- can achieve good clarity of meaning
- makes some effort to self-correct
- distinct paragraphs appear

If viewed within the context of the continuous nature of L_2 learning and if stated so that those indicators

at one level do not categorically preclude those at another level, descriptors can be applied which could serve as a base from which to consider oral achievement at each grade level.

3. Across a continuum of development of which these indicators are reflective, error is continuously present as an irrefutable element of this FI speech. Unlike some of the cited FI research (Hammerly, 1987; Pellerin and Hammerly, 1986) which has also had oral language as its focus, a focus which reacted to early glowing accounts of FI, this study has attempted to change the perspective from which error is viewed to underscore a perspective that measures the progress being made as well as a lack of progress marked by high incidence of recurring error. This perspective is also being approached by prominent researchers in the FI arena who have begun to adjust earlier glowing accounts of FI so that they reflect both its strengths and its limitations (Harley, 1984; Lapkin and Swain, 1986; Tardif and Weber, 1987). When mastery or native-like competence is the criterion against which FI speech is measured, it does not compare well. When viewed from the perspective that FI students progress along given lines during their primary years, the FI speech product can be viewed

much more positively in its evaluation. It would seem then that the oral competence of a FI primary level student could be better measured through levels marked by given speech descriptors. These descriptors could constitute evaluative criteria that are more reflective of the FI product then that of the native speaker. It is the concept of communicative competence that could provide such a framework in which to consider FI speech.

Conclusions of the Study

Following study and interpretation of the findings of this study the following are the conclusions of this reasearcher.

1. A more positive approach to the evaluation of FI learner's language is justified.
2. Such evaluation could be based on levels of performance related to general traits of FI pupils' speech at each grade level. Descriptors could be used to identify average, above average and below average for each grade.

Recommendations for Application

Following consideration of the results of this study, these recommendations are proposed. It may also be fruitful to use the information presented in this research as a basis for the formulating of an instrument designed to evaluate oral performance of the primary FI student from a global perspective which is premised on the view that FI primary language can be identified and even categorized into grades I, II and III, despite the continuum nature of language development.

1. That evaluation of primary FI oral language be approached from a positive perspective which measures the L_2 oral ability by the learning that has been achieved rather than the lack of it.
2. That a set of descriptors for the oral language of the primary FI student that encompass the "levels" view of L_2 development be established which would aid in the achievement of a greater measure of consistency in an oral evaluation of the FI primary pupils at each grade level.
3. That the construct of communicative competence be examined as a possible framework through which to realize recommendations one and two.
4. That these descriptors be used to develop an oral instrument for the assessment of the speech of FI primary students.

5. That further experimention with techniques of evalution of oral L_2 be undertaken using the descriptors in order to arrive at more successful means with which to wholistically evaluate oral L_2; again with a view to achieving more consistency in the manner in which oral L2 is evaluated in FI in this province.

Recommendations for Further Study

This researcher makes the following recommendations for further study:

1. that this study be replicated in order to develop a larger base on which to confirm the proposed descriptors.
2. that this study be continued so that the speech of Grades IV to VI of FI students in this province is examined.

Under the L_2 Specific Characteristics in all the student profiles presented in this report such characteristics as, use of verbs largely limited to the present tense, are consistent. This may also be a trait of the learner's L_1. There may be similarities of the use of tenses in L_1 to that of the L_2 for primary school learners.

3. It is recommended that a comparative study be undertaken which would compare a FI primary students' use of given features of the L_1 compared to their use of those features in the L_2.

Summary

This report has attested to a need to continue to study the oral speech of primary FI pupils and to explore evaluative directions which would ensure an evaluation perspective that, instead of juxtaposing the oral product of FI against an unrealistic native model, would measure the level of interlanguage developed against the oral L_2 learned and at a predetermined level of ability to actualize the L_2 for each grade level. The study has yielded a description of that interlanguage which attends to its positive aspects but does not fail to admit its negative traits. The use of these findings and recommendations could serve as a first step toward changing the perspective of the product of FI programs as "error-ridden" speech and the development of more valid and reliable means of evaluating the interlanguage of the FI student in the regular classroom context.

References

Adiv, E. (1980). An Analysis of Second Language Performance in Two Types of Immersion Programs. Bulletin of the Canadian Association of Applied Linguistics, 2(2): 139-152.

Allen, E. A. (1985). Communicative Competence and Levels of Proficiency. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 41(3), 511-523.

Allen, V. G. & Allen, E. D. (1985). Story Retelling: Developmental Stages in Second-language Acquisition. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 41(4), 686-691.

Allwright, R. L. (1975). Problems in the study of the language teachers treatment of learner error. In M. K. Burt & H. C. Dulay (Eds.) On TESOL '75: New Directions in Second Language Learning, Teaching and Bilingual Education (pp. 96-109). Washington, D.C.: TESOL.

Bachman, L. F., & Savignon, S. J. (1986). The Evaluation of Communicative Language Proficiency. A Critique of the ACTFL Oral Interview. The Modern Language Journal, 70(4), 380-390.

Bialystok, E. (1984). Strategies in Interlanguage Learning and Performance in paper presented at Interlanguage Seminar. Edinburgh.

Bibeau, F. (1984). No Easy Road to Bilingualism. Language and Society. 12 (Winter): 44-47.

Bongaerts, T. & Poulisse, N. (1989). Communication Strategies in L_1 and L_2: same or different? Applied Linguistics, 10,(3), 253-268.

Breen, M. and Candlin, C. (1980). The essentials of a communicative curriculum in language teaching. Applied Linguistics, 1(2), 89-112.

Brown, H. D. (1987). Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Brumfit, C. (1984). Communicative Methodology in Language Teaching: The Roles of Fluency and Accuracy. London: Cambridge University Press.

Burns, G. E. (1986). French Immersion Implementation in Ontario: Some Theoretical, Policy, and Applied Issues. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 42(3), 572-591.

