THE RELATIONSHIP OF STUDENT SELF-ESTEEM AND CLASSROOM COMMUNICATIVE POTENTIAL IN EARLY FRENCH IMMERSION

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BY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the self-esteem of early French immersion students to discover how it is related to the communicative potential of processes observed in the classroom. "Communicative potential" was a construct developed for this study out of a review of the literature on the communicative approach to second language learning. It refers to the theoretical level of communicativeness of a classroom based on processes selected by the teacher for use in the classroom.

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

Two instruments were used in the study. The McDaniel - Piers Young Children's Self-Concept Scale (YCSCS) was used to identify the level of self-esteem of each student. The French Immersion Classroom Processes Structured Observation Form was used to record classroom interaction between the teacher and

students. The major statistical procedure used in the study was correlational analysis.

The results of this study suggest that the mean self-esteem of students is dependent on the communicative potential of classroom processes selected by the teacher. Processes which allow for increased interaction and negotiation of meaning with the teacher and the peer group provide more opportunity for feedback from these significant others thus enhancing student self-esteem.

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Thanks to my husband, Albert, who introduced me to the high tech world of computers and who frequently came to my rescue when things went wrong.

... And to Mindy, our poodle, who sat next to me through the whole process... her silent vigil a calm and motivating force.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Statement of purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the self-esteem of early French immersion students to discover how it is related to the communicative potential of processes observed in the classroom. The process characteristics of teacher intents were related to the basic tenets of the communicative approach to second language teaching, and in turn, related to the self-esteem of students.

1.2 Significance of the study

To date there has been very little in-depth Canadian research on interaction processes in French immersion classrooms (Tardif and Weber, 1987). According to Carey (1984), there are few studies that describe what actually takes place in an immersion classroom and that document what it is that teachers do in immersion programs.

Discovering variations in the manner in which teachers deal with classroom processes and relating this to

differences in language learning patterns may suggest ways to improve the teaching process in French immersion classes.

1.3 Rationale

The following is a presentation of the theoretical model upon which this study is based.

Different classroom instructional schemes may be based on varying the nature of the interaction patterns of the teacher and the peer group. The purpose of these interactions in French immersion classrooms is to promote achievement in subject matter and enhance second language development. Feedback about subject matter and second language usage can also modify the level of self-esteem of the student. The amount of subject matter or language development which is achieved will depend on both the task engagement of the students, and the communicative potential of the classroom processes structured by the teacher for such interactions. "Communicative potential" is a construct which refers to the theoretical level of communicativeness of a classroom based on processes selected by the teacher for use in the classroom.

Figure One outlines the interrelationships between the dependent and independent variables considered important to the research. Second language learning is seen to be a

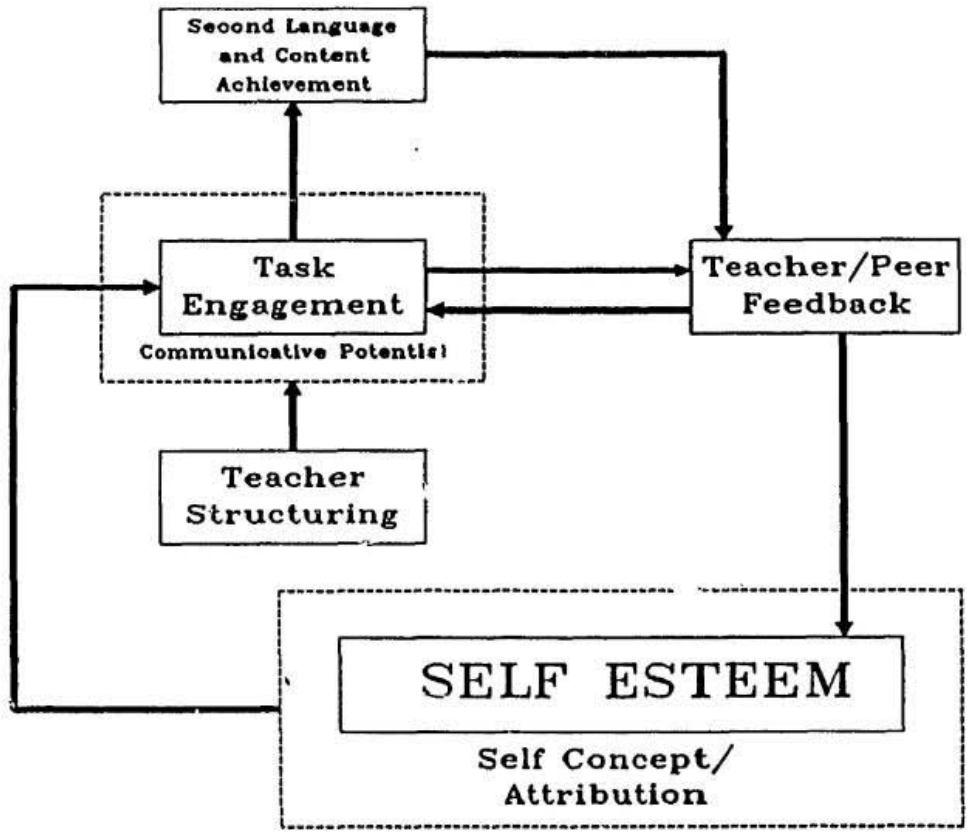

Figure 1: Model of the Interactive Processes Influencing Self Esteem

recursive process beginning with Teacher Structuring where the teacher selects various classroom instructional procedures for the purpose of promoting instructional goals, including language achievement. The selection of these processes is a major determinant of how much and what kind of teacher and student interaction takes place in the classroom. Communication between the teacher and student or students

themselves is the mechanism through which second language learning takes place. The ideal tasks for students to be engaged in are those which promote communication with the teacher or the peer group. Task engagement which takes place within these communicative structures provides for interaction which affects second language achievement.

The Communicative Potential of the task has significant effects on feedback. The more communicative a task is, the more opportunity there is for feedback about the communication from either the teacher or the peer group.

While the teacher's intents about the general nature of classroom interaction are assumed to be indicated by the communicative potential of various processes that may be structured, the actual nature of task engagement can be expected to vary from classroom to classroom, depending on a variety of other factors such as student characteristics, teacher second language capability, training, experience.

Feedback about both second language attainment and task engagement, received by the students from both the teacher and from their peers, will inform the students about their comprehension and use of language, and reinforce second language learning. It will also directly influence the direction of task engagement and future teacher structuring

decisions. Feedback will also influence the level of student self-esteem. It is important to note that the same feedback serves all four functions simultaneously.

1.3.1. Classroom communication

Communication in the classroom can be described in two ways. One way involves communication between the teacher and the student. The other way, student to student interaction is based on peer relationships in the classroom. In French immmersion classrooms, ccmmunication is the medium through which language learning takes place. In fact, in the French immersion classroom teacher-student or student-student interaction has two explicit and coincidental purposes. These are to engage students in on task activities which will lead to achievement both in subject matter and in the second language. In this study, the focus was on defining interactions that influence second language learning.

1.3.2 Task engagement

1.3.2.1. Purpose

Task engagement refers to the time a student is actively engaged in an academic task. Many empirical studies have documented the relationship between time on task and student

achievement (Bloom, 1976; Cooley and Leinhardt, 1980; Harnischfeger and Wiley, 1976; Fisher, Berliner, Filby, Marliave, Cahen, and Dishaw, 1980; Rosenshine and Berliner, 1987).

The teacher's purpose in engaging students in on task activities is to promote achievement of desired classroom outcomes. The primary functions of teaching can be described as the definition of the tasks to be required of the students, and the structuring of the classroom to achieve engagement in these tasks. The nature of the task is assumed to be related to the outcomes that will be attained. It can be hypothesized that the teacher's role is to regulate this task engagement, but in an interactive process, engagement will be highly variable and influenced by a number of factors, including the other students in the classroom.

1.3.2.2. Task engagement in immersion classrooms

In the immersion classroom, the nature of task engagement extends to the use of the language. The goal is to learn subject matter and achieve a level of "communicative competence" - the ability to use the linguistic system (of the target language) effectively and appropriately (Richards, J. and Rodgers, T., 1986).

Rivers (1987) states that students achieve facility in using a language when their attention is focused on conveying and receiving authentic messages (that is, messages that contain information of interest to the speaker and listener in a situation of importance to both). Rivers promotes an interactive classroom where students learn to communicate by listening to others, talking with others and by negotiating meaning in a shared context. According to Rivers (1987), students begin to increase their knowledge of the language as they communicate through the use of discussions, skits, joint problem solving tasks, or dialogue journals. In real life interactions, where expressing their real meaning is important to them, students can use what they have learned of the language.

It follows from the theory of the communicative approach that the ideal tasks in which immersion students should be engaged are those which promote communication in the second language. Interacting with significant others provides students with the input necessary to begin the task of comprehending the language. Participating in various interactions gives students the opportunity to work at producing the language. This idea can be generalized to regular English classrooms where a similar though less explicitly stated language goal exists. In general, it would be expected, given the relationship between task engagement

and achievement, that the nature and amount of communication taking place in the classroom will be positively related to the level of attainment of language goals.

1.3.3. The peer group and communication

While the teacher's role is to organize and direct the learning process, peer group interaction may play an important role in determining the nature of the language outcomes that are possible.

It has been found that peer talk allows students to assume conversational roles rarely available to them in talk with teachers (Cazden, 1986). With peers, children are more likely to clarify or challenge ideas through questions, to offer suggestions, or to explain ideas to less informed others (Forman and Cazden, 1985; Phillips, 1985). Duff (1986) noted that "teacherless tasks" such as problem-solving tasks and debates, generate more turn-taking, more questions, and a generally higher level of verbal and logical reasoning in the second language than when the teacher leads the discussion.

Long and Porter (1985) state that because of the negotiation possible in group activities and the possibility of increased comprehensible input group work is preferable to the teacher-led "lockstep" mode of instruction (p.207).

Porter (1986) found that learners talk significantly more to other learners than to the teacher when given the opportunity. Students conversing with other students use the same interactional devices as native speakers to increase comprehensibility and they get more practise prompting when talking with other learners. Porter points out that in her data only three per cent of miscorrections and error incorporations were made by students. However, many researchers remain concerned that students who are left to communicate freely without the benefit of accurate feedback from the teacher are acquiring less than proficient language skills (Pawley, 1985; Hammerly, 1989).

Swain (1985) discovered that while the sociocultural rules of appropriateness can only be learned from a teacher or a native speaker, opportunities to engage in two way, negotiated meaning exchanges in the classroom can be increased by interacting with peers. Swain states that immersion students are not given enough opportunities to use the target language in the classroom. Left as listeners students can very easily comprehend input but they are not likely to syntactically analyze what has been said since there is little if any pressure on them to negotiate meaning to produce language.

Interacting with peers provides the student with a different social context in which to communicate meaning. The content of messages sent to peers will be different affectively from that with the teacher. The peer group actually broadens the scope of language usage, and therefore the scope of reinforcement and feedback.

With the communicative approach the language learning process can be controlled by the student as contrasted by direct teacher control. Teacher-centered classrooms, where the teacher initiates interactions and controls their direction would be less communicative than a student-centered classroom where students retain some control over the process and the right to initiate messages with other students. It may be noted that feedback in these two types of classrooms would be affected by who initiated the message.

1.3.4. Classroom communication and reinforcement

Reinforcement from significant others satisfies student belonging and esteem needs (Maslow, 1962). In the classroom this reinforcement is provided through social interaction with both the teacher and with other students.

Students who engage in on task activities seek reinforcement or feedback from significant others for their

behavior. Students are actually seeking feedback about whatever it is they are doing. The more communication which takes place the more feedback there will be from significant others. This is linked to task behavior in the classroom. If positive reinforcement and feedback is provided for inappropriate behavior, such as incorrect language use, it may be expected that inappropriate language will be learned. The reinforcement from significant others also enhances self-esteem (Shaw, 1983). Reinforcement or feedback about the communication which takes place in the classroom has the ability to enhance or depreciate esteem levels. It may be seen, then, that self-esteem serves as a gauge of the level of positive reinforcement and feedback available to students. If this is positively related to classroom processes thought, in turn, to be related to language learning, then control by the teacher of the actual reinforcement patterns should optimize second language learning.

One source of reinforcement in the classroom is the teacher, who reinforces the student for engagement in on task activities and for achievement. The purpose of this reinforcement is to maintain task engagement which in turn affects achievement. The same feedback about achievement and task engagement will influence student feelings of self worth, that is, self-esteem.

The classroom peer group is another source of reinforcement available to the student. Reinforcement by peers will occur in the course of the peer interactions which happen in the classroom. Peer reinforcement can be about student task engagement and achievement, but it can also be about other extraneous matters not related to either. In this way, student self-esteem can be supported by peers without supporting the learning goals of the teacher. Furthermore, there is no guarantee that student feedback will be accurate, even when directed toward achievement and task engagement.

Feedback from the teacher is more likely to be about subject matter and language use. This corrective feedback, while having important results for language learning may be viewed as negative by students. Feedback provided by the peer group will likely be less directive but not promote correct language use. It may appear to fellow students to be positive feedback; however, it could have very negative effects on the language learning goals of the immersion experience. As peer reinforcement can serve as an alternative to teacher reinforcement, control of peer interaction by the teacher becomes very important.

In a classroom which is highly dominated by teacher-student interaction the self-esteem of the student may be dependent more on reinforcement from the teacher than from

students. Feedback from the teacher about communication will affect the self-esteem of the student. In classrooms which have higher levels of peer interaction, feedback from peers about the communication taking place will be more likely to influence self-esteem. It may be hypothesized that the self-esteem of students will, therefore, be dependent on communication with the teacher or the peer group, depending on how the classroom is structured.

In the French immersion classroom language learning takes place through the communication which occurs between the teacher and the students. Students seek reinforcement about this communication from significant others. The amount of communication which occurs is like a gauge that indicates the feedback levels a student receives. Higher levels of communication should result in higher levels of feedback and visa versa. It is this feedback, which in turn, influences the self-esteem of the student.

