

THE RELATIONSHIP OF SELF-ESTEEM AND  
FRENCH ACHIEVEMENT IN EARLY  
FRENCH IMMERSION

CENTRE FOR NEWFOUNDLAND STUDIES

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THE RELATIONSHIP OF SELF-ESTEEM AND FRENCH  
ACHIEVEMENT IN EARLY FRENCH IMMERSION

BY

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

Department of Educational Psychology  
Memorial University of Newfoundland

January 1987

St. John's

Newfoundland

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ISBN 0-315-37008-4

### Abstract

The purpose of this study was to explain achievement in early French immersion classrooms by examining the reciprocal relationship of self-esteem and achievement, with the interpolation of teacher expectations and peer status. In this study French achievement was defined as teacher rankings of students' oral and reading ability in French, and the scores on the Test Diagnostique de Lecture, Niveau 1, 2 and 3.

All grade one, two, and three French immersion classrooms in Newfoundland (excluding those situated in Labrador City), whose teachers volunteered to participate in the study, comprised the sample. This yielded a total of twenty-three classrooms from a variety of socioeconomic backgrounds, and included 259 grade one students, 143 grade two students, and 122 grade three students.

Five instruments were utilized in this study. The McDaniel-Piers Young Children's Self-Concept Scale was used to identify the level of self-esteem for each student. Sociometric status was assessed on the two dimensions of social attraction and social acceptance, using the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale. Teacher expectancy was measured by the Child Behavior Traits Checklist. The Tests Diagnostique de Lecture, Niveau 1, 2 and 3 was used to measure the achievement of the student in French reading. In addition, teachers were asked to rate achievement in French reading and oral proficiency. These rankings were then standardized in order that comparisons could be made across classrooms. The major statistical procedures used in this study were correlational and multiple regression analysis.

The set of independent variables in this study accounted for a much larger proportion of variance for the teacher ratings of French achievement than for the standardized tests of French achievement in reading. The results suggested that the issue of French achievement in the early immersion classroom is based on the

way each specific teacher constructs school related behavior and achievement. Feedback did not appear to be language oriented. Rather it was hypothesized to be contingent upon the way students act in the classroom. As teachers are the ones who control the behavioral contexts within the classroom milieu, their independent evaluation of language achievement may be critical. This determines what will be reinforced in the classroom and the interactions that occur there. This, in turn, will affect both the self-esteem and achievement of each student in the class.

### Acknowledgments

The writer wishes to gratefully acknowledge the guidance and assistance offered by Dr. William Spain in the preparation of this thesis.

Appreciation is also expressed to Janet Murphy, without whom this thesis may have had to be typewritten.

Thanks to a very good friend, Cathy Stroud, for being an ear when needed.

Thanks to my two daughters, Corina and Lori, for bearing with me while attempting to complete this document.

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1. Purpose

The purpose of this study was to explain achievement in early French immersion classrooms by studying the relationship of second language achievement in French, to the self-esteem of the student. Consideration was given to variables which modify this linkage - those of teacher expectancies, and peer status.

### 1.2. Significance of the Study

Teachers play a major role in governing the verbal and nonverbal communication that takes place within the confines of the classroom. Teachers, by controlling the setting effects of this milieu, have the ability to change or adapt instructional organization and activities, to influence the learning and social development of their students. The self-esteem of students is an important factor in this milieu.

Each experience in school can effect self-concept, personally held values, and/or the subsequent self-esteem of the learner. For this reason, an understanding of self-concept and esteem in general, how they function in youth, and how schools might enhance or hinder them must be a major concern of those responsible for curriculum planning and instruction. (Beane, Lipka, Richard, & Ludewig; 1980, p. 85)

The study of self-esteem, therefore, will form the major thrust of this study.

### 1.3. Rationale

#### 1.3.1. Background

French immersion programs exist in all ten provinces of Canada. They began in Newfoundland in 1975, when the Port au Port School Board at Cape St. George, on the west coast of the island, decided to implement an early immersion program. Since that time, these programs have been implemented in other areas across the province in St. John's (1977-1979, 1981), in Gander (1978), in Labrador City (1981), and in Corner Brook (1982). Others have also been started more recently. At the time of this study there were 1200 pupils enrolled in early immersion classes.

Since the beginning of these programs, evaluation studies have been conducted on a yearly basis with Netten and Spain as principal investigators. One persistent finding in the Newfoundland evaluations has been the high degree of variability in achievement in subject areas and English reading in the immersion classes in comparison to the variability of children in the English streams. Some investigations (Netten & Spain, 1982; Swain & Lapkin, 1981) have shown that this finding does not appear to be related to the initial range of cognitive abilities in the classroom.

This variability in subject achievement is related to the learning of French, as the measures of French used in the studies cited above tend to be highly correlated with achievement in other areas (Netten & Spain, 1982). In the English stream it has been shown that reading and mathematic test scores and cognitive ability measures have tended to correlate only moderately with each other suggesting that language development plays a less important role in subject matter achievement in these classrooms (Netten & Spain, 1982). It may be concluded from this, that the impact of the French immersion experience on children is different than the impact of early education in the mother tongue. Therefore a need exists to find possible causes for differential variance in achievement in early immersion classes.

A number of factors have been associated with success in second language learning. In addition to cognitive ability, social and emotional factors may be involved. Stern (1963) indicated that more attention should be given to the social and emotional factors which influence second language learning, particularly in the early years. However it has only been in the last decade or so that the relationship between affective factors and second language learning has received attention. This was sparked in large measure by Gardner and Lambert's book (1972) on attitudes and second language learning.

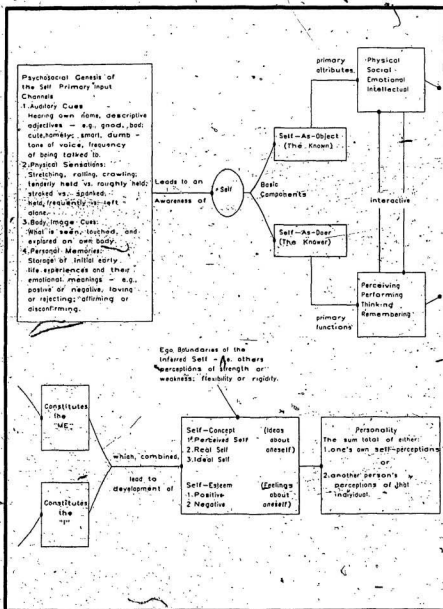
### 1.3.2. Self-concept/self-esteem

Because the terms self-concept and self-esteem are conceptually related within the framework of self-perceptions, they have been used interchangeably in the literature. For years, the imprecision of definitions, and inappropriate instrumentation were major issues in self-perception research. As this study was concerned with the affective factor of self, self-esteem, a clear delineation of both terms is necessary prior to presentation of the model utilized in this research.

Hamachek (1985) gave a schematic overview of the self's development (See Figure.1) which helps to differentiate between the two core ingredients of the self, self-concept and self-esteem, from which emerges the personality.

As can be seen from this figure, the emotional medium of the four primary input channels leads to an awareness of self. As individuals develop, both intellectually and through personal experiences, they are able to have a greater understanding of the outside world (The Knower, the "I"), and see themselves as part of this world (The Known, the "Me"). As shown, the four attributes of the self-as-object interact with the four functions of the self-as-doer. This interaction leads to the development of the self-concept (ideas about oneself), and self-esteem (feelings about oneself). For further clarification Hamachek (1985) states:

Whereas self-concept is an indicator of what people think about themselves (the cognitive component of the self), self-esteem is a barometer of how people feel about themselves (the affective component).



**Figure 1-1: Schematic Overview of the Self's Development**  
Note. See Appendix A

of the self). Self-esteem is a reflection of how one evaluates the self...an emotional filter through which people see themselves and, inevitably, see others.... a reflection of the self-concept for which it speaks.... Self-concept and self-esteem are mutually reinforcing and highly interactive. (p. 137)

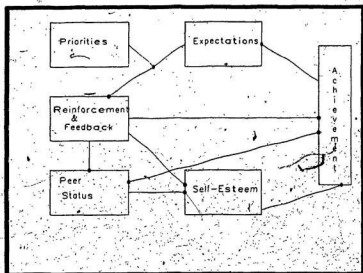
Widening experiences, and the growing capacity for thinking about them, give the children in grades one, two, and three new opportunities for understanding themselves - their own qualities and the fact that others see them from a different perspective. Minuchin (1977) tells us that environmental factors, especially other people, affect the growth of self-knowledge and self-esteem of these students through the nature of experiences, role models, and responses provided to them.

The preceding paragraphs on self-esteem and the importance of one's environment leads to the presentation of the model used in this study, and the rationale for its usage.

### 1.3.3. Self-esteem and achievement

Much attention has been directed toward the relationship between self-esteem and achievement, and the direction of this relationship. There are advocates for the self-enhancement theory which hypothesizes that self-esteem determines achievement (for reviews, see Purkey, 1970; Scheirer & Kraut, 1979), as well as advocates for the skill development theory, in which achievement is assumed to determine self-esteem (Calsyn & Kenny, 1977; Kifer, 1975; Scheirer & Kraut, 1979).

There have been many studies which have demonstrated a moderately strong concurrent relationship between children's academic achievement and their self-concept of ability (for reviews, see Bloom, 1976; Hansford & Hattie, 1982; Wylie, 1979). This aspect of self is similar to self-esteem in school situations (Calsyn & Kenny, 1977). Other researchers have argued that research on the relationship of these two variables should include environmental variables as



**Figure 1-2: Model Depicting the Relationship of Self-Esteem and French Achievement**

either causal or moderating variables (Blattstein, Blattstein, & Pik, 1978; Shavelson & Bolus, 1982). This offers credence for the utilization of Burns' model (1979) depicting the reciprocal relationship of self-esteem and achievement with the interpolation of feedback, expectations, peer status, and teacher priorities. Burns uses the term self-concept in his model, but states that, in his book, the terms self-concept and self-esteem are synonymous.

As mentioned, conceptual and methodological problems have plagued self-perception research over the years (Scheirer & Kraut, 1970; Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976). Many of the studies dealing with self-concept have directly or indirectly addressed the relationship between self-esteem and achievement (e.g. Purkey, 1970). Purkey concludes that his review indicates a strong reciprocal relationship.

In a meta-analysis of the relationship between self and achievement, Hansford and Hattie (1982) found that a moderately strong concurrent



relationship exists between these two variables. In this meta-analysis no differences in the correlations between self-ratings and performance measures were found between the terms self-concept and self-esteem. These findings support the idea that self-esteem and self-concept have a mutually reinforcing and highly interactive nature.

#### 1.3.4. Second language achievement: The role of motivation

Most theories of language acquisition contend that, while the cognitive structure, ability, and mediational processes of the students are important factors in learning a language, the motivation of the students is equally as important. Therefore the role of motivation, its causes and effects, must be explored if one is to understand effective learning in an immersion situation.

Three decades ago Gardner (1966) proposed that the Integrative Motive was related to a considerable proportion of the variability in second language achievement. This motive involves a total attitudinal orientation toward both the French-speaking community and the French class. As stated by Gardner, Smythe, Clement, and Glikzman (1976):

It seems reasonable to predict, therefore, that language aptitude would be more highly related to individual differences on skills stressed in the classroom situation...but that motivational variables would play a somewhat greater role in determining individual differences in those skills which might be fostered through informal language acquisition contexts such as speaking skills, oral comprehension, etc... (p. 200)

These informal contexts in the classroom are with one's peers and teachers. One can hypothesize from this, then, that there is a strong relationship between participation in classroom activities, interacting with one's peers and teachers, and motivation to learn French. As pointed out by Savignon (1983), this interactive communicative view of the language learning process has been around for centuries. Therefore, social and affective factors which affect these classroom interactions and influence second language achievement must be considered in a study such as this.

In the English stream much attention has been directed toward the nonachieving student. Some researchers (Brophy & Good, 1974; Eysenck, Eastings, & Eysenck, 1970) feel that one probable cause of learning problems lies in the nature of the interaction that occurs within the classroom setting. The importance of these interactions is that they aid in the development of the self-esteem of the student.

#### 1.3.4.1. The self-esteem motive.

The self-esteem motive, the defense and enhancement of the self, is a significant aspect of an individual's motivational system (Rosenberg, 1979). Kaplan (1975) contends that the self-esteem motive is "universally and characteristically a dominant motive in the individual's motivational system" (p.10). "Much of what a person chooses to do, and the manner in which he does it, is presumed to be dependent upon his self-esteem" (Wells & Marwell, 1976, p.60). Therefore one would assume that for the early immersion students, the way that they feel about themselves will affect the quality and quantity of their interactions with teachers and peers, and therefore their usage of the second language with both of these significant others.

According to Beane and Lipka (1980), "self-esteem depends upon the environmental context, including significant others, within which the individual operates on a voluntary or compulsory basis" (p.5). Therefore, not only does self-esteem affect the nature of the students' interactions with significant others, but also it is also affected by these interactions, a reciprocal relationship. As there is a strong relationship between participation in classroom activities and motivation to learn French (Gardner & al., 1976), one can hypothesize that the level of interaction and usage of the second language, which affects and is affected by self-esteem, has a positive effect on French achievement.

The social interactions that occur in the classroom, occur with the students' peers and teachers. Therefore, the quality of these relations must be a mediating factor between self-esteem and achievement.

### 1.3.5. The role of significant others

#### 1.3.5.1. Teachers and their expectancies.

Teachers are one of the significant others in an elementary student's life. Nadien (1980) tells us that "their attitude and behavior toward individual students can have a great impact on their [students] scholastic and personality development" (p.97).

