Language Systems in Adult Informal

Second Language Learners

by



A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Education

Language Systems in Adult Informal

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John Nelson

Abstract

This study was designed to examine the adult second language (L2) learner who develops proficiency without formal instruction. The literature on L2 acquisition and adult learning was surveyed and four subjects (<u>Ss</u>) were selected for analysis; two relatively strong English speakers and two relatively weak speakers. A sociolinguistic survey was done of the <u>Ss'</u> English experience, and linguistic and discourse analyses were made on their English productions.

Common orders of difficulty of various linguistic features were found across <u>Ss</u> as were common stages of acquisition. However, the <u>Ss'</u> relative success as L2 learners was not explained by their attitudes and motivations, their language learning aptitude, their involvement in English communicational situations or their approaches to learning and using the language. Instead, the relatively successful <u>Ss</u> apparently developed their English skills in different ways.

Recommendations were made for further research.

Education

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d'apprentissage spontané

John Nelson

Résumé

L'objet de cette recherche est d'étudier comment un apprenant adulte établit sa compétence en langue seconde (L₂) hors du cadre scolaire. On a donc lu ce qui a été écrit sur l'acquisition d'une langue seconde et sur l'apprentissage des adultes; on a conduit l'analyse sur quatre sujets (<u>Ss</u>), deux assez bons en anglais et deux relativement faibles. Leur contact avec l'anglais a été l'objet d'une étude sociolinguistique et leurs énoncés ont été soumis à une analyse linguistique ainsi qu'à une analyse de discours.

On a constaté, chez ces $\underline{S}s$, des similarités aussi bien dans l'ordre des difficultés, de nature linguistique diverse, que dans les étapes de l'acquisition. Cependant l'explication du succès relatif des $\underline{S}s$ dans l'apprentissage de la L_2 ne réside ni dans leurs attitudes et leurs motivations, ni dans leur aptitude à apprendre une langue, ni dans leur utilisation de l'anglais dans des situations de communication ni, enfin, dans leurs manières d'apprendre et d'utiliser cette langue. Il semble plutôt que chez les $\underline{S}s$ assez bons en anglais il y ait une diversité dans la façon dont ils ont établi leur compétence.

On y présente ensuite des recommandations en vue de pousser plus loin ces recherches.

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List of Abbreviations

Throughout the text various abbreviations are used. These are defined where first used and most are standardized abbreviations frequently found in the literature. However, a few were formed for use in situations perculiar to this study, and are used frequently throughout the text. They are presented here for future reference.

- SSS There are four subjects (SS) whose language productions are the focus of this study. Two of these SS were relatively more proficient in English and are referred to throughout the text as the strong subjects -- SSS; two of these SS were relatively less proficient and are referred to as the weak subjects -- WSS.
- <u>I</u> The <u>Ss</u> had discussions with the author on several occasions. These discussions were recorded and later analyzed. When reference is made in the text to the author's part of these discussions, he is referred to as the interviewer -- <u>I</u>.
- Ii Sociolinguistic interviews were also conducted with the Ss. These interviews were conducted in Italian and for this purpose an Italian informant -- Ii -- was employed.
- OGEP Efforts were made to establish an order of general English proficiency -- OGEP -- among the <u>Ss</u> and reference is made to the OGEP subsequent to its establishment throughout the text.
- CUOC One of the primary methods of analysis was to compute the number and later the percentage of cases where a S correctly produced an English linguistic feature in linguistic envrionments where the feature would be used in standard English. When referred to in the text, these results are considered to be percentages of correct use in obligatory contexts -- CUOC.

A few other abbreviations are employed in the text for ease of referral. These are defined in context, and their use is limited and closely follows their introductions.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

I. Why Study the Adult Second Language Learner?

Adult education is rapidly increasing in size and importance in nearly all modern societies. As Knowles (1973) has asserted, for the first time in history, major cultural changes occur within the time span of the average human life causing the adult to need additional educational training with increasing frequency. This is particularly the case in the field of foreign or second language (L2) learning. Contact and communication among people of diverse native languages is rapidly increasing due to factors such as tourism, multi-national business, increased trade among nations, worker migrations, increased research of international interest, and exposure of more people to various and international forms of entertainment (Trim, 1976).

Until recently, little research had been done on the adult learner (see, for example, Kidd, 1973; and Miller, 1964), and adult learning programs were usually extensions of programs designed for children rather than programs specifically designed for the needs and abilities of the adult learner (see, for example, Hesburgh, et al., 1973; and Knowles, 1967). Recently, however more attention is being paid to the adult learner and particularly to the adult L2 learner (see, for example, d'Anglejan & Tucker, 1974; Klein & Dittmar, 1979; and Schumann, 1975). Developments in the area of English for special or specific purposes (ESP) attest to the growing attention being given to the adult L2 learner (see, for example, Jupp & Hodlin, 1975; and Mackay & Mountford, 1978), as does the work being done through the Council of Europe to establish a common unit/credit system for adult language learners by categorizing their situational, lexical and structural L2 needs (van Ek, 1974; Richterich, 1974; and Wilkins, 1974). These efforts are concerned with the needs of the adult L2 learner. Fundamental to these needs is the nature of the adult's learning abilities and the process used by the adult to develop L2 skills.

II. What Do We Know About the Adult L2 Acquisition Process?

Learning a second or foreign language is a long and complex endeavor, more often than not resulting in incomplete mastery of the target language (TL). Considerable research has been undertaken attempting to understand L2 acquisition, much of it parallelling studies of first language (L1) acquisition. In 1967, Corder proposed analyzing the errors made by L2 learners as they used the TL, to gain an understanding of the L2 acquisition process. These analyses found L2 production to be characterized by regularly occurring structures that were different from standard TL forms. Consistent use of these deviant TL forms suggested the possibility of the L2 learner developing a learner-grammar of the TL which Sampson and Richards (1973) refer to as a learner language system (LLS). Various descriptions of these hypothetical LLSs have appeared in the literature. Corder (1971) referred to them as idiosyncratic dialects, Nemser (1971) as approximative systems and Selinker (1972) as interlanguages. Subsequent studies have documented the systematicity of production predicted by these descriptions (see, for example, Adjemian, 1976; Buteau, 1970; Ervin-Tripp, 1974; and Richards, 1974). However, as Frith points out (1975), the concept of systematicity is often complex and difficult to assess. Data from L2 speakers may be characterized as much by variability as by regularity of production for apparently similar contexts (Bertkua, 1974; and Klein & Dittmar, 1979), but variability does not necessarily indicate a lack of systematicity but rather may be indicative of a complex set of underlying rules and constraints upon which the system is based (according to Bloom, 1970; and Labov & Labov, 1976 who explain variability within systematicity for first language acquisition).

Along with their systematicity, the LLSs also reflect a progression of stages of acquisition depending on the degree to which the learner has developed his TL proficiency. Thus cross-sectional studies of L2 learners at various levels of TL ability and longitudinal studies of L2 learners as they develop TL proficiency over time have been made to learn about the order or sequence in which elements of the TL are acquired. These studies have also been concerned with the degree of similarity of the acquisition process among L2 learners and have analyzed the orders of English morpheme acquisition (see, for example, Bailey et al., 1975; Dulay & Burt, 1974A; and Fathman, 1975) and stages of acquisition of various English structures

(see, for example, d'Anglejan & Tucker, 1975; Cazden et al., 1975; and Cook, 1973). These studies were collectively involved in clarifying the L2 acquisition process in three ways: (1) by describing the underlying components of the LLSs, (2) by examining the relative importance of various potential determinants of the L2 acquisition process, and (3) by identifying various strategies employed by the L2 learner in learning and using the TL.