1.3.5. Self-concept/self-esteem

Early research into self-perception often confused the terms self-concept and self-esteem. From a review of the literature Shavelson (1976) concluded that both terms are often considered to mean the same thing. Various other researchers have attempted to clarify the notion of self-

concept and self-esteem. Since this study examines the relationship of self-esteem to the communicative potential of French immersion students it is necessary to distinguish between both terms.

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 more, specifically, our values. (p.84)

For Beane and Lipka, the significant others in one's environment are important to the development of self-esteem. Self-perception becomes an interaction of self-concept (roles) and self-esteem (feelings), both of which are influenced by feedback from significant others.

In a more recent work, Hamachek (1985) presented a clear delineation of self-concept and self-esteem - the major elements in the development of self:

> "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 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 mutally reinforcing and highly interactive." (p.137)

From a review of the literature on self-concept and self-esteem it appears that self-concept is the more general term including self-esteem with it (Coopersmith, 1967; Fleming and Courtney, 1984; Hamachek, 1985; L'ecuyer, 1981; Shavelson et al.,1976; Silvernail,1981).

1.3.6. The peer group and self-esteem

The effect on an individual's self-concept and self-esteem by the peer group has been well documented (for reviews see, Campbell, 1964; Ide, Parkerson, Haertal and Walberg, 1981).

According to Maslow (1962) students will attempt to socialize with their peers to satisfy their esteem needs. As early as 1952 Silverberg identified two elements important to the development of a child's self-esteem. He referred to the child's reaction to his/her behavior as the internal source while the child's perception of other's responses to his/her behavior became known as the external source.

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.

Suls and Sanders (1979) believe the peer group increases in importance in primary school. They state this is due to the fact that children are able to determine their potential achievement by comparing their performance in the classroom with that of their peers.

A study by Fahey and Phillips (1981) concluded that children's self estimates of the positive and negative aspects of their concepts are influenced by comparisions with other children in school accomplishments. In fact, children are known to take an interest in information pertinent to the way they compare to their peers and are troubled by failure (Ruble et al, 1976).

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 towards our peers for attention, approval, and affection (Hartup, 1970).

Since "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 and Marwell,1976 p.60) it seems natural to assume that for early immersion students, the way 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 significant others.

1.3.7.Peer interaction and achievement

Research has documented that the quality and quantity of peer relationships does affect school achievement (Damico, 1976; Ide, et al., 1981; Putallaz, Whie and Shipman, 1985). In his book The Adolescent Society, Coleman (1961) refers to several studies which acknowledge the influence of the peer group on school achievement. Green, Forehand, Beck and Vosk (1980) found high achievement scores to be correlated with peer acceptance and positive peer interactions.

1.3.8. Summary

Language learning takes place through the communication which occurs in the classroom. The language learner receives feedback about this communication from the teacher or fellow students. The more interaction which takes place the more

opportunity there is for feedback. Student self-esteem is influenced by feedback and in this case it is feedback about the communication taking place. Communication, which enables students to interact with significant others and receive feedback about what is being communicated, is an important factor in enhancing self-esteem.

A teacher can increase the level of communication which takes place in the classroom based on the amount of student interaction organized into the experience of the children. Peer interaction maximizes this. It may be hypothesized that the self-esteem of students will be higher in classrooms with more peer interaction because of the opportunity for more feedback from these significant others.

1.3.9.Hypotheses

1. There will be a positive correlation between the communicative potential of a classroom and the mean self-esteem of classrooms.

2. There will be a negative correlation between the teacher-centeredness of a classroom and the mean student self-esteem of the classroom.

1.3.10. Definitions

Self-Esteem: the affective element of self-concept as measured by the McDaniel-Piers Young Children's Self-Concept Scale.

Task Engagement: the involvement of students in behaviors of immediate concern in the classroom.

Communicative Potential: the theoretical level of communicativeness of a classroom based on its observed structures.

Teacher-centeredness: The level of teacher dominance over classroom interactions as defined by the ratio of all teacher initiated verbal interaction with students to all student initiated verbal interaction with other students.

1.3.11. Limitations of the Study

1. It may be hypothesized that the relationships presented in this study may differ for each grade level surveyed because of factors such as the social development of the students, increasing second language development, and differences in curriculum. There was however, no direct evidence that this might be the case.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the literature relevant to the relationship between self-esteem, the learning process and outcomes. First, the communicative approach to second language learning is examined. Second, task engagement and its relationship to achievement and with peers is reviewed. Third, the theoretical background of self-esteem and self-concept formation is presented. Fourth, peer involvement in the classroom is discussed.

2.1 The communicative approach to second language learning

In recent years the pedagogy of language teaching and learning has changed. During the early eighties educators began to realize that traditional forms of teacher - student interaction and text analytic approaches to second language learning were failing to socialize learners into the natural verbal patterns of thought and behavior required of the new language and culture (Kramsch, 1987).

Studies began to suggest that the language development of children was largely an interactive process relying on not only specific cognitive and linguistic mechanisms but

also on the active participation of the learner in a linguistic environment which is sensitive to the learner's communicative needs (Fantini, 1976; Fillmore, 1976; Genishi, 1976; and Cummins, 1979).

The communicative approach to second language learning began with the discovery that students were unable to transfer their knowledge of the second language outside of the classroom. Efforts were made to make communication as natural as possible involving the learner in realistic and meaningful communicative activities. The goal of language learning was to develope "communicative competence" - the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately (Richards, J. and Rodgers, T.,1986).

"Communicative competence" refers to having a knowledge of sociolinguistic rules, of the appropriateness of an utterance in addition to knowledge of grammar rules (Hymes, 1971). It deals with social interaction by focusing on real speaker-listeners who interpret, express, and negotiate meaning in many different settings. The term applies to oral and written communication in both academic and non-academic settings and it has come to mean the ability to negotiate meaning; that is to successfully combine a knowledge of linguistic, sociolinguistic, and discourse rules in communicative interactions (Savignon, 1972; 1983).

Negotiation of meaning pertains to "the process of spoken interaction between a native speaker and a nonnative speaker whereby the meaning of an unclear or misunderstood word or phrase is clarified to the satifaction of both parties" (Young, 1984 p.1). Rulon and McCreary (1986) have extended this definition to include interaction between two nonnative speakers.

In an investigation of the discourse of nonnative speakers, Varonis and Gass (1985) found that there was more negotiation of meaning when both learners were nonnative speakers. They argued that through negotiation learners were able to deal with a greater quantity of comprehensible input.

From their study of input in nonnative speakers discourse Varonis and Gass (1985) developed a model for the negotiation of meaning.

> "The model has four primes: (1) a trigger (T), which stimulates or invokes incomplete understanding on the part of the hearer; (2) an indicator (I), which is the hearer's signal that understanding has not been complete; (3) a response (R), which is the original speaker's attempt to clear up the unaccepted input (this is often referred to as repair); and (4) a reaction to the response (RR), an optimal element that signals either the hearer's acceptance or continued difficulty with the speaker's repair." (p.151)

According to Varonis and Gass (1985) negotiation is a positive variable in interaction because it permits learners to manipulate input. By manipulating input conversations may be carried on with little confusion while in the process allowing nonnative speakers the opportunity to work with the input. Furthermore, it is possible that this manipulation could also occur in interactions with peers.

Long (1983) found that when given the opportunity to negotiate new input native speakers and nonnative speakers modified not only their language through simplified vocabulary, slower rate of speech, and less complex utterances but also through the interactional patterns of their conversations by asking more questions to clarify what was said. Interactional modifications which help to make the conversation more comprehensible for the learner are those devices which prevent communication breakdowns and maintain conversation. The devices include confirmation checks, comprehension checks, clarification requests, repetitions, expansions and questions (Porter 1986). Long believes that modified interaction leads to a greater amount of comprehensible input which in turn leads to greater acquisition. Comprehensible input refers to the language that the learner is exposed to and can understand (Porter, 1986).

According to Swain (1986) immersion students have little opportunity to engage in two-way, negotiated meaning exchanges in the classroom. In an earlier work, she proposed the "comprehensible output hypothesis" stating that learners should be provided with opportunities to produce the new forms they are exposed to in the input (Swain, 1983). Swain states that "negotiation of meaning needs to incorporate the notion of being pushed towards the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed but that is conveyed precisely, coherently and appropriately" (p.248). Swain (1985) argues that comprehensible output plays an important role in language acquisition independent of comprehensible input. Its function is to "provide opportunites for contextualized meaningful use, to test out hypotheses about the target language, and to move the learner from a purely semantic analysis of the language to a syntactic analysis of it" (p. 252).

Rivers (1987) promotes an interactive classroom where students learn to communicate by listening to others, talking with others and by negotiating meaning in a shared context. Interactive language teaching, says Rivers, stresses learning through mutual participation, usually in small groups.

Many studies have examined the effects of language learning in teacher-fronted classrooms as opposed to those classrooms where small group activities are prevalent (Long,

Adams, McLean and Castanos, 1976; Pica and Doughty, 1984). Teacher-fronted activity refers to "interaction controlled and directed by the teacher ... small group activity occurs when no teacher is present and no designated member of the group is responsible for the control or direction of interaction taking place" (Rulon and McCreary, 1986 p. 182).

According to Rulon and McCreary (1986) one advantage of small groups is that the more congenial surroundings allows students the opportunity to negotiate the language they hear without the stress often experienced in teacher-fronted classrooms. In their study of nonnative speakers, Rulon and McCreary found that when students were in a group situation where they were asked to complete a contextualized, two-way task, there was greater negotiation of content than in the teacher-led discussion. A one way task consists of an interaction which involves the giving of information from only one participant to the other whereas, a two way task involves exchanges of information - that is, exchanges in which both participants have information which must be shared in order to complete a given task (Gass and Varonis 1985, p. 149) It was suggested that working in small groups after the completion of listening and or reading comprehension passages may promote interaction which aids comprehension and enhances second language learning.

Pica and Doughty (1985) studied the input and interactional features of teacher-fronted and group versions of decision-making communicative activities in low-intermediate level English as a Second Language classes. They found that individual students appeared to have more opportunities to use the target language in groups than in teacher-fronted activities by either taking more turns or producing more samples of their interlanguage. According to Pica and Doughty the only obvious advantage to the student engaged in a peer group task is the opportunity for more target language practise time than is available in teacher-directed activities.

Porter (1986) states that while learners cannot provide each other with the accurate grammatical and sociolinguistic input that native speakers can, learners can offer each other genuine communication practise, including, the negotiations for meaning that may aid second language acquisition. She proposed that as long as learners can get accurate native speaker models outside the classroom, communicating with peers in the classroom has its advantages. While learners provided ungrammatical input to each other, their input included at least two interactional features, repairs and prompts which are considered significant in second language acquisition. The study found that learners got more input and better quality input from advanced learners than from intermediates. Thus for

quality and quantity of input interacting with a higher-level partner appears more advantageous.

One major criticism of the communicative approach is that the quality of immersion students' spoken French is unacceptable (Hammerly, 1982). Of the four skills; speaking, writing, listening and reading, speaking French was shown to be the weakest of the these skills in tests administered to immersion students (Pawley,1985).

In April 1987 a three-volume report, Development of Bilingual Proficiency (the DBP report) found that providing students with "comprehensible input" was not sufficient for language learning. The report suggested encouraging more talk among learners. Hammerly (1989) questioned how students with more incorrect language would improve spoken French. He suggested that it would be more beneficial to promote comprehensible output, that is "accurate output" managed by the teacher.

The fundamental principles of the communicative approach to second language learning have been summed up in a review of the literature (Calve, 1982; Duplantie, 1982; Knop, 1980; Terrell, 1980). They are as follows:

"1. Language learning is regarded as more effective when students use the language for a purpose.

2. In communicative activities the focus is on the use of language for communication rather than on the study of rules and structures.

3. A communicative approach takes into account the learner's language needs, abilities and interests. Communication must be realistic and meaningful to the student.

4. Student comprehension is a primary consideration in communicative activities; it precedes production and exceeds it as well.

5. Students must initiate as well as respond in communicative activities.

6. Communicative activities are centered upon a theme.

7. Students must be provided with sufficient vocabulary to cope with each activity.

8. In communicative activities the focus is on the messages given and received rather than on the linguistic forms.

9. In communicative activities the direct correction of speech errors is not effective and can be harmful to student progress." (Department of Education, Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, 1985).

Communicative language teaching requires learners to be involved in the interactive process of communication. According to Savignon (1983) the purpose of the communicative approach is to prepare the learner for systematic interaction with the second language community. Students are given the opportunity to experience interactions in the target language in as natural a setting as possible.

Communicative activities involving both teacher and peers constitutes an integral part of the communicative classroom.

2.2 Task engagement

Learning is the result of the interaction of many variables. One of these variables is the time a student is actively engaged in an academic task. Turpin (1981) defines "on task" as any action which pertains to the task or activity intended by the teacher to be of immediate concern to the child. The time a student is engaged in on task activities is dependent on several factors such as; student interest, attention span, academic ability, and teacher direction and control.

A review of the literature on student time on task demonstrates that time on task is positively related to achievement (Stallings, 1980; Graden, Thurlow,& Ysseldyke, 1982); that relatively little absolute time in the school day is engaged in academics (Hall, Greenwood and Delquadri, 1980; Rosenshine, 1980); and that the percentage of time on task varies considerably across classrooms and across individual students within classrooms (Karweit and Slavin, 1981; Fisher, Berliner, Felby, Marliave, Cohen and Dishaw, 1980).

While studies on time usage in schools have been conducted since the early nineteenth century it was actually John Carroll (1963) who laid the foundation for much of the more recent research. According to Carroll, learning is a function of two factors; (1), the time actually spent, which is dependent on student perseverance and opportunity provided to learn; and (2), the time needed, which is dependent upon aptitude, ability to understand instructions, and quality of instructions. For Carroll, learning is a function of time.