Burns, G. E. (1987). Planning, Doing and Coping with FSC Change. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 44(1), 47-66.

Burt, M., & Kiparsky, C. (1974). Global and local mistakes. In J. H. Schumann, & M. Stenson (Eds.), New Frontiers in Second Language Learning. Router, MA: Newbury House.

Byrnes, H. (1987). Proficiency as a Framework for Research in Second Language Acquisition. The Modern Language Journal, 7I(1), 44-49.

Calvé, P. (1986). L'Immersion au secondaire: Bilan et Perspectives. Contact: Canadian Review for French Teachers, 5(3), 21-28.

Canale, M. (1983). From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), Language and Communication (pp. 2-29). New York: Longman.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing. Applied Linguistics, 1(1), 1-47.

Carey, S. T. (1984). Reflections on a Decade of French Immersion. The Canadian Modern Language Review. 41(2), 246-259.

Carey, S. T., & Cummins, J. (1983). Achievement, Behaviorial Correlates and Teachers' Perceptions of Francophone and Anglophone Immersion Students. The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 29(3), 159-167.

Carey, S. T., & Cummins, J. (1984). Communications Skills in Immersion Programs. The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 30(4), 270-283.

Cazabon, B. and Size-Cazabon, J. (1987). Who Can Succeed in Learning French? Is it for Everyone? Contact Canadian Review for French Teachers, 6(3), 3-8.

Chastain, K. (1975). Affective and Ability Factors in Second Language Learning. Language Learning, 25(1), 153-161.

Chastain, K. (1980). Native Speaker Reaction to Instructor Identified Student Second Language Errors. Modern Language Journal, 64(2), 210-215.

Chaudron, C. (1977). A Descriptive Model of Discourse in the Corrective Treatment of Learners' Errors. Language Learning, 27(1), 29-46.

Chaudron, C. (1986). The Interaction of Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches to Research: A View of the Second Language Classroom. TESOL Quarterly, 20(4), 709-717.

Chun, J. (1980). A survey of Research in Second Language Acquisition. The Modern Language Journal, 64(3), 287-295.

Corder, S. P. (1967). The Significance of Learners' Errors. IRAL/Internation Review for Applied Linguistics, 5(4), 161-170.

Corder, S. P. (1978). Error Analysis, Interlanguage and Second Language Acquisiton. In V. Kinsella (Ed.), Language Teaching and Linguistics: Surveys. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Corder, S. P. (1981). Error Analysis and Interlanguage. London: Oxford University Press.

Corder, S. P. (1983). Strategies of Communication. In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (Eds.), Strategies in Interlanguage Communication (pp. 15-19). London: Longman.

Cummins, J. (1978). Educational Implications of Mother Tongue Maintenance in Minority Language Groups. Canadian Modern Language Review, 34(3), 395-416.

Cummins, J. (1980). The Cross-lingual Dimensions of Language Proficiency: Implications for Bilingual Education and the Optimal Age Issue. TESOL Quarterly, 14(2), 175-187.

Cummins, J. (1983). Research Findings from French Immersion Programs Across Canada: A Parent's Guide. Canadian Parents for French Special Report, 1-4.

Cummins, J. (1983). Language Proficiency, Biliteracy and French Immersion. Canadian Journal of Education, 8(2), 117-137.

Davies, A. (1989). Communicative Competence as Language Use. Applied Linguistics, 10(2), 157-170.

Day, E. M., & Shapson, S. M. (1987). Assessment of Oral Communicative Skills in Early French Immersion Programs. Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 8(3), 237-260.

Doughty, C., & Pica, T. (1986). Information Gap Tasks: Do They Facilitate Second Language Acquisition? TESOL Quarterly, 20(20), 305-325.

Dulay, H. & Burt, M. (1973). Should We Teach Children Syntax? Language Learning, 23(??), 245-257.

Dulay, H. & Burt, M. (1974). A New Perspective on the Creative Construction Processes in Child Second Language Acquisition. Language Learning, 24(2), 253-278.

Dulay, H., Burt, M & Krashen, S. (1982). Language Two. New York: Oxford University Press.

Ervin-Tripp, S. (1974). Is Second Language Learning Like the First? TESOL Quarterly, 8(2), 111-127.

Faerch, C. (1979). Describing Language Through Interaction: Problems of Systematicity and Permeability. Working Papers on Bilingualism. 19.

Faerch, C. & Kasper, G. (1983). Plans and Strategies in Foreign Language Communication. In C. Faerch and G. Kasper (Eds.), Strategies in Interlanguage Communmication (pp. 20-60). London: Longman.

Fallon, G. (1985). Les stratégies d'intervention pédagogiques en immersion: quelle orientation prendre? The Alberta Modern Language Journal, 23(4), 12-16.

Fallon, G. (1986). The Concept of Second Language Proficiency: Its Pedagogical Implications for Teaching French as Second Language in an Immersion Setting. The Alberta Modern Language Journal, 24(3), 4-13.

Fetterman, D. M. (1988). Qualitative Approaches to Evaluating Education. Educational Researcher, 17(8), 17-23.

Finnemann, Michael D. (1990). Markedness and Learner Strategy: Form- and Meaning-oriented Learners in the Foreign Language Context. The Modern Language Journal, 74,(2), 176-186.

Fraenkel, J. R. & Whalen, N. E. (1990). How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education. Toronto: McGraw Hill

Gareau, L. (1987). Une discussion critique de l'approche communicative. Contact: Canadian Review for French Teachers, 6(2), 4-7.

Genesee, F. (1978). A longitudinal evaluation of an early immersion school program. Canadian Journal of Education, 3(4), 31-50.

Genesee, F. (1983). Bilingual education of majority language children: the immersion experience in review. Applied Psycholinguistics, 4, 1-46.

Gonayeb-LeBlanc, L. (1986). L'immersion après vingt ans: bilan et perspectives d'avenir. Le Journal de l'Immersion, 10(1), 7-9: 25-28.