Evidence indicates that the interactions that go on in the classroom are affected by the teacher's expectations (Brophy & Good, 1970, 1974; Cooper & Baron, 1979; Rist, 1970). They affect the way teachers treat different students and may influence students' self-esteem and classroom performance (Davidson & Lang, 1960; Good, 1980; Staines, 1958). Hundreds of reported studies and various meta-analyses (Rosenthal, 1976; Rosenthal & Rubin, 1978; Smith, 1980) indicate that the expectancy effect does indeed exist. It has been shown, however, that these effects do not occur in every case; some teachers are prone to produce them, and others are not (Brophy & Good, 1974), and expectancies may change because of the students' actual behavior and performance in the classroom (Ryan, 1981).

Teacher expectancies, therefore, can influence objective processes of evaluation and social judgement, thereby influencing interpersonal behavior and the quality and quantity of interactions in the classroom (Cooper, 1979; Hoehn, 1954; Silverstein & Krate, 1975). As the interactions occurring in the French immersion milieu are important both for the motivation to learn French (Gardner et al., 1976), and for the child's self-esteem (Beane & Lipka, 1980), teacher expectancy is indeed a moderating variable in the reciprocal relationship that is proposed to exist between self-esteem and second language achievement.

### 1.3.5.2. Peer status.

The responses of significant others are an important factor in the formation of self-concept in elementary school age children (Bradley & Newhouse, 1975). The effects of peers on an individual's self-concept is well documented (for reviews, see Campbell, 1964; Ide, Parkerson, Haertel, & Walberg, 1981). This influence on self-conception, in turn, will guide the feelings and behavior of these students (Kinch, 1963). According to Burns (1979), "abilities and talents [of elementary children] are usually evaluated in terms of school standing, peer acceptance, athletic pursuits, and popularity" (p.163). Therefore the relationship one has with one's peers influences the attitude one has toward oneself.

It has also been shown that peer relationships have a significant influence on school achievement (Damico, 1976; Ide et al., 1981; Putallaz, White, & Shipman, 1985). In her review of the literature on achievement and peer status Keough (1980) concluded that a positive relationship is usually found to exist between acceptance by the classroom peer group and achievement. The results of her own study supported this conclusion, and also found that the two dimensions of sociometric status as measured by the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale, social acceptance and social attraction, were independent and that the peer group were more significant for those students with high attraction scores. Ide et al. (1981) classified the peer group as one of eight primary factors that influence achievement. Specifically related to language achievement, research examining the use of L2 in bilingual programs attest to the value of peer interaction in learning a second language (Barrows Chesterfield, Chesterfield, & Chavez, 1982; Chesterfield, Barrows Chesterfield, Hayes-Latimer, & Chavez, 1983; Fillmore, 1976, 1982).

Based upon theories of motivation such as that of Maslow (1962, 1968), it can be hypothesized that students will behave in ways in the classroom that will enhance self-esteem and status with peers. Communication and feedback, therefore, serve both to direct the learning of the student and to meet social

needs. A large body of literature has emerged over the years which has related achievement in the classroom to the self-esteem of the pupils (Burns, 1979; Scheirer & Kraut, 1979; Slavin, 1977) and peer status (Adams, Shea, & Kacerguis, 1978; Cobb, 1972; Schmuck, 1963).

Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) seems to fit this situation very well. It may be hypothesized that behaviors receiving positive social reinforcement will be learned and repeated, while those receiving negative or neutral reinforcement will be extinguished. Studies of classroom praise (Brophy, 1981) have demonstrated a basis for this hypothesis.

From all this, the significance of the interactions that occur in the classroom milieu must be evident. Peer status is known to affect these interactions (Ashery, Oden, & Gottmann, 1977). Thus the status the student has with peers, then, is a moderating variable in the relationship between self-esteem and achievement.

### 1.3.6. Summary

In the early grades, classroom learning depends largely on the oral communication between teacher and students. The nature of the relationship between them seems to have a great deal to do with the motivation of both student and teacher. This, then, affects the feedback offered by both. The effects of this feedback can be understood, first of all, in terms of its instructional content, and the focus it provides for the learning of French. In this regard, the language learning priorities of the teacher may be very important. Secondly, the effects of feedback can also be understood in terms of its motivational content. In this regard, the affect implied in the feedback, and its relationship to the self-esteem and peer status of the student, may be seen to be quite important. Finally, the effects of feedback must be interpreted in terms of interaction between its instructional and motivational content, with particular reference to the expectancy of the teacher for the student. Variance in achievement then, should be explainable in terms of the factors that govern the nature of communication in French in the early immersion classroom.

Basically, then, this is an attempt to explain and describe the nature of motivation to learn L2. Krashan (1978, 1980) has argued that, through interaction, second language acquirers obtain "optimal input" - input which is likely to lead to further language acquisition. Literature abounds with regard to the quality and quantity of oral communication in English and its effects on academic performance, as well as the relationship between academic and social uses of language (Darley & Faizo, 1980; Phillips, Butt, Metzger, 1974; Simpson & Erikson, 1983; Smith, 1980). So too, in the French immersion setting, perhaps these same relationships between quality and quantity of language use and the level of competence in L2 may exist.

#### 1.4. Hypotheses

1. There is a positive correlation between second language achievement in early French immersion, and student self-esteem.
2. There is a positive correlation between student peer status and second language achievement in early French immersion.
3. There is a positive correlation between student peer status and student self-esteem.
4. Teacher expectancies are positively correlated with second language achievement in early French immersion.
5. Teacher expectancies are positively correlated with student self-esteem.

#### 1.5. Definitions

**French achievement:** Teacher rankings of students' oral and reading ability in French, and the scores on the Test Diagnostique de Lecture, Niveau 1, 2 and 3.

**Self-esteem:** The affective component of self-concept as measured by the McDaniel-Piers Young Children's Self-Concept Scale.

**Teacher expectancy:** The evaluation that the teacher has for each of the students which determines the behavior manifested by the teacher toward each student. The teacher expects the student to act in a manner consistent with that evaluation as measured by the Child Behavior Traits Checklist.

**Peer status:** The social acceptance and/or the social attraction of students as measured by the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale. The mean rating received by each pupil measures acceptance, whereas the mean rating made by each pupil measures attraction.

## Chapter 2

### Review of the Related Literature

This chapter reviews the literature pertinent to the relationship of self-esteem and achievement. First, the theoretical background of self-esteem and self-concept formation is presented, and the relationship between self-esteem and achievement is examined. Second, teacher expectations are discussed, in view of their effects on teacher behavior and student performance and behavior. Third, peer status, and its effect on the student's self-esteem and achievement is reviewed.

#### 2.1. Self-Esteem

##### 2.1.1. Self-esteem: Theoretical background

The idea of self has been around for centuries, and the literature available on self-referent behaviors is continually expanding. Self-esteem has appeared in the literature over the years under a variety of labels, including: "self-love, self-confidence, self-respect, self-acceptance (or rejection), self-satisfaction, self-evaluation, self-appraisal, self-worth, sense of adequacy or personal efficacy, sense of competence, self-ideal congruence, ego or ego strength" (Wells & Marwell, 1976, p. 7). It has long been the subject of theoretical speculation and has been the topic of several major empirical studies (Coopersmith, 1967; Rosenberg, 1965; Rosenberg & Simmons, 1971).

William James (1890), identified with the I-Me dichotomy of self, included feelings, evaluations, and attitudes when formulating the objective Me. He used



the term self-esteem synonymously with self-feeling and self-regard. While not dealing explicitly with self-esteem, Cooley (1902) included self-feeling as an aspect of his looking-glass self, i.e. subjectively interpreted feedback from others. Mead (1934) elaborated on James' social self in a development of Cooley's theory and produced a cogent and systematic statement of the development of self. "The self, as that which can be an object to itself, is essentially a social structure, and arises in social experience" (p. 140). Like Cooley, Mead did not deal explicitly with self-esteem, but discussed the effects of self-evaluation and the tendency of people to self-realization.

Freudian psychoanalysis influenced many theorists who dealt more directly with self-conception and self-esteem: Adler (1927), Sullivan (1953), and Horney (1950) emphasized sociocultural situations and interpersonal relationships as important in the development of self-as-object. They gave a much more explicit meaning to the self as a reflexive structure similar to the idea of self-esteem.

"Ego psychology" came into being in the 1940's and 1950's when psychologists attempted to distinguish between the concepts of ego and self. Allport (1955) coined the term "proprium" which was a synthesis of the ego and self constructs. The proprium comprised awareness of self and striving activity, self-esteem being one of its aspects. Symonds (1951) attempted to emphasize clearly the difference between ego and self. According to Symonds, the ego functions more effectively when the self is confident and held in high regard. He described the development of self-esteem in terms of both need-satisfaction and the experience of success.

Similar to James and Allport, Cattell (1950), a personality theorist, conceived self as both object and process. He differentiated between the concept of self and sentiment of self. To Cattell, this self-sentiment of self-regard is the most important influence in man.

From a clinical perspective, Maslow and Jourard both expounded on the

self-esteem theory. Maslow (1954) emphasized 'the master drive of self-actualization. He proposed the need for individuals to strive to become all that one is capable of becoming. The establishment of self-esteem is a precondition for self-actualization. Maslow's notion of self-esteem is mastery experiences and confidence in one's ability, whereas Jourard (1957) related self-feeling to the process of identification with an ego-ideal.

Rogers (1951), from his clinical perspective known as "client centered therapy" indicated, like others, the dual rôle of self - self as object and self as process. He postulated a need for positive regard from others, and a need for positive self-regard which is synonymous with self-esteem.

From a social psychological perspective, Coopersmith (1967) defined self-esteem as the attitude toward oneself, or feelings of self-worth. Rosenberg's (1965) definition is similar in that he defined it "as a positive or negative attitude towards a particular object, namely the Self" (p. 30).

The psychological concept of self has been discussed from a philosophical, psychological, sociological, and psychiatric point of view. More recently, Beane and Lipka (1980) have described self-perception as having three dimensions: self-concept, self-esteem, and values. According to Beane et al. (1980):

Self-concept refers to the description we hold of ourselves based on the roles we play and personal attributes we believe we possess. Self-esteem refers to the level of satisfaction we attach to that description or parts of it. Self-esteem decisions, in turn, are made on the basis of what is important to us or more specifically, our values. (p. 84)

Beane and Lipka (1980) posit that this valuing process is a function of the environmental context within which a particular rôle is played. Therefore, the significant others in our environment are important for the development of our self-esteem. Our self-perception, then, is an interaction of our self-concept (roles) and self-esteem (feelings), both of which are influenced by the feedback from significant others.

Judging by the plethora of information available, these two self-terms seem especially important in the literature. Self-concept appears to be a more general term which subsumes self-esteem (Coopersmith, 1967; Fleming & Courtney, 1984; Hamachek, 1985; L'ecuyer, 1981; Shavelson et al., 1976; Silvernail, 1981). Because self-esteem is assumed to be a conceptual component of the more inclusive process of self-conception, then the formation of self-concept must also be considered.

### 2.1.2. The self-concept

Over the years there have been a multitude of different definitions of self-concept. William James (1890), in his work The Principles of Psychology, wrote an entire chapter on "the consciousness of self". He considered ego to be the individual's sense of identity. In addition to this global concept, he saw the self as including spiritual, material, and social aspects. Allport (1937) saw the self as including bodily sense, self-image, self-esteem, and identity as well as thinking and knowing. Shavelson et al. (1976) posited a multifaceted, hierarchial model of self-concept. Evidence for this has also been shown in research where many instruments have been produced in which multiple facets of self-concept are quite distinctive and identifiable (Dusek & Flaherty, 1981; Fleming & Courtney, 1984; Marsh, Barnes, Cairns, & Tidman, 1984). Also, many definitions of self-concept include a multifaceted feature (Coopersmith, 1967; Purkey, 1970). Shavelson et al. (1976) defined self-concept as a person's self-perception while Combs (1962) defined it as the beliefs an individual holds about himself, his total view of himself.

#### 2.1.2.1. Self-concept formation.

Each individual has attitudes toward himself. These attitudes may have three aspects - the cognitive, the affective, and the behavioral (Secord & Backman, 1964). The person has knowledge of himself in various roles, evaluates and judges these roles, and acts accordingly. The cognitive aspect, the conception of self, therefore is significant for development of the affective component, self-esteem, and affects the way each individual behaves in different situations.

Major theorists have historically developed the social theory of self (Cooley, 1902; Mead, 1934; Rogers, 1951; Sullivan, 1947). They, like others, have described the formation of self-concept as a product of our interactions with other people, evolving in a process that begins very early and continues all our lives (Goffman, 1950; Webster & Soliceszek, 1976).

The role of significant others for early French immersion students - the teacher and peer group - is therefore quite probably an important determinant of each student's conception of self. Self-concept is acquired through group participation and social interaction (Koller & Ritchie, 1978). The importance of significant others is also posited by Shaw (1983), who states that both peer and teacher comments can change a student's self-concept.

The self-concept of students, then, can be changed through their comments and interactions with significant others (Staines, 1958). Children in early and middle primary school often regard their teacher with awe. The teacher's appraisals are very important to them. Current research indicates that adults do have an effect on younger children's self-perceptions (Beane et al., 1980). Maslow's model of self-concept formation (1954) also provides a basis for understanding the role of significant others in the development of one's conception of self.

Baral (1983) suggests that self-concept formation should be the focus of research in successful bilingual programs, as self-concept is a result of what happens in school. In an analysis of reviews of educational research, Ide et al. (1981) concluded that the social-psychological climate of the classroom was one of the six factors that seems to predict cognitive, affective, and behavioral learning outcomes.