Expanding on Carroll's theory, Benjamin Bloom (1968) focused on the importance of a student's prior learning and the quality of the instruction. According to Bloom, students are incapable of doing well unless they have spent sufficient time mastering the tasks that preceded the lesson and are given quality instruction which maximizes learning time.

Wiley and Harnischfeger (1974) adopted a theoretical model which predicated that achievement is largely determined by two variables, (1) the total time needed by a pupil to learn a task; and (2), the total time a pupil actively spends on a given learning task. These two variables are influenced by pupil characteristics, pupil attendance, teacher characteristics, instructional quality and planned

curriculum. This model emphasized that teachers directly influence the time students are exposed to academic work and their total needed learning time.

The Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (the BTES) was a ten year project carried out in California to identify general teacher competencies and evaluate teacher education programs (Borg, 1980). One phase of the study concentrated on academic learning time (ALT) which Fisher, Marliave and Filby (1979) defined as "the time which a student spends engaged in academically relevant material which is of a moderate level of difficulty" (p.52). It was discovered that students who were able to successfully complete their work were more likely to stay on task than those experiencing failure and that the proportion of time that tasks were performed with high success was positively associated with student learning. The general findings were that the more academic learning time a student acquired, the more learning occurred. It was suggested that during elementary school years at least 70% of the tasks assigned to students should be of the kind that can be completely successfully (Dyreson, 1980; Rosenshine, 1980).

Several other studies have demonstrated a relationship between time and achievement. Cobb (1972) identified positive relationships between achievement and four

task-related classroom behaviors, including attending. In this study of fourth grade students several significant negative relationships with achievement were found for non-task related behaviors such as non-attending.

In their observation of 108 first graders and 58 third grade students Stallings and Kaskowitz (1974) found correlations ranging from .3 to .6 between engaged time in reading and math and achievement. Pupils were considered on task only when they were clearly working on math or reading.

Research by Fisher, et al. (1978) identified a significant positive relationship between achievement and student engagement in the classroom. Similar results have been reported by Soli and Devine (1976) and Lahaderne (1969).

Karweit (1984) stated that time is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for learning. Most studies reviewed by Karweit showed a positive association between time and learning. However, it was concluded that providing time does not, in itself, ensure that learning will take place. More time may result in more learning if a lack of adequate time was the major cause of the problem in the first place. Many of the studies found a statistically significant effect of engaged time on learning.

In reviewing studies of the way time is used in schools Karweit (1984) found that:

> "-Only about half the time in the school day is ordinarily used for instruction.
>
> -There are great differences in the amounts of time students are exposed to learning activities.
>
> -Time allocations differ markedly among classrooms.
>
> -Many factors determine how time is used in school. In general, research studies show a positive association between time and learning, but differences in achievement are not consistently explained by differences in the amount of instructional time. In many studies, the proportion of variance in achievement uniquely attributable to time varies from 1 to 15 percent.
>
> -Other factors that co-vary with time, such as classroom activities and student engagement, may be the real cause of the higher achievement found in research studies.
>
> -Variations in the way available time is used cannot be completely controlled.
>
> -Findings of studies conducted with the present school day and year may not apply to a longer day or year(p.34).

Interactive on task behaviors such as discussions, asking and answering questions and reading aloud are considered important for learning. Stallings (1980) found these behaviors to be positively correlated with achievement, whereas off task behaviors correlated negatively with achievement. Graden (1983(b)) reported that providing opportunities for interactive on task behavior for students

increased academic engaged time which leads to increased student achievement.

Gettinger (1985) investigated the extent to which spending or allocating less time than needed for learning affects overall achievement and retention of school-related material. Her results indicate that spending and/or allocating insufficient learning time have a direct negative effect on achievement. Both the degree of initial learning and one-week retention dropped significantly when children spent or were given fewer trials than needed to learn the experimental task. The findings confirm the importance of these two time variables as determinants of school learning.

Kelly and Bushell, Jr. (1987) studied teacher contacts made during on-task behavior, and teacher contacts contingent on students' hand-raising behavior. The principle finding of their study was that teacher contacts made during on task behavior increased the average amount of work completed during the session, and increased the time the pupils spent on task. When the teacher reinforced the incompatible behavior of hand raising, the pupils did less work than when reinforced for their actual working (on-task) behavior. The significance of this finding lies in the fact that most teachers encourage students to raise their hands in class and may often call only on students whose

hands are raised. Kelly and Bushell suggest giving pupils open-ended (no stop-point specified) in-class assignments, allowing them to work at their own speed in the allotted time, and spot checking their work as it is in progress.

2.2.1. Task engagement and peer interaction

McKinney et al. (1975) concluded that students who were attentive in class and who engaged in task-related interactions with peers were more likely to succeed academically than those children who exhibited non-attending behavior.

Baker (1976) saw a benefit in having students teach each other. He felt that language use would increase because students are less embarrassed about making mistakes with each other than in front of the teacher.

In summarizing the results of the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study Rosenshine (1981) stated that substantive interaction is related to higher engagement. Substantive interaction (i.e. questions, answers, feedback, and explanations) during group work was correlated both with higher overall engagement and higher engagement during seatwork, suggesting that the

practice and corrections during group work led to more engagement during seatwork.

One limitation of the BTES model was its failure to address the "effect of peer influences on the learning process" (Romberg, 1982 p.91). According to Romberg, peer influences can include task-related interaction among students in the classroom. During individual work at their desks, students are capable of interacting with each other and influencing each other's learning. In group settings, students learn from fellow classmates. Romberg stated that students sometimes understand each other's explanations better than they understand the teacher's explanations and they learn by explaining to other students. Based on this information, Webb (1982) felt that an examination of task-related interac. ons among students would help in solving the problem of how to increase substantive interaction in the classroom.

Nerenz and Knop (1982) found that while divided into small groups, students spoke four times as much as teachers and eight times as much when divided into pairs, but slightly less than teachers in large groups.

Using the results of the BTES study Lieberman (1982) looked at learning in various classroom environments. She

found evidence that in classrooms where students worked together there was greater on-task behavior.

Walz (1986) supports the contention that the more time students are engaged in the learning process, the better the learning will be. He states that it is imperative that teachers provide an optimum amount of time for students to speak. His article lists 20 different proposals for increasing student talk time in the classroom. One of these techniques is having students work in pairs or small groups.

In a unique study, Anne Dyson (1987) analyzed the spontaneous, unsanctioned talk of primary children during story writing and found during this "time off task" that children accomplished intellectual tasks thought to be "over their heads". Cooperatively, the students extended story boundaries, critiqued the logic of texts, and reflected on others' comments of their efforts. These tasks were pursued unintentionally as the children interacted socially in what would normally be considered "off task" behaviors. Furthermore, these interactions revealed a desire by the students to be competent, special and distinctive members of the group, worthy of esteem.

While the preceding discussion focused mainly on task engagement in regular English speaking classrooms, the parallel with the proposals made for communicative second language learning is apparent. The communicative classroom can be studied according to more general learning models.

2.3. Self-esteem

Self-esteem has been the focus of several major empirical studies (Coopersmith, 1967; Rosenberg, 1965; Rosenberg and Simmons, 1971). Many researchers have explored self-esteem under other headings, 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 and Marwell, 1976,p.7).

As early as 1880 researchers were exploring the concept of self-esteem. William James (1890) introduced the I-Me dichotomy of self. He included feelings, evaluations and attitudes in his conceptualization of the objective Me. For James, self-esteem equalled self-feeling and self-regard. Cooley's (1902) looking-glass self which focused on subjectively interpreted feedback from others included the notion of self-feeling. Mead (1934) further developed Cooley's

theory by expanding on James' social self. "The self, as that which can be an object to itself, is essentially a social structure, and arises in social experience" (p.140). Mead, like Cooley, concentrated on the effects of self-evaluation and self-realization.

Other theorists have specifically addressed self-conception and self-esteem. Adler (1927), Horney (1950), and Sullivan (1953), influenced by Freudian psychoanalysis, stressed social-cultural situations and interpersonal relationships as significant in the development of self-as-object. The self was viewed as a reflexive structure similar to the idea of self-esteem.

The 1940's and 1950's saw an attempt by psychologists to differentiate between the ego and the self. The term "proprium" - an aggregate of ego and self constructs, was introduced by Allport (1955). The proprium consisted of awareness of self and striving activity, self-esteem being one of its aspects. Symonds (1951) endeavored to delineate between ego and self. He stated that the ego functions more effectively when the self is confident and held in high regard. Symonds included need satisfaction and the experience of success in describing the development of self-esteem.

Maslow's (1954) theory of self-actualization - the need for people to become all that they can be - requires self-esteem as a precondition. According to Maslow, self-esteem theory consists of mastery experiences and confidence in one's ability. Jourard's (1957) theory of self-esteem related self-feeling to the process of identification with an ego-ideal.

From a clinical point of view, Rogers (1951) viewed the dual role of self - self as object and self as process - with his "client-centered therapy". According to Rogers, individuals possess a need for positive regard from others, and a need for positive self-regard which is synonomous with self-esteem.

Rosenberg (1965) defined self-esteem as "a positive or negative attitude towards a particular object, namely the self" (p.30). Coopersmith (1967) viewed self-esteem as the attitude towards oneself, or feelings of self worth.

Reasoner (1982) defines self-esteem as the sense of self-respect, confidence, identity and purpose found in an individual. According to Reasoner, individuals with high self-esteem possess a high degree of acceptance of self and others. They are cognizant of their own specific strengths and skills as well as those of others and they feel secure in their environment and in social relationships. Individuals with high

self-esteem are goal-oriented, motivated by a desire to accomplish their goals.

Kostelnik, Stein and Whiren (1988) list adult domination of verbal interaction as one of the characteristics of a negative verbal environment thought to be detrimental to the development of a child's self-esteem. Positive verbal enviroments, on the other hand, where children are encouraged to talk to adults and their peers, where adults listen attentively and consider the affective impact of their words are thought to enhance a child's self-perceptions of competence and worth. According to Kostelnik et al. (1988) children who are constantly exposed to a negative verbal environment portray low self-esteem whereas, a positive verbal environment created by positive interactions with adults and peers enhances self-awareness and self-worth.

Wells and Marwell (1976) state that "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" (p. 60). If this is the case it may be hypothesized that the way students feel about themselves will affect their interactions with significant others in the immersion classroom.

2.4. Self-concept

Over the years there have been numerous definitions of self-concept. William James (1980) wrote an entire chapter on "the consciousness of self" in his boook The Principles of Psychology. He considered ego to be the individual's sense of identity. The self was viewed as including spiritual, material, and social aspects.

Rogers (1951) provided the following definition of self-concept:

> "The self-concept or self structure may be thought of as an organized configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness. It is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities; the percepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive or negative valence." (p.136)

This definition consists of two aspects. First, there is the actual percept of self, which is regarded as self-definition. Secondly, is the evaluative aspect and its interpretation which is often unclear.

According to Allport (1937) the self includes bodily sense, self-image, self-esteem, and identity as well as thinking and knowing.

Shavelson (1976) defines self-concept as a person's self-perception. He presented a multifaceted, hierarchial model of self-concept.

Combs (1962) viewed self-concept as the beliefs an individual holds about himself, his total view of himself.

In other research, instruments have been produced in which multiple facets of self-concept are distinctive and identifiable (Dusek and Flaherty, 1981; Fleming and Courtney, 1984; Marsh, Barnes, Cairns and Tidman, 1984, Coopersmith, 1967; Purky, 1970).

There are many theories of how self-concept is acquired (Cooley, 1902; Mead, 1934; Rogers, 1951; Sullivan, 1947). Numerous authors have concluded that self-concept and self-esteem are learned (Frymier, 1970; Snyder, 1965; Shavelson, 1976). According to others, the process of learning self-concept occurs through social interaction and group participation with significant others, a process that begins very early and continues throughout a lifetime (Goffman, 1959; Webster and Solicezak, 1976). The elements involved in this process include the intervention of significant others, such as parents, including the teaching of labels, praise or appropriate behavior and the modeling of expected behavior (Mead, 1934; Brookover, 1965)

Self-concept is acquired through group participation and social interaction (Koller and Ritchie, 1978). Interaction with significant others, either individually or in a group can change self-concept (Staines, 1958). Shaw (1983) states that both peer and teacher comments influence a student's self-concept. The effect that adults have on young children's self-perception is evidenced in the literature (Beane, et. al. 1980).

The role of significant others in the French immersion classroom may, therefore, be an important factor in the development of student self-concept. Baral (1983) recommended that self-concept formation be the focus of research in bilingual school programs since self-concept is a result of what happens in school.

It is important to consider the function of self-concept in language learning since it may be suggested that a better self-concept increases the likelihood of task engagement. Children with postive self-concepts are more likely to be motivated to engage in on task activities. Furthermore, student self-esteem reflects the nature of feedback about various classroom activities.

2.5. Self-esteem and peers

A study by Fahey and Phillips (1981) subscribes to the idea that children's self estimates of the positive and negative aspects of their self-concepts are influenced by comparisons with other children in school accomplishments. Children are known to take an interest in information pertinent to the way they compare to their peers and are troubled by failure (Ruble et al., 1976) According to Nadien (1980) children acquire a sense of industry if they are accepted and approved by their peers as well as their teachers.

Kirchner and Vondracek (1975) studied 260 three to five year olds in daycare centres and found that peers were identified by a significantly larger percentage of children as sources of self-esteem than were parents. They concluded that such information challenged earlier theories on the importance of the parent-child relationship in early childhood. In replicating this study into the preceived sources of self-esteem among young children, Fraser and Gurney (1988) found that such identification was dependent on the intensity of the terminology used. The words "like" and "love" used in various statements yielded quite different results. Peers were identified as the predominant source of self-esteem when "like" was the key word while the importance of parents

increased with the use of the word "love". According to Fraser and Gurney (1988) the subjects interpreted these two words as having a situational connotation rather than a feeling connotation. "Like" tended to be associated with school oriented responses while "love" was associated with home responses. In conclusion, this study acknowledges that while parents are a major source of self-esteem for young children the importance of the peer group must not be underestimated.