Gray, V. (1986). A Summary of the Elementary School Evaluation of the Early Immersion Program in Fredericton, New Brunswick. Canadian Modern Language Review. 42(5), 940-951.

Gray V. A. & Cameron, C. A. (1980). Longitudinal Development of English Morphology in French Immersion Children. Applied Psycholinguistics, 1/2, 171-181.

Haché, I. (1985). Qualités Requises d'un(e) Enseignant(e) en Immersion. Contact Canadian Review for French Teachers, 4(4), 17.

Hammerly, H. (1982). Synthesis in Second Language Teaching. An Introduction to Languistics. Burnaby, B. C.: Second Language Publications.

Hammerly, H. (1987). The Immersion Approach: Litmus Test of Second Language Acquisition through Classroom Communication. The Modern Language Journal, 71(41), 395-401.

Hammerly, H. (1989). French Immersion (Does It Work?) and the 'Development of Bilingual Proficiency Report?'. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 43(3), 567-578.

Harley, B. (1980). Interlanguage Units and Their Relations. Interlanguage Studies Bulletin, 5(2), 3-30.

Harley, B. (1984). How good is their French? Language and Society. 12 (Winter), 55-60.

Harley, B. (1985). Resource Needs in Immersion Programs. Contact Canadian Review for French Teachers, 4(3), 11-13.

Harley, B. (1989). Functional Grammar in French Immersion: A Classroom Experiment. Applied Linguistics, 10(3), 331-359.

Harley, B., & Swain, M. (1978). An Analysis of Verb System Used by Young Learners. Interlanguage Studies Bulletin, 3, 35-39.

Harlow, L. (1988). The Effects of the Yellow Highlighter - Second-Language Learner Strategies and their Effectiveness: A Research Update. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 45(1), 91-102.

Heike, A. E. (1985). A Componential Approach to Oral Fluency Evaluation. The Modern Language Journal, 69(2), 135-142.

Helmstander, G. C. (1970). Research Concepts in Human Behavior Education, Psychology, Sociology. New York: Appleton Century Crafts. Educational Division.

Hendrickson, J. M. (1978). Error Correction in Foreign Language Teaching: Recent Theory, Research and Practice. Modern Language Journal, 62(8), 387-398.

Hendrickson, J. M. (1979). Evaluating spontaneous communications through systematic error analysis. Foreign Language Annals, 12(5), 357-367.

Higgs, T. V., (1984). Language Teaching and the Quest for the Holy Grail. In T. V. Higgs, (Ed.) Teaching for Proficiency, The Organizing Principle (pp. 1-9). Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.

Holley, F., & King, J. (1971). Imitation and correction in foreign language learning. Modern Language Journal, 55(8), 494-498.

Howard, F. (1980). Testing Communicative Proficiency in French as a Second Language: A Search for Procedures. Canadian Modern Language Review, 36(2), 272-289.

Howe, K. & Eisenhart, M. (1990). Standard for Qualitative (and Quantitative) Research: a Prolegomenon. Education Researcher, 19(4), 2-9.

Jones, J. P. (1984). Present, Past and Future Needs in Immersion. Canadian Modern Language Review, 41(2), 260-267.

Kramsch, C. (1986). From Language Proficiency to Interactional Competence. The Modern Language Journal, 70(4), 366-372.

Krashen, S. (1973). Lateralization, Language Learning and the Critical Period: Some New Evidence. Language Learning, 23(1), 63-74.

Krashen, S. (1984). Immersion: Why it works and what it has taught us. Language and Society. 12 (Winter), 61-64.

Krashen, S. (1985). The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications. New York: Longman.

Lado, R. (1957). Linguistics Across Cultures. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Lado, R. (1961). Language Testing: The Construction and Use of Foreign Language Tests. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lambert, W. E. (1984). An Overview of Immersion Education in Studies on Immersion Education: A Collection for United States Educators (pp. 8-30). Sacramento, California State Department of Education.

Lambert, W. E., & Tucker, G. R. (1972). Bilingual Education of Children: The St. Lambert Experiment. Rowley, MA: Newberry House.

Lambert, W. E., Tucker, G. R., & d'Anglejan, A. (1974). An Innovative Approach to Second Language Training: The St. Lambert Experiment. In Carey, S.T. (Ed.), Bilingualism, Biculturalism and Education (pp. 47-55). Edmonton: University of Alberta Press.

Lantolf, J. P. & Frawley, W. (1985). Oral-Proficiency Testing: A Critical Analysis. The Modern Language Journal, 69(4), 337-345.

Lapkin, S. (1984). How Well Do Immersion Students Speak and Write French? The Canadian Modern Language Review, 40(5), 575-585.

Lapkin, S. (1984). Future Perspectives on Administrative and Pedagogical Aspects of French Immersion Education. Contact Canadian Review for French Teachers, 3(1), 4-10.

Lapkin, S., & Swain, M. (1984). Faisons le point. Language et Société, 12, 50-56.

Lapkin, S., Ijaz, H., Kamin, J., & Argue, V. (1984). Annotated List of French Tests. Canadian Modern Language Review, 41(1), 93-109.

Liskin-Gasparro, J. E. (1984). The ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines: A Historical Perspective. In Higgs, T.V. (Ed.), Teaching for Proficiency, the Organizing Principle (pp. 11-42). Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.

Littlewood, W. (1981). Communicative Language Teaching An Introduction. London: Cambridge University Press.

Long, D. R. (1986). A Case for Case Studies. Foreign Language Annals, 19(3), 225-229.

Lowe, P. & Stansfield, C. (1988). Second Language Proficiency Assessment: Current Issues. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Lyster, R. (1987). Speaking Immersion. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 43(4), 701-717.

Magnan, S. S. (1987). Rater Reliability of the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview. Canadian Modern Language Review, 43(2), 267-279.

Marrie, B. L. (1989). A comparison of the communication strategies used by effective and less effective oral language learners in early French Immersion. Unpublished master's thesis, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NF.