It may be hypothesized that the comments and interactions that occur in the early immersion classrooms, therefore, are significant in the formation of a child's self-concept, and its affective component of self-esteem. How students

respond and behave in the classroom environment will depend upon the picture they have of themselves, and how they feel about this self-picture.

### 2.1.3. Self-esteem and achievement

C. Lipton (1963) offered the following remarks concerning the relationship between self-esteem and achievement:

The roots of desire to learn are deep and multibranched. The development of a self-worth and self-value is one of the most important and significant of these branches. To know oneself and to value oneself contributes mightily to the development of an able learner, a curious learner, and a mature learner. (p.211)

When considering learning outcomes of students then, one must consider their affective states. In recent research on effective schools, it was reported that in the more effective schools, the affective disposition of students was consistently more positive than the students in less effective schools (Fenn & Ivánicki, 1983), and that affective variables were significant mediating variables of school effectiveness (Scott and Walberg, 1979). "Underachievers tend to possess lower self-esteem, more hostility, more negative attitudes toward school and generally lower levels of adjustment than their achieving and overachieving counterparts" (Battle, 1982, p.73).

Many researchers have posited that a relationship exists between self-esteem and achievement (Bridgeman & Shipman, 1978; Brookover, Thomas & Paterson, 1964; Caplin, 1969; Cole, 1974; Coopersmith, 1967; Gergen, 1971; Gordon, 1977; Kugle & Clements, 1980; Larson, Parker, & Jorjorian, 1973; McIntire & Drummond, 1977; Purkey, 1970; Rogers, Smith & Coleman, 1978; Rosenberg, 1965; Schnee, 1972; Wylie, 1979; Yellott, Liem, & Cowan, 1989; among others).

In a study with nine second grade reading classes, Kugle and Clements (1980) found that both the level and stability of self-esteem were found to be positively related to the student's level of achievement. That reading ability and self-esteem have a significant positive correlation has also been shown by other researchers (Partington, 1984; Gallegos-Jaramillo, 1985; Pik, 1984; Schnee, 1972).

However, other researchers have shown a negative correlation between measures of self and reading achievement (Bridgeman & Shipman, 1978; Williams, 1973; Wattenberg & Clifford, 1984). An inconsistency, therefore, exists among the findings of various researchers.

The literature on self-esteem and achievement is characterized by increasingly complex attempts to elaborate on the relationship between the two variables. An important impetus for research to determine the causal relationships from self-esteem to achievement developed out of the work of Combs and Syngg (1959) who postulated that the single motive for behavior is the preservation and enhancement of the phenomenal self. After much research, considerable disagreement still exists concerning the direction of the relationship. As a consequence two schools of thought have emerged, the self-enhancement and skill development models.

#### **2.1.3.1. Self-enhancement model.**

The advocates of the skill-enhancement model theorize that self-esteem variables are primary causes of academic achievement. These theorists argue that considerable initial time should be spent in trying to increase the self-esteem of children in an educational program.

Bloom (1976) pointed out that the affective characteristics of students account for as much as 25% of the variance in student achievement. In his review, Purkey (1970) stated the persistent and significant relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement. Labenne and Green (1969), and Battle (1982) also summarized many studies which give credence to this model. Brookover, Thomas, LePere, Hamachek, and Erikson (1965) also indicated that if students have faulty perceptions of themselves, their achievement in school would suffer. Scheirer and Kraut (1979) provided a review of several correlational studies that have found strong relationships between children's self-esteem and their academic achievement. Shavelson and Bolus (1982) concluded that global self-concept, which subsumes self-esteem, is causally predominant over academic achievement.

### 2.1.3.2. Skill development model.

The advocates of the skill development model theorize that self-esteem variables are primarily consequences of academic achievement. These theorists argue that it is more profitable to devote time structuring the curriculum in order to improve the student's academic achievement, because such achievement will then enhance the student's self-esteem.

Within the last two decades, many studies have emerged in support of this model (Bridgeman & Shipman, 1978; Brookover et al., 1965; Calsyn, 1973; Calsyn & Kenny, 1977; Kifer, 1975; Rogers et al., 1978; Schierer & Kraut, 1979). Brookover's study (1965) included self-concept of ability which, according to Calsyn and Kenny (1977), is a measure of self-esteem in school situations. In a cross-lagged panel reanalysis of Brookover's data, Calsyn and Kenny (1977) concluded that achievement change appeared to determine self-esteem change. Bachman and O'Malley (1977) found that students' intellectual ability and academic performance were important determinants of self-esteem.

### 2.1.3.3. Reciprocal model and its covariates.

As viewed in the literature, findings support both directions of causality between children's achievement and self-esteem. There have been many studies which have demonstrated a moderately strong concurrent relationship between these two variables (for review, see Bloom, 1976; Hansford & Hattie, 1982; Wylie, 1979).

Burns (1979) hypothesized a reciprocal relationship between academic achievement and self-esteem. In a study to determine what causal relationship exists among the constructs of academic achievement and academic self-esteem, Holt (1983) also found support for the reciprocal hypothesis. Nadien (1980) stated that it is our feelings of being valued by both teachers and peers and our scholastic achievements that most directly affect our performance at school. Revicki (1982) points out that:

characteristics of the school environment . . . exert similar [as compared

to home environment] -mediating influences which over time supplant some of the influence of the family on the child's continued cognitive and affective development. (p. 11)

Therefore, there are other factors which must be considered when examining the relationship between self-esteem and achievement. Recent research contends that there are intervening variables in the relationship (Blattstein et al., 1978; Shavelson & Bolus, 1982; Thomas, 1980). The model of second language achievement utilized in this study assumes the relationship between self-esteem and achievement to be reciprocal, mediated by school environmental variables.

Most self-theories maintain that the process by which individuals develop and maintain self-regard is critically dependent on the social group in which the individual resides (Mead, 1934; Rogers, 1951; etc.). The mirror theory says that self-concept is a product of the reflected appraisals of others significant to the child, whereas the model theory says that the child develops a sense of self-regard through the process of imitating various others in the immediate environment (Gecas, Colonico, & Thomas, 1972). Festinger's (1954) social comparison theory also attested to the fact that people use significant others in their environment as the bases for forming estimates of self-worth. In a study with subjects from the ages of six to nine years, Rogers et al. (1978) found that, when within classroom achievement standing was considered, both reading and math achievement were found to be significantly related to global self-concept, and that the maintenance of self-concept is related to the attributes of the social comparison group within which the student resides. This study attested to the importance of the social environment. These authors stated that:

Pooling data together from different classrooms, or even communities for the purpose of analysis could potentially lead, in its extreme form, to a total masking of the relationship between academic achievement and self-concept.... The most meaningful way to understand the relationship between academic achievement and self-concept is within the context of the social comparison group or classroom. (pp. 51, 56)

(This implies that the relative standing of each early immersion student in



the immediate social group be considered, when studying the relationship between self-esteem and French achievement, to determine a more accurate picture of this relationship.

Maslow's theory of human motivation, (1954) which assumes that needs are ordered along a hierarchy of priorities of prepotency, also recognizes the influences that emerge from the environment. Before a person can become all that he is capable of becoming, one must achieve a sense of security, a sense of belonging, and experience mutual acceptance. Maslow's esteem needs mean that individuals must receive feedback from others (in the form of respect and assurance) in order to realize that they are worthwhile and competent (Turner & Helms, 1970).

From the age of five, six, or seven until puberty, children go through Erickson's fourth development stage where the chief challenge is to overcome feelings of inferiority by gaining a sense of industry, and a sense of competence in various academic, athletic, and social skills. White (1959) states that a sense of competence is an intrinsic motivation and an important aspect of self-esteem. A feeling of competence is important in the individual's interactions with significant others (Shavelson et al., 1976).

Other research has also shown the importance of our interactions with significant others. In a study by Parrott and Hewitt (1978) the esteem in individuals with low self-esteem was raised by increasing the interpersonal interaction and sociability of those individuals. Homans (1958) in his exchange theory, postulated that interactions continue because the exchange is mutually rewarding.

That a person's self-esteem will affect his behavior has been well documented (Kaplan, 1975; Kinch, 1983; Rosenberg, 1979; Wells & Marwell, 1976). Bandura (1977) in his social learning theory explains human behavior in terms of a continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and

environmental determinants. "Both people and their environment are reciprocal determinants of each other" (p. vii.). Therefore, in the early immersion classes each individual affects and is affected by other individuals in that setting.

Each of these theories and studies attest to the significance of an individual's immediate social group, and the effect of the significant others found therein. From these theories and studies one can hypothesize that a reciprocal relationship exists between the self-esteem and performance of the student, and that both their performance and self-esteem are affected by the quality and quantity of their interactions with significant others - their teachers and peers.

## 2.2. Teacher Expectations

Dunkin and Biddle (1974) proposed that:

... much of teaching is presumably coping behavior on the part of the teacher and is thus subject to beliefs held by the teacher concerning the curriculum, the nature and objectives of the teaching task, expectations for pupils, and norms concerning appropriate classroom behavior. (p. 412)

According to these authors, teacher priorities, which include the beliefs and objectives the teacher has toward the curriculum, and teachers' expectations for their pupils, are significant in the way teachers behave in the classroom and the influence they have on their students. Expectations, as defined by Good and Brophy (1978), are predictions about how individuals will behave or perform. These predictions are based on a set of beliefs that may or may not be supported by actual facts. Brophy and Good (1970, 1974) have been the principal developers in conceptualizing a model of naturally occurring expectations on student achievement.

## 2.2.1. Teacher expectations - an interactive phenomenon

### 2.2.1.1. Teacher expectations and achievement.

Since publication of Rosenthal and Jacobson's (1968) Pygmalion in the Classroom, a great deal of educational research has documented that teacher's expectations can exert self-fulfilling prophecy effects on student achievement. (Brophy & Good, 1974; Crano & Mellon, 1978; Dusek, 1975; Finn, 1972; Good, 1980; West & Anderson, 1976; etc.). Brophy and Good (1974) characterize the pattern of the self-fulfilling prophecy as the following:

Teachers took more appropriate action to elicit a good performance from the highs, and that they tended to reinforce it appropriately when it was elicited. In contrast, they tended to accept poor performance from the lows, and they failed to reinforce good performance properly even when it did occur. (p.99)

Various researchers have proposed models describing how expectations are formed, and the influence these expectations have on students learning (Braun, 1976; Brophy & Good, 1970; Cooper, 1979; Dusek, 1975; Good, 1981).

A review of the expectation literature by Rosenthal and Rubin (1978) indicates that teacher expectation effects exist. 40% of the studies investigated produced reliable statistical differences indicating the existence of these effects. In a meta-analysis of over 300 studies of expectation effects in the laboratory, the workplace and the classroom, Rosenthal (1976) determined that 37% of these studies were consistent with the self-fulfilling prophecy. However Brophy (1982) states that these expectations can function as self-fulfilling prophecies "only when they involve sustained, systematic over- or under-estimates of students' actual achievement potential" (p. 12).

Many researchers, who do accept that expectations can function as self-fulfilling prophecies, have different opinions concerning the generality and strength of the phenomenon. These opinions could perhaps be affected by the differences in definition and interpretation that exist in these studies (Cooper, Findley, & Good, 1982). Luce and Hoge (1978) suggested that a deeper

understanding of the phenomenon is required, before precise predictions from teacher expectations to student achievement can be made. It has been suggested that with teacher expectation research, there should be additional process-to-process studies (eg. teacher expectations to teacher behavior to pupil behavior), rather than process-to-product studies (teacher expectations to student achievement). Brophy (1979), Good (1981), and Bassett and Smythe (1979) also suggested that teacher expectations are formed as part of an individual's perceptual process. Therefore, it seems plausible to conclude that there are possible mediators affecting the relationship of teacher expectations and student performance.

#### **2.2.1.2. Teacher expectations and self-esteem.**

Studies have shown that a teacher's expectations have an effect on the interactions that go on in the classroom (Brophy & Good, 1970; Martinek & Karper, 1983). Rothbart, Dallen, and Barrett (1971) found that teachers gave greater attention to students whom they thought were bright. Rosenthal (1974) analyzed the results of many studies on teacher expectations and categorized teachers' differential behavior toward high and low expectancy students under four aspects: input, output, feedback, and climate. For the high expectancy student, teachers presented larger quantities of more difficult material (input), gave more response time (output), gave more praise and differentiated feedback, and created a warmer socioemotional climate than for the low expectancy student. Support for this is offered by other researchers who have studied behavioral manifestations that distinguish teacher's treatment of high and low expectations including: teacher praise rates, use of criticism, academic response opportunities, amount of feedback, and second chances provided for correcting errors (Brophy, 1983; Brophy & Evertson, 1981; Brophy & Good, 1974; Good, 1981). Good, Cooper, and Blakely (1980) found that teachers were more likely to call on high expectation students in public while interactions with lower expectation students were in private. Good and Brophy (1980) also found that teachers tended to seat low expectation students farther away from themselves,

and to seat them in groups. In addition, feedback to low expectation students was often less accurate and detailed than that given to highs, and the recitations of lows were more frequently interrupted. Teacher behavior in the classroom is very important as it informs students about expected behavior, thereby affecting student's self-image and motivation (Braun, 1976; Brophy, 1982; Brophy and Good, 1974; Good, 1980).

An important link between teacher expectations and student achievement outcomes is the students' perceptions of classroom events. Davidson and Lang (1980) showed a positive relationship between children's perceptions of their teachers' feelings toward them and their perceptions of themselves. The student's interpretation of the teacher's behavior may lead to a change in the student's self-concept and future behavior (Darley & Faizo, 1980). This principle can be applied to language learning in French immersion. If the student is given an impression of competency, then that student will engage in more achievement related behavior. However, left with an impression of incompetency, the student in the early immersion class may be less likely to participate, and therefore less likely to achieve in second language learning.