Concerning the components of the LLSs, efforts have been made to find among L2 learners, order or progression in the mastery of features across learners and commensurate with over all language proficiency which would indicate common stages of acquisition. Considerable evidence has been found to suggest natural order of acquisition of some eleven to fourteen commonly used morphemes (Krashen, 1979) although other studies present evidence that conflicts with these findings (Frith, 1976; Hakuta, 1974; Hakuta, 1975; and Porter, 1977). Studies of the development of negative and interrogative structures indicate common stages of acquisition among learners though the stages were not all reached by all learners of generally similar TL proficiency (Cancino et al., 1974; Cazden et al., 1975; and Hatch, 1974). The general picture emerging from these studies has perhaps best been described by Hatch and Wagner-Gough (1976). They posit that the L2 acquisition process is characterized by developmental universals based on TL aspects and L2 learner strategies, but also by idiosyncratic differences among all L2 learners.

Various determinants of the acquisition process have been reported in the literature. Some of these are based on the learner and include his attitude and motivation in learning and using the TL (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; and Tucker, Hamayan, & Genesee, 1976), his aptitude for L2 learning (Carroll, 1973), his degree of involvement with the TL, and his age, maturation and cognitive awareness (Rosansky, 1976). Other determinants are based on the nature of the TL such as the perceptual salience of specific TL elements (Slobin, 1971), the grammatical and semantic complexity of TL features (Brown, 1973), underlying linguistic relationships (Andersen, 1977), the degree of difference of features between the learner's native language (NL) and his TL (James, 1977; and Wardhaugh, 1970), and innate or universal orders of acquisition based on biologically determined factors (Dulay & Burt, 1974B; Ritchie, 1978). Still other determinants are based on the learner's orientation to the TL and include such factors as the

method of instruction -- if any -- (see, for example, Chastain, 1971), the frequency of occurrence of features in the learner's TL input (Hatch, 1974; and Larsen-Freeman, 1976), and the learner's use of strategies to learn and use the TL (Painchaud-LeBlanc, 1978; Seliger, 1977). The relative importance of these many determinants to the acquisition process is difficult to assess, and varies among L2 learners (a point discussed in more detail below).

By identifying determinants of the acquisition process and observing the development of the LLSs as these determinants guide the L2 learning process, researchers have made some progress in trying to understand the behavior of the learner that enables him to develop L2 skill. The term <u>strategy</u> is often used in the literature to refer to the learner's mental processes in learning and using a L2. However, as mental processes, these strategies can only be inferred from resulting TL productions, and therefore, they can only be understood by what they cause to happen.

Reibel (1971) defines language learning strategies as the learner's applications of principles of learning and analysis to the TL input in order to develop TL competence. Selinker (1972) makes an important distinction between a learning strategy which he describes as an identifiable approach taken by the L2 learner to TL material he is trying to learn, and a communication strategy which he describes as an identifiable approach taken by the learner to communicate with native speakers of the TL. Later Selinker et al. (1975) expand this definition of strategies by stating that they are cognitive activities relating to the learner's processing of L2 data in an attempt to express meaning. These definitions are elaborated still further by Tarone et al. (1976) who posit that the forming of rules which enable the learner to understand the syntactic form of the TL are the goals of the learning strategies; and that production or communication strategies are employed by the learner to express his ideas in the TL, employing his rules where he believes they apply, and using other means to express ideas not covered by his rules.

Production strategies are more easily analyzed as they are directly reflected in the L2 learner's TL performance. Several such strategies have been reported in the literature including simplification (Richards, 1974), avoidance (Kleinmann, 1977), the use of prefabricated patterns (Hakuta, 1974) or unanalyzed routines (Lightbown, 1977) as well as memorized TL structures and vocabulary, the application of NL rules and forms to TL communicational situations (Corder, 1979), and the employment of routines which elicit target expressions from a native-speaking listener-model. Learning strategies are not so easily analyzed as they are reflective of the L2 learner's TL competence and may or may not occur in his performance. However, indications of results of learning strategies can be noted in productions by the learner which reflect the systematicity mentioned above. The learning strategies which have been identified in the literature are based on the nature of the rules apparently established by the learner as demonstrated by regularity of production. Where these productions deviate from standard target forms of the language, deductions can be made on the nature of the mental process which led to the development of the rule and, therefore, to the strategy used by the learner. Strategies of this type most often mentioned in the literature are regular NL transfer (Corder, 1979), over-generalization, elaboration and extension (Jain, 1974; and Taylor, 1975).

III. Variations among L2 Learners Affecting L2 Acquisition

An important impediment to drawing generalizable inferences about L2 acquisition is the lack of commonality among L2 learners with reference to various aspects of the acquisition process. Unlike L1 learners, L2 learners vary considerably in (1) age, (2) the type of learning situations in which they are exposed to the TL and (3) the extent of their involvement in TL and the ends to which they direct their L2 learning.

Perhaps the most frequently discussed difference among L2 learners is that of age. The common belief that children learn languages better and faster than adults is supported by proponents of the language acquisition device (LAD) (see Lenneberg, 1967) who posit that language acquisition is controlled by an innate device in the brain which enables all children to learn their first language and a second language if they are exposed to it before puberty when the LAD ceases to function. Beyond puberty, adults might gain knowledge about and even limited skill in the L2 but native-like proficiency in the L2 is neurologically impossible. This position has recently been supported in part by Seliger et al. (1975) who found that the one variable which seemed to predict whether the attainment of native-like pronunciation in the L2 was possible was whether the learner began to function in the TL before puberty. However, other explanations for the apparent relative success of young learners have been presented (see Asher & Garcia, 1969; and Gleitman & Gleitman, 1970). Several recent studies have suggested that when the learning situations are as nearly comparable as possible, adults acquire the L2 as rapidly as young L2 learners if not more so (Asher & Price, 1967; and Smyth et al., 1975). Krashen (1979) concludes from evidence in the literature that adults are faster language learners than children, though ultimately children tend to learn more completely.

Implied in this distinction between the adult's rate of learning and the child's completeness of learning is a hypothetical distinction Krashen makes between <u>learning</u> and <u>acquiring</u> as they relate to attaining L2 ability (1976). <u>Learning</u> is a result of paying attention to specific elements of the TL for identification of their functions and meanings in a conscious grammar. Learning enables language users to monitor (i.e. to correct) their TL productions using specific rules from this conscious grammar. <u>Acquiring</u> refers to a subconscious process which enables the language user to encode the ideas he wishes to express without awareness of the underlying rules governing the encoding system. Lls are essentially acquired, though prescriptive rules of the language may be learned. The degree to which L2s are acquired or learned varies from learner to learner.

According to Krashen's distinction, acquiring L2 competence is influenced by the learner's attitude toward the TL while learning is related to language aptitude. It is thought that young learners have a relatively unrestricted ability to acquire a L2, but with maturity there develops what Dulay and Burt (1978) refer to as a socio-affective filter brought on in part by identification with the learner's native language and its cultural associations. This filter is not equally strong in all adult L2 learners but the degree to which it develops limits the adult in his L2 acquisition by affecting his attitude for the TL. Language aptitude is popularly used to refer to mental abilities that enable one to learn a L2. Valette (1976) points out that in academic environments, measures of IQ and scholastic ability tend to correlate well with achievement in L2 classes and, therefore, are reflective of aptitude. Krashen (1978a) posits that language aptitude is a composite of general intelligence, inductive ability and phonetic ability. Aptitude varies among L2 learners and may increase with the age and experience of the individual learner. It is primarily aptitude for

language learning, according to Krashen, that explains why in some comparable L2 learning situations, adults are able to learn faster than young learners. As mentioned above, both aptitude and attitude toward language learning have been reported in the literature to be important determinants of L2 acquisition.