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). Student self-esteem not only affects the quality and quantity of interactions taking place but is also affected by these interactions.

2.6. Self-perception and attributions for success

Locus of control refers to an individual's generalized expectation that success or failure is due to internal or external factors, whereas self-concept can be described as a set of beliefs people have about themselves (Eberhart, 1984). A positive self-concept and an internal locus of control are generally viewed as desirable aspects of an individual's development.

The majority of research findings indicate that internal locus of control and positive self-concept are positively correlated (Diesterhaft and Gerken, 1983; Hill, 1986; Burns, 1979; Chandler, 1976). Some researchers feel that this tendency only works for success (Marsh, Smith and Barnes, 1983; Marsh, Relich and Smith, 1983). Individuals with a positive self-concept attribute success to ability and effort. Failure may be attributed to a lack of effort as individuals with a positive self-concept would view more effort as having postive results.

Ickes and Layden (1978) found similar relationships between attributions, outcome and self-concept. It was discovered that high self-concept subjects were more likely to attribute success to internal causes, whereas low self-concept subjects were more likely to attribute positive outcomes to external causes. For negative outcomes, high self-concept subjects either made external attributions or rated all causal factors as unlikely, whereas low self-concept subjects tended to take responsibility for the negative outcomes by internalizing responsibility.

Fitch (1970) also reported that high self-esteem subjects were more likely to attribute success to internal causes and failure to external causes when the outcome was determined by experimentally manipulating success and failure feedback.

In a review of the literature on the relationship between dimensions of self attribution and dimensions of self-concept Marsh et. al. (1984) found that most authors agree that a disposition to attribute success to internal causes will be positively correlated with self-concept, though some might contend that the relationship will be stronger for success/ability attributions than for success/failure. They also seem to agree that the disposition to attribute failure to ability will be negatively correlated with self-concept.

Many studies have found a postive correlation between internal locus of control and achievement (Bar-Tal and Bar-Xohar, 1977; Diesterhaft and Gerken, 1983; Findley and Cooper, 1983; Moyer, 1980).

Keith, Pottebaum and Eberhart (1986) attempted to determine the extent of the influence of self-concept and locus of control on academic achievement. The results suggest that locus of control has a meaningful impact on high school seniors' achievement, that is, more internal students also achieve at a higher level. They concluded that self-concept had no meaningful effect on achievement. According to Keith et. al. a positive self-concept does seem to lead to a more internal locus of control. Thus the "indirect" effect of self-concept on achievement, through locus of control, should be considered. The self-concept variable does show a meaningful

relationship to locus of control and is itself influenced by other variables in the model.

Research over the past 30 years has yielded no definitive results linking self-concept to achievement. The assumption has been made that achievement is strongly related to self regard (Wylie, 1979). A meta analysis of research in this area (Hansford and Hattie,1982) found only a small, positive average correlation between the two constructs. Several recent studies have suggested that there may be no causal relationship between general self-concept and academic achievement, but that other variables may be causally predominant over both self concept and achievement (Byrne, 1982; Calsyn, 1974; Maruyama, Ruben, and Kingsbury. 1986; Pottebaum, Keith, and Ehly, 1986).

Covington's (1984) self worth theory of achievement motivation emphasizes ability perceptions as a dominate factor in achievement behavior. One's sense of self worth and adequacy is felt to be dependent on performance level, self-estimates of ability and degree of effort expenditure. The basic premise is that a sense of self worth depends on one's accomplishments. The causal relationship between performance and worth implies that unless individuals can be successful at some valued activity, they will be cut off from a major source of self-esteem. According to Covington, "the mere perception

of high ability is tantamount to a positive self-identity in school" (1984; p.9) Evidence suggests that a direct effort -> affect (worth) linkage dominates the self-esteem of preschool and primary children. The immaturity of young childrens' information-processing skills makes them perceive ability as synonymous with effort. High rather that low effort is seen as an indicator of ability. They believe that increases in effort can actually cause increases in ability. According to Dweck (1983) young children perceive ability as a process that is infinitely expandable through instruction and experience. Young children feel that by trying hard they are not only able because of their effort but are also valued by others. Since effort promotes ability children feel they can maximize approval from adults by trying hard. This perception of effort and ability as psychologically equivalent has significant effects on the sense of self worth of children.

The self worth of students, then, is a function of the feedback that they have received about their performance. It is useful to note that this feedback can have at least two sources in the classrooms, teachers and other students. Self-worth is an outcome of classroom process and can therefore serve as a measure of feedback in the classroom. The feedback which influences feelings of self worth will also influence self-concept and attributions of success and failure. These concepts will shape the student's behavior within the

structure set by the teacher, and this interaction will help define the actual nature of task engagement by the student.

2.7. Peer involvement in the classroom

The fundamental idea behind peer involvement in the classroom is that many teacher-directed activities can be accomplished to the same degree, and in some cases more efficiently , by students themselves.

A review of the literature on children's relationships with their peers reveals four basic areas of research. The first states that interaction with peers has been found to; (1) foster general intellectual and cognitive developments (Rardin and Moan, 1971); (2) enhance the child's sense of emotional security (Schwartz, 1972); (3) aid in the formation of healthy self-concepts and sex-role identities (Fagot, 1977; Mannarino, 1978); (4) inhibit aggressive behavior (Zahn-Waxler, Iannotti, and Chapman, 1982); and (5) enhance the development of social - cognitive abilities (Damon and Miller, 1982). A second area suggests that children who lack developmentally appropriate levels of social skills are more likely to be rejected or ignored by peers than children with developmentally appropriate skill levels (Dodge, Coie, and Brakke, 1982, Kurdek and Krile, 1982, Ladd, 1981). A third line of research finds that during

the elementary school years peer status is fairly stable (Coie and Dodge, 1983) . Popular children remain relatively popular while rejected children remain disliked. A fourth research area indicates that children rejected by peers are significantly more at risk than their accepted counterparts for psychological and social adjustment problems later in life (Cowen, Pederson, Babigian, Izzo, and Trost, 1973; Roff, Sells and Golden, 1972).

The social lives of children are contingent on peer relationships (Hartup, 1983). Sociometric measures have found poor peer relationships in childhood to be linked with maladjustment problems such as delinquency and dropping out of school (Roff, Sells and Golden, 1972; Ullmann,1975). Children rejected by peers during the school years are subsequently more likely to, (a) exhibit low achievement in and drop out of school, (b) become delinqent, (c) abuse alcohol and drugs, and (d) exhibit emotional disturbances and pyschopathology (Burleson, 1986 and Ladd and Asher, 1985). The significance of peer relationships in the classroom appears evident as it is obvious that one's peers can influence self perception. It is felt that peer relationships guide the feelings and behavior of students (Kinch, 1963).

2.7.1. Benefits of peer interaction in the classroom

According to Gaies (1985), peer involvement in the second language classroom has several pedagogical and socio-affective advantages. First, from a pedagogical point of view students who master material more slowly can get additional exposure to material from a peer. Peer involvement also provides more opportunities for communication in which the learner can "use" the target language. This idea was further advanced by Long and Porter (1985) who felt that group work increased the quantity of language practice opportunities available to the student. This type of involvement with a peer provides a more individualized approach to learning. Gaies (1985) states that students who find the classroom intimidating and competitive often do well working with their peers. Furthermore, the conventional classroom with its authoritative teacher often thwarts "real" communication making the language appear inauthentic.

According to Long and Porter (1985), face to face communication in small groups is a more natural setting for conversation since students are not limited to producing hurried, isolated sentences. Peer interaction provides an environment which is "interactive, responsive, dependent on supportive, encouraging human beings who believe the function

of a message is far more important than the form in which it is sent" (Urzua, 1980, p. 43).

From a socio-affective perspective one of the most significant benefits of peer interaction is the positive effect it has on the participants' self-concept and self-direction (Gaies, 1985). Interacting with peers often makes a student less dependent on the teacher. The activities on which many peer involvement programs are based allows learners greater opportunity to discover how they themselves learn best and how they can use the skills they have already acquired.

Several researchers have discussed the value of peer interaction in increasing motivation (Beach 1974; Littlejohn, 1982). Proficient peers are excellent target-language role models for learners. A beginning foreign language student may be motivated by a more proficient learner who has experienced frustrations similar to those of the beginner.

The cognitive benefits of collaborative problem solving during the elementary school years have been documented extensively (Allen, 1973; Doise and Mugny, 1981; Perret-Clermont, 1980; Skon, Johnson and Johnson, 1981). Peer interaction can foster cognitive development by allowing

children to acquire new skills and restructure their ideas through discussion.

Empirical support for the cognitive value of collaboration comes from a series of training studies by a group of Genevan psychologists (Perret-Clermont, 1980). The results indicate that peer interaction enhances the development of logical reasoning through a process of active cognitive reorganization induced by cognitive conflict.

Vygotsky (1978) and Mead (1934) found collaborative tasks to have more effective results. Collaboration gave children the opportunity to acquire cognitive skills while solving problems interactively with adults and more capable peers.

Forman and Cazden (1985) found that students collaborating on a task solved many more problems than those working by themselves and those who showed the most cooperative interactions and used the most combinatorial strategies also solved the most problems.

According to Azmitia (1987), having a partner can increase the amount of time children work on a task. For example, the presence of a partner can prevent children

from giving up in a difficult situation. Tasks can be more enjoyable with a partner. Azmitia, (1987), in studying the relation between peer interaction and problem solving in preschool children found that as early as the preschool years, collaboration can lead to greater learning than independent work.

Although the relationship between collaboration and task engagement has not received much attention, Leuba (1933) and Perlmutter, Behrend and Muller (1986) presented suggestive evidence that the presence of a peer increased the task engagement of four and five year olds relative to that of a solitary condition. Johnson, Johnson and Skon (1979) have collected self reports from elementary school children that indicate that dyads perceive a task as less difficult than singles. However, there is some question about the validity of self report measures (Cantor, 1983).

Greater involvement of peers in each other's learning can provide a rich and productive supplement to the second or foreign language classroom experience. Peer involvement places learners and teachers into new roles which can enrich the total educational and social environment.

Furthermore, there exists a body of literature acknowledging the value of peer interaction in learning a second language (Barrows Chesterfield Chesterfield, and Chavez, 1982; Chesterfield, Barrows Chesterfield, Hayes-Latimer, and Chavez, 1983; Filmore, 1976, 1982). The significance of peer interaction in the classroom is evident.

CHAPTER 3

PROCEDURES

The following chapter explains the sample, instrumentation, and data analysis used in this study. A general summary of the procedures is outlined followed by a description of the sample. The two instruments used in this study are described in detail.

3.1 General overview

Students in twenty three grades one, two, and three early French immersion classrooms were administered a measure of self-esteem in the period of the third week of April through the third week of May. In addition, during the year an observation form was used to record instructional processes related to language acquisition in the process model of learning. Data from these observations were used to generate the independent variables of teacher-centeredness and communicative potential. The data were analyzed by examining the relationship which existed between self-esteem, communicative potential and teacher-centeredness. This was done by calculating mean self-esteem scores and developing communicative potential and teacher-centeredness scores for

each class. These scores were then correlated and examined graphically to show relationships.

3.1.1. Sampling

French Immersion programs exist in all ten provinces of Canada. In Newfoundland, they began in 1975 when the Port au Port School Board at Cape St. George implemented an early immersion program. Since that date similar programs have been in effect in various areas around the province - in St. John's (1977, 1979, 1981), in Gander (1978), in Labrador City (1981), and in Corner Brook (1982). Others have been started more recently. At the time of this study there were approximately 1200 students enrolled in early immersion education in Newfoundland.

The sample for this study included all grades one, two, and three French immersion classrooms in Newfoundland (excluding those in Labrador City), whose teachers volunteered to participate in the study. 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 in eleven grade one, six grade two and six grade three classrooms. There were fewer grade two and three classrooms because the immersion programs at several schools had only recently been implemented and students had

not yet progressed through grades two and three. All students in the study did have their initial immersion experience in kindergarten.

Table 3.1: Characteristics of the sample

Grade Level	(1)	(2)	(3)	Total
Number of Classes	11	6	6	23
Smallest Class	10	7	11	7
Largest Class	29	34	28	34
Median Class size	24	24	20.5	24
Total number of students	259	143	122	524

3.1.2. Instrumentation

Two instruments were utilized in this study. The McDaniel-Piers Young Children's Self-Concept Scale was used to measure the level of self-esteem for each student. The French Immersion Classroom Processes Structured Observation Form was used to record classroom interactions between the teacher and students.

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

The McDaniel-Piers Young Children's Self-Concept Scale is a downward extension of the Piers Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (Piers, 1969). It is made up of forty statements, applicable to young children, derived from the original instrument. The instrument contains three subscales, Feeling Self, School Self and Behaving Self. A total score was calculated for use in the analysis that follows. In this study answer sheets were given to each of the students on which they circled a "yes" or "no" response to statements read aloud by the teacher.

According to Fleming and Courtney (1984) "one of the self-concept measures that seems to measure more of what we called self-esteem is the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale" (p.407). A discussion of this scale is included here because there is much more research on its reliability and validity than currently exists for the McDaniel-Piers Young Children's Self-Concept Scale.

Comparative studies of self-esteem scales have indicated that the Piers-Harris is a highly reliable and generally valid measure for assessing children's self-esteem (Smith and Rogers, 1978; Shavelson et al., 1976; Wylie, 1974; Robinson

and Shaver, 1973). Piers (1984) reported test-retest coefficients ranging from .34 to .73, which indicates a moderate reliability.

In a study conducted on the Piers-Harris 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. The total scale KR-20 reliabilities have been found to be satisfactory for the McDaniel-Piers Young Children's Self-Concept Scale. In a study of grade two children McDaniel et al. (1973) reported a KR-20 coefficient of .80 for the total score, .60 for the subscale scores. In another study of grade two children, McDaniel, Ball and Fortunato (1978) reported coefficients of .83.