The students' awareness of differential treatment will mediate the expectancy effect (Brattesani, Weinstein, & Marshall, 1984). Students do perceive differences in the way teachers work with high and low achievers (Weinstein & Middlestadt, 1979). In classrooms where students perceive greater differences in this behavior, teacher expectations account for more of the change in student performance (Weinstein, 1983). In a study with kindergarten and grade one children, Arnold (1985) observed that teacher expectations have a strong influence on the daily activities of these young students. Researchers have shown that teacher expectations are communicated to students through behavior in the classroom (Rosenthal, 1974; Good & Brophy, 1978; Braun, 1976), and these expectations and related behaviors can influence students' own expectations and achievement (Brattesani et al., 1984).

Individual differences among teachers are also considered an important variable in the way teachers communicate their expectations of their students to them (Cherry, 1978; Wilkinson, 1981). Researchers have related elements of teaching style to differential treatment of high and low achievers (Brophy & Good, 1974). In rank order of the probabilities associated with the incidence of Pygmalion effects these styles are overreactive, reactive, and proactive. Also "teacher behavior toward students is not necessarily consistent across situations, and individual teachers may differ in the way they communicate their expectations of students' competence to them" (Wilkinson, 1981, p.267). Therefore in early immersion classrooms, the possibility exists that different teachers will not only have different priorities and expectations for the students, but the way that these are communicated to each student may vary. This suggests a need to deal within classrooms on a case by case basis, rather than summarizing across classrooms.

Work reviewed in Persell (1977) suggests that susceptibility to teacher expectation effects will vary with age, race, or social class. When students are dependent on the teacher for information (West & Anderson, 1976), or when new content or skills are being introduced (Braun, 1976), they are more likely to be affected by teacher expectations. The implications of this finding for French immersion is obvious, particularly in the early years, when the L2 proficiency of the students is limited. Bassett and Smythe (1979) state that these expectations are usually the results of performance. "Teachers rely on student performance cues to form expectations, sometimes on the basis of personal files and always on the basis of their observations of the pupil's in class behavior" (p.79). Therefore teachers' expectations may change as a result of student-teacher interactions and pupil performance (Ryan, 1981). In a longitudinal design employing a cross-lag analysis Crano and Melon (1978) studied 4300 elementary school students. They examined the relationship between students' academic achievement and two types of teacher expectations: academic expectations and social expectations. They found that teacher expectations and evaluations of the child's social development

had a greater relationship to academic achievement than expectation concerning academic ability. This study attested to the significant role that social interactions have in the development of expectations. In a study done by Hook (1985) teacher expectations were significantly predicted by pupil characteristics, teacher attitudes, and classroom interaction. The effect of the students' own behavior on teacher expectations then, may well be a variable interacting with the self-fulfilling prophecy phenomenon.

Both teachers and students act as pygmals in the classroom. Teacher-student interactions affect both parties. Students, as well as teachers, have expectations (Feldman, 1976). These expectations have an effect upon the outcome and feelings of success of both parties (Feldman & Theiss, 1980). Teacher expectations and student expectations, therefore, can affect the attitudes and behaviors of individuals, as well as those with whom they are interacting (Feldman & Prohaska, 1979). The formation of expectancies, then, is a complex interactive phenomenon involving both the teacher and the students (Brattesani et al., 1984; Cooper, 1979)

### 2.3. Peer Status

There are two primary sources of reinforcement available in the classroom, one is the teacher, and the other the classmates of the student. Hallinan (1982) notes that "peers represent strong socializing agents that can shape the academic attitudes, values, and behaviors of a student" (p. 285). By four or five years of age, we turn more and more toward our peers for attention, approval, and affection (Hartup, 1970). Relationships with peers constitute a central element in children's social lives (Hartup, 1983). Sociometric measures of peer acceptance in childhood have been found to be related to later life problems such as delinquency and dropping out of school (Roff, Sells, & Golden, 1972; Ulfmann, 1957).

Flores de Apodaca and Cowen (1982) showed that elementary children referred to a school based mental health program had significantly lower self-

esteem, peer acceptance, and insight than their non-referred comparison subjects. These findings suggest the association of deficits in such variables with maladjustment in elementary grades.

### 2.3.1. Peer status and self-esteem.

Silverberg (1952) has postulated two main sources in the development of self-esteem in the child: the internal source which is the child's reaction to his/her behavior; and the external source which consists of the child's perception of other's responses to his/her behavior. Peers assume much importance during the elementary years, as they become significant others. Nadien (1980) reported that the experiences that students share with their peers, and the expectations of a shared future, create special bonds with them. This causes students to estimate their own worth according to how effectively they compare and compete with their peers (Bradley & Newhouse, 1975). Age differences have been found, however (Ruble, Parsons & Ross, 1976). These researchers found that although six year olds do not always feel bad when they fail, and pay little attention to how their performance compares with that of their peers, eight year olds are more likely to be distressed at failure and pay close attention to information about the way they measure up to the level of their peers. Therefore the influence of peer status may be less in grades one and two than in grade three. Evidence also exists that, at least until the age of eleven or twelve, students will give up their own perceptions and convictions in favor of peer group judgements (Allen & Newton, 1972; Costanza, 1970).

As seen from this research, acceptance by peers is important to a sense of self-worth. Schmuck (1963) also reported that sociometric status appears to influence the school age child's self-concept. Hallinan (1982) noted that a person's self-image can be strengthened or weakened through social comparison.

Social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954) suggests that, when comparing their own performance to other students in the classroom, students will use the



information concerning peers most like themselves in forming expectations about their ability. Comparisons with other children in school attainment coupled with teacher praise and criticism, influences children's estimates of the negative and positive aspects of their concepts of themselves as learners (Fahey & Phillips, 1981).

The social comparison process, as well as social learning theory, have both included modeling in their theoretical tradition. Modeling is an important source of one's level of self-efficacy. According to Bandura (1977, 1981, 1982), self-efficacy refers to judgements of one's performance capabilities in a given domain of activity. This is similar to one's self-concept of ability in school situations. In a study investigating peer models' influence on children's self-efficacy and achievement, Schunk and Hansen (1985) concluded that observing a peer model led to higher self-efficacy for learning and achievement, than did observing the teacher model or not observing a model.

Children's estimates of the negative and positive aspects of their concepts of themselves are influenced by comparisons with other children in school attainment. This is supported in a study by Fahey and Phillips (1981). Children are known to pay close attention to information about the way they compare to their peers and are distressed by failure (Ruble et al., 1976).

It is apparent that peers affect a student's self-esteem. Peer status is definitely a mediator in the relationship between self-esteem and achievement. Students gain a sense of industry if they are accepted and approved by their peers as well as by teachers. (Nadian, 1980).

### 2.3.2. Peer status and achievement

There have been a number of studies attesting to the relationship of peer influence and achievement. Ide et al. (1981) employed the technique of research synthesis and examined 110 correlations from ten prior studies on peer influence. The median correlation with peer influence in relation to the educational outcomes considered was .24, and all but 5 of the 110 correlations were positive. Very often the more active, dominant, and influential students in the classroom were the high achievers. Successful influence has been found to be related to having a higher I.Q., having higher social power, and being male (Zander & Van Egmond, 1958).

In a study examining the relationship between perceived and actual sociometric status and adjustment across four realms, academic, behavioral, psychological, and physical health, Putallaz et al. (1985) found that, for the first-, third-, and fifth-grade children studied, this relation appeared to be evident. Of the four adjustment domains studied, sociometric status appeared to most highly related to academic adjustment. It was also highly related to outcome variables at grade one dropping off with increasing age. These authors also found that children's perceived sociometric status and the accuracy of this perceived status were not relevant to the social status-adjustment relationship. Other authors concur with this as research has shown that the acceptance dimension of sociometric status is more closely related to achievement than is the attraction dimension (Glick, 1969; Keough, 1980; Stevens, 1971).

Coleman (1961), in his book The Adolescent Society mentions several studies that have acknowledged the influence of the peer group on school achievement. Similarly, in a study of third grade children, Green, Forehand, Beck, and Vosk (1980) found that high achievement scores correlated with peer acceptance and positive peer interaction in the classroom. Also, the more able student had a better chance of being accepted by peers than the average or below average student (Austin & Draper, 1984). Higher achievers are more often selected as

partners for work and play in the early grades (Levine, Snyder, & Mendez-Carattini, 1982). The peer group, and the status one, has with that group, therefore, appears to be one of the factors that influences school achievement.

### 2.3.3. Peer status and the teacher

Stipek and Tannatt (1984) found that self ability ratings of children in kindergarten through third grade, were significantly correlated to teacher ratings of relative academic standing, suggesting that the influence a teacher has on students' self-perception of ability and how other classmates perceive them is great. Similarly, Yellott et al. (1969), found that children rated as maladjusted by teachers were seen less favorably by classmates. This was also supported in a study by Glidewell and Swallow (1969) who found that peer sociometric ratings correlated reasonably with teacher ratings of adjustment.

That children learn by modeling has already been noted. Nadien (1980) points out that because teachers serve as role models, their behavior toward a given child is often a basis for other children's reactions toward that child. Also children may model themselves on behavior they see rewarded in others (Phillips, 1983).

### 2.3.4. Peer status and classroom interactions

Piaget (1965) suggested that a child's consciousness is clearly altered as a result of group interaction. Peer group interaction in the classroom may either stimulate or retard the positive attitudes of students toward an area of study (Morse & Handley, 1982). Research has shown that measures of peer interaction which emphasize qualitative aspects of interaction are related to sociometric indexes of peer acceptance (Hartup, Glazer, & Charlesworth, 1967; Gottlieb, Semmel, & Veldman, 1978). Low status children tend to exhibit less positive and less effective styles of social interaction than their higher status peers (Asher, Oden & Gottman, 1977).

Sociolinguists argue that the social context is the most powerful determinant of verbal behavior (Labov, 1970). Findings of a study by Morine-Dershimer (1982) emphasized the importance of classroom status with regard to both pupil participation in classroom discourse, and pupil perceptions of the meanings of classroom discourse. Further research based on that finding suggested that differences in instructional strategy and definition of classroom tasks could be associated with composition of groups high in communicative status i.e. "pupils who participate most, and pupils who are viewed by their classmates as pupils you can learn from" (Morine-Dershimer, 1983, p. 660). This suggests then, that depending upon what is happening in each classroom, students in early immersion classrooms who are most vocal will be viewed most favorably by their peers.

A study of nine classrooms, grades two through four, was carried out to determine the effects of classroom social status on the frequency of student interaction and the subsequent effects on the amount of learning in a specific curriculum. Results indicated that the greater the amount of interaction, the greater the amount of learning (Cohen & Anthony, 1982). Another important finding was that children with higher social status were more likely to be interacting with peers than children with low social status.

Middle childhood (six to ten years) is a critical period in the student's life for formulating a basis for healthy social development. The importance of the children's ability to interact on a social and an academic level has been elaborated on in the preceding paragraphs. These interactions are significant, both in the formation of the students' self-esteem and learning outcomes.

#### **2.4. The Affective Component of Second Language Learning**

There are few reported studies of the classroom processes of second language learning. The most outstanding Canadian example is that of Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco (1978), who studied high school students in French-as-a-second-language classes. This study produced findings consistent with the

findings of more general studies of classroom processes which have been conducted over the past two decades. Naiman et al. found that teachers praised good students more, and asked questions more of the poor students who didn't volunteer. There was evidence that negative attitudes about the poorer students were conveyed by the teachers to the students, that the poorer students expressed anxiety, and were less likely to volunteer. In general, classrooms with positive environments achieved more. Of great interest was the observation that the poor students preferred written grammatical work to oral work, pointing to the possibility that they experienced negative social reinforcement in their oral work. Children's L2 development is facilitated by a comfortable classroom atmosphere, that is, "one which encourages and celebrates efforts at communicating" (Enright & McCloskey, 1985, p. 436).

Studies investigating the high proportion of dropouts in the FSL classrooms, particularly in Canada in the 1970's, when the emphasis on the oral aspects of language learning were increasing, pointed to the anxiety levels of pupils, and other classroom factors as being of considerable importance in the decision of the student to drop French studies (Gardner & Smythe, 1975).

The evidence of the Naiman study is that process factors other than the actual learning strategies are important in second language learning in FSL classrooms. It may be hypothesized that this finding will apply to the early immersion classroom. The process factors in question deal with the nature of the relationship between student and teacher. They seem to have a great deal to do with the motivation of student and teacher, and the reinforcement of behavior, and thus may be directly related to the cognitive processes involved. According to Stern (1970), "language learning depends less on methods and techniques than on motivation" (p. 9). Gardner and Lambert (1972) also attested to the significant role of motivational variables for L2 learning, fostered through classroom interactions.

The early French immersion classroom is an environment which may

amplify the effect of the teacher/student relationship as the relationship is more complex in view of the restrictions which are imposed on the use of language. In addition, since language use is a much more immediate, ambiguous, and in some ways intrusive object of instruction, it may also become a more direct focus for the various reinforcements available both to the teacher and student. Observations of wide differences in achievement of students in classrooms may very well be a function difference in reinforcement patterns.

## 2.5. Summary

Although there are theoretical bases for expecting a positive relationship between self-esteem and achievement, some of the empirical evidence has not been entirely persuasive (Wattenberg & Clifford, 1964; Williams, 1973). Wylie's review (1979) did not reveal a clear and strong pattern of positive associations between self-esteem and academic achievement. Hansford and Hattie (1982), after completing a meta-analysis of over 100 studies, concluded that "given the diversity of the literature, it is possible to find some support for any viewpoint including the possibility that the true relationship between measures of self and performance/achievement is zero" (p. 127).