The type of L2 learning situation is the focus of another distinction discussed in the literature with reference to L2 acquisition. Krashen (1977a) and d'Anglejan (1978) refer to formal language learning versus informal language learning. Macnamara (1976) makes a similar distinction between classroom learning and street learning. The importance of this distinction is that in formal learning situations the learner is exposed to TL material in a controlled way, being taught TL elements which others conclude he should learn or which others are able to formalize in pedagogical materials. In informal situations, by contrast, the learner is involved in a TL environment in which he needs to function and he develops an ability in the TL to satisfy these needs. A more formal learner strives to increase his conscious knowledge about the TL while a more informal learner attempts to improve his functional skills in the TL. Formal and informal learning are envisioned as different types of TL learning experiences. A learner may be involved primarily in one type or the other, or he may be simultaneously involved in both types of experiences. Formal and informal learning experiences may both occur in a particular learning situation. Alternatively, the L2 learner may be involved in varied TL situations some primarily formal, others primarily informal.

The formal/informal distinction can be related to the learned/acquired distinction mentioned above. The learner in primarily formal L2 learning situations is oriented toward developing his TL ability by employing explicit learning strategies while the process of acquiring TL competence is coincidental. The learner in primarily informal L2 learning environments subconsciously acquires TL competence through his informal TL interactions, but has little opportunity to analyze the TL content or formulate a conscious grammar of his input. First language learning is accomplished almost completely through informal learning environments. The L2 learner can find himself in any variety of TL situations from purely formal to purely informal. The effect of the formal/informal distinction on the L2 acquisition process is of interest. The adult learner's approach to L2 acquisition must be controlled, to an extent by the nature of his exposure to the TL; whether this exposure is characterized by more formal or more informal aspects. But, in addition, the adult is influenced in his approach to learning by his previous experience more than the young L2 learner (see Knowles, 1970). The learner's previous learning experiences may greatly affect his orientation to all learning situations regardless of the amount of formal and informal TL exposure these situations allow. For a more complete understanding of the adult learner's L2 acquisition process, the formal/informal distinction must be analyzed in terms of the learner's approach to learning the TL which in turn is based both on his TL learning situation and his previous experience with the TL.

The adult L2 acquisition process may also be affected by variations among L2 learners in the extent to which they are involved in the TL and the ends to which the TL learning is directed. Unlike Ll learners, L2 learners vary considerably in the amount of exposure they have to the TL and the extent of their involvement in TL communicational situations. Native speaker (NS) mastery is the goal of the Ll learner and this goal with few exceptions is the end product of the Ll acquisition process. The eventual degree of TL proficiency achieved by the L2 learner is not as predictable but his TL mastery is rarely as complete as that of a NS of the TL.

Whinnon (1971) defines the concept of <u>hybridization</u> as a process that changes the structure of a language as it is used by non-native speakers. While most L2 learners assume the standard form of the TL to be their goal, in fact their language may develop in directions that do not coincide with standard TL production because of hybridization. Selinker (1972) introduced the term <u>fossilization</u> which describes a phenomenon of deviant structures becoming permanent elements of the L2 learner's language system. Tarone et al. (1976) report on L2 learners whose LLSs have stopped progressing toward the TL norm and have stabilized. These stabilized LLSs may be idiosyncratic representations of the TL whose continued evolution toward the standard norm is impeded by the learner's satisfaction with his TL proficiency or by the learner's inability to interact in the TL frequently enough to increase his TL skills.

Hybridization can occur as the result of factors which are external to the learner. The TL model used by the L2 learner may regularly produce deviant forms of the TL which the learner could internalize without discriminating between standard and nonstandard form. Hybridization can result in what is often referred to in the literature as pidginization. Valdman and Phillips (1975) propose that when the L2 learner needs to develop communicational competence with other non-native speakers of the TL, pidgins develop which reflect a natural process of language acquisition found by reversion to universals of human language perceptual and processing strategies. Schumann (1974) suggests that pidgins begin where on-going communication occurs between speakers whose knowledge of the communication language is incomplete and inadequate for the ideas being exchanged. This results in the use of pidginized utterances, deviant from the TL norm, to transmit desired communication. Such utterances persist among L2 users because of social and psychological distance between themselves and those who would identify with the TL as a native language. Klein and Dittmar (1979) hypothesize that a process like pidginization may be in operation as immigrants develop competence in the language of their adopted country while maintaining strong identification with their native language, even though a stabilized pidgin may not develop.

The combination of fossilization and pidginization can affect the L2 learner in varying degrees, but their influence should determine to a considerable extent the nature of the adult L2 learner's acquisition process. Also of importance in determining the end product of the adult L2 acquisition process is the use to which the L2 learner applies his TL skills. L1 proficiency develops to cover a full gamut of verbal, social interactions. The L2 learner's communicational needs in the TL may be very limited in both topics and roles. He may even strive for proficiency in some TL skills and not others; he may be called on to read in the TL for example but not to write or even to speak in it. The ends toward which the adult L2 learner directs his TL abilities -- whether consciously or subconsciously -- may affect the nature of his acquisition process, just as they may be affected by the regularity of his TL involvement, by factors causing hybridization, and by the uses to which he puts the TL.

The distinction often discussed in the literature between linguistic and communicative language skills can be used to illustrate the nature of possible variation in the L2 acquisition processes among adult learners due to variations in their learning situations and differences in their TL goals. Linguistic competence refers to knowledge of specific TL elements; morphemes, structures, lexical items, etc. of the L2, while communicative competence refers to the L2 learner's ability to use the TL for communicative purposes. Savignon (1972) notes the difference among her formal French L2 learners between these two competences. In a replication of Savignon's study, Robinson (1973) found similar disparities between linguistic and communicative skills among L2 learners of English. Their orientation toward English in regard to their TL involvement and ends was also similar to that of Savignon's L2 learners of French. Upshur and Palmer (1974) looked at the relation between communicative and linguistic skills among L2 learners whose language learning was directed toward different ends. Like Savignon and Robinson, Upshur and Palmer did not find a significant correlation between the two skills among formal L2 learners, but they did find a correlation between these skills among informal L2 learners. Similar correlations were found among informal L2 learners by Nelson (1979a). One inference to be drawn from these studies is that individual TL skills develop in varying relationships to other TL skills due to the nature of the L2 learners' TL learning situations, the relative degrees of involvement of the L2 learners with the TL and the ends for which the L2 learner strives to acquire TL proficiency. These differences among L2 learners reflect differences in their respective processes of L2 acquisition.