Guiton and Zachery (1984) furnished the criterion validity for the Piers-Harris 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 was found for scale validity in the form of parent ratings of child characteristics. This supports the use of the total score as a global measure of the child's self-esteem.

Validity has also been shown by McDaniel et al.(1978). When factoring the scores of a combined group of grade one and two children, three factors relating to body image, behavior

and adequacy and happiness were found. Ames and Lau (1978) cited differences between children with high self-concept and low self-concept scores. High self-concept children attributed success and failure to their own skill, whereas low self-concept children accounted for success in terms of good luck and failure to a lack of skill. The 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).

Wendler (1984) and Platten and Williams (1979) conducted factor analyses of the Pier-Harris and have cautioned against interpreting subscale scores. It may also be that caution should be exercised when interpreting the subscales of the McDaniel-Piers Young Children's Self-Concept Scale. Notably, 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 affect interpretations based on school related aspects of the child's life.

3.1.2.2. The French Immersion Classroom Processes Structured Observation Form

The French Immersion Classroom Processes Structured Observation Form (Rose and Spain, 1985) was used to describe differences in instructional processes thought to affect

second language learning. The observation form permitted an analysis of the way that teachers conduct their lessons, of their use of verbal and non-verbal messages and the cognitive and affective content of various types of lessons. The observation form is actually a structured checklist used to describe interactions in terms of messages between two or more participants - sender and respondant -in French Immersion classrooms. The form describes communication in terms of interactions consisting of three messages; first, an initial message by a sender; second, a response to the initial message; and third; a redirect message from the initial sender. Messages are considered to be either verbal, nonverbal, or a combination of both.

3.1.2.2.1. Content of observation form

The data collected with this form allowed for the construction of the two independent variables used in this study. First, there was the classroom structure factor from which the variable of communicative potential was computed. Secondly, it reported on the initiation of interactions from which the teacher-centeredness variable was computed.

Four sections of the observation form were used for the data analysis. They were (1) Structure (2) Sender (3) Message Address and (4) Respondent. The Structure section was the

basis for the communicative potential variable while Sender, Address and Respondent were used to acquire the teacher-centeredness variable.

The "Sender" category recorded the sender of the initial message of the interaction. A sender could be the teacher, target, student, classroom assistant, or another person. The sender was considered to be the initiator of the interaction, which consisted of three messages.

"Message Address" was used to record to whom the initial message was directed. Messages could be addressed to the target, teacher, class, other student, small group of students, classroom assistant, or another person.

"Respondent" was used to record the person responding to the message. The respondent may or may not have been the person to whom the message was directed.

This study concentrated on the context or "structure" of messages and their numbers as they occurred within some classroom activity. Structure refers to the classroom process selected by the teacher to teach students. It changes continuously as the teacher varies control and expectations for student interaction. Structure, imposed by the teacher, governs the nature of interactions within the classrooms. It

acts as a type of interaction model since each structure carries with it implications for the control and locus of the interaction. However, the various structures described here are only descriptors. It must be presumed that the actual nature of the interaction within a specific structure will depend on two factors; (1) the teacher's perception of what is desirable and allowable, (2) the student's perception of the requirement and their ability and willingness to perform. It is expected that this will differ from classroom to classroom.

Interactions were classified into one of fifteen structures which could be observed. A structure was classified as either "academic" or "non-academic" (Rose and Spain, 1985). Academic structure refers to any activity organized with the goal of promoting knowledge,language transmission and acquisition. Academic structures are intended to be highly controlled by the teacher, though they may permit interactions controlled by students. Non-academic structures are activities which allow more spontaneous interactions to take place. They are not directly related to the academic outcomes being pursued, and vary in terms of level of teacher control. When the structure is non-academic students are sometimes permitted to control the structure of interactions that take place.

The first ten structures which were observed were academic, while the remaining five were non-academic. They

were developed based on a review of the literature and on informed observation of French immersion classrooms during which structures were recorded anecdotally. These structures are described as follows:

1. **Lecture/Explanation** - this type of structure usually occurs at the beginning of a lesson. It may include introductions of the lesson, presentation of material, procedural instructions, and/or explanations of the lesson. Explanations to clarify the lesson may occur at the beginning or during the lesson.

2. **Question/ Answer** - this constitutes a probe for information which does not, as in the case of a "drill", concentrate on the form of the message-answer, or, as in the case of a "discussion", concentrate on free verbal expression. For example, after having read a story, the teacher asks questions on the content of that story.

3. **Drill** - an activity which allows only minimal or no student manipulation of the information to be transmitted. A drill activity is highly controlled by the teacher and is mechanical in nature. There are four types of drill activities:

a. Repetition - such as a spelling drill or repeating mathematical facts.

b. Combining phonemes to produce more complicated strings. This activity may be practised through song or speech and may or may not be repetitious. e.g. "[b] + [a] fait [ba]".

c. Grammatical substitutions which are practised in a repetitious manner. e.g. "Je vais au magasin" - "J'y vais". "Nous allons au magasin" - "Nous y allons".

d. Plays and skits which involve the whole class or small groups and which have been practised before.

4. **Expressive Language Exercise** - a structure which encourages the student to use language creatively and which uses the aural/oral medium. The focus is on the language rather than content, which is not considered important. Examples are:

a. "Who am I" exercise.

b. Given words, the students must create sentences.

c. Open questions which allow for creative responses.

d. The use of puppets by the students in a spontaneous or unpractised manner.

5. Discussion - encourages interactions, and a sharing of ideas. A topic is introduced by the teacher or student, is academic in nature, and is discussed by the class or a group of students. This structure must not be confused with the "social/teacher structure" which is non-academic in nature. The student is not required to provide correct responses in this structure, but the content is the important issue in the discussion.

6. Seatwork Monitoring - the teacher or the person in charge is either at the desk or situated somewhere in the classroom. He/she is there for control purposes only and does not intervene or help students with their work. Meanwhile, students are at their desks doing seatwork.

7. Seatwork Piloting - students are at their desks doing seatwork while the teacher is either:

a. at his/her desk helping individual students who approach with questions; or

b. circulating throughout the classroom, helping students at their desks.

8. Boardwork - the student is directed by the teacher to go to the board to write the correct response to a question.

9. Group Activity - any/all cooperative, academic activity involving two or more students where the teacher is not intervening. The teacher may however, be intervening with another group at this time. This structure may take on the form of a game. However, it should be noted that games played by students who have completed their work while others are still working, would be considered non-academic, "social with peers".

10. Group Piloting - any group activity which involves teacher intervention; that is, the teacher is helping students with the activity while students are working together.

11. Organization/Administration - Any activity during class time which serves an organizational or administrative purpose. Examples of such activities are:

a. The beginning or end of a lesson, i.e. passing out papers, getting out textbooks, turning to page numbers, etc...

b. Before or after a lesson, i.e. prayers, singing of "O Canada", getting coats or lunchtins, etc. NOTE: When there is an administrative activity and an explanation activity (or any other academic activity), occuring simultaneously, the academic structure takes precedence in coding.

12. Control - Under this heading are included any measures taken by the teacher or some other authority figure to maintain or regain control of the class or student(s), for example:

a. praising the class.

b. silencing the students before leaving the classroom. It is important to note that this structure wouldn't be in use - USUALLY- when criticism or praise is administered on an individual basis. In this case, the discipline would not constitute the structure of the interchange. Rather, it would be a message within some other type of structure.

13. Social with the Teacher - this activity, although appearing to be a "Discussion" exercise, is non-academic. It is neither planned nor structured by the teacher to serve some academic purpose and is frequently student initiated. The

activity seems to occur most often before and after lessons, i.e. when the student has completed his/her work, before recess, at the end of the day and so forth.

14. Social with Peers - when the student is not involved in any of the above structures; when he/she has completed assigned work and is involved in some game or other non-academic activity; when lessons are not in session and messages are passing between students.

15. Non-interacting - students are not supposed to be interacting either with the teacher or peers. This is intended to be a quiet time for the class with no messages sent other than those which introduce and define the structure.

3.1.2.2.2. Observation procedures

Observations were recorded by two female, bilingual anglophones. One observer was a trained French immersion teacher while the second was a Master's student in Sociology. Several sessions were held to train the observers and check the reliability of the procedure.

In using the form six pupils were chosen as target students to be observed in each of the twenty three classrooms involved in the study. Three students were identified as high

achievers while the remaining three achieved less well. These target students were chosen on the basis of achievement data and teacher reports at the end of the previous academic year. Observations revolved around an individual target. This meant that any target activity was coded before that of any other student activity. Furthermore, observation of a target interaction with the teacher took precedence over the observation of other target interactions. The targets were observed in turn, during an extended instructional period. One interaction of three messages was observed for each target before observing the next target. Observation periods were chosen in a stratified random fashion to ensure observation of morning, mid-morning, and afternoon instructional periods for each classroom. The target might be observed engaging in classroom interactions as an active participant in the message, as an active respondant with a larger group or as a passive listener. Table 3.2 lists the total number of interactions recorded during observation periods for each classroom while Table 3.3 lists the total number of interactions for each grade level.

3.2. Development of theoretical communicative constructs.

3.2.1. Communicative potential

The next step was to determine how much communication each of the structures theoretically permitted in the

Table 3.2: Distribution of observed interactions by classroom

Classroom	Number of Observed Interactions	Percent
1	1527	4.3
2	1485	4.2
3	1560	4.4
4	2348	6.6
5	1508	4.3
6	1204	3.4
7	1609	4.5
8	1699	4.8
9	831	2.3
10	1210	3.4
11	1471	4.2
12	1513	4.3
13	1967	5.6
14	2054	5.8
15	1297	3.7
16	1016	2.9
17	2106	5.9
18	1202	3.4
19	1844	5.2
20	1831	5.2
21	1126	3.2
22	1823	5.1
23	1170	3.3

classroom. The term "communicative potential" was introduced to refer to the theoretical level of communicativeness of a classroom based on its observed structure. Since it was expected that there would be variation between classrooms in the way that communication actually occurred, the structures observed were considered to reflect teacher intents regarding communication, rather than the actual nature of communication.

Table 3.3: Distribution of observed interactions by grade

Grade	Number of Observed Interactions	Percent
1	16360	46.3
2	10025	28.3
3	8996	25.4

A review of the literature on the communicative approach helped to assess the communicative potential of each structure variable. Based upon this literature review each structure was classified in terms of four facets; (1) Level of Opportunity to Negotiate the Meaning of Input; (2) Level of Opportunity to Negotiate Output; (3) Scope and; (4) Opportunity for Feedback.

The Level of Opportunity to Negotiate Meaning relates to the quantity of communication possible within a given structure. According to the communicative approach, language is learned through the negotiation of meaning. The more opportunity there is for negotiation of meaning, the more language learning there will be. Meaning can be negotiated through either input or output. The opportunity to negotiate input refers to the opportunity to manipulate information received from a speaker so that it is understood. The opportunity to negotiate output refers to the opportunity to verbally produce any output whose meaning must be understood by others.

Scope refers to the range of topics and content which may be negotiated as the subject of language. Examples are; the inclusion of affect in conversation and talk about various day to day activities.

The availability of feedback refers to the opportunity to receive feedback from either the teacher or fellow students about the level of success of negotiation of meaning.

A rating of 0, 2, 4, 6, or 8 was assigned to each of the above facets depending on the preceived level of communicativeness of that particular structure. Appendix A explains how these ratings were determined. Interpretation of the range of the ratings were from; (0), no communicative potential through (8), high communicative potential. The sum of the values of the four facets was taken to be the communicative potential of a structure. Those structures that allowed for more student talk generally received higher communicative loadings. Table 3.4 shows the communicative loadings given to each structure variable for each of four facets and the total communicative potential.

Using this formula it can be predicted that teachers who avail of the structures with the higher communicative loadings would tend to have the more communicative classrooms. Students in these classrooms would potentially have a broader

Table 3.4: Communicative potential of structure variables

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Lecture	8	4	4	2	18
Ouestion/Answer	6	6	4	6	22
Drill	4	4	4	4	14
Expressive Lang. Exercise	8	8	8	8	32
Discussion	8	6	6	8	28
Seatwork/monitoring	2	0	0	0	2
Seatwork/piloting	2	2	4	6	14
Boardwork	2	0	4	6	12
Group Activity	8	8	6	6	28
Group Piloting	8	8	6	8	30
Organization/administration	4	2	2	2	10
Control	2	0	2	2	6
Social/Teacher	8	8	8	8	32
Social/Peers	8	8	8	6	30
Non-interacting	0	0	0	0	0

(1) Structure variables
(2) Opportunity to negotiate input
(3) Opportunity to negotiate output
(4) Scope
(5) Feedback
(6) Communicative potential

0 = none
2 = minimal
4 = low
6 = moderate
8 = high

scope of interactions to work with and would have more opportunity to negotiate meaning. Communicative classrooms would provide more opportunities for interacting with significant others and would thus increase the level of feedback available to students. The significance of increased feedback from peers and its relationship to self-esteem has been documented in the review of the literature.

Table 3.5: Mean teacher-centeredness scores for each classroom

(1)	(2)	(3)
1	4	14.8
2	19	13.9
3	3	9.9
4	22	8.8
5	20	8.7
6	2	8.1
7	8	7.9
8	11	6.6
9	6	5.0
10	15	5.0
11	10	5.0
12	21	4.3
13	1	4.0
14	5	3.9
15	9	3.7
16	7	3.6
17	12	3.1
18	14	2.5
19	23	2.3
20	16	1 8
21	13	1.7
22	18	1.2
23	17	1.1

(1) Rank order of classrooms
(2) Classroom id
(3) Mean teacher-centeredness

3.2.2. Teacher-centeredness

The term "teacher-centeredness" was developed to refer to the level of teacher dominance over classroom interactions. Teacher-centeredness was defined to be the ratio of all teacher initiated verbal interaction with students to all student initiated verbal interaction with other students. Teacher-centeredness is a focus on the initiation of

interaction and reflects the nature of the actual interaction that takes place.