A reason for the inconsistent results may be the limitations of the conceptual approaches used and/or inadequate instrumentation. Perhaps, too, this is indicative of the vast complexity in the relations among affective, social, and cognitive processes. That further research is needed is evident as it appears that the etiology of underachievement is multivariant.

## Chapter 3

### Procedures

This chapter describes the sample, instrumentation, and data analysis that was utilized in this study. First, a general summary of the procedures is given, followed by a description of the sample. The characteristics of the self-esteem measure, peer status measure, the measures of teacher expectations and of French achievement are described in detail.

#### 3.1. General Overview

This study proposed that a relationship exists between the self-esteem and achievement of students in early immersion classes. Students in grade one, two, and three early French immersion classes were administered a measure of self-esteem, peer status, and French achievement. Information on teacher expectancy was collected from each of the teachers of the children involved in the study as well as teacher rankings of students' oral and reading French achievement. All tests and rankings were done in the period of the third week of April through the third week of May. This data was then prepared and analyzed using correlational and multiple regression analysis. This method disclosed the relative contribution of each of the independent variables to the outcomes on the dependent variable.

##### 3.1.1. Sampling

The sample was taken from all grade one, two, and three French immersion classrooms in Newfoundland, whose teachers volunteered to participate in the study. This yielded a total of 23 of a possible 29 classrooms - eleven grade one classrooms, six grade two classrooms, and six grade three classrooms. The sample

included 259 grade one children, 143 grade two children, and 122 grade three children.

### **3.1.2. Instrumentation**

Four instruments were used in this study. These were: the McDaniel-Piers Young Children's Self-Concept Scale (YCSCS) and the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale which were supervised by Research Assistants in English; the Child Behavior Traits Checklist (CBT) which was done by the classroom teacher; and the Tests Diagnostique de Lecture, Niveaux 1, 2 et 3 which was part of the normal French immersion evaluation with overall supervision by the school boards. This test was administered in French either by a teacher other than the classroom teacher, or by the French Language Coordinator. In addition, classroom teachers provided rankings of the performance of their students in oral French and French reading. The instructions required by each measure were followed by test administrators, and the usual safeguards for group administration of tests for this age group were followed. No difficulties were encountered.

#### **3.1.2.1. McDaniel-Piers Young Children's Self-Concept Scale (YCSCS).**

Fleming and Courtney (1984) state that: "one of the self-concept measures that seems to measure more of what we have called self-esteem is the Piers Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale" (p. 407). The McDaniel-Piers Young Children's Self-Concept Scale is a downward extension of this instrument (Piers, 1969). It is made up of 40 statements taken from the original instrument. Each of these statements are applicable to younger children. Answer sheets were given to the children. After the teacher read each statement aloud, the children circled the "yes" or "no" response. This instrument contains three subscales, Feeling Self, School Self, and Behaving Self.

As this instrument is comprised of statements from the Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale (1969), and because much more research has been done on that particular measure, a discussion of its reliability and validity is worthy of note.



That Piers-Harris is a highly reliable and generally valid measure for assessing children's self-esteem, has been indicated by comparative studies of self-esteem scales (Smith & Rogers, 1978; Shavelson et al., 1976; Wylie, 1974; Robinson & Shaver, 1973). Piers (1984) reported test-retest coefficients ranging from .71 to .81 for intervals of 2-5 months, and internal consistency coefficients ranging from .74 to .90. When comparing the Piers-Harris to other measures of self-concept, Piers (1984) reported coefficients ranging from .34 to .73, which indicates a moderate relationship. In a study of that instrument to determine scale reliability, Wendler (1984) found uniformly high KR-20 values ranging from .87 to .94 in various subsamples of males and females in primary and secondary school.

With the McDaniel-Piers Young Children's Self-Concept Scale, the total scale KR-20 reliabilities are satisfactory. McDaniel et al. (1973), in a study with grade two children, reported a KR-20 coefficient of .80 for the total score, .60 for the subscale scores. McDaniel, Ball, and Fortunato (1978), in another study with grade two children, reported coefficients of .83.

Criterion validity for the Piers-Harris was provided by Guiton and Zachery (1984) in a study where the self-concept of clinic samples was found to be significantly lower than nonclinic samples, when measured by the Piers-Harris. Some evidence has been found for scale validity in the form of parent ratings of child characteristics. This justifies the use of the total score as a global measure of the child's self-esteem.

McDaniel et al. (1978) also offers evidence of validity. When factoring the scores of a combined group of grades one and two children, three factors relating to body image, behavior, and adequacy and happiness were found. Ames and Lau (1978) noted differences between children with high self-concept scores and low self-concept scores. High self-concept children attributed success and failure to their own skill, whereas low self-concept children explained success in terms of good luck, and failure to lack of skill. Self-concept score was also found to be

related positively with parental concern for education, and negatively with conservative parental attitudes toward school (McDaniel et al. 1978).

From the results of their factor analysis, Wendler (1984), along with others, suggest caution in interpreting subscale scores (Platten & Williams, 1979). In conjunction with that, then, perhaps caution is also warranted for the interpretation of the subscales of the McDaniel-Piers Young Children's Self-Concept Scale. In particular, many of the statements contained within the subscale of School Self do not appear directly related to school, e.g., I have pretty eyes. This may therefore affect interpretations based on school related aspects of the child's life.

### 3.1.2.2: The Ohio Social Acceptance Scale:

This scale assesses children's social relations with their peers within the classroom setting. It may be used to identify a social distance for each student within the group and/or permit a student to accurately assess his own level of social acceptance by peers.

The scale used in this study was modified somewhat from the original. The modified scale is comprised of a 4-point rating scale, which correspond to varying degrees of social distance. The descriptors are: 1. My very, very best friend; 2. My other friends; 3. Not friends, but okay; and 4. Don't know them. No negative descriptors were included. Each child was given a class list and assigned a rating between 1 and 4 to every other class member. Mean levels of acceptance for each pupil could then be calculated.

A study by Potent (1983) indicated that peer ratings provide an internally consistent and stable measure of sociometric status. 144 children in seven fourth- and fifth-grade classes were administered a peer-rating test using a 5-point Likert-type scale. Ratings of peers by children of the opposite sex, same, or from both genders, obtained stability coefficients ranging from .79 to .82.

A number of studies have compared peer ratings with peer nominations. Foster and Ritchey (1979) have discussed the advantages of peer ratings when compared to the peer nomination procedure. When assessing the more general intergroup acceptance, Schofield and Whiteley (1982) also favored the roster-and-rating methods, but concluded that peer nomination should be used to assess close friendships. Evidence that peer ratings are more sensitive indexes of peer status than peer nomination has been reported by other studies (Green et al, 1980; Hallinan, 1981). In addition, because a median score reflecting peer sociometric status may be calculated from the peer rating scales, another advantage as noted by Nunnally (1978), is that it may be tested as interval data for use in multivariate analysis.

There is a dearth of recent research attesting to the reliability and validity of the actual measure itself. Lober (1973) cites early studies by Roths (1947) concerning the test's reliability and validity. A study by Keough (1980) showed relationships between the sociometric measures produced by this scale, and classroom observations of social reinforcement of students by the teacher.

### 3.1.2.3. The Child Behavior Traits Checklist (CBT).

The Child Behavior Traits Checklist was used to obtain a measure of teacher expectancy. This checklist was developed by Levenstein (Johnson, 1976) for research purposes. It consists of a 5-point Likert-type scale, based on 20 items yielding five subscales and a total score. The five subscales on the CBT are: Responsible-Independence, which describes a student who seeks help when necessary, protects own rights, is self confident, and refrains from unnecessary physical risks; Social Cooperation, which describes a student who is not physically aggressive, is cooperative, follows rules, and can put own needs second to those of others; Cognitively Related Skills, describes a student who is well organized, expressive, and creative; Emotional Stability, a student who is cheerful, spontaneous, and tolerant; and Task Orientation, a student who initiates goal directed activities, completes work, enjoys new tasks, and is attentive. The

ratings were made by a teacher for each child in the classroom. Johnson (1976) reported a coefficient alpha of .95 for the total score, and cited studies indicating a significant correlation between CBT ratings and teachers' perceived school problems. A correlation of .43 was calculated between CBT total scores and I.Q.. A study by Ryan (1981) showed relationships between residual gains on the CBT and classroom observation of social reinforcement in the classrooms.

#### 3.1.2.4. The Tests Diagnostique de Lecture, Niveaux 1, 2 et 3.

The Tests Diagnostique de Lecture, Niveaux 1, 2 et 3, were used to measure the achievement of the pupil in French reading. These tests have been prepared by Marguerite Tourond, specifically designed for primary early French immersion classes in which instruction time has been: grade one, 80-100%, grade two, 70-80%, and grade three, 50-80%. For level 1, there are three parts to the test: word recognition, word meaning, and sentence and short story comprehension. Level 2 has four parts to the test: word blending and grapheme discrimination, word meaning, sentence completion, and story comprehension. Level three has two parts, sentence comprehension and story comprehension. These tests have been used in the evaluation of the immersion programs in Newfoundland for several years.

The content validity of this test must be assessed by the test user, as it depends on how specific objectives of each test item coincides with the user's instructional objectives. Evidence was found for concurrent validity as the scores from the Tests Diagnostique de Lecture correlated with the Test de Lecture. French Reading Comprehension Tests (Barik & Swain) and with teacher rankings of these students in silent reading comprehension. Evidence of predictive validity is not available as these tests are relatively new. The KR20 coefficients, ranging from .71 to .87, given in the manual for each section of the Tests Diagnostique de Lecture attest to the reliability of this measure.

### 3.1.2.5. Teacher rating of French achievement.

Teachers were asked to rate achievement in French and communication by ranking each member of the class with respect to achievement in oral French, and again with respect to achievement in French reading. (See Appendix C) In order that comparisons could be made of children across classrooms, the rankings within each classroom were standardized.

### 3.2. Statistical Treatment of the Data

Multiple regression analysis was used in this study. This is a method for studying the effects, and the magnitudes of the effects of more than one independent variable on one dependent variable, using principles of correlation and regression. Correlation coefficients were calculated for each of the independent variables in relation to the dependent variable - French achievement. From these calculations the relative contribution of each independent variable was determined. Their collective contribution on French achievement was also assessed. This method of analysis furnished tests of statistical significance of combined influences of the independent variables on the dependent variable and of the separate influence of each independent variable.

## Chapter 4

### Data Analysis

This chapter is a presentation of the analysis of the data collected, as it pertains to each hypothesis. First, descriptive statistics for each of the measures used in this study are discussed, along with an overview of significant and meaningful intercorrelations among both cognitive, social and affective measures. Second, an examination of the results of the multiple regression analysis procedure used for this research is presented.

#### 4.1. The Relationship of Self-Esteem and French Achievement

The first hypothesis stated that there would be a positive correlation between self-esteem and French achievement in early immersion classes. Table 1 shows the means and standard deviations found for each grade on the McDaniel-Piers Young Children's Self-Concept Scale.

This table shows no significant differences in the mean total self-esteem from grade one to grade three. However, there is a significant difference on the subtest of School Self. This is consistent with the literature which states that there are developmental differences in the way children process and integrate information relevant to their self-concept of ability (Blumenfeld, Pintrich, Meece, & Wessels, 1982). There were no significant differences between the grades on the other subtests. (For the means and standard deviations for French achievement in reading for grade one, two, and three, see Appendix B.)

Tables 2, 3, and 4 show the correlations between the standardized French

**Table 4-1: Means and Standard Deviations for Self-Concept,  
Child Behavior Traits, Social Acceptance**

Measure	Statistic	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3
Feeling Self	Mean	11.5403	11.5870	11.7966
	SD	3.1311	3.8298	3.2280
	N	248	138	118
School Self	Mean	10.6008	9.6014	9.0593
	SD	2.4573	3.0364	3.1277
	N	248	138	118
Behaving Self	Mean	7.8629	7.9710	8.0508
	SD	2.0074	2.0180	1.9164
	N	248	138	118
Total Self	Mean	30.0040	29.1594	28.9068
	SD	6.0688	6.7318	6.2675
	N	248	138	118
CBT Independence	Mean	14.8696	14.9632	16.2295
	SD	2.9430	2.8530	2.8220
	N	253	136	122
CBT Social	Mean	16.0830	15.4412	16.8279
	SD	3.3907	3.2564	3.1953
	N	253	136	122
CBT Cognitive	Mean	13.9209	14.6471	14.4672
	SD	3.5166	3.4652	3.3258
	N	253	136	122
CBT Emotional	Mean	15.3281	15.5294	16.7213
	SD	3.2156	2.9238	2.9633
	N	253	136	122
CBT Task Orientation	Mean	14.4743	14.8676	15.7459
	SD	3.7337	3.5586	3.5175
	N	253	136	122
OBT Total	Mean	74.6759	75.4485	80.9918
	SD	14.3940	14.0448	13.9672
	N	253	136	122

Table 4-1, continued

Measure	Statistic	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3
Social Perception of Classmates	Mean	2.4738	2.7077	2.7043
	SD	.6793	.6380	.5644
	N	248	137	118
Social Acceptance by Classmates	Mean	2.4713	2.7093	2.7085
	SD	.4291	.4874	.4302
	N	258	142	121

Differences in means significant at the .05 level of confidence

achievement subtests and self-esteem scores. The majority of the significant correlations ( $p < .05$ ) occurred in grade one, as Word Recognition and Word Meaning correlated significantly with each subscale and total self-esteem. In grade two, Word Blending and Grapheme Discrimination was correlated significantly with each aspect of Self, while Sentence Completion and Story Comprehension were correlated significantly with Feeling Self. No significant correlations between any aspect of self and standardized French achievement were found for grade three.