IV. The Focus of the Study

As evidenced from the discussion above, considerable insight has been gained from recent research concerning the process of adult L2 acquisition, but a more complete understanding is hampered by variations among adult L2 learners which affect the processes involved with the development of their TL skills. The purpose of the present research was to study the process of language acquisition by adult L2 learners among whom some of the sources of variation mentioned above were controlled. Thus it was possible to analyze more clearly other aspects of their

acquisition processes. Specifically, adult English learners were studied who had common native language backgrounds, similar ages, long and continuous involvement in English communicational situations, limited formal educational experiences and similar orientations to English and non-English social, professional and familial environments. It was anticipated that by controlling for factors such as these, insight would be gained into the effects of variables such as frequency and regularity of involvement in English communicational situations, aptitude for language learning, and approach to learning and using the TL on the adult L2 acquisition process. Evidence of the nature of the acquisition process used by these subjects (<u>Ss</u>) would be acquired from analyses of their socio-linguistic backgrounds, their communicational strategies and abilities, and the linguistic content of their LLSs. The study examines three hypotheses:

1. The LLSs of the <u>Ss</u> of this study would be characterized by systematicity demonstrated by regular production of specific linguistic features.

2. The process of L2 acquisition followed by these <u>Ss</u> would reflect the <u>Ss'</u> communicative needs, the linguistic elements they used most frequently in communicational situations and their approach to learning and using English as evidenced by their communicational strategies.

3. Individual differences among <u>Ss</u> in English ability would be due to differences in their relative language learning aptitudes, their relative degrees of involvement in on-going English communicational situations and their various approaches to learning and using English.

CHAPTER TWO

The Subjects

I. Specifications for Informal English Learners

Subjects for a study of the LLSs of adult informal L2 learners were sought who satisfied three primary conditions: (1) they must be adults whose association with the L2 began after they had passed the age of adolescence, (2) their experience with the L2 must not include any formal instruction in the language and (3) their general L2 proficiency must be sufficiently advanced that they can exhibit some communicative skill in the language. In addition, subjects with very limited scholastic backgrounds were preferred. It was thought that adult scholars would apply formal learning strategies, used in their academic experiences, to learn a L2 in informal learning situations, even if not formally instructed in the L2. Subjects were also sought who had had sufficient involvement with the L2 over time for their LLSs to have developed. The exposure and involvement of formal L2 learners with the TL can be controlled to a certain extent by the nature and dimensions of their training program. This is not the case with informal learners, so subjects were sought whose acquisition of a L2 was not limited by insufficient involvement in TL communicational situations.

Individuals satisfying these requirements were found among the service personnel of McGill University. Italian by birth, these individuals had immigrated to Canada as adults and have worked for the University in the capacity of cleaners for several years. As such, they are adult informal learners of English as a second language. Fourteen of these janitors were chosen as subjects for initial study. They had the following characteristics in common: (1) they were native speakers of Italian, (2) they had between three and five years of formal (primary) education conducted in Italy, (3) they had received no formal instruction in English or in any other foreign language, (4) they had immigrated to Canada as adults and had lived in Montreal for an average of 19.6 years, (5) before coming to Canada, they had little or no English skills, (6) they had worked at McGill for an average of 8.8 years, (7) they had all shown an interest in improving their English skills by specifically requesting the University to provide a course of English instruction geared to their needs and (8) their average age was 46.3.

The janitors have all made their homes in or around Montreal since immigrating to Canada. Upon arriving in Montreal, they became part of the large Italian speaking community of the city, but in seeking employment they soon came in contact with the principal languages of this cosmopolitan urban center, French and English. Typically, they found work in situations where their fellow workers spoke French and their employers spoke English. Most readily acquired conversational skills in French, but aspired to learn English which they believed would be the more important language for their futures. Most enrolled their children in English speaking schools. The increasing influence of French as the recently declared official language of the Province of Quebec is balanced by the fact that the janitors are working at McGill University, a primarily English speaking institution. Consequently, for most of them, both English and French are important second languages.

II. Evaluating the English Proficiency of the Fourteen Janitors

Measurements of the janitors' English language skills were made in the following ways:

1. The Janitors' Listening Test - a test on which <u>Ss</u> listened to sentences spoken by a native speaker and then identified, on specially prepared answer sheets, certain aspects of the sentences such as time, number, sentence type and general semantic content. Scores were based on the number of correct identifications. (See Appendix A for a sample of the test and answer sheet).

2. The Oral Comprehension Part of the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP) - Scores on this test are objectively tabulated. (1965)

3. A cloze test - a short passage written about a situation likely to be encountered by the janitors with such function words as prepositions and pronouns deleted. Scores were based on a sliding scale; full credit for the exact word, half credit for the correct part of speech but wrong word, and a quarter credit for an answer that fit the deletion semantically but not grammatically. (See Appendix B for a sample of the cloze test and detailed scoring procedure).

4. Teacher Evaluations - an ESL instructor worked individually and in groups with the janitors to design a course of instruction for them. She was able to make rank order evaluations of the janitors' relative English skills in two dimensions, linguistic ability and communicational ability.

5. Oral Production Tests - Two oral production tests were designed for the janitors, one where they described specific aspects of their jobs to a native speaking listener (the JD test) and the other where they described pictures they had until a native speaking listener could identify the pictures from a larger set in his possession (the PD test). Composite linguistic scores were tabulated for each janitor from these tests based on the relative correctness of the linguistic content of their productions. Composite communicational scores were tabulated for them according to the efficiency with which they communicated the required information. (See Appendix C and D for samples of the material used for the tests and detailed scoring procedures).

These measures evaluated different language skills. The Janitors' listening test and the Oral Comprehension Part of the MTELP tested comprehension of specific aspects of English structure and vocabulary. The Cloze Test measured the janitors' abilities to produce these specific aspects. The JD and PD production tests produced linguistic and communicational composite scores measuring the janitors' spontaneous English productive skills, and the teacher evaluations were general assessments of the janitors' English abilities. Although these assessments measured different aspects of the subjects' English abilities, significantly high positive correlations were found among the results when rank order correlations were made among the various measures (as shown in Table 2.1). Moreover, a wide range of scores was found among the subjects on all of these measures, indicating considerable variability in their English abilities as measured on each test. These ranges and correlations suggest that differences between subjects in specific English skills tended to indicate similar differences between them in general English proficiency.

Table 2.1

Intercorrelations of Various Measures of English Ability among 14 McGill Janitors (Figures represent values of \mathcal{C} , Spearman Rank Order correlations)

1.	.666**	.796***	.672**	.695**	.680**	.630*
	2.	.751***	.708**	.627**	.629**	. 559*
		3.	.799***	.587*	.703**	.710**
			4.	.828***	.723***	.707**
				5.	.710**	.656**
					6.	.686**
						7.

- 1. Janitors' Listening Test
- 2. Oral Comprehension part of MTELP
- 3. The Cloze Test
- 4. Teacher Evaluation of Linguistic Ability
- 5. Teacher Evaluation of Communicational Ability
- 6. Composite linguistic scores from JD and PD Tests
- 7. Composite communicational scores from JD and PD Tests

Based on this finding, it was decided to select representative janitors with similar involvements in English who reflected the extremes of general English ability for intensive analysis. The assumption was that comparisons among relatively strong and weak informal English learners would provide insight into the nature of the process of acquiring L2 skills and the characteristics which differentiate successful learners from their less successful peers.