Data for the computation of the teacher-centeredness variable came from observing classroom interactions and recording who the initiator of an interaction was, and in the case of student initiated interactions, the address of the initial message. Table 3.5 gives the mean teacher-centeredness scores for each classroom.

It may be hypothesized that high teacher-centered classrooms, that is, those in which students interact primarily with the teacher, would tend to limit student opportunity for negotiation of meaning and the scope of messages received and delivered. Since there would be less reinforcement opportunities with other students, the self-esteem of students in these classrooms would tend to be lower than in more student-centered classrooms.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the analysis of the data as it relates to the hypotheses.

4.1. The relationship of communicative potential to mean self-esteem.

This hypothesis predicted that the communicative potential of a classroom would be related to the mean level of self-esteem of the students. Figure 4-1 shows this relationship.

The general trend shows a positive relationship between the communicative potential of a classroom and the mean level of self-esteem of the students in the classroom. Exceptions to this trend were classrooms four and twenty. If these classrooms were not considered there was a positive correlation of .439, significant at the .05 level, between the communicative potential of a classroom and the average self-esteem of the classroom.

In terms of structure, classrooms four and twenty had high communicative potential, but were anomolous with respect

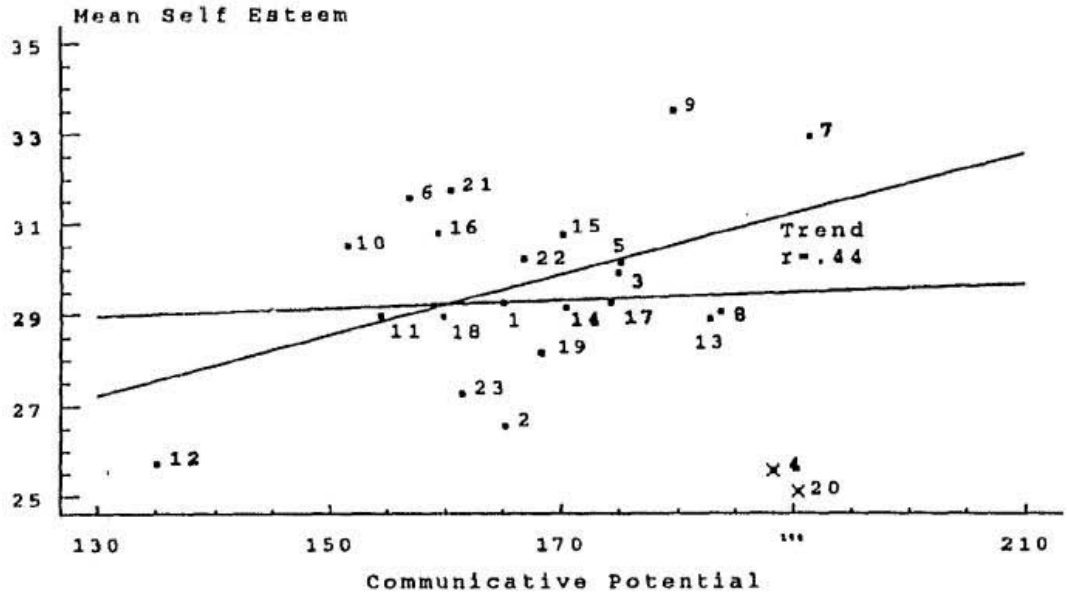

Figure 4-1: The relationship between self-esteem and communicative potential

to the trend that was observed, relating communicative potential to mean self-esteem. As outliers, they appear to have very high communicative potential even though the mean self-esteems of the students were the lowest of all classrooms. It will be shown that these classrooms are significantly different from the other classrooms in terms of the nature of the actual communication which takes place when compared to classrooms with similar communicative potential. The nature of the interactions and the types of structures used by the teachers of these classrooms could be related to reinforcment patterns which are associated with lower self-esteem in students. This finding will be discussed in detail in section 4.3.1.

The nature of communicative potential, the relationship of its components to the total score, and a comparison of its components for high and low communicative potential classrooms can be seen in Table 4.1. The use of structures with high communicative loadings accounted for the higher communicative potential in classrooms like seven, eight, nine and thirteen. Structures with lower communicative loadings were used more frequently in classrooms like six, ten, eleven and twelve.

Table 4.1: Comparison of observed structures in high and low communicative potential classrooms

(1)	(2)	(3) (n=110)	(4) (n=105)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Lecture	18	6.55	7.550	-1.000	5.0	1.3	-.2678
Question	22	5.65	6.125	-0.475	27.1	7.4	-.0331
Drill	14	7.38	11.78	-4.400	11.4	5.4	-.4664
Expressive Lang.	32	5.58	1.150	4.425	0.0	0.7	.5390
Discussion	28	5.25	1.350	3.900	10.4	9.7	.6243
Seatwork/monitoring	2	3.00	1.075	1.925	2.6	3.3	.2222
Seatwork/piloting	14	23.00	35.03	-12.03	1.8	25.9	-.4748
Boardwork	12	1.80	1.850	-0.050	2.0	4.9	-.1681
Group Activity	28	4.38	2.475	1.900	0.4	0.5	.3783
Group Piloting	30	11.80	3.475	8.325	.8	15.7	.8216
Organ/Admin.	10	15.63	20.40	-4.775	12.5	12.9	-.3849
Control/Discipline	6	3.88	1.525	2.350	3.4	2.4	.4369
Social/teacher	32	0.95	0.425	0.525	2.3	3.9	.2837
Social/peers	30	4.60	2.325	2.275	1.9	5.6	.2971
Non-interacting	0	0.35	3.150	-2.800	0.4	0.1	-.5603

(1) Structure variables
(2) Communicative loadings of each structure.
(3) Average percent observed structures in high CP rooms 7,8,9, and 13.
(4) Average percent observed structures in low CP rooms 6,10,11, and 12.
(5) Observed structure differences between high and low rooms, (2)-(3).
(6) Observed structures in classroom 4
(7) Observed strutures in classroom 20
(8) Correlation of communicative potential (CP) with observed structures excluding classroom 4 and 20.

Columns two and three of Table 4.1 compare the average percent of observed structures in the high and low

communicative classrooms. From these columns it is possible to note which structures occurred more often in the high rather than the low communicative potential classrooms. There was more use of expressive language exercise, discussion, seatwork monitoring, group activity, group piloting, control and discipline, social with the teacher and social with peers in the high communicative classrooms. The low communicative classrooms made more use of lecture, question and answer, drill, seatwork piloting, organization and administration and non-interacting.

Column seven of Table 4.1 shows that there was a significant correlation between the communicative potential scores of the classrooms surveyed and seven of the fifteen structures; drill, expressive language exercise, discussion, seatwork piloting, group piloting, control and discipline and non-interacting. This suggests that these were the structures used by teachers that would most discriminate the high from the low communicative potential classrooms. Most of the other structures, while they discriminated in the expected direction, did so less strongly. The structures, boardwork and question and answer, had low correlations with communicative potential suggesting that they were used in classrooms with varying degrees of communicative potential. It seems evident from this analysis is that there are indeed some low communicative structures like drill, seatwork piloting,

control and discipline and non-interacting which were used in high communicative classrooms.

Two structures, seatwork monitoring and control, not usually considered to have high communicative potential, were noted to have higher frequencies in the high communicative classrooms. It is suspected that both structures may be linked to the management required for the set up and use of group work. Communicative potential may be low with these structures but they may be indicative of the process teachers find necessary to sustain a communicative classroom. One possibility is that seatwork monitoring is used by teachers to enforce quiet periods, thus maintaining better overall control.

4.2. The relationship of teacher-centeredness to mean self-esteem

Chapter 3, teacher-centeredness was defined as the level of teacher dominance over classroom interactions. Figure 4-2 shows the relationship of teacher-centeredness to self-esteem, which had a correlation of -.369, significant at the .10 level. Those classrooms which were relatively teacher-centered tended to have lower mean self-esteem scores while the more student-centered a classroom was the higher were the self-esteems of the students.

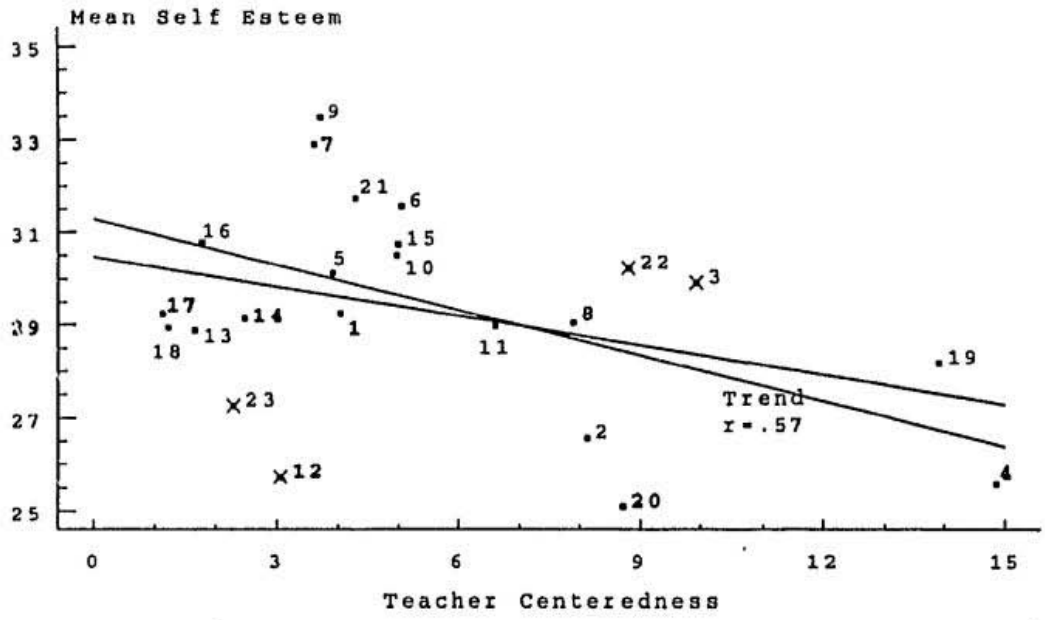

Figure 4-2: The relationship between mean self-esteem and teacher-centeredness

Table 4.2 shows the teacher-centeredness and mean self-esteem scores for each of the twenty-three classrooms. It may be noted that classrooms twenty-two and three, while being highly teacher-centered, tended to have relatively high mean self-esteem scores, and that classrooms twelve and twenty-three, although being low teacher-centered, had low mean self-esteem scores. If these classrooms were excluded the trend was much stronger, with a correlation of .57, significant at the .05 level. Teacher-centeredness is a reflection of the message initiation which takes place in the classroom and it was anticipated that a closer look at the structures used in these classrooms would explain their divergence from the trend. This issue will be explored further in section 4.3.2.

Table 4.2: Mean scores for teacher-centeredness, self-esteem and communicative potential

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1	4	14.8	9	33.5	7	192
2	19	13.9	7	32.9	20	191
3	3	9.9	21	31.7	4	188
4	22	8.8	6	31.6	8	184
5	20	8.7	16	30.8	13	183
6	2	8.1	15	30.8	9	180
7	8	7.9	10	30.5	5	175
8	11	6.6	22	30.2	3	175
9	6	5.0	5	30.1	17	174
10	15	5.0	3	29.9	14	171
11	10	5.0	17	29.3	15	170
12	21	4.3	1	29.3	19	168
13	1	4.0	14	29.1	22	167
14	5	3.9	8	29.0	2	165
15	9	3.7	11	29.0	1	165
16	7	3.6	18	29.0	23	162
17	12	3.1	13	28.9	21	161
18	14	2.5	19	28.1	18	160
19	23	2.3	23	27.3	16	159
20	16	1.8	2	27.0	6	157
21	13	1.7	12	26.0	11	155
22	18	1.2	4	26.0	10	152
23	17	1.1	20	25.0	12	135

(1) Rank order of classrooms from highest to lowest.
(2) Classroom id for teacher-centerednness scores.
(3) Teacher-centeredness score for classrooms ranked in column one.
(4) Classroom id for self-esteem scores.
(5) Self-esteem scores for classrooms ranked in column three.
(6) Classroom id for communicative potential scores.
(7) Communicative potential scores for classrooms ranked in column five.

Teacher-centered classrooms are characterized by teacher dominiance over verbal interaction. In a teacher-centered

classroom the teacher initiates most of the interactions. By definition, student-centered classrooms have relatively more student initiated verbal messages than in teacher-centered classrooms. In teacher-centered classrooms, where relatively more of the messages are initiated and controlled by the teacher, communication with peers would tend to be limited. In the role as major initiator of interactions, the teacher would tend to provide most, if not all, of the reinforcement to students. As noted, feedback from significant others enhances self-esteem; however, in a teacher-centered classroom the importance of the peer group as a source of reinforcement is minimized.

The number of significant others a student is capable of interacting with in a student-centered classroom is higher simply because the student population outnumbers the teacher. The larger student population has the potential for increasing the quantity of talk available to the student thereby providing more opportunities for negotiation of meaning and a wider range of topics for conversation. In a student-centered classroom students have the option of conversing with either their teacher or their peers. Feedback from more than one source, that is, from both the teacher and the peer group, has the capability to reinforce student self-esteem. In fact, as discussed earlier, peer interaction alone is known to have a positive significant effect on self-esteem.

4.3. An examination of the outliers.

4.3.1. An analysis of the communicative potential in classrooms four and twenty

In assessing the relationship of communicative potential to mean self-esteem it was noted that classrooms four and twenty did not fit the trend of the majority of classrooms. Drawing upon other data which dealt with structures used and the initation of messages, it was discovered that while these classrooms had high communicative potential they were also highly teacher-centered.