Table 5 shows the correlations between self-concept subscale scores and self-concept total for each grade, and the standardized teacher ratings of oral and reading French achievement. In interpreting correlations between these variables, as well as those between teacher ratings and CBT scores, it is important to note that negative correlations were expected as the highest ranking given by the teacher for best performance in class was 1. The students were then ranked 2, 3, etc., in relation to decreasing order of performance.

In grade one there was a significant negative correlation between each aspect of self and the teacher ratings of French achievement. For grade two, a



**Table 4-2: Intercorrelations of Scores on the Children's Self-Concept Scale and French Achievement Subtests for Grade One**

	Feeling Self	School Self	Behaving Self	Total
Reading 1 <sup>a</sup> (n=244)	.1617*	.1612*	.1600*	.2009*
Reading 2 <sup>b</sup> (n=242)	.1630*	.1456*	.1703*	.1084*
Reading 3 <sup>c</sup> (n=242)	.0691	.0925	.0996	.1056

\* Significant at the .05 level

a Reading 1 - Word Recognition

b Reading 2 - Word Meaning

c Reading 3 - Sentence and Short Story Comprehension

significant negative correlation was found between Feeling Self and the two achievement ratings, and between Total Self and the teacher rating of reading achievement. In grade three, there was a significant negative correlation between Behaving Self and the two teacher ratings of French achievement.

#### **4.2. The Relationship of Peer Status and French Achievement**

Hypothesis two stated that there would be a positive correlation between student peer status and second language achievement. Table 1 shows the means and standard deviations of each grade on the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale. Lower scores on this scale indicate higher levels of acceptance. The highest score

**Table 4-3: Intercorrelations of Scores on the Children's Self-Concept Scale and French Achievement Subtests For Grade Two**

	Feeling Self	School Self	Behaving Self	Total
Reading 1 <sup>a</sup> (n=136)	.1770*	.2063*	.2034*	.2546*
Reading 2 <sup>b</sup> (n=137)	.1061	.0255	.0453	.0854
Reading 3 <sup>c</sup> (n=137)	.1497*	.0684	-.0249	.1081
Reading 4 <sup>d</sup> (n=137)	.2015*	.0426	.0496	.1484

\* Significant at the .05 level

a Reading 1 - Word Blending and Grapheme Discrimination

b Reading 2 - Word Meaning

c Reading 3 - Sentence Completion

d Reading 4 - Story Comprehension

for all students on both social acceptance and social perception was achieved for each by grade one students. Grade two showed the lowest score on social acceptance by classmates and social perception of classmates.

Tables 6, 7, and 8 show the correlations found between the French achievement subtests and the scores obtained on the Ohio Social Acceptance

**Table 4-4: Intercorrelations of Scores on the Children's Self-Concept Scale and French Achievement Subtests for Grade Three**

	Feeling Self	School Self	Behaving Self	Total
Reading 1 <sup>a</sup> (n=117)	.0700	.0354	.1482	.0088
Reading 2 <sup>b</sup> (n=117)	.0713	.0425	.1407	.1007

a Reading 1 - Sentence Comprehension

b Reading 2 - Story Comprehension

Scale. In interpreting these correlations, the reader must bear in mind that the peer perception and acceptance scales were ordered opposite to the French Reading achievement scales, so that negative correlations were expected.

No significant correlations were found for grade one. For grade two, Word Blending and Grapheme Discrimination was correlated positively with the Social Perception of Classmates. This was of special interest because it indicated that better scores on this subtest in grade two was related to a perception of greater distance than typical between the self and classmates. The grade three results showed Sentence Comprehension negatively correlated with the Social Acceptance of Classmates.

Table 9 shows the correlations between the scores of the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale and the standardized teacher ratings of oral and reading French achievement. For grade one, each subscale of the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale correlated positively with both teacher ratings. Again, in grade two, both

**Table 4-5: Intercorrelations of Scores on Children's Self-Concept Scale and Standardized Teacher Ratings of Oral and Reading Achievement**

	Oral Rating	Reading Rating
Grade One (n=245)		
Feeling Self	-.1797*	-.1537*
School Self	-.1564*	-.1215*
Behaving Self	-.1575*	-.1761*
Total	-.2076*	-.1861*
Grade Two (n=137)		
Feeling Self	-.1580*	-.2264*
School Self	-.0551	-.1325
Behaving Self	-.0898	-.0205
Total	-.1417	-.1943*
Grade Three (n=118)		
Feeling Self	-.0473	-.1079
School Self	.0050	-.0255
Behaving Self	-.1611*	-.1488*
Total	-.0711	-.1138

\* Significant at the .05 level

subscale scores correlated positively with the ratings, with the exception of Social Perception of Classmates and the Reading Rating. In grade three, the Social

**Table 4-6: Intercorrelations of Scores on the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale and the French Achievement Subtests for Grade One**

	Social Perception of Classmates	Social Acceptance of Classmates
Reading 1 <sup>a</sup> (n=245)	-.0744	-.0921
Reading 2 <sup>b</sup> (n=243)	-.1223	-.0732
Reading 3 <sup>c</sup> (n=243)	-.0460	.0215

a. Reading 1 - Word Recognition

b. Reading 2 - Word Meaning

c. Reading 3 - Sentence and Short Story Comprehension

Acceptance by Classmates correlated positively with both teacher ratings, while the Social Perception of Classmates showed no significant correlation with either of the ratings.

#### 4.3. The Relationship of Peer Status and Self-Esteem

Hypothesis three stated that there would be a positive correlation between students' peer status and their self-esteem. Table 10 shows the correlations between the self-esteem scores and those obtained on the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale. As shown, no significant correlation was found for any of the grades.

**Table 4-7: Intercorrelations of Scores on the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale and The French Achievement Subtests for Grade Two**

	Social Perception of Classmates	Social Acceptance of Classmates
Reading 1 <sup>a</sup> (n=136)	.2774*	.0958
Reading 2 <sup>b</sup> (n=137)	.0155	-.0440
Reading 3 <sup>c</sup> (n=137)	.0634	-.0787
Reading 4 <sup>d</sup> (n=137)	.0789	-.0513

\* Significant at the .05 level

a Reading 1 - Word Blending and Grapheme Discrimination

b Reading 2 - Word Meaning

c Reading 3 - Sentence Completion

d Reading 4 - Story Comprehension

#### **4.4. The Relationship of Teacher Expectancies and French Achievement**

Hypothesis four stated that teacher expectancies would be positively correlated to second language achievement. Table 1 shows the means and standard deviations obtained for the five subscale scores of the Child Behavior

**Table 4-8: Intercorrelations of Scores on the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale and the French Achievement Subtests for Grade Three**

	Social Perception of Classmates	Social Acceptance of Classmates
Reading 1 <sup>a</sup> (n=117)	-.1304	-.2274*
Reading 2 <sup>b</sup> (n=117)	.0384	-.0455

\* Significant at the .05 level

a Reading 1 - Sentence Comprehension

b Reading 2 - Story Comprehension

Traits Checklist. Teachers in grade three were consistent in rating their students significantly higher on all the subscales than did teachers in grade one and two. Grade two obtained the lowest scores on Social, whereas grade one scored lowest on the remaining four subscales.

Tables 11, 12, and 13 show the correlations between the five subscale scores of the Child Behavior Traits Checklist and the subtests of the standardized French achievement in reading in grades one, two, and three.

As shown by these tables, most of the highest correlations were in grade one. Each French reading achievement subtest in that grade showed a positive correlation with each of the five subscale scores of the CBT. In grade two, Word Meaning, Sentence Completion, and Story Comprehension correlated positively with each of the CBT subscales, while Word Blending and Grapheme Discrimination only correlated with Task Orientation. In grade three, each French reading subtest correlated positively with each of the CBT scores.

**Table 4-9: Intercorrelations of Scores on the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale and the Standardized Teacher Ratings of Oral and Reading Achievement**

	Oral Rating	Reading Rating
Grade One		
Social Perception of Classmates (n=246)	.1625*	.1317*
Social Acceptance by Classmates (n=254)	.1409*	.1499*
Grade Two		
Social Perception of Classmates (n=137)	.1973*	.0887
Social Acceptance by Classmates (n=139)	.2089*	.2292*
Grade Three		
Social Perception of Classmates (n=118)	.1154	.0232
Social Acceptance by Classmates (n=121)	.2027*	.1915*

\* Significant at the .05 level

As shown in Table 14, each of the subscale scores were correlated negatively with both teacher ratings in each of the three grades, the only exception being between the Oral Rating and Social subtest in grade two.



**Table 4-10:** Intercorrelations of Scores on Children's Self-Concept Scale and Ohio Social Acceptance Scale

	Social Perception of Classmates	Social Acceptance by Classmates
Grade One		
	(n=243)	(n=247)
Feeling Self	-.0421	-.0603
School Self	-.0324	-.0393
Behaving Self	-.0239	-.0057
Total	-.0427	-.0171
Grade Two		
	(n=137)	(n=138)
Feeling Self	.1130	-.0843
School Self	.0858	-.0765
Behaving Self	.1624	-.0418
Total	.1521	-.0950
Grade Three		
	(n=118)	(n=117)
Feeling Self	-.0116	-.1028
School Self	.1616	.0341
Behaving Self	-.0054	-.1217
Total	+.0880	-.0729

**Table 4-11: Intercorrelations of Scores on the Child Behavior Traits Checklist and the French Achievement Subtests for Grade One**

	Task					
	Independence	Social	Cognitive	Emotional	Orientation	Total
Reading 1 <sup>a</sup> (n=249)	.4055*	.2733*	.4243*	.2949*	.4506*	.4330*
Reading 2 <sup>b</sup> (n=247)	.4551*	.2822*	.4486*	.3602*	.4611*	.4693*
Reading 3 <sup>c</sup> (n=247)	.3608*	.2225*	.4161*	.2954*	.4160*	.4011*

\* Significant at .05 level

a Reading 1 - Word Recognition

b Reading 2 - Word Meaning

c Reading 3 - Sentence and Short Story Comprehension

#### 4.5. The Relationship of Teacher Expectancies and Self-Esteem

Hypothesis five stated that teacher expectancies would be positively correlated with student self-esteem. Table 15 shows the correlations between scores obtained on the Children's Self-Concept Scale and those on the Child Behavior Traits Checklist. In grade one, Feeling Self was significantly correlated to each CBT subscale score except Emotional. No significant correlation was found for School or Behaving Self with any CBT score. The Total Self score correlated significantly with the CBT Cognitive score.

The grade two results showed Feeling Self correlated significantly with Task

**Table 4-12:** Intercorrelations of Scores on the Child Behavior Traits Checklist and the French Achievement Subtests for Grade Two

	Independence	Social	Cognitive	Emotional	Task Orientation	Total
Reading 1 <sup>a</sup> (n=134)	.0882	.0245	.0828	.0333	.2211	.1112
Reading 2 <sup>b</sup> (n=135)	.4004	.1458	.4841	.1713	.5121	.4146
Reading 3 <sup>c</sup> (n=135)	.3601	.1780	.4621	.2091	.5156	.4171
Reading 4 <sup>d</sup> (n=135)	.3557	.1459	.4417	.2109	.4998	.3994

\* Significant at the .05 level

a Reading 1 - Word Blending and Grapheme Discrimination

b Reading 2 - Word Meaning

c Reading 3 - Sentence Completion

d Reading 4 - Story Comprehension

Orientation. Both School Self and the Total Self correlated significantly with CBT Social, Emotional, Task Orientation, and Total score.

For grade three, Feeling--Self correlated significantly with CBT Independence, Cognitive, and Total scores. No significant correlation was found between School Self and any of the CBT scores. However, significant correlations were found between Behaving Self and all of the CBT subscale scores. Total Self and Independence were also significantly correlated.

**Table 4-13: Interrelations of Scores on the Child Behavior Traits Checklist and the French Achievement Subtests for Grade Three**

	Independence	Social	Cognitive	Emotional	Task Orientation	Total
Reading 1 <sup>a</sup> (n=121)	.3171*	.2860*	.3760*	.3208*	.3737*	.3816*
Reading 2 <sup>b</sup> (n=121)	.2036*	.1632*	.2244*	.1559*	.3459*	.2524*

\* Significant at the .05 level.

a Reading 1 - Sentence Comprehension

b Reading 2 - Story Comprehension

#### 4.6. Multiple Regression Analysis

The multiple regression analysis was conducted for each grade. Each subscale of the French Achievement Test and the Standardized Teacher Ratings served in turn as a dependent variable. The Self-Concept subscales, Child Behavior Ratings, and Sociometric Ratings were the independent variables in each analysis. The results are shown in Tables 16, 17, and 18, for grade one, two, and three respectively.