III. The Subjects of This Study

Four subjects (<u>S</u>s) were selected from among the fourteen reported above. Two <u>S</u>s, Roberto and Angelo, were chosen on the basis of consistently high results on the measures of English proficiency mentioned above. They are considered the strong subjects (\underline{SS} s) of this study. Two more \underline{Ss} , Giovanni and Stefano were chosen on the basis of relatively poor results on these measures and they are considered as the weak subjects (\underline{WSs}) of this study. (The results of the four Ss are presented in Table 2.2)

Table 2.2

Results for the 4 Subjects on Various Measures of English Ability

Measure		Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
1.	Janitors' listen. test (Range: 0 to 50)	26	25	30	35
2.	MTELP Oral Comp. Test (Range: 0 to 100)	33	40	37	55
3.	Cloze Test (Range: 0 to 80)	21	6	36	52
4.	Teacher's Evaluation Ling.: (Rank Order to 14)	13	12	4	3
5.	Teacher's Evaluation Comm.: (Rank Order to 14)	12	6	3	4
6.	Composite Ling. Score (Standard Scores)	-1.193	079	1.165	.360
7.	Composite Comm. Score (Standard Scores)	269	-1.038	.477	.797

The subjects were also chosen on the basis of their work schedules because one important variable affecting their English ability was thought to be their exposure to English speakers and their need to communicate in English on their jobs. Therefore, one <u>SS</u>, Roberto, and one <u>WS</u>, Stefano, were chosen from those who work on the day shift (7:00 to 15:00) when the majority of the English speaking university community also work; and association with English speakers is more likely. The other <u>SS</u>, Angelo, and <u>WS</u>, Giovanni, work during the swing shift (15:00 to 22:00) when association with English speakers is more limited.

The general biographical characteristics of these four <u>S</u>s conform to the criteria for informal learners listed above (as shown in Table 2.3).

Table 2.3

Biographical Information on the 4 Ss

		Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
1.	Age	49	59	53	50
2.	Home in Italy	Southern Italy	Sicily	Sicily	Central Italy
3.	Years of formal Education	5	5	3	5
4.	Age when immigrated	28	31	30	29
5.	Amount of Eng. when immigrated	none	none	none	a few words
6.	Years in Montreal	21	38	23	21
7.	Years-Formal Eng. Instruction	0	0	0	0
8.	Years employed at McGill	8	8	15	11
9.	Work shift at McGill	swing	day	đay	swing

Giovanni is an out-going man with a warm smile and a friendly manner. He seems less relaxed than the other <u>Ss</u> and uses more Italian and French when he speaks English than the other <u>Ss</u>. Giovanni has three sons; one is nineteen and beginning his studies at McGill, one is fifteen, and one was born just nine months before this study began. Giovanni comes from a village in Southern Italy not far from Naples. Stefano is the oldest of the <u>Ss</u>. He was born and raised in Sicily, and fought in the Italian army during World War II when he was taken prisoner and held in a camp in Northern Africa by the French for several years. He has been in Canada several years longer than the other <u>Ss</u>. Stefano is short and soft spoken. He tends to be quiet in a group but talkative with individuals. He has a son and a daughter who have both earned their undergraduate degrees from McGill.

Roberto also came from Sicily. He is the most extroverted of the <u>S</u>s, ready to express his opinion on any subject or report any relevant anecdote during conversational situations he finds himself in. He has worked for McGill longer than the other <u>S</u>s. He has three children; the oldest has graduated from McGill, the second is currently attending McGill, and the youngest is in secondary school.

Angelo says he comes from the exact center of Italy, a small town near the mountains of Italy not far from the city of Florence. Angelo gives one the impression that he is bright and very kind. Of the four <u>S</u>s, he is the most polite, the most accommodating and would seem to be the least aggressive. He has a son who is studying at McGill and younger twin sons who are fourteen years old.

All four <u>Ss</u> speak French as well as English. They all feel that French is easier for them to learn, especially in learning to read, than English, but they consider English to be their second language because of their jobs and their children. All <u>Ss</u> live in predominantly Italian speaking communities within larger French-speaking sections of Montreal.

As immigrants, all four <u>S</u>s left Italy shortly after World War II. They left small rural villages where they had been farmers. They left when their lives in those villages were difficult and their futures didn't look bright in Italy. Therefore, they have come to feel that in Canada they have been successful. All four <u>S</u>s own their own homes and take pride in their gardens, especially Roberto. They are all proud that their children have completed or are working toward college degrees. They regret that their children "don't know Italian, and only speak dialect." (Each <u>S</u> knows and regularly uses two forms of Italian, a dialect from the place of his birth, and a standard form of Italian which each claims to have learned in school as a child and also claims to speak fluently.) But they are happy that their children have become proficient in English to the point where it has become their strongest language.

These four <u>S</u>s, then, are the focus of this study. They are adult speakers of English whose exposure to English began after they had reached adulthood. They have had limited scholastic training and no formal instruction in English. However, they have had long, continuous and positive associations with English on the job and through their families.

CHAPTER THREE

Data Collection

I. The Research Design

Acquisition of L2 ability is considered to be a progressive process in this study. The process begins at a zero level where the L2 learner cannot communicate in the TL because he is unfamiliar with any TL features linguistic elements. The learner acquires TL skills by using TL features which become components of his LLS. As the learner's TL skills increase, the acquisition process develops in two ways: (1) the number of features the learner uses increases and (2) the learner's familiarity with previously used features becomes more complete.

Familiarity with a feature includes several aspects, each of which can take time to develop: identification of the form of the feature, awareness of the meanings and/or functions of the feature, knowledge of how the feature combines with other features, ability to produce the feature without conscious effort, and ability to recognize deviant use of the feature. An example of a feature is the verb to be used in the third person singular present tense. The learner must come to identify the form of this feature as is. He must come to use it with singular nouns and pronouns but not with plurals and not with first or second person pronouns. Furthermore, he must realize that is functions as an independent verb, obligatory in sentences such as The boy is tall., and also as an auxiliary verb, required in sentences such as The boy is studying English. He must be aware that is can be attached to the noun or pronoun it follows in which case it may be realized as one of three reduced forms: /s/, /z/, or /az/. Finally, the learner must be able to use is in its various obligatory contexts and in its various forms without mental deliberation.

For a feature to become completely acquired, all of these aspects must be realized. However, this developmental process does not necessarily follow the order in which these aspects are listed above. One aspect of a feature is not necessarily acquired before another or independently of another. Moreover, a learner may become less familiar with a feature over time which reverses the acquisition process (this is referred to in the literature as regression). Furthermore, the features that the learner is in the process of acquiring are not necessarily what a native speaker (NS) of the TL would identify as individual elements of his language. They may be groups of elements which the learner thinks of as a single feature -- prefabricated patterns or unanalyzed routines. For example, the learner may not understand <u>she's</u> to be a contraction of two English elements, the pronoun <u>she plus is</u>, but rather to be a single feature used in variation with <u>she</u>. The learner may incorporate features into his LLS which are not elements of the standard form of the TL. When these features are used, the learner's production is considered by the NS to contain errors. Thus L2 acquisition involves the learner's acquiring various features which enable him to function in the language. Acquisition of each feature is a continuing process.

At a given time in the L2 learner's experience with the TL, features identified as standard linguistic elements of the TL by a NS or researcher may be anywhere along a continuum of acquisition. Some features may be incorporated into the learner's LLS in such a way that he uses them as a NS would in all contexts where they are obligatory. In this case these features could be considered as essentially acquired. Other features may have become elements of the learner's LLS though they are not so completely acquired that they are always used when required - all aspects of the acquisition process for these features are not complete. Still others may not be identified as yet by the learner as individual features though he may produce them as unanalyzed parts of encompassing features. Finally there are those features of the standard language which the learner has not yet begun to acquire and which do not appear in any way in his productions.