The appearance of communicative potential in classrooms four and twenty is a result of the structures used by the teacher; however, the observation of these structures did not appear to accurately reflect what the teacher actually did. Column five of Table 4.1 (page 59) shows which structures were used in classroom four. Question and answer dominated over the other structures and was used even more than in the low communicative potential classrooms, (27 per cent compared to 6.125 per cent). Compared to other high communicative potential classrooms there was less lecture, no expressive language exercise, less seatwork monitoring, seatwork piloting, group activity, group piloting, organization and administration, control and discipline and social with peers.

There was more question and answer, drill, discussion and social with the teacher than in the high communicative classrooms. The dominance of question and answer, which appears to be a neutral structure usually used in classrooms with all levels of communicative potential, may suggest that this style of teaching carried over into other more communicative activities, with the teacher initiating most of the interactions through a questioning format and thus dominating a teaching style which was different from the nature of the intended activity.

An analysis of the structures used in classroom twenty as shown in column six of Table 4.1 (page 59) demonstrates that lecture and drill were lower than in the high communicative potential classrooms. There were almost no occurences of expressive language exercise or group activity. The amounts of seatwork monitoring, seatwork piloting, control and discipline and organization and administration were typical of the high communicative potential classrooms. There was more discussion, group piloting, social with the teacher and social with peers than even the high communicative potential classrooms. There was also higher question and answer than in either the high or low communicative potential classrooms. As with classroom four, if the teacher adopted a question and answer style with other structures, it would be consistent with the higher level of teacher-centeredness found in classroom twenty.

The use of discussion, group piloting and social with the teacher in both classrooms four and twenty, while highly communicative, may have had a less positive influence on the self-esteem of students because they were teacher dominated. Feedback to students may have been more critical and less accepting, so that these classrooms had the lowest self-esteem scores of all classrooms. Normally, the communicative potential in classrooms which use these structures would allow for more negotiation of meaning with peers. In classrooms four and twenty, students did not appear to benefit from these opportunities. It is possible that in a highly teacher-centered classroom, where student message initiation is limited, the method of presenting these structures is so different that there is less opportunity for negotiation of meaning with peers for positive feedback, resulting in a negative effect on the level of self-esteem in the classrooms.

A closer examination of the nature of the interactions which took place in these classrooms showed that this could have been the case. Table 4.3 shows the rank order of classrooms, from highest to lowest, for the frequency with which interactions were initiated by the teacher and by the students in each classroom. Total messages refers to the combined number of verbal and non-verbal messages. The rankings for verbal and non-verbal messages separately are

also given. While the concept of communicative potential applies primarily to verbal language use, non-verbal message initiations have been included in the analysis because of the need to consider all ways to provide feedback. In assessing the number of non-verbal messages sent by teachers and students it became clear that in certain classrooms the use of non-verbal language communication occurred with considerable frequency. It may be expected that the language learning outcomes will be different in classrooms which rely more heavily on non-verbal rather than verbal communication and is a topic worthy of further research.

A comparison of the intensity of all messages, verbal and non-verbal combined, initiated by the teacher is shown in column one of Table 4.3 and can be compared to the combined total of verbal and non-verbal messages initiated by students, shown in column two. This comparison shows both classrooms four and twenty to have the highest teacher message initiation of all classrooms and among the lowest for student message initiation.

Examining the relationship of teacher initiated verbal talk, in column three, to student initiated verbal talk, shown in column four, it is further evident that classroom four and twenty are more teacher-centered than would be expected, given their high communicative potential. Both classes have the

Table 4.3 Rank order of classrooms, from highest to lowest, for the frequency of interactions initiated by the teacher and students

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
21	22	17	6	14	9
17	4	21	21	16	16
16	16	6	11	15	22
6	17	16	3	18	18
18	12	18	19	21	7
13	20	13	4	9	23
11	7	11	22	22	4
15	23	15	10	23	8
10	18	23	8	10	10
22	9	3	2	2	3
12	5	7	15	6	1
7	14	12	20	11	13
3	6	22	7	13	21
9	11	10	9	5	6
14	15	9	12	1	2
2	1	8	17	19	19
8	21	2	16	8	14
23	19	14	23	7	20*
19	13	19	1	4	17*
1	8	1	5	3	5
5	10	20	13	12	11
20	2	5	18	17	12
4	3	4	14	20	15

(1) Total teacher messages (both verbal and non-verbal)
(2) Total student messages (both verbal and non-verbal)
(3) Total teacher verbal messages
(4) Total student verbal messages
(5) Total teacher non-verbal messages
(6) Total student non-verbal messages
* Tied ranking

highest teacher initiated verbal messages of all classrooms, while student initiated verbal interaction is relatively low compared to other classooms.

In looking at the non-verbal talk occurring in classroom four and twenty, somewhat different findings occur for both classes. Teacher initiated non-verbal talk, as shown in column five, is very high for both classes while student initiated non-verbal, as shown in column six, is low for classroom four but relatively high for classroom twenty. In this classroom it appears that students are communicating through their use of non-verbal messages.

In conclusion, it was found that teachers tended to dominate the use of language in classrooms four and twenty much more than was typical of other classrooms in the study. The high communicative potential of these classrooms was very much a function of teacher talk, rather than a function of teacher and student talk as in other high communicative potential classrooms.

4.3.2. An analysis of feedback in classrooms twenty-two, three, twenty-three and twelve.

The correlation between teacher-centeredness and self-esteem shows the general trend to be that classrooms which are relatively teacher-centered have lower mean self-esteem scores while student-centered classrooms tend to have higher mean self-esteem scores. Exceptions to this trend included classrooms twenty-two, three, twenty-three and twelve. Since feedback from significant others appears to have an effect on self-esteem it was anticipated that a closer look at the structures used in these classrooms and the feedback opportunities which they provided would account for the observed departures from the trend.

The opportunity for feedback to students from either the teacher or the peer group was assessed using part of the data from Table 3.4 (page 56, 55, 96, 95). The "feedback facet" rated each structure for its potential to provide feedback. It was expected that classrooms which made average to above average use of structures which allowed for more feedback would have higher self-esteem than those structures which afforded little feedback opportunity. Table 4.4 shows the structures used in each of the four classrooms and the total opportunity for feedback. Mean self-esteem and teacher-centeredness scores are also given.

Table 4.4: Feedback opportunities, mean self-esteem and teacher-centeredness for classrooms 22, 3, 12, and 23.

Structures used	classrooms 22	3	12	23
Lecture	2	*	2	2
Question and Answer	6	*	*	6
Drill	*	2	2	2
Expressive Language Exercise	*	8	*	8
Discussion	8	8	*	*
Seatwork/monitoring	0	0	*	0
Seatwork/piloting	*	6	6	6
Boardwork	6	*	6	6
Group Activity	*	*	*	*
Group Piloting	8	8	*	*
Organization/Administration	2	2	2	2
Control/Discipline	2	2	2	*
Social/Teacher	8	*	8	*
Social/Peers	6	*	*	*
Non-interacting	0	0	0	0
Total Feedback	48.0	50.0	28.0	32.0
Mean Self-Esteem	30.2	29.9	26.0	27.3
Teacher-centeredness	8.8	9.9	3.1	2.3

" * " means the structure had a below average use.

It was found that in classrooms twenty-two and three structures with more potential for feedback were used than in classrooms twelve and twenty-three. It can be hypothesized that while classrooms twenty-two and three are highly teacher-centered the structures selected by the teacher provided opportunities for feedback to students which were significant enough to positively influence their self-esteem. Classrooms twelve and twenty-three made use of structures which had significantly less opportunity for feedback. These low

teacher-centered classrooms provided lower feedback opportunities for students which tended to produce lower self-esteem scores. This analysis seems to demonstrate that exceptions to the trend do exist. A classroom may be highly teacher-centered, yet have high communicative potential together with positive systems of feedback for students. Further, classrooms that are less teacher-centered may, nonetheless, have lower communicative potential, and fewer opportunities for the positive reinforcement of students.

From the analysis of the data it is possible to draw several conclusions and make recommendations for further research. This will be done in the following chapter.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The following are the conclusions that have been reached as a result of this study.

1. In general, the level of self-esteem of students in a classroom is associated positively with the communicative potential of a classroom.

2. In general, the level of self-esteem of students in a classroom is associated negatively with the teacher-centeredness of the classroom.

3. Usually, a higher communicative potential is associated with a higher level of student involvement in classrooms processes but high communicative potential can be achieved in classrooms with a stronger focus on the teacher.

4. While there is a tendency for high communicative classrooms to use high communicative structures, they also use some of the lower communicative structures as much as the low communicative classrooms.

5.1. Self-esteem and communicative potential.

The analysis supported the conclusion that there is generally a significant relationship between the communicative potential of a classroom and the mean self-esteem of students in that class, but that exceptions to this trend do occur.

A review of the literature on self-esteem shows that feedback from significant others affects self-esteem. Furthermore, it has been said that self-esteem affects what a person does and the way in which they choose to do it (Wells and Marwell, 1976). It follows then, that self-esteem reflects what a student has done in the classroom, and it also means that students' self-esteems will affect what they do in the classroom.

A communicative classroom has, by its nature, the potential for increased interaction with significant others. Interaction with significant others, either individually or in a group, can influence self-esteem (Stanines, 1958). It is the feedback from significant others which occurs in interactions that can change self-esteem. The significant others with whom a student interacts in a classroom are the teacher and the peer group. There are some distinct differences about the feedback received from these two sources. First of all, it can be hypothesized that teachers will tend to have a more direct

control over feedback than will fellow students. Teacher feedback will also be more likely to be about the content in general and thus be more likely to provide for quality language development than will student feedback. However, feedback from the teacher may be more likely to be seen by students as negative because of its corrective nature. Student feedback may be more likely to be provided to other students for behavior other than the learning of content and may be viewed by other students overall, as more positive. Positive feedback by students for other behavior will, at the same time, also be positively reinforcing language use. Therefore, student interaction which is uncontrolled by the teacher carries the risk of reinforcing incorrect language. The enhancement of self-esteem, then, becomes contingent on uncontrolled, and possibly incorrect language use. This in turn, increases the likelihood that incorrect language will be practiced and become habitual. It appears that this is more likely to occur in student-centered classrooms with high communicative potential.

The effects of feedback from the teacher and the peer group may then tend to have varying results with important implications for language learning. Feedback from students is less directive and may not support quality language development while feedback from the teacher may tend to be more accurate about language usage. Teacher feedback may

therefore, be more effective from the point of view of language accuracy. Paradoxically, in typical classrooms, teacher feedback may be less effective in terms of encouraging students to communicate, as well as less effective in terms of broadening the scope and quantity of communicative opportunities.

The question of feedback from the teacher versus feedback from students is a area worthy of future research. The evidence of this study suggested that it is possible to establish higher levels of teacher control while retaining a higher potential for positive feedback to students at the same time, in settings that would thus be regarded to be highly communicative. Under conditions such as these, it may be hypothesized that both the accuracy and scope of second language discourse would be higher.

In an attempt to increase task engagement in language learning the communicative approach promotes the use of classroom structures which tend to lessen the control by the teacher of feedback in the classroom. Teachers must manage the accuracy levels of students' use of the language. The challenge for immersion teachers is to find ways to retain that control, while at the same time including in their curriculum the greater opportunities for language use inherent in the more communicative structures. One way teachers might

accomplish this task would be to find ways to take advantage of student feedback to reinforce correct language.

Another rationale for using particular communicative structures is that most teachers want to enhance the self-esteem of their students. In this sense, self-esteem is defined by the teacher to be a goal of instruction, rather than an indicator of the success of instruction. In doing this however, the possibility exists that in using communicative structures that promote student self-esteem teachers are promoting poor learning of the language.

The level of self-esteem of a student is actually an indicator of the effect of feedback in the classroom. This study suggests the hypothesis that higher levels of self esteem in communicative classrooms are due to uncontrolled feedback from other students and the likelihood that this feedback will be less related to achievement. The direct promotion of self-esteem may not be useful in terms of the true priorities of the teacher. In classrooms where feedback is controlled by the teacher, self-esteem should be more related to achievement. Since communicative potential is related to self-esteem, controlling the feedback from various sources will be necessary so that the effectiveness of different communicative structures in promoting language learning can be assessed. Teachers who wish to enhance

student self-esteem as a goal should do so through the promotion of classroom achievement. This presents new challenges for the immersion teacher that have not been addressed in the literature.

5.2. Teacher-centeredness and self-esteem

The analysis concluded that there is a negative correlation between the teacher-centeredness and the mean self-esteem of classrooms. Teacher-centered classrooms are dominated by teacher initiation and control of talk. In these classrooms the teacher is the major provider of reinforcement and thus the major source of self-esteem enhancement. Teacher feedback will have a negative effect on student self-esteem when viewed as less positive by students.

Interactions with significant others in teacher-centered classrooms tend to focus on the teacher. Since the range of topics discussed is more likely to be content based, the scope of negotiation of meaning will be limited. Conversing with peers provides the student with the opportunity to negotiate meaning which may or may not be content based. Peer interaction may provide a wider range of topics to be negotiated. The more opportunities there are to negotiate meaning the more opportunities there are for feedback about what is negotiated. In teacher-centered classrooms feedback is

more likely to be focused on teaching objectives which means that self-esteem is more likely to be a function of goal attainment. Student-centered classrooms have the potential to provide higher levels of feedback for esteem enhancement but it is more likely to be directed to unintended ends.

This study has not produced any evidence to suggest that the fundamental principles underlying the communicative approach do not hold. In general, students with more opportunity to negotiate meaning will probably be more successful second language learners than those with less opportunity. The nature of those opportunities, however, will probably define the nature (or quality) of the language being learned. The essential point of this study is the recognition that one way to focus the communicative process is by controlling the feedback available to students within the process. This feedback, regardless of source, needs to be focused on the desired aspects of second language learning. Monitoring the level of student self-esteem may be an effective way of monitoring the effectiveness of the feedback.