McLaughlin, B. (1985). Second-Language Acquisition in Childhood: Volume 2. School-age Children. Second Edition. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Migneron, M., & Burger, S. (1986). Teaching Strategies for Immersion Courses. Les Nouvelles de l'ACPI/CAIT News, 9(1), 10-11.

Miles, M. B. (1979). Qualitative Data as an Attractive Nuisance: The Problem of Analysis. In Van Maanen (ed.), Qualitative Methodology (pp. 1-134). London: Sage Publications.

Morgan, A. P. (1990). French Immersion Program: Testimony of a First Grade Teacher. Foreign Language Annals, 23(1), 33-42.

Murphy, B. (1980). Second Language Reading and Testing in Bilingual Education. Tesol Quarterly, 14(2), 189-196.

Nemni, M. (1985). Si communication savait... Si grammaire pouvait... . The Canadian Modern Language Review, 42(2), 288-306.

Nemser, W. (1971). Approximative Systems of Foreign Language Learners. IRAL/International Review of Applied Linguistics, 9(2), 115-123.

Netten, J. (1988). Report on the Evaluation of French Immersion Programs in the Province of Newfoundland for the School Year 1986-87 for the Kindergarten Year to Grade Six. St. John's: Institute for Educational Research and Development, Memorial University and Division of Evaluation and Research, Department of Education Province of Newfoundland and Labrador.

Netten, J. & Spain, W. (1979). An evaluation of Some Aspects of the French Bilingual Education Programme conducted by the St. John's Roman Catholic School Board 1978-79. St. John's: Institute for Educational Research and Development of Memorial University and the Roman Catholic School Board for St. John's.

Netten, J. & Spain, W. (1982). Immersion Education Research in Newfoundland: Implications for the Classroom. Les Nouvelles de l'ACPI/CAIT News. October. 16-19.

Netten, J. & Spain, W. (1983). An Evaluation of French Immersion Projects. St. John's: Institute for Educational Research and Development and Memorial University of Newfoundland.

Netten, J. & Spain, W. (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), 485-501.

Newsham, G. S. (1989). Communicative Testing and Classroom Teaching. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 42(2), 339-344.

Obadia, A. (1981). Programme d'immersion croissance phénoménale et pénible. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 37(2), 269-282.

Obadia, A. (1983). Relevé des Faute Orales en Immersion, Burnaby, B.C.: Université Simon Fraser.

Omaggio, A. C. (1986). Teaching Language in Context: Proficiency Oriented Instruction. Boston: Heinle.

Omaggio, A. C. (1983). Methodology in Transition: The New Focus on Proficiency. The Modern Language Journal, 67(4), 330-341.

Oxford, R. L. (1989). Use of Language Learning Strategies: A systhesis of Studies with Implications for Strategy Training. System, 17(2), 235-247.

Oxford, R. L., Lavine, R. Z., & Crookall, D. (1989). Language Learning Strategies, the Communicative Approach, and their Classroom Implications. Foreign Language Annals, February, 29-39.

Paribakht, T. (1985). Strategic Competence and Language Proficiency. Applied Linguistics, 6(2), 132-145.

Pawley, C. (1985). How Bilingual Are French Immersion Students? The Canadian Modern Language Review, 41(5), 865-875.

Pellerin, M., & Hammerly, H. (1986). L'expression orale après treize ans d'immersion française. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 42(3), 592-606.

Politzer, R. L. (1980). Foreign Language Teaching and Bilingual Education: Research Implications. Foreign Language Annals, 23(1), 291-297.

Reiss, M.A. (1986). The Good Language Learner: Another Look. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 41(3), 511-523.

Rubin, J. (1975). What the Good Language Learner Can Teach Us. Tesol Quarterly, 9(1), 41-51.

Safty, A. (1989). Some Reflections on a Decade in the French Immersion Classroom. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 45(3), 549-560.

Saskatchewan Project: French Language Speaking and Writing Evaluation Units (1982-83). Toronto: Modern Language Centre. OISE.

Savignon, S. (1972). Communicative Competence: An Experiment in foreign language teaching. Philadelphia: The Center for Curriculum Development.

Savignon, S. J. (1983). Communicative Competence: Theory and Practice. Don Mills: Addison-Wesley.

Savignon, S. J. (1985). Evaluation of Communicative Competence: The ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines. The Modern Language Journal, 69(2), 129-134.

Saville-Troike, M. E., McClure, E., & Fritz, M. (1984). Communicative Tactics in Children's Second Language Acquisition. In F. Echman, L. Bell& D. Nelson (Eds.), Universals of Second Language Acquisition (pp. 60-71). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage International Review of Applied Linguistics, 10(3), 209-231.

Selinker, L., Swain, M., & Dumas, G. (1979). The Interlanguage Hypothesis Extended to Children. Language Learning, 25(1), 139-152.

Shapson, S. & Day, E. (1982). A Comparison Study of Three Late Immersion Programs. Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 28(2), 135-148.

Singh, R. (1986). French Immersion Implementation in Ontario: Some Theoretical, Policy, and Applied Issues. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 42(3), 559-571.

Spilka, J. V. (1976). Assessment of Second-Language Performance in Immersion Programs. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 32(5), 543-561.

Stern, H. H. (1975). What Can We Learn from the Good Language Learner? The Canadian Modern Language Review, 31(4), 304-318.

Stern, H. H. (1978). French Immersion in Canada: Achievement and Directions. Canadian Modern Language Review, 34(5), 836-854.

Stern, H. H. (1983). Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching. Toronto: Oxford University Press.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative Competence: Some Roles of Comprehensible Output in Its Development. In S. Gass and C. Modsen (Eds.) Input in Second Language Acquisition (pp 252-253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Swain, M., Burstal, C. & Carroll, J. (1976). English Speaking Child - Early French Immersion = ´ lingual Child? The Canadian Modern Language Review, 33(2), 180-187.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1982). Evaluating Bilingual Education: A Canadian Case Study. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1986). Immersion French in Secondary Schools: "the goods" and "the bads". Contact: Canadian Review for French Teachers, 5(3), 2-9.