It is difficult for the researcher to know to what extent a learner has acquired a particular feature, but in general, the more regularly a feature is used correctly in contexts where its use is obligatory in standard TL productions, the more completely it has been acquired. Acquisition of TL skill involves the acquisition or partial acquisition of various features. This study is concerned with examining the acquisition of specific features of English to learn how they are acquired, if they are acquired similarly or differently by different informal L2 learners and why some L2 learners acquire them more rapidly and/or completely than other learners do.

In this endeavor, the LLSs of the four $\underline{S}s$ chosen above were analyzed using a modified case study approach. The first step of this approach was to establish a relative order of general English proficiency (OGEP) among the four learners which would reflect the $\underline{S}s$'s relative success in the acquisition of L2 skills. The second step was to identify features in the LLSs of all four $\underline{S}s$ which reflected consistent performance with repeated use over time. The third step was to investigate the differences among $\underline{S}s$ in their productions of these features. These differences, when contrasted across $\underline{S}s$ according to the order established in step one, identified patterns and stages in the acquisition of these features. In step four, each \underline{S} 's association with English was analyzed to explain why the $\underline{S}s$ had had varying degrees of success in the acquisition of English ability, indicated by the order found in step one and the differences found in step three.

Three kinds of data were collected for this four step approach. Results from measures of general English ability administered to these four <u>Ss</u> were compared with those found for the larger group of <u>Ss</u> (presented in Table 2.2 above) to establish the OGEP. Then samples of the <u>Ss'</u> oral productions were collected. These data were analyzed for linguistic content by computing percentages of correct use in obligatory contexts (CUOC) of various linguistic features, and a discourse analysis was done on these data which tabulated the frequencies of several discourse categories used in conversations between each <u>S</u> and a NS interviewer (<u>I</u>). Sociolinguistic data were collected through guided interviews with each <u>S</u> to obtain information concerning each <u>S's</u> frequency and regularity of using English and his attitudes and motivations in learning the language.

The linguistic analysis compared features across <u>Ss</u>, based on their OGEP, for evidence of the nature of the acquisition process and the similarity of this process across <u>Ss</u>. The discourse analysis and sociolinguistic survey presented evidence to explain why some L2 learners progressed through the acquisition process faster and further than other L2 learners.

II. Establishing the Order of General English Proficiency (OGEP)

The measures of the 14 janitors' general English proficiency (presented above) indicated that Roberto and Angelo were relatively more advanced in their acquisition of English skills than Giovanni and Stefano were. However, to establish an OGEP among the four <u>S</u>s, a more complete assessment of their relative skills was required. Therefore, subsequent measures of their English abilities were made.

The Ilyin Oral Interview (1976) provided the first of these measures. This examination incorporated the testing technique of asking the examinee questions with picture sequences as cues for the answers. Responses were evaluated first for content which, if appropriate, earned the examinee half credit and second for form which if structurally correct, earned full credit. No credit was given for structurally correct but inappropriate responses. The exam consisted of fifty items, each worth two points.

The second measure came from results of a listening comprehension test requiring picture identifications. The <u>Ss</u> were given three sets of pictures. Each set consisted of four pictures portraying the same scene but with slightly different details. The examiner read a series of sentences, each describing one picture of a set. The <u>Ss</u> displayed their comprehension by indicating which picture the sentence referred to. Four points were given for correct identification after hearing the cue sentence only once. Each subsequent reading, required before correct identification was made, reduced the points given by one, as did a question asked by an examinee to help him with the task. No verbal response was required of the <u>Ss</u>. The test consisted of fifteen sentences (see Appendix E).

Additional measures were taken from elicited imitation exercises requiring the <u>Ss</u> to produce negative and interrogative structures. In the exercise eliciting negatives, <u>I</u> made a series of statements about himself. The <u>Ss</u> were required to respond to the statements with a tag of agreement such as 'I do too' or 'so am I', if the statement could also apply to them. If the statement did not apply to them, the <u>Ss</u> were required to repeat the statement in a negative form. Only the negative responses were evaluated. They were scored correct if the appropriate negative structure was used and incorrect if not. (see Appendix F).

In the interrogative elicited imitation exercise, \underline{I} asked each \underline{S} a series of questions about himself and his family. The \underline{S} was required to answer the questions and then repeat the questions. To evaluate this exercise, some thirty-four features were identified in the questions, consisting of question words, subject-verb inversions, auxiliary verbs and verb endings. The $\underline{S}s$ were scored according to how many of these features they produced correctly. Later this exercise was repeated with the $\underline{S}s$ asked to repeat the questions without first answering them. (see Appendix G)

The results of these various measures (presented in Table 3.1) indicate that there was relatively little difference in the overall general English abilities of the <u>SS</u>s. Roberto out performed Angelo on one measure, Angelo out performed Roberto on three other measures, and they had identical scores on the picture identification test. Both <u>SS</u>s received higher scores on all five measures that the <u>WS</u>s and relative to the scores of the <u>WS</u>s, Angelo's and Roberto's scores were not widely spread. Sufficient differences were found between the <u>WS</u>s on these measures to indicate a difference between their general English abilities. Stefano scored higher on all five measures than Giovanni and on four of the five measures, the differences between Stefano and Giovanni were nearly as large as those between Stefano and the SSs.

Table 3.1

Results of Measures Evaluating the General English ability of the 4 Ss. (Figures are percentages of correct responses.)

Instrument		Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
1.	Ilyin Interview Test	7	23	36	46
2.	Picture Identification	50	68	91	91
3.	Negative Elicitation	23	43	70	74
4.	Interrogative Elicita- tion (with answers)	18	21	47	.38
5.	Interrogative Elicita- tion (direct response)	53	62	76	82

The OGEP among <u>Ss</u> indicated by these results placed Giovanni as the weakest in general English ability. Stefano was found to be more proficient than Giovanni. Angelo and Roberto were found to be more proficient than Stefano, but their general English abilities were found to be about the same. In other words, the English abilities of the <u>Ss</u> seemed to represent three stages of acquisition: Giovanni was at the lowest stage; Stefano was at a second, more advanced stage; and Angelo and Roberto were at a third stage. This OGEP is supported by the average of the two teacher evaluations (see Table 2.2) which rank both Angelo and Roberto 3.5, Stefano 9 and Giovanni 12.5 among 14 informal L2 learners. The opinion of <u>I</u> concerning the relative English abilities of the Ss also supported this OGEP.

III. Sociolinguistic Survey

A questionnaire was designed to elicit from the <u>Ss</u> information concerning their attitudes towards using English and the regularity and frequency with which they used English in their daily lives. (References for the construction of the questionnaire included Lewis & Massad, 1975; Romano-Toramanian, 1978; Seliger, 1977; and Stauble, 1977.) The questionnaire was developed in English by the writer and an informant whose NL was Italian, but whose English was native-like. The Italian informant (<u>Ii</u>) translated the questionnaire into Italian (see Appendix H).