Examination of the outcome for grade one shows that CBT Task Orientation accounted for the largest proportion of variance of each dependent variable, with the exception of the Oral Rating. For that variable, CBT Cognitive had the largest standardized regression weight (-.488248) significant at the .05 level. The other variables which were significantly associated with a dependent variable included: School Self, with Word Recognition, CBT

**Table 4-14: Intercorrelations of the Scores on the Child Behavior Traits Checklist and the Standardized Teacher Ratings of French Achievement**

	Task					
	Independence	Social	Cognitive	Emotional	Orientation	Total
Grade One (n=250)						
Oral Rating	-.5315*	-.2295*	-.6539*	-.3709*	-.5589*	-.5496*
Reading Rating	-.5023*	-.3128*	-.6083*	-.3814*	-.6311*	-.5731*
Grade Two (n=135)						
Oral Rating	-.5428*	-.1306	-.5891*	-.2152*	-.4855*	-.4693*
Reading Rating	-.5552*	-.2855*	-.6568*	-.3642*	-.6501*	-.6014*
Grade Three (n=122)						
Oral Rating	-.3745*	-.2718*	-.5288*	-.2526*	-.4912*	-.4412*
Reading Rating	-.3700*	-.3097*	-.5092*	-.2999*	-.5008*	-.4566*

\* Significant at the .05 level

Independence with Word Meaning, Social Acceptance by Classmates with Sentence and Short Story Comprehension, and CBT Cognitive with the Reading Rating. The set of independent variables as shown in Table 16 accounted for 28 percent of the variance in Word Recognition, 28 percent in Word Meaning, 24 percent in Sentence and Short Story Comprehension, 47 percent in the Oral Rating by teachers, and 46 percent in the Reading Rating by teachers.

**Table 4-15:** Intercorrelations of Scores on the Children's Self-Concept Scale and the Child Behavior Traits Checklist

	Independence	Social	Cognitive	Emotional	Task Orientation	Total
Grade One (n=245)						
Feeling Self	.1505*	.1455*	.1690*	.1022	.1624*	.1712*
School Self	.0130	-.0417	.0672	-.0686	-.0406	-.0163
Behaving Self	.0876	.1058	.1023	.0538	.0908	.1033
Total	.1119	.0933	.1482	.0428	.0975	.1160
Grade Two (n=134)						
Feeling Self	.0721	.1085	.1291	.1451	.2342*	.1614
School Self	.1266	.2040	.0568	.2243	.2176	.1887
Behaving Self	-.0107	.0696	-.0596	.0856	.1687	.0597
Total	.0944	.1739	.0804	.2085*	.2808*	.1939
Grade Three (n=118)						
Feeling Self	.2485	.0889	.2284*	.1492	.1678	.1986
School Self	-.0024	-.1041	-.0738	-.1075	-.0295	-.0721
Behaving Self	.2769	.3066	.1879	.2512	.3472*	.3114
Total	.2115	.0876	.1382	.1000	.1779	.1616

\* Significant at the .05 level

An examination of the standardized regression weights for grade two showed that, as for grade one, CBT Task Orientation again contributed the most to the prediction of each of the dependent variables with the exception of the Oral Rating. For that variable, CBT Independence made the largest contribution. The other variables which were significantly associated with a dependent variable

**Table 4-16: Regression of the French Achievement Scores and Standardized Teacher Ratings on the Self-Concept, Child Behavior Ratings, and Sociometric Ratings for Grade One**

Independent Variables	Standardized Regression Weights				
	Reading 1 <sup>a</sup>	Reading 2 <sup>b</sup>	Reading 3 <sup>c</sup>	Oral Rating	Reading Rating
Feeling Self	-.004684	-.001532	-.067269	-.013556	.045030
School Self	.140443	.110793	.087284	-.094683	-.090872
Behaving Self	.043471	.069528	.044886	-.047034	-.090131
CBT Independence	.200060	.219114	.083950	-.095350	.071264
CBT Social	.111259	.005958	.020093	.136222	-.015085
CBT Cognitive	.052369	.089986	.192036	-.488248	-.210951
CBT Emotional	-.206059	-.00058	-.022430	-.044234	.175467
CBT Task Orientation	.374080	.253358	.277043	-.151581	-.548979
Social Perception of Classmates	.010017	-.049269	-.0006	.072749	.029166
Social Acceptance by Classmates	.081358	.118443	.194037	-.073050	-.076202
Multiple R	.51199	.53242	.48518	.68265	.67890
R Square	.26214	.28347	.23540	.46601	.46090

\* Significant at the .05 level

a Reading 1 - Word Recognition

b Reading 2 - Word Meaning

c Reading 3 - Sentence and Short Story Comprehension

included: Social Perception of Classmates with Word Blending and Grapheme Discrimination, CBT Emotional with Word Meaning, Behaving Self with Sentence Completion, CBT Social with Story Comprehension, and CBT Emotional and

**Table 4-17:** Regression of the French Achievement Scores and Standardized Teacher Ratings on the Self-Concept, Child Behavior Ratings, and Sociometric Ratings for Grade Two

Independent Variables	Standardized Regression Weights					Reading Rating
	Reading 1 <sup>a</sup>	Reading 2 <sup>b</sup>	Reading 3 <sup>c</sup>	Reading 4 <sup>d</sup>	Oral Rating	
Feeling Self	.020621	-.00097	.043860	.105798	-.082964	-.097734
School Self	.124205	-.041064	-.004606	-.071299	.015503	-.028781
Behaving Self	.048602	-.037708	-.163715	-.088273	-.087285	.087149
CBT Independence	.147147	.158010	-.029193	.047373	-.490596	-.058437
CBT Social	-.258568	-.218938	-.236387	-.339286	.208944	.206637
CBT Cognitive	-.213745	.068301	.083576	-.032480	-.196041	-.280508
CBT Emotional	-.163316	-.345890	-.220671	-.112856	.317932	.138430
CBT Task Orientation	.588226	.822183	.858930	.816200	-.313162	-.634439
Social Perception of						
Classmates	.247198	.069027	.139139	.136199	-.084557	-.032019
Social Acceptance by						
Classmates	.060474	.129726	.056031	.092783	-.050707	-.035536
Multiple R	.47653	.64709	.63042	.62106	.68138	.72999
R Square	.22708	.41873	.39744	.38572	.46427	.53289

\* Significant at the .05 level

a. Reading 1 - Word Blending and Grapheme Discrimination

b. Reading 2 - Word Meaning

c. Reading 3 - Sentence Completion

d. Reading 4 - Story Comprehension

CBT Task Orientation with the Oral Rating. As shown in Table 17, this set of independent variables accounted for 23 percent of the variance of Word Blending



**Table 4-18:** Regression of the French Achievement Scores and Standardized Teacher Ratings on the Self-Concept, Child Behavior Ratings and Sociometric Ratings for Grade Three

Independent Variables	Standardized Regression Weights			
	Reading 1 <sup>a</sup>	Reading 2 <sup>b</sup>	Oral Rating	Reading Rating
Feeling Self	-.068126	-.020490	.111356	.029766
School Self	.079081	.063029	-.050560	-.093972
Behaving Self	.058511	.014797	-.044863	.024028
CBT Independence	.145455	-.047387	.106426	.191760
CBT Social	-.109057	-.057863	-.082135	-.089387
CBT Cognitive	.275979	.105252	.559712	-.524970
CBT Emotional	.181874	-.183062	.407025	.272697
CBT Task Orientation	.207739	.533453	-.461644	-.481403
Social Perception of Classmates	-.027134	.127410	-.042414	-.133180
Social Acceptance of Classmates	-.037981	.053486	-.041995	-.047551
Multiple R	.42714	.40779	.82523	.60564
R Square	.18245	.16629	.39091	.36680

\* Significant at the .05 level

a Reading 1 - Sentence Comprehension

b Reading 2 - Story Comprehension

and Grapheme Discrimination, 42 percent of Word Meaning, 40 percent of Sentence Completion, 39 percent of Story Comprehension, 46 percent of the Oral Rating, and 53 percent of the Reading Rating.

The grade three results showed that CBT Task Orientation accounted for the largest proportion of variance of Story Comprehension (.533453). CBT Cognitive accounted for most of the variance of the Oral Rating. Also showing a significant association with that variable was CBT Task Orientation and CBT Emotional. Both CBT Cognitive and CBT Task Orientation were also shown to have a significant association with the Reading Rating. No significant association was found for Sentence Comprehension, however CBT Cognitive accounted for the largest proportion of variance. As shown these independent variables accounted for 18 percent of the variance in Sentence Comprehension, 17 percent in Story Comprehension, 39 percent in the Oral Rating, and 37 percent in the Reading Rating.

In summary, teacher expectancies in the area of task orientation and cognitive abilities accounted for most of the variation in the dependent variables that were examined. It was of great interest to observe, however, that much more of the variance in the teacher ratings of French achievement could be accounted for than could be explained in the standardized tests of French achievement.

## Chapter 5

### Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter discusses the conclusions which were drawn as a result of the data analysis, and presents recommendations for further research.

#### 5.1. Conclusions

##### 5.1.1. Self-esteem and French achievement

As shown in Table 5, the relationship between self-esteem and French achievement based on the teacher ratings was stronger in grade one than in grade two or three. In grade one, each component of self showed a significant correlation with each teacher rating. The self-concept of the grade one students was perhaps less differentiated than was that of the older students. As the students develop, both intellectually and through personal experiences, they may have a greater understanding of the outside world (the classroom environment), and of themselves (Hamachek, 1985). In particular, they may relate the reinforcement received from the teacher more specifically to themselves as pupils, and the actual behaviors that relate to their role as students.

In grade two, Feeling Self was the only subscale score that was predictive of both teacher ratings of French achievement, whereas in grade three it was Behaving Self. The grade three students are older than their counterparts in grades one and two, and their self has become more differentiated.

As with the teacher ratings, the relationship between self-esteem and the

French achievement subtests was stronger in grade one than for the other two grades. An interesting finding, as shown in Table 2, was that although each of the components of self was significantly correlated to the first two subtests, subtest three, that of Sentence and Short Story Comprehension, showed no significant correlations in grade one. Again in grade two, story comprehension showed a significant correlation with only one aspect of self. For grade three, the two similar subtests of French achievement, sentence comprehension and story comprehension, showed no significant correlation with either aspect of self.

It can be assumed that students behave the way they see themselves having to behave, based on the reinforcement received for that behavior. Teacher ratings of achievement will be based on task oriented behavior, rather than actual achievement. The teachers are reinforcing the acquisition of French when they are reinforcing task behavior. This indicates a strong association between the way students act in class and the way they achieve. Correlations between self-esteem and achievement would suggest that the behaviors students are learning are associated with self-esteem. The relationships observed with teacher ratings of behavior suggest that the learned behavior being reinforced is strongly task oriented. This behavior feeds back to drive the achievement of the students. In all three grades the significant correlations are found between various aspects of self and two kinds of achievement in French. The first kind of French achievement is oral production, as suggested by teacher ratings of oral French, and standardized reading subscales such as Word Blending and Grapheme Discrimination, which can also be associated with oral proficiency.

The second kind of French achievement could be termed "context comprehension". In early immersion grades, the issue of getting along in the classroom is associated with extracting some kind of meaning about what is happening. The way students get along is perhaps by interpreting the context, assessing both their teacher and their peers' behavior, both verbal and especially nonverbal, and associating the behavioral context with the language used by the

teacher. The whole issue of language comprehension may involve getting the meaning of words by associating them with the context, while being reinforced by the teacher primarily for behaving as required in the current context, rather than for the use of language. It is possible that language learning is through associative, rather than instrumental processes. Especially in kindergarten and grade one, the student behavior reinforced by the teacher will be heavily loaded toward activity, rather than language, as this is the only way that the teacher has to assess the comprehension of the student. This reinforcement, in turn, develops student self-esteem. It is possible that, in the initial immersion grades, teachers and students build up a dependence on behavioral contexts.

Story comprehension is much more defined. The student must understand the whole meaning of the text. In this particular context, the important student behavior is language rather than action oriented. In grade three, the standardized reading and teacher reading ratings do not correlate with most aspects of self-esteem, one exception being with Behaving Self. The nature of the reading task changes by grade three to one which is highly dependent on student language production to provide feedback to the teacher. Perhaps the teacher, then, is reinforcing students' behavior, rather than language. It is possible that in grade three the teacher continues to interpret student comprehension through behavior rather than language. This would explain the correlations that were found between the various aspects of French achievement and self-esteem. It also suggests that the nature of the French acquired by the students will be weighted toward comprehension, rather than production. This, in fact, has been found by other researchers to be the case (Harley, 1985). This raises very interesting questions about the way that teachers define oral proficiency, and the role that nonverbal behavior plays in that definition.

### 5.1.2. Self-esteem and teacher expectancies

As shown in Table 15, for the grade one students, Feeling Self was predictive of most of the CBT ratings. The responses of these young students were basically emotional. They haven't yet learned to differentiate the purpose for which they receive the reinforcement from their teacher. This is their first year in school for a full day, and perhaps they are unsure how to distinguish the role of this new significant other from the roles of their parents.

This changes for grade two, as School Self and Total Self each predict the same four aspects of the CBT ratings. These findings suggest that the student response to the teacher has become somewhat more differentiated in terms of the school related ability assessment of the student.

For grade three, Behaving Self correlated significantly with each aspect of the CBT rating. Student behavior is the basis for feedback from the teacher, and the older students have learned that how they behave affects the way teachers interact with them. These learned behaviors affect the students' self-esteem, which subsequently affects future interactions, and the formation of teacher expectancies. In this interpretation, the students respond very specifically, as opposed to the more generalized response of the earlier grades.

### 5.1.3. Self-esteem, peer status and achievement

No significant correlations were found between self-esteem and peer status for any of the grades. Research has indicated that the effect of peer status on self-esteem is greater for an eight year old than for a six or seven year old (Ruble et al, 1976). One would have expected, then, that significant correlations would have been found for grade three. Several suggestions can be made to explain this. The first is that the measure of self-concept may not have captured the nature of the self that reflects peer status. Presently, there isn't enough information available to assess this possibility. Another explanation is that the teacher is much more in control of reinforcement in the French immersion classroom, than is

the case in the regular English classroom. Yet another possibility is that classmates in this particular French immersion situation might not also be the truly influential peer group for the students of the study. Further, peer interaction outside of the classroom is almost invariably in English (based on informed parent and teacher reports). This would tend to disassociate peer influence from language. The results of this study suggest that it is behavior rather than language which is being reinforced. Perhaps student nominations of their peers are influenced by peer behaviors which are correlated to the approval of their teachers.