Swan, M. (1985a). A critical look at the Communicative Approach (1). ELT Journal, 39(1), 2-12.

Swan, M. (1985b). A critical look at the Communicative Approach (2). ELT Journal, 39(2), 76-87.

Szamosi, M., Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1979). Do Early Immersion Pupils 'Know' French? Orbit, 49, 20-23.

Tardif, C. (1980). La correction des erreurs en langue seconde. Les Nouvelles de l'ACPI/CAIT News, septembre, 33-41.

Tardif, C. (1984). La Formation des enseignants en situation d'immersion. La Revue Canadienne des Langues Vivantes, 44(1), 47-66.

Tardif, C. (1985). L'approche communicative: practique pédagogiques. La Revue Canadienne des Langue Vivantes. 42(1), 67-74.

Tardif, C. & D'Anglejan, A. (1981). Les erreurs en langue seconde et leurs effets sur la communication orale. La Revue Canadienne des Langues Vivantes. 37(4), 706-720.

Tardif, C., & Weber, S. (1987). French Immersion Research: A Call for New Perspectives. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 44(1), 67-77.

Tarone, E. (1980). Communication Strategies, Foreigner Talk and Repair in Interlanguage. Language Learning, 41(3), 417-431.

Tarone, E. (1982). Systematicity and Attention In Interlanguage. Language Learning, 32(1), 69-84.

Tarone, E. (1983). Decoding a nonprimary language: the crucial role of strategic competence. In M. M. Breen & C. N. Candlin (Eds.), Interpretive Strategies in Language Learning. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Taylor, B. (1974). Toward a Theory of Language Acquisition. Language Learning, 24(1), 23-36.

Taylor, D. S. (1988). The Meaning and Use of the Term 'Competence' in Linguistics and Applied Linguistics. Applied Linguistics, 9(2), 148-169.

Terrell, T. C. (1977). A Natural Approach to Second Language Acquisition and Learning. Modern Language Journal, 61(7), 325-337.

Toohey, K. (1984). Language Proficiency Assessment for Child Second Language Learners. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 41(2), 388-396.

Underhill, N. (1987). Testing Spoken Language. A Handbook of Oral testing Techniques. London: Cambridge University Press.

Valette, R. M. (1967). Modern Language Testing. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

VanMaanen, J. (Ed.) (1979). Epililogue: Qualitative Methods Reclaimed in VanMaanen J. Qualitative Methodology. London: Sage Publications. pp. 246-265.

Wenden, A. (1986). Metacognition: An Expanded View on the Cognitive Abilities of L2 Learners. Draft of Paper at York College.

Wesche, M. B. (1981). Communicative Testing in a Second Language. Canadian Modern Lanugage Review, 37(3), 551-571.

Willems, G. M. (1987). Communication Strategies and their Significance in Foreign Language Teaching. System, 15(3), 351-64.

Wilson, S. (1979). The Use of Ethnographic Techniques in Educational Research. Review of Educational Research. 47(1), 245-265.

APPENDIX A

TEACHER INTERVIEW

1. What are your oral expectations for a student at this level?
2. What are the most typical errors made by students at this level?
3. What errors do you tolerate most easily?
4. What errors do you have greater difficulty accepting?
5. Which would not be acceptable at all?
6. How would you characterize your attitude toward error?
7. Do you have different oral expectations for students of different levels of ability?
8. Give at least five characteristics of the Grade II oral product as you see it.
9. What pre-conceived notions did you have about this interview?
10. Do you feel you have a greater/lesser tolerance of error because you are an anglophone/francophone?
11. Do you feel oral development guidelines are needed for FI in this province?

APPENDIX B

STUDENT INTERVIEW

1. Greeting conventions
2. Comment vas-tu? ... te rends-tu à l'école?
3. Est-ce que ta maison est coin de l'école?
4. Quelle est la date de ta fête?
5. Quel âge as-tu?
6. As-tu des soeurs et des frères?
7. Leur âge?
8. As-tu des animaux à la maison?
9. Lequel? ... Nom? ... Petit ou grand?
10. Aimes-tu l'école?
11. Quelles matières est-ce que tu préfères?
12. Qu'est-ce qu'on fait dans la classe de ? ?
13. Quelles activités dans la classe de 'X' aimes-tu?
14. Aimes-tu lire?
15. Vas-tu souvent à la bibliothèque?
16. Qu'est-ce que tu fais là?
17. Qu'est-ce qu'on doit faire pour prendre un livre de la bibliothèque?
18. Dis-moi un livre que tu as lu, que tu as aimé beaucoup.
19. Raconte-moi l'histoire/Dis-moi ce qui s'est passé dans l'histoire.
20. Aimes-tu regarder la télé?
21. Quelle émission préfères-tu?

22. Est-ce que tu aimes 'X' ou 'Y'?
23. Raconte-moi ce que s'est passé la dernière fois que tu as regardé les (eg) Stroumphs.
24. Vas-tu au cinéma? Quand? Avec qui? Dis-moi l'histoire d'un film que tu as vu.
25. Aimes-tu les sports? Quel sport aimes-tu le mieux? Avec qui est-ce que tu joues? Explique-moi ce qu'on fait quand on joue au (eg) tennis.
26. As-tu un jouet favori à la maison? Qui te l'a acheté? Où? Décris le jouet.
27. Qu'est-ce que tu fais d'habitude à l'école? Où? Avec qui? Comment? (etc.)
28. Raconte-moi un incident qui t'a fait rire? Prompters!
29. As-tu jamais eu peur? Quand? As-tu jamais fait peur à quelqu'un d'autre?
30. Veux-tu voyager à la lune? Imagine que tu as voyagé à la lune. Qu'est-ce que tu y trouves?
31. Imagine que tu as voyagé au Pôle Nord. Est-ce que tu es content? Qu'est-ce que tu vois? As-tu aimé ce voyage? Pourquoi/pas?

    ou

32. Imagine que tu as gagné un voyage à Disneyworld. Es-tu content? Pourquoi/pas? Qu'est-ce que tu veux y voir?
33. Ce sont toutes les questions que j'ai à te poser, est-ce que tu as des questions à me poser?