The method chosen to administer the questionnaire was for the <u>Ii</u> to conduct extended interviews using the questionnaire as a guide. This was done for several reasons. First, it was felt that the <u>Ss</u> would be more at ease talking and being able to express themselves with extended answers than they would be reading a questionnaire and writing out the responses. Secondly, the <u>Ii</u> had the questionnaire as a guide to elicit responses from all <u>Ss</u> to the same questions. Furthermore she could probe more completely when a <u>S</u>'s response was ambiguous or required further elicitation. Thirdly, the <u>Ii</u> could compare responses across <u>Ss</u> to questions calling for quantifiable responses. In this way, possible variation in responses involving interpretations of terms such as <u>sometimes</u>, <u>most of the time</u>, <u>often</u>, etc. between different individuals was avoided. Only the <u>Ii</u>'s interpretation of these terms was involved. Lastly, it was thought that the <u>Ss</u> would be more candid in their remarks about English if they could make them in their NL to someone who was not a NS of English.
Questions concerned with the frequency of English use were scored on a scale from 0 to 4 (0 = never; 1 = rarely; 2 = sometimes; 3 = half of the time; and 4 = most or all of the time). The questions concerned with the <u>Ss'</u> use of English were categorized into four general communicational settings: (1) at work, (2) at home, (3) with neighbors, friends and relatives not living at home, and (4) in public situations. The questionnaire contained a number of questions in each area. <u>Ii</u> was able to appraise each <u>S</u>'s use of English in each of these areas by combining results from several questions, scored with the above scale, with her overall subjective assessments of each <u>S</u>'s use of English in each of these areas.

<u>Ii</u>'s findings (which are presented in Table 3.2) indicated that a general order was found among the <u>Ss</u> regarding their frequency of English use: in all four areas, Roberto used English more often and more regularly than the other <u>Ss</u>; Stefano used English more frequently than Angelo at home, but in public and with neighbors and friends, they used English with equal frequency; Giovanni used English less than the other <u>Ss</u> in all four settings.

Table 3.2

Frequency with which the <u>Ss</u> Used English in 4 Communicational Settings. Figures are based on the following scale:

4 = most of the time 3 = about 50% of the time 2 = sometimes 1 = rarely 0 = never

Set	ting	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
1.	At work	1.0	2.5	4.0	2.0
2.	At home	1.0	2.0	2.5	1.5
3.	With relatives & friends	0.0	1.0	2.0	1.0
4.	In public	1.5	2.5	3.0	2.5

This order reflects the situations each \underline{S} described with regard to the four communicational settings. On his job, Roberto interacted primarily in English with two of the three men with whom he most closely worked. One of

these men was a native English speaker, the other was a native Italian speaker. Roberto's job entailed dispensing materials on orders usually given in English. Moreover, unlike the other Ss, his work involved regular interaction with various members of the English speaking community directly. The other three Ss were cleaners. They worked mostly on their own and spoke Italian with their immediate supervisors and most of their fellow workers. Of the three, Stefano used English the most frequently, as he worked on the daytime shift when interaction with students, professors and clerical staff was most frequent. He was often called on to substitute for the porter of his building at which times he constantly interacted in English. Angelo worked the swing shift during which offices and classrooms were used only part of the time. He used Italian with his supervisor and fellow cleaners. He used English in infrequent and brief encounters with students and with the people whose offices and classrooms he cleaned. Giovanni's work situation was like Angelo's except that he was responsible for cleaning the rooms used by the University's French Department. Therefore, in situations where Angelo used English, Giovanni usually used French.

In the Ss' home situations, the dominant language of communication was a dialect of Italian from the region of Italy where each S was born. They spoke almost exclusively in Italian with their wives and with parents who lived with them. They usually spoke to their children in Italian but the children themselves usually interacted in English, and English exchanges between the Ss and their children did take place. Because of the children's English, all four Ss claimed that their family watched English television programs and listened to English radio stations, but this apparently only occurred when the children were home. Otherwise, the Ss watched French television programs more often than English ones. Roberto used English at home more regularly than the other Ss. He frequently spoke to his children in English though they eventually switched to Italian in most extended conversations. Stefano didn't address his children very often in Engish, but he listened to conversations they had with each other and their friends, and he said that his daughter encouraged him to use English in their interactions. Angelo and Giovanni interacted less regularly with their children and watched less English television than Roberto and Stefano because they were working during the evening hours when their children were at home. Angelo did ask his children questions about English from time to time and he

sometimes read in English at home. He specifically mentioned the encyclopedia as a source of reading material.

All four <u>Ss</u> lived in neighborhoods with other Italian families and most neighborhood interaction was in Italian. With two exceptions, all <u>Ss</u> used French in neighborhood interactions not conducted in Italian. The first exception was that Roberto often used English with the children of his Italian neighbors and friends whom he claimed he addressed regularly. The second exception was that Stefano had an English speaking neighbor with whom he occasionally discussed gardening in English.

Giovanni, alone among the <u>S</u>s, had no relatives in North America outside of his immediate family. The other three <u>S</u>s did have numerous relatives here. Roberto often visited relatives in the United States who did not speak Italian and with whom he only communicated in English. Angelo and Stefano also had such relatives, but their interactions with them seemed to occur less frequently than those of Roberto.

In public situations, Giovanni used English only when he was compelled to and favored French which he could almost always use. Stefano, Angelo and Roberto used both languages regularly in public. The factor which most often determined which language they used was what language they were addressed in and this was usually French. When they initiated conversations in public, they chose English more often than French. However, situations requiring public communication were not frequent for any of the <u>S</u>s. They rarely went to the cinemas, restaurants or stores. They frequently used Italian or relied on their children in their business dealings, for obtaining information, in dealing with government bureaucracy and in most of their day to day affairs.

In general, then, the situations where the <u>Ss</u> regularly used English were most importantly in their work, secondly in their homes, to some extent in their neighborhoods and with their relatives (except for Giovanni) and to a very limited extent in public. In all but the last of these environments, Roberto used English the most frequently and the most regularly, followed by Stefano, and then Angelo. Giovanni used English the least frequently and the least regularly.

The questionnaire attempted to elicit information from the <u>Ss</u> regarding their attitudes toward English, their motivations for learning the language and their ideas about how they acquired their English skills. Concerning their attitudes and motivations toward English, their responses were more similar than they were for the frequency with which they used the language.

Their general attitudes toward English were essentially positive. As mentioned above, they considered themselves to be reasonably successful and were positively disposed to their adopted country and its official languages. All <u>Ss</u> had children who have been academically successful in English language schools, a fact the <u>Ss</u> were proud of despite the cost to the children in terms of development of standard Italian proficiency. All four <u>Ss</u> indicated that they used English in positive situations rather than negative ones. They all said they expressed themselves in English sometimes when they were happy, but not when they were angry. They used English in greetings and when joking but not for serious discussions. They spoke in English to impress Italians recently arrived from Italy, but not with closer acquaintances who have lived for a longer time in Canada.

Their motivation for learning English would seem to have been primarily instrumental in nature. All four <u>S</u>s believed that knowing English better would help them get a higher position at McGill (Roberto and Stefano were actively striving for promotion, Giovanni and Angelo were not). They felt that their children's English educations were more advantageous than French educations would have been primarily for instrumental reasons. There was no evidence that the <u>S</u>s had much integrative motivation to learn English. They seldom went to English films, and never read English books, magazines or newspapers (though Angelo referred to English language references). Even their interest in English music and especially English television would seem to have been a passive interest due to their children's interests more than their own.

The <u>Ss</u> varied in their opinions of how they had acquired the English skills they had. Giovanni felt he hadn't acquired much English skill, but what he did have, he had developed as a result of communicative need. He attributed his ability to a time when he had worked under an English supervisor and he believed he had only learned what he had had to learn.

Stefano's first foreign language was French which he began to learn as a prisoner of war. He stated that he began to learn first by hearing words in the TL which were similar in sound to words in Italian. Then, knowing these words, he could increase his comprehension ability and in this way he learned first French and later English.

Roberto claimed that when he first came to Canada, he couldn't tell the difference between French and English when spoken around him. It took him three months just to know which language was being spoken. He felt he finally developed English skills by practicing. He tried to speak English as often as he could and attributed his degree of proficiency to these efforts.