5.3. Recommendations

1. Research to explore the nature of feedback in teacher-centered communicative classrooms.

2. Research to investigate ways to promote student feedback to other students about the correct use of language.

3. Research to study the feedback effects of peer reinforcement.

4. Research to study the feedback effects of highly teacher-centered classrooms which have high communicative potential and what the language learning outcomes of these classes would be.

5. Research to determine whether the structures imposed by the teacher actually reflect teacher behaviors in the classroom.

6. Research which focuses on both on and off task peer interaction to find out what the opportunity to negotiate meaning and feedback effects on student learning are.

7. Research to determine the language learning outcomes of promoting peer interaction between advanced and less advanced students.

8. Research to study the implications for second language learning in classrooms which place a major emphasis on the use of non-verbal communication.

9. Research to verify that teachers can control the acquisition of accurate second language better than students can, and exploration of techniques that produce these effects. Subsequent research would then explore ways to transfer these techniques to student-centered processes.

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APPENDIX A

An Explanation of the Communicative Loadings Given to Structure Variables

The Level of Opportunity to Negotiate Meaning relates to the quantity of communication possible within a given structure. According to the communicative approach, language is learned through the negotiation of meaning. The more opportunity there is for negotiation of meaning, the more language learning there will be. Meaning can be negotiated through either input or output. The opportunity to negotiate input refers to the opportunity to manipulate information received from a speaker so that it is understood. The opportunity to negotiate output refers to the opportunity to verbally produce any output whose meaning must be understood by others.

Scope refers to the range of topics and content which may be negotiated as the subject of language. Examples are; the inclusion of affect in conversation and talk about various day to day activities.

The availability of feedback refers to the opportunity to receive feedback from either the teacher or fellow students about the level of success of negotiation of meaning.

A rating of 0, 2, 4, 6, or 8 was assigned to each of the above facets depending on the preceived level of communicativeness of that particular structure. Appendix A explains how these ratings were determined. Interpretation of

the range of the ratings were from; (0), no communicative potential through (8), high communicative potential. The sum of the values of the four facets was taken to be the communicative potential of a structure. Those structures that allowed for more student talk generally received higher communicative loadings. Table 3.4 shows the communicative loadings given to each structure variable for each of four facets and the total communicative potential.

Using this formula it can be predicted that teachers who avail of the structures with the higher communicative loadings would tend to have the more communicative classrooms. Students in these classrooms would potentially have a broader scope of interactions to work with and would have more opportunity to negotiate meaning. Communicative classrooms would provide more opportunities for interacting with significant others and would thus increase the level of feedback available to students.

Table 3.4: Communicative potential of structure variables

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Lecture	8	4	4	2	18
Ouestion/Answer	6	6	4	6	22
Drill	4	4	4	4	14
Expressive Lang. Exercise	8	8	8	8	32
Discussion	8	6	6	8	28
Seatwork/monitoring	2	0	0	0	2
Seatwork/piloting	2	2	4	6	14
Boardwork	2	0	4	6	12
Group Activity	8	8	6	6	28
Group Piloting	8	8	6	8	30
Organization/administration	4	2	2	2	10
Control	2	0	2	2	6
Social/Teacher	8	8	8	8	32
Social/Peers	8	8	8	6	30
Non-interacting	0	0	0	0	0

(1) Structure variables
(2) Opportunity to negotiate input
(3) Opportunity to negotiate output
(4) Scope
(5) Feedback
(6) Communicative potential

0 = none
2 = minimal
4 = low
6 = moderate
8 = high

1. Lecture.

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Input** = High (8).
Explanation: A large store of information is presented to the student. The teacher often uses various interactional modifications to present the material.

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Output** = Low (4).
Explanation: These are one-way exchanges dominated by the teacher. Students have little or no opportunity to produce new language forms.

Rating: **Scope** = Low (4).
Explanation: This is a one-way task selected and presented by the teacher. The range of topics is limited to the curriculum.

Rating: **Opportunity for Feedback** = Minimal (2).
Explanation: Students are given little opportunity to talk. This is a listening task, feedback is limited until the teacher moves on to another phase of the lesson. Students have little opportunity to verify their message comprehension.

2. Question and Answer

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Input** = Moderate (6).

Explanation: Interaction occurs between two people. There is lots of opportunity for two way negotiated meaning exchanges. Interaction can be modified if it is not understood. Answers are limited however, to content presented by the teacher.

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Output** = Moderate (6).
Explanation: Students are requested to verbally produce a message from the input they receive. This is still a teacher dominated activity.

Rating: **Scope** = Low (4).
Explanation: Selection, choice and range of topics is limited to the teacher. There is little opportunity for inclusion of affect.

Rating: **Opportunity for Feedback** = Moderate (6).
Explanation: Feedback is generally received directly after the student responds. The range of feedback is limited by the scope.

3. Drill

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Meaning** = Low (4).

Explanation: Interaction is prescribed by the form of drill. This is a rote activity requiring little understanding of concepts.

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Output** = Low (4).
Explanation: Student response is restricted to drill format. Student manipulation of responses is also restricted by drill form.

Rating: **Scope** = Low (4).
Explanation: The range of topics limited to those that fit the drill format.

Rating: **Opportunity for Feedback** = Minimal (2).
Explanation: Feedback is given to the group whereas an individual student may be reinforced for a wrong response in attempting to go along with the group.

4. Expressive Language Exercise

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Input** = High (8).
Explanation: The teacher selects an activity which encourages the student to use the language creatively. The student has the opportunity to express him/herself and to check understanding of the input. The student has some choice in a response.

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Output** = High (8).

Explanation: This structure provides an opportunity for creative, spontaneous interactions whereby students are encouraged to manipulate the language. This activity is not restricted to curriculum content.

Rating: **Scope** = High (8).

Explanation: The range of topics and the inclusion of affect is unlimited.

Rating: **Opportunity for Feedback** = High (8).

Explanation: Feedback is readily available from the teacher or the peer group.

5. Discussion

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Input** = High (8).

Explanation: This consists of two way interaction allowing for lots of interactional modifications to ensure understanding.

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Output** = Moderate (6).

Explanation: Interactions are encouraged but must be academic in nature.

Rating: **Scope** = Moderate (6).

Explanation: The range of topics introduced are academic in nature.

Rating: **Opportunity for Feedback** = High (8).
Explanation: There is immediate feedback from the teacher, an individual student or the group as discussion proceeds.

6. Seatwork Monitoring

Rating: **Opportunity for Negotiation of Input** = Minimal (2).
Explanation: Students are assigned a paper and pencil task. There is very little interaction between two people. This is meant to be an individual task. The teacher is situated for control purposes only and is not helping students.

Rating: **Opportunity for Negotiation of Output** = None (0).
Explanation: No interaction is permitted.

Rating: **Scope** = None (0).
Explanation: This activity is restricted to paper and pencil tasks.

Rating: **Feedback** = None (0).
Explanation: There is no interaction with the teacher or fellow students during this activity.

7. Seatwork Piloting

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Input** = Minimal (2).

Explanation: Students are engaged in a paper and pencil task interacting periodically with the teacher as they seek help or the teacher notices they need help.

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Output** = Minimal (2).
Explanation: This is a paper and pencil task which does not require any interaction except when the student seeks help or is offered some assistance by the teacher.

Rating: **Scope** = Low (4).
Explanation: The range of topics is limited to curriculum content. There is little opportunity for affect. This is a teacher dominated and directed activity.

Rating: **Opportunity for Feedback** = Moderate (6).
Explanation: Students have the opportunity to seek feedback from the teacher. The teacher is available to provide feedback as he/she circulates throughout the classroom.

8. Boardwork

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Input** = Minimal (2).
Explanation: Interaction is limited as students are expected to write their response on the board. Student responses are not required to involve conversation.

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Output** = None (0).
Explanation: There is no verbal output expected. The student is required to write the response on the board.

Rating: **Scope** = Low (4).
Explanation: Topics are selected by the teacher and are related to curriculum content.

Rating: **Opportunity for Feedback** = High (6).
Explanation: There is immediate feedback from the teacher and responses are written on the board.

9. Group Activity

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Input** = High (8).
Explanation: There are lots of opportunities for two-way negotiated meaning exchanges. There are many occassions when interactions can be modified to increase understanding.

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Output** = High (8).
Explanation: There are many opportunities for verbal expression with the teacher or the peer group.

Rating: **Scope** = Moderate (6).

Explanation: The range of activities are restricted to curriculum content and are most likely selected by the teacher.

Rating: **Opportunity for Feedback** = Moderate (6).
Explanation: Feedback comes from peers constantly during this activity while occassional intervention from the teacher with various groups provides feedback.

10. Group Piloting

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Input** = High (8).
Explanation: There are numerous opportunties for two-way negotiated meaning exchanges. Confirmation checks come from teacher intervention.

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Output** = High (8).
Explanation: There are lots of opportunities for verbal expression.

Rating: **Scope** = Moderate (6).
Explanation: The range of topics is restricted to curriculum content.

Rating: **Opportunity for Feedback** = High (8).
Explanation: Feedback is implicit with this activity.

11. Organization and Administration

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Input** = Low (4).
Explanation: There is not much opportunity to interact or negotiate meaning with this activity.

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Output** = Minimal (2).
Explanation: No verbal expression is required of the student. This activity consists mostly of standard operating procedures.

Rating: **Scope** = Minimal (2).
Explanation: This activity involves routinized tasks.

Rating: **Opportunity for Feedback** = Minimal (2).
Explanation: This activity involves standard operating procedures which are so routinized that students require little feedback to follow them.

12. Control

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Input** = Minimal (2).
Explanation: This structure consist of one way interaction dominated by the teacher who is controlling the class.

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Output** = None (0).

Explanation: No verbal expression from students is expected.

Rating: **Scope** = Minimal (2).
Explanation: This activity is limited to those times the teacher is attempting to gain control of the class.

Rating: **Opportunity for Feedback** = Minimal (2).
Explanation: This activity is somewhat like a standard operating procedure. Feedback is not related to language use.

13. Social with the Teacher

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Input** = High (8).
Explanation: This activity involves two-way interaction allowing for lots of interactional modification for understanding.

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Output** = High (8).
Explanation: Students are encouraged to verbally express themselves and to manipulate the language.

Rating: **Scope** = High (8).
Explanation: The range of topics, choice, and emotional content is selected by the student. There are no restrictions.

Rating: **Opportunity for Feedback** = High (8).

Explanation: Feedback is readily available in this one to one interaction with the teacher.

14. Social with Peers

Rating: Opportunity to Negotiate Input = High (8).
Explanation: This activity provides for two-way interaction allowing for lots of interactional modifications. There is lots of two-way negotiated meaning exchanges with peers.

Rating: Opportunity to Negotiate Output = High (8).
Explanation: Students are unlimited in their verbal expression with peers.

Rating: Scope = High (8).
Explanation: The range of topics, choice and inclusion of emotions are totally up to the student.

Rating: Opportunity for Feedback = Moderate (6).
Explanation: Feedback about correct lanuage usc may be less accurate with peers than with the teacher.

15. Non-Interacting

Rating: Opportunity to Negotiate Input = None (0).

Explanation: No interaction is expected. This is meant to be quiet time where students place their head on their arms folded across their desks.

Rating: **Opportunity to Negotiate Output** = None (0).

Explanation: No verbal expression is permitted.

Rating: **Scope** = None (0).

Explanation: This activity is limited to lowering one's head on one's desk.

Rating: **Opportunity for Feedback** = None (0).

Explanation: There is no feedback for language use as no language is expected to occur.

APPENDIX B

Classroom Observation Instrument

_____Master Number _____Date _____Beginning ____Ending

STRUCTURE-academic
__ 1.Lecture/explanation
__ 2.Drill
__ 3.Expressive Lang exercise
__ 4.Discussion
__ 5.Seatwork/monitoring
__ 6.Seatwork/piloting
__ 7.Boardwork
__ 8.Group activity
__ 9.Group/piloting

STRUCTURE-Nonacademic
__10.Organization/administrative
__11.Control/discipline
__12.Social-with teacher
__13.Social with peers
__14.Non-interacting

__TARGET 1 2 3 4 5 6
__1.Attending
__2.Peer interaction(on task)
__3.Peer interaction(off task)

SENDER
__1.Teacher
__2.Target
__3.Other Student
__4.Assistant
__5.Other
__6.Undetermined

MESSAGE ADRESS
__1.Target
__2.Teacher
__3.Class
__4.Other individual
__5.Small Group
__6.Assistant
__7.Other
__8.Ambiguous

LANGUAGE
__Paralinguistic
__English(else French)

MESSAGE SUBSTANCE
Task orientation
__ On-task
__ Off task(disruptive)
__ Off task(non-disruptive)
__Task related content
Language use content
__ Comprehension
__ Form
__Form correct

COMPREHENSION AIDS
Paralinguistic
__ Aural
__ Visual
__ Graphic

Linguistic
__ Simplification
__ Define word/word association
__ Syntactic/morphological
__ Memory jogging
__ Phonetic contrast
__ English

REINFORCEMENT
__Verbal
__Non-verbal

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ACTION REQUEST
__1.None
__2.Implied(SOP)
__3.Explicit

RESPONSE REQUIRED
__Verbal
__Behavioral
__Attention
__Indeterminant

RESPONSE
__None
__Verbal
__ Form correct
__Non-verbal
__Ambiguous
__Request comprehension help
__ Specific(else nonspecific)
__Request response help
__ Specific(else nonspecific)
Reacts to message content
__ As requested
__ Initiates further interaction
Task orientation
__1.On task
__2.Off task(disruptive)
__3.Off task(non-disruptive)

Message comprehended
__ Indeterminate
__ Partial
__ No(else yes)

Reinforcement
__ Verbal
__ Non-verbal

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REDIRECT
__Response recognized(else ignored)
__Provided needed feedback
__Ambiguous feedback
Reinforcement
__ Verbal
__ Non-verbal

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__Provides needed feedback
__Corrects Substance
__Corrects Form
__Ambiguous feedback

Structured observation form--FI Classroom Processes 13 Nov 1985