APPENDIX C

TEACHER INTERVIEW DATA CHART

Grade 1

Student's speech is characterized by:

- many errors
- great variety of error
- emerging sentences - beginning to string 2 - 3 words together
- French and English are mixed (How? Properties? French in English syntax?)
- very little control of verbs
- use of verbs largely confined to present tense
- (Intonation?)

COMMENTS:

Students are starting to try what they've learned.

Teacher behavior: (Students are:)

- encouraged to speak but not forced
- confident that almost anything is accepted.

Grade 2

Student's speech is characterized by:

- numerous errors
- errors begin to become more predictable--eg. gender (often related to speaker), pronoun placement; generalization - English to French - English construction (j'ai a); wrong use of idiomatic expressions, use of English. English thought processes are evident. Persistent wrong use of learned/previously taught structures.
- fairly well developed intonation
- meaning is clearly conveyed (high/low achievers)
- less stilted language - flow of language - fluency is evident
- accent is developing
- can have fun in French
- limited use of tense largely

Grade 3

Student's speech is characterized by:

- rhythm of English still evident (j'ai a)
- idiomatic expressions often used incorrectly (possibly beginning to be fossilized)
- literal translation still present - very non-French.
- some English still present
- first tendency still to state unknowns in English
- fairly well developed degree of fluency/ facility in L2
- good control of present tense (nous and vous weakest)
- overuse of singular forms in present tense
- imperfect used (limited largely to first person)
- future with 'aller' is well used (singular forms still stronger than plural)
- ability to make themselves well understood

- corrected selectively
- encouraged to aim for successful communication

present (some future with 'aller' and past, but degree of error is high)
- ability to express feelings
- wider range of vocab [Be more specific]
- vocab that has been previously taught is used with some facility
- Some use of incidental vocab
- some/emerging ability to incorporate previously taught grammar into spoken language.
- some/emerging ability to circumlocute when faced with an unknown word
- the (emerging) ability to communicate at all times in French

COMMENTS:

There seemed to be an underlying belief on the part of teachers interviewed that mastery is an impossible goal for this age - they are not looking for mastery.

- ability to attend to all basic needs in L2
- ability to converse :
  1. peer - peer
  2. student - adult
- ability to describe in detail
- ability to circumlocute well
- confidence
- wider range of vocabulary
- limited use of forms/structures (don't try to deviate from known structures)
- phonetic errors are common
- ability to use French at all times
- emerging/ developing notion of grammar
- repetition of errors (some internalization of errors that they cannot get out of)
- evidence of trial and error (strategy use)

COMMENTS:

1. They don't seem to have a mental model to correct from

2. Oral ability seems directly related to reading ability.

3. Mastery is considered an unrealistic impossible expectation.

APPENDIX D

TEACHER DESCRIPTIONS OF FI LEARNERS

Grade 1

(English is very clearly the predominant language). Their speech is marked by:

1. Frequent, dramatic use of English words/phrases.

   - il (for elle) a ses ears pierced
   - ou l'eau est frozen
   - ce n'est pas matter
   - C'est un French book order
   - le pilote qui a drive le plane ... l'avion.
   - tu fais le chien paddle comme ça

2. English sentence patterns: English syntax very definitely is their organization base:

   - ma bébé soeur
   - Helen a donné moi son chien.
   - tu besoin de donner il un carte
   - un fusil; c'était cette long
   - je veux voir le
   - je va être gentil à il
   - J'ai un rouge wig
   - tu es faim
   - à quelqu'un's place
   - moi je juste lire
   - tu as vas dans l'école
   - Je pense que j'ai dans jaune

3. Very simplified sentence structure: verbs, adjectives, connectors, qualifiers often omitted.

   - tu besoin lire
   - je peur
   - je pense je va pour regarder livres

4. Questions often asked in simplest form:

   - Où tu habites?
   - Tu sais qu'est-ce que les 'weapons'sont?

5. Very common use of infinitive as universal verb form:

   - je faire
   - moi, je lire
   - tu mettre
   - je dormir
   - je sortir souter dessus
   - les amis choisir les choses

6. Limited use of tenses other than present:

   (a) within their use of the present tense: most commonly used forms are: je, tu, il; the il singular form is frequently extended and used with all subjects.

   - je va
   - nous va
   - c'est parce que moi et Sarah et Bradley et Christopher - elle va a Madame parce qu'on a de les problémes

   (b) There is some concept of when to use the past forms both imperfect and past tense, but there is very little control of the form. Some control is evident with regular 'er' verbs and commonly used verbs; however, verb system is simplified so that most verbs are made to fit the 'er' pattern or simplified in other ways:

   - Mme Marche a donné moi
   - mon aunt a fait ça

   but

   - J'ai allé
   - J'ai tombé
   - J'ai sorti
   - j'ai regarde
   - j'ai dejà voir
   - il a disappeared

   Tendency to acknowledge need for past but revert to best known form - present.

   - J'ai oublié tout
   - Qu'est-ce que je vais à les cinéma.

(c) The imperfect appears with commonly used forms but outside of those most commonly used there is little control:

- c'était
- il avait

but

- il a avait comme ça.

(d) Some sense of future. Future with 'aller' commonly simplified to 'il'. Je va jouer.

7. Contractions are very rarely made:

- Je va à la piano.
- à le professeur
- à les maisons.