The results shown on Table 20, as found also in other research (Glick, 1969; Keough, 1981; Stevens, 1971), indicate that the acceptance dimension of sociometric status was more closely related to achievement than was the attraction dimension. Results also showed a gradual drop from grade one to grade three in the predictability of the social perception (attraction) dimension of social status of classmates on teacher ratings of French achievement. This was also posited by White and Shipman (1985) who found that sociometric status was highly related to academic adjustment at grade one but dropped off with increasing age. The results of this study suggest that it is perhaps the attraction dimension of sociometric status that drops with increasing age, not the acceptance dimension. A reason for this drop is that perhaps social perception is another aspect of self-esteem, in that it is formulated from feedback from one's peers. Perhaps, too, the kinds of things for which students receive peer reinforcement change as the student gets older, especially as role in the class differentiates and the teacher becomes a less important reinforcer.

Teachers are known to mediate children's reputation among peers, and to influence their peer status. Peers are known to judge students on the way the teacher judges students (Nadien, 1980; Phillips, 1983). In the earlier grades, the students may be judged by their peers, and also may judge their own standing with their peers based on teacher feedback. In the later grades, peer acceptance

may continue to be based on teacher feedback, whereas the basis for social attraction may change to feedback from the peers themselves. This feedback, as earlier suggested, may have little to do with behavior being reinforced by the teacher. Another very important point is that the level of social attraction could be an indicator of the relative importance of peers and teachers as reinforcing agents. The student with the low social attraction scores are less likely to respond to feedback from peers than are those with higher scores. It may be that in grade one, teachers provide more reinforcement for oral and reading achievement behaviors, in grade two it may be oral, whereas in grade three, teachers are not reinforcing oral or reading. If the students are not seeing the reinforcement, then they can not provide their own feedback to their peers, that is, the feedback that they associate with their status in class. It may also be that teachers are reinforcing students, but that they have become a less important reinforcer.

#### 5.1.4. Teacher expectancies and teacher ratings

Teacher expectancies are closely related to teacher ratings of language achievement in each of the three grades as indicated on Table 14. This would be evident, if as indicated previously, teacher and students are building up a dependence on behavioral contexts, and research has shown that teacher expectations are formed based on students behavior (Bassett & Smythe, 1979; Ryan, 1981).

A distinct pattern presented itself on Table 14. The level of the correlations between the teacher ratings and the CBT ratings changes. The correlations for Independence, Cognitive, and Task Orientation are relatively higher than for Social and Emotional ratings. Teachers appear to be responding to different types of behaviors in the early immersion classrooms. Perhaps they are rating two dimensions of behavior, an affective dimension, and a school dimension. The tendency is for the affective dimension to be viewed as less related to school achievement than is the school dimension.



In grade three, Independence correlated less highly than for the other two grades. Perhaps for the older students, teachers associate types of independent behaviors as being disruptive, or as being simply not conducive to second language learning.

The significance of the school dimension of behavior is further exemplified by the results of the multiple regression analysis (Table 16, 17, and 18). Either Task Orientation, Cognitive, or Independence showed the largest regression weight on both ratings for the three grades.

#### 5.1.5. Teacher expectancies and standardized French achievement

The pattern which emerged in Table 14, also presented itself in Tables 11 and 12, for grade one and two. Here again the correlations between the subtests were relatively higher with Independence, Cognitive, and Task Orientation, than for Social and Emotional. One exception was with Word Blending and Grapheme Discrimination in grade two, which showed only one significant correlation with Task Orientation.

An interesting finding was that this pattern disappeared for grade three as shown in Table 13. As these two subtests in grade three are very similar to Sentence Completion and Story Comprehension in grade two, there may be two possible explanations. Perhaps the criteria upon which the teacher rates the affective aspect changes from grade two to grade three, or perhaps it is the way students themselves respond to the reading test that changes between these two grades. Some insight into this is gained by observing the correlations between teacher ratings of French achievement, and the teacher expectancy ratings. In Table 14, the affective and school dimensions of the ratings are maintained in grade three, suggesting that it is the way that teachers rate achievement that changes, rather than the way they rate their expectancies.

## 5.2. Summary

This study was based on the premise that the classroom achievement in French of the children in early immersion could be best explained by understanding the nature of communication that takes place in the classroom between the student, the teacher, and other students. This was seen to be governed by a variety of factors, including the self-esteem of the student, the types of behaviors manifested by them and their teacher, and the role that the students adopted in the classroom. Teachers were believed to be quite important as they appeared to play a major role in governing the communication that took place.

In the immersion program, language learning is assumed to occur during activity that may or may not be of immediate concern in the classroom. The results of this study suggested that for the students in this study, the teacher appeared to be reinforcing the school dimension of behavior. The multiple regression analysis showed that Task Orientation showed a significant regression on each of the achievement measures for all grades, except for Sentence Comprehension in grade three. In addition, Task Orientation and/or the CBT Cognitive rating both showed the largest regression weight on the teacher ratings of oral and reading achievement. French achievement, therefore, seems to be related first, to how teachers interpret student behavior, and how in particular, they interpret school related behavior, of which Task Orientation appeared to be the hallmark.

The usual view of Task Orientation is one where the student is engaged in a teacher assigned task, by doing seatwork, answering questions, engaging in group instruction, and so forth. The important point is that the student is doing things assigned by the teacher because of the teacher's belief that the assignment will enhance educational goal attainment. The results of this study attested to the positive relationship of task engagement and French achievement.

It appears that the issue of French achievement in the classroom is based on the way each specific teacher constructs school related behavior and achievement. The set of independent variables in this study accounted for a much larger proportion of variance for the teacher ratings of French achievement than for the standardized tests of French achievement in reading. The standardized test was an outside criteria of French achievement. The data suggest that teachers are cueing into and reinforcing behaviors in the classroom that they perceive to be related to French achievement, perhaps specifically, language comprehension, but which are not consistent with the concept of achievement contained within the standardized tests.

Classroom learning in the early grades is very much a function of nonverbal communication between teacher and student. It would appear that the focus of the feedback provided for the learning of French is contingent upon the way the students act in the classroom. As the teachers reinforce school related behaviors which are associated with self-esteem, so too are they reinforcing their conception of French language achievement.

It is important to note that feedback from teacher or student is provided to the other behaviorally, in terms of what is said and done. Only through the behavior of one, can the learning of the other be influenced in the interchange which occurs. Teachers base their ratings on these interactions, and students learn what behaviors are expected of them, particularly the older students. Peer status may not be as crucial for the older students as it is in regular classrooms, as it may be that peer status reflects primarily teacher feedback as opposed to feedback from peers.

An essential aspect of the instructional environment, the communication medium, has been altered in the immersion classroom. Perhaps that fact, in and of itself, would explain the focus of the students and the teachers on the behavioral contexts of these students for the learning of French, as has been suggested. The nature of the reinforcement in these classes appeared to be for

school related behaviors which are strongly related to teachers' concepts of language achievement. These reinforcement patterns appear to change throughout the grades. Results suggest that the behavioral context, not language, is being reinforced in all three grades, and that teachers are the important reinforcers in these classes.

The results of this study suggest, then, that feedback does not become more language oriented as one would expect. Rather the emphasis appears to remain behavioral. For grade one students, a heavy emphasis on behavioral contexts would be expected due to their relative inability to comprehend a complex, language oriented situation. However for the grade two students, one would assume that there would be a need for the reinforcement patterns to change from the reinforcement of behavior to reinforcement of language as these students are in a state of transition where they are supposed to comprehend more and respond more to language reinforcement. The data of this study does not support the idea that feedback becomes more language oriented. Perhaps, then, these students depend more on the behavioral context, or on nonverbal forms of reinforcement rather than verbal. The data also suggests that the behavioral emphasis continues in grade three.

To conclude, each teacher's independent evaluation of language achievement may be critical; as teachers construct their own idea of language, language use, and language achievement. These same teachers also construct the behavioral contexts in which they expect language achievement to occur. This governs what is being reinforced in each specific classroom, the interactions occurring therein, the self-esteem of the students within the confines of that particular room, and hence the achievement of each student.

### 5.3. Recommendations

As a result of this study a number of possibilities for further research may be recommended. These are:

1. Research to test the hypothesis that it is behavioral manifestations, rather than the language, that is being reinforced in the early French immersion classroom, and this reinforcement is related to both the self-esteem and second language achievement of the students.

2. Research to determine the criteria upon which the teacher rates French achievement in the early immersion classes. This would help to determine whether teachers define French achievement the same way among themselves and whether they define classroom behavior consistently.

3. Research, similar to the present study, to determine whether there will be differences in the results for males and females.

4. Research to determine teacher tolerance for different forms of peer reinforcement. This could possibly lead to a better understanding of the sociometric status of pupils and how this affects their self-esteem.

5. Research to determine the nature of the self that reflects peer status, and whether it is capable of being measured by the McDaniell-Piers Young Children Self-Concept Scale.

6. Research to determine if students' activities outside of the classroom in an English milieu tends to disassociate peer influence from language.

7. Research to determine similarities and differences in the way that different teachers view the two dimensions of behavior, the affective dimension and the school dimension.

8. Research to determine whether teachers associate types of independent behaviors in grade three as being disruptive and/or not conducive to second language learning.

9. Research to determine if peer status reflects primarily teacher feedback as opposed to feedback from peers.

10. Research to determine whether feedback in the immersion classes becomes more language oriented as the students progress through school.

11. Research to determine teachers' ideas of language, language use, and language achievement.

12. Research to compare classrooms where teaching style emphasizes peer interaction with classrooms with little emphasis on this.

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**Appendix A**  
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**Appendix B**  
**Descriptive Statistics for**  
**French Achievement in**  
**Grade One, Two, and Three**



**Table B-1: Means and Standard Deviations for French Achievement in Reading for Grade One**

Measure	N	Mean	SD
Reading 1 <sup>a</sup>	253	20.7826	3.8509
Reading 2 <sup>b</sup>	251	18.5697	4.4728
Reading 3 <sup>c</sup>	251	14.8454	4.4179

a. Reading 1 - Word Recognition

b. Reading 2 - Word Meaning

c. Reading 3 - Sentence and Short Story Comprehension

**Table B-2: Means and Standard Deviations for French Achievement in Reading for Grade Two**

Measure	N	Mean	SD
Reading 1 <sup>a</sup>	139	21.6475	5.3241
Reading 2 <sup>b</sup>	140	21.9000	4.4710
Reading 3 <sup>c</sup>	140	20.7571	5.6274
Reading 4 <sup>d</sup>	140	17.4643	5.3489

a Reading 1 - Word Blending and Grapheme Discrimination

b Reading 2 - Word Meaning

c Reading 3 - Sentence Completion

d Reading 4 - Story Comprehension

**Table B-3: - Means and Standard Deviations for French  
Achievement in Reading for Grade Three**

Measure	N	Mean	SD
Reading 1 <sup>a</sup>	121	25.4711	4.9465
Reading 2 <sup>b</sup>	121	17.1818	4.1453

a Reading 1 - Sentence Comprehension

b Reading 2 - Story Comprehension

**Appendix C**  
**Teacher Ranking of French**  
**Achievement**

## FRENCH IMMERSION CLASSROOM PROCESS

## Teacher ranking of French Achievement

## Directions to the teacher:

Please rank each of the children in your class with respect to their present ORAL achievement in French. Use any criteria you wish. It is important only that the ranking be made in terms of the ability of the children to use French ORALLY (i.e., to speak and listen) as you believe it to be at the time of the ranking.

Please do not discuss your procedure with other teachers until everyone has completed their ranking of their own classroom. If you teach more than one kindergarten section, please combine the sections for the purposes of ranking.

Do your ranking by choosing the very best ORAL achiever, and writing his/her name in space 1 (one). Then choose the poorest ORAL achiever and put his/her name in the last space. Then choose the next best, then the next poorest, and so on. If you cannot choose between two children for some reason, use the toss of a coin to assign each to their position. We understand that this is likely to be the case, especially with children in the middle. We understand, as well, that even the poorer students may be achieving very well, indeed.

School \_\_\_\_\_

Grade \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher \_\_\_\_\_

## BEST ORAL ACHIEVERS

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

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34. \_\_\_\_\_

35. \_\_\_\_\_

36. \_\_\_\_\_

## POOREST ORAL ACHIEVERS

## FRENCH IMMERSION CLASSROOM PROCESS

## Teacher ranking of French Achievement

## Directions to the teacher:

Please rank each of the children in your class with respect to their present READING achievement in French. Use any criteria you wish. It is important only that the ranking be made in terms of the ability of the children to READ in French as you believe it to be at the time of the ranking. Naturally, a kindergarten teacher will view reading very differently than a grade two teacher.

Please do not discuss your procedure with other teachers until everyone has completed their ranking of their own classroom. If you teach more than one kindergarten section, please combine the sections for the purposes of ranking.

Do your ranking by choosing the very best READING achiever, and writing his/her name in space 1 (one). Then choose the poorest READING achiever and put his/her name in the last space. Then choose the next best, then the next poorest, and so on. If you cannot choose between two children for some reason, use the toss of a coin to assign each to their position. We understand that this is likely to be the case, especially with children in the middle. We understand, as well, that even the poorer student may be achieving very well, indeed.

School \_\_\_\_\_

Grade \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher \_\_\_\_\_

## BEST READING ACHIEVERS

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34. \_\_\_\_\_
35. \_\_\_\_\_
36. \_\_\_\_\_

## POOREST READING ACHIEVERS