8. A fairly consistent reliance on 'catch phrases' that fill in verbal gaps: c'est, ça, tout ça, comme ça.

- Ça a les mots dedans
- Il les casse et tout ça
- Il fait de ça avec - je sais pas - comme ça - après il fait comme ça.

9. Good enquiry skills. In direct dialogue requests for aid are common and clearly made.

- quoi?
- qu'est-ce que ça veut dire?
- qu'est-ce que c'est ça?

10. Pronoun system is very underdeveloped. Subject pronouns are most commonly used and are often extended and used as objects etc. Even with use of subject pronoun je - tu are used accurately - others are often made 'il'.

- ma bébé soeur - il a sept mois.
- je [va] être gentil à il

Some sense of relative pronoun:

- les amis choisir les choses qui aiment bien.

Interrogatives used as relatives:

- Je ne sais pas qu'est-ce qu'il fait.
- J'oublie tout qu'est-ce que je vais à les cinéma.

11. Accent is developing but pronunciation is sometimes anglicized or simplified. Difficult consonants are sometimes removed:

    - Je 'mache' (marche)

12. Speech is very onomatopoeic (meaning is enhanced).

    - quelqu'un fait 'pqrr' avec un "bullitte".
    - le petit souris 'ha ha ha' à le grand souris.

13. Messages sometimes aborted

    - Je vois des st... st... st...
    - je ... je ... peux pas dire en français.
    - je ... think et moi je ...

14. Possessives and articles are often used incorrectly. Seems to be often simplified to masculine singular form:

    - Quelquefois je me rends à mon grand-papa ou mon grande-maman ... et mon deux autres habitent à Bay Bulls.

15. Tendency to reduce in order not to be forced to abort.

    - J'aime les mathématiques et ... les choses.
    - Kissyfur est tous dans le trouble et choses comme ça.

16. Some sound phrasing emerging:

    - Je ne sais pas mais j'ai joué avec mon frére, des fois je joue avec Papa.

17. Paragraphs emerge in their simplest forms.

Grade 2

English still very predominant - perhaps more incidental/ interspersed and less dramatic than at previous level.

1. English injected still somewhat frequently - easily - naturally

   - c'est comme comic book
   - Je ne sais pas mais c'est très scary
   - Tu vas près de le ... um ... fishing club
   - Mais je get frustrated quand je fais du ski
   - C'est un racetrack
   - Le spaceship peut crash là.

2. (a) English structure/syntax still heavily relied upon for sentence organization.

   - C'est mon Papa travail.
   - dècembre le vingt-six
   - Sonya est six
   - le noir un s'appelle Sparky
   - Ça a presque regardé comme ça
   - tu as préparer pour aller sur un concert
   - Il n'y pas [une] façon d'être part de là

   (b) Creation of French sounding English words made to 'fit'.

   - J'aime 'speller'

3. (a) Present tense very heavily relied upon - even when not appropriate. Verb system still somewhat skewed toward common use of 'il' form with all subject pronouns.

   - je va (still common)
   - nous habite

   but

   - growing accuracy with the je and tu forms of present tense.
   - tu dois
   - tu n'as pas d'espace
   - je fais comme ça
   - j'ai

(b) Good awareness of when to use past tense (but with little accuracy) understanding of past tense system somewhat broadened from previous level.

- j'ai oublie
- il a tout faire
- il a metté
- il a allé
- j'ai toujours voulé
- elle a revenu

Errors frequent/still simplifying/most verbs behave like 'er' verbs. Accuracy with regular 'er' verbs developing.

- Il a cassé
- Il a sauté

Learned forms more often correct

- Il a détruit

(c) Use of the the imperfect is limited. There is some consistently correct use with être, sometimes with avoir.

- Il était un robot.
- Il avait excellent auto.

There is a good sense of appropriate use of the imperfect but little control. English interference is a factor in student's use of imperfect

- Les polices étaient essayé d'attraper.
- J'étais glisser (é)
- J'étais rouler (é)

(d) Very appropriate use of future more control with the future with 'aller' than with the simple future (simple future is developing) where there is still great tendency toward almost universal use of 'il' form.

- Je vais parler - but still je vais reçois and je va lire

- j'apportera
- je choisira

occasionally - je jouerai beaucoup

(e) Tendency to gravitate toward 'il' form in all tenses

- je va
- nous a appris
- les petits poussins a allé

4. Confusion of interrogative and relative pronouns

- j'oublie qu'est-ce qui c'est le nom.
- je ne sais pas qu'est-ce que je vais reçois
- pronoun system seems to be somewhat broadened.
- good use of que/qui: Mlle a quelquechose qu'elle fait.
- pas beaucoup de choses que je n'aime pas
- La fille qui s'appelle Laura Ingles

5. Object pronouns emerging - still placed incorrectly

- Je ... j'aime le... Je les aime
- j'ai vraiment aimé le
- ils sont petits et je l'aime
- j'ai eu le pour ma fête

6. Still underdeveloped pronoun system. Subject pronouns are most commonly used correctly.

- ils sautent partout
- Mlle Hearne, elle va venir avec moi

7. Still frequent use of infinitive as verb that can do all:

- Je mettre la carte

8. Good enquiry skills

- un grand quoi
- Qu'est-ce que ça veut dire.

9. Article system is very simplified.

(a) Sometimes universal 'le' 'un'

- le porte
- un fois

(b) Sometimes gender seems related to speaker:

- Mon petit soeur (boy speaking)
- Ma dos (girl speaking)

(c) Sometimes omitted:

- Papa et frère
- C'est natation

10. Contractions often avoided

- de le porte
- de le robot
- à les animaux
- de les escaliers

11. Tendency to hesitate well, to use frequent brakes as information/assistance getting device. Intonation asks for blanks to be filled in.

- J'aime regarder les ... les ... ahh ... um ... je ne comment pas le dire mais j'aime regarder ... um ... qu'est-ce que c'est ... c'est ... les ... cartoons.

12. Overuse sometimes inappropriate use of crutch phrases c'est and c'était:

- C'est de neige (for il y a)
- C'est trois hommes qui ...

13. Interesting English interference error that seems to be fairly common.

- J'ai a des petits patines.

14. Circumlocution is often successful:

- Mlle. Hearne a une chose qu'elle fait ... une ... une ... c'est comme de peinture ou quelquechose - elle mis sur une autre carte dans le livre.

15. Speech is very richly onomatopoeic in order to add meaning where vocab is lacking.

- Il ... il parle ... (demonstrates) ... comme (hesitates before using) 'weird'.
- Sounds are sometimes English though - je fais 'bonk'

16. It can occur that messages are completely unintelligible but messages are rarely completely aborted.

    - ... et trop de choses sont musiques et son chanson sont voir quelquetemps.

17. Good sense of 'French' structure emerging but still little accuracy.

    - Ils sont petits et je l'aime.
    - Le façon de fait marcher le robot.
    - il va y avoir des autres

    More accuracy with stock phrases:

    - Oui, j'en ai une.

18. Paragraphing skill more sophisticated. Sound strings of sentences emerging.

    - dans Back to the Future ... C'est Michael J. Fox ... il était dans le ... il est va 'back' 'way back' dans le ... pas dans le futur ... il était dans le futur et il avait excellent auto et ... et ... il ... il fait 'vroom' et le feu ... le feu ... c'est comme ça ... il guide et il est ... et il est dans le 'past' et il [raconté] sa mere et elle n'est pas mariée.

Grade 3

1. English words still appear but more sporadically; students seem more aware that this is not desirable.

   - Je ne sais pas le nom mais ... (then English word)
   - Elle ne peut pas parce que ... son 'spine' ça va pas droit.
   - J'étais dans la toilette avec mes amis et le ... le ... le lock s'est fermé.

2. Controlling English structure still very much in evidence:

   - J'étais quatre
   - c'est chaud
   - ma soeur est un
   - Je seulement va avec mes amis.
   - J'aime faire le ski beaucoup.
   - tu peux juste avoir un livre
   - Dans le diffèrent eppisode, le diffèrent personne gagne.
   - Et prend il à son travail

3. Although the pronoun schema is broadening, there are still incorrect pronouns used and the English pronoun sequence is very much in evidence.

   - Monsieur conduit nous
   - J'ai vu le
   - Et prend il à son travail
   - Qui a fait moi rire

4. Verb system still markedly inaccurate.

   (a) Greatest degree of accuracy in present tense - some old errors still very clearly present.

   - Je va
   - Je va lire

   Although tu and je are used with a fairly high degree of accuracy, nous and vous forms are rare:

   - et ma gardienne et moi ... allaient chercher.

   Tendency still present though less marked to simplify to 'il' form.

(b) Infinitive still used , though less frequently in simple tenses

- je lire

still sometimes found as compound tenses are attempted.

- elle a ouvrir
- mon frère était punir

(c) A very sound sense of when to use past tense has developed, but still highly inaccurate. Tendency to simplify past tense system to (1) 'il' form and (2) 'er' pattern still in evidence.

- (1) les autres autres stroumphs a vient.
- (2) - elle a allé
- il n'a pas entré
- elle a caché (s'est cachée)

When awareness of different form is demonstrated, attempt is often incorrect:

- qui a vient
- il a prend

(d) Use of simple future and imperfect tenses is developing; with the future with 'aller' a fair degree of control is demonstrated.

Tendency is still evident to overuse 'il' form especially with simple future.

- je cherchera
- je dira

Good sense of when to use imperfect but errors like 'le gardienne était pleuré' still very evident. Good control with être, avoir, pouvoir, vouloir.

(e) Almost as a reduction technique - acknowledgement/
awareness of need to use tense other than present is demonstrated but tendency is there to return to best known tense.

- elle voulait être ... mais elle ne peut pas dire non

(f) An emerging sense of the conditional and pluperfect tenses is demonstrated. Some limited correct use is present but cannot be sustained.

- j'aimerais aller ...

(g) Infinitive compound or two verbs structures are often used. Although, there is fairly good control

- Je veux lire
- Je vais jouer avec mes amis

Sometimes they are simplified to reflect two 'il' verbs:

- elle veut pas met ça.

5. Article system still highly inaccurate. The article is sometimes omitted; there is still tendency to wide use of 'le', 'un':

- un chose

Sometimes article seems related to speaker:

- Ma père (girl speaking)

6. Contractions are freqently not made or made incorrectly:

- à les leçons
- du le neige

7. There is a growing ability to circumlocute.

- C'était un chose fait ... met la bouche sur la bouche et tout ça ...

but it is limited and English is still used even in this attempt to avoid it

- un ... un ... personne qui fait les champs.

8. There is a tendency in order to seem to avoid English, to Frenchify an English word, to fit a specific French structure.

- j'allais slider sur la grand montagne
- Elle a besoin de porter un 'brace' - pronounced [brasse].

9. Reduction is still apparent - when lacking necessary vocabulary.

   - Je ne sais ... sais ... mais c'est excellent ... les étoiles.
   - On chante des ... et ... eh ... tout ça

10. There is some attention to adjustment and correction even though the correct form is not always produced.

    - C'est ... c'était à Corner Brook ou quelque chose ... ou ... quelque sort.

    - un petite fille ... il avait ... elle avait

    or ironically:

    - J'ai eu ... a eu ...

11. There is still seemingly little attention to grammatical detail:

    - à ma école
    - J'ai a (old incorrect expressions are not disappearing).

12. Still present are overused catch phrases.

    - C'est - c'était tout ça, ça

13. Paragraphs emerge quite clearly distinct and with form.

    - un de les frères qui s'appelle Alex, il voulait entrer dans un club du . . . eh . . . université . . .et . . . um . . . son ami voulait entrer aussi mais il ne pouvait pas et si son ami ne pouvait pas, il ne voulait pas alors . . . il n' [a] pas entré.