Angelo felt what little English skills he had, he got from studying an Italian-English grammar book and from asking his children for explanations of features of English he didn't understand.

IV. Collection of Spontaneous Speech

For the primary source of data from which to analyze the <u>Ss'</u> LLSs, communicational situations were desired in which each <u>S</u> could produce a speech sample which reflected his English ability. The use of written material for collecting data was considered unsuitable because of the <u>Ss'</u> limited skills in written English relative to their oral skills and because the <u>Ss</u> were rarely required to read and write in English. Recording the <u>Ss'</u> as they functioned routinely in English on their jobs was not done since the <u>Ss</u> didn't necessarily use English with regularity from day to day, some used English more frequently than others and there would be no way to control for such variables as the topics discussed in English or the circumstances under which the English use occurred.

For these reasons, the format used to collect samples of English production employed interviews between an English native speaker (<u>I</u>) and each <u>S</u>. These interviews were all conducted in an office of the University with the <u>I</u> presumed by the <u>S</u>s to be a professor, a communicational situation typical of those in which the Ss regularly used English.

The <u>I</u> initiated the discussions with each <u>S</u>, but endeavoured to establish interactions characterized by exchanges of ideas in informal, conversations rather than more structured interviews. He used a list of broad topics to insure that the same general subjects were discussed with all <u>S</u>s. The topics were carefully chosen to be meaningful to the <u>S</u>s. Ideas and topics introduced by the <u>S</u>s were discussed as they arose. No effort was made to correct or assist a <u>S</u> unless necessitated by a breakdown in communication or unless specifically requested by him. Discussions on a

particular topic were allowed to evolve in any direction the discussant carried them and there was no set time period or index of content to be covered on one topic before moving on to another.

This format was used with the hope that each <u>S</u> would develop a good rapport with <u>I</u> and therefore interact with him in normal conversational exchanges. That a positive rapport was established between the interviewer and each <u>S</u> was evidenced by the <u>S</u>s' continued cooperation throughout the data collection periods and the on-going friendly atmosphere pervading the discussions.

The initial discussions were conducted in mid-June, 1978. The discussion with each <u>S</u> lasted an hour and a half at one sitting and included conversations on the following topics: when the <u>S</u> immigrated to Canada, how he learned English and French, how his children learned English, what languages his family used in certain situations, what jobs the subject had had, and what his garden was like.

Follow up meetings took place between \underline{I} and each \underline{S} through the last two weeks of June, 1978. The discussion parts of these meetings varied in length, but the total time spent in discussions with each \underline{S} at these subsequent June meetings approximated an additional hour and a half of spontaneous discussion. Topics discussed with all subjects included: what they were planning to do during their coming vacations, their trips to Italy since they had immigrated to Canada, their trips to the United States, their automobiles and plans for buying new ones, their opinions of Canada's, Quebec's and Italy's political situations, and to what extent they maintained contact with friends and relatives still living in Italy.

A third set of discussions was held during the last two weeks of October, 1978. At this time each \underline{S} met with \underline{I} on either two or three occasions - the time which each \underline{S} spent with \underline{I} approximated three hours. Half of this time was spent in discussions like those in June. The topics discussed with all \underline{S} s included what they had done over their vacations, and whether they planned to participate in an English course being organized for the service personnel. During the October conversations, however, the topics of conversation differed more between \underline{S} s than they had in June as all \underline{S} s elaborated on topics of individual interest inspired by previous discussions.

These three sets of discussions represented a total of four and one half hours of conversations between \underline{I} and each \underline{S} . The conversations were recorded and subsequently transcribed.

CHAPTER FOUR

Linguistic Analysis

The linguistic analysis followed a four-step process: (1) to identify linguistic characteristics of the LLSs of the four \underline{Ss} , (2) to measure change in these characteristics over time, (3) to contrast these characteristics across the \underline{Ss} for evidence of acquisition progressions and stages, and (4) to compare the usage of linguistic features by the \underline{Ss} with other L2 learners.

Linguistic categories selected for analysis were based on four considerations: (1) they were basic components of the linguistic make-up of the LLSs of all four <u>S</u>s, (2) they were used with sufficient regularity by all <u>S</u>s, (3) they reflected systems of sufficient complexity that stages of partial acquisition could be recognized, and (4) they had been studied in other L2 acquisition research.

Four categories of features were chosen for analysis: prepositions, pronouns, morphemes (collectively referred to below as linguistic elements), and negatives (the only category that contains linguistic structures rather than discrete elements).

I. General Results of Linguistic Analyses across Ss

1. <u>Preposition Analysis</u>: According to Mougeon and Canale (1978) certain English prepositions in specific linguistic environments are used correctly very early by L2 learners; these prepositions in other environments and other prepositions are not used correctly where they are obligatory until much later, and some prepositional functions are only acquired by the most advanced L2 learners, if at all. In addition to this range of difficulty of preposition acquisition, most common prepositions occur frequently in discourse regardless of the subject of the communication. Furthermore, in pretests (see chapter two above) all four <u>S</u>s demonstrated some ability with English prepositions. Moreover, scores on the various prepositions used by these <u>S</u>s correlated significantly with other measures of general proficiency. For these reasons, prepositions were chosen for analysis.

The prepositions analyzed were those for which obligatory contexts were most frequently found in the transcripts of the spontaneous conversations of all four Ss. On occasion, words generally considered as prepositional in form such as to were analyzed both in prepositional functions such as the locative use of to and in non-prepositional functions such as the infinitival use of to. Eleven prepositional elements were identified from the Ss' productions for subsequent analysis, but not all of these had sufficient contexts to warrant their inclusion in subsequent studies. These ll prepositions were: to, in, for, on, from, with, like, about, at, of, and after. Four of these were used with sufficient frequency to be further divided according to function. The element to was analyzed according to three functions -- with the infinitive, as a locative preposition indicating direction toward, and all other prepositional uses of the element. For was analyzed in its use with persons and in its other uses. In and on were both analyzed as locative prepositions and in their other prepositional environments.

The data were compiled in the following way: Obligatory contexts in spontaneous speech were identified. Then each context was judged as <u>correct</u> if the prepositional element was produced in accordance with standard English usage, <u>deleted</u> if no prepositional element was supplied, or <u>wrong</u> if a prepositional element was supplied inappropriately. In the third case, the form of the wrong preposition was recorded.

Initial scores were computed for each \underline{S} as percentages of CUOC for each preposition in the functions analyzed. These percentages were computed from the data collected at the June and October testings. Table 4.1 presents the average percentage of correct usage across the 13 most commonly used prepositional functions for the four \underline{Ss} . (see Appendix I for the \underline{Ss} ' individual results for each preposition at each data collecting period.)

The results indicate that the <u>Ss'</u> relative ability with these English prepositions coincided with the OGEP (see chapter three above). Giovanni appeared to have the weakest grasp of the English prepositional system, Stefano's was somewhat more advanced, and Roberto and Angelo both used about 70% of the obligatory contexts for prepositions correctly.

Table 4.1

Average Percentages of CUOC of Prepositions, Pronouns and Morphemes across Subjects (Figures are percentages)

	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
13 most commonly used prepositional functions	31	44	69	71
10 most commonly used pronouns	51	52	68	86
12 most commonly used morphemes	26	28	45	48

2. <u>Pronoun Analysis</u>: Pronouns, like prepositional elements, are found in the speech of most elementary L2 learners. Their use presents the learner with a range of acquisition difficulties. In the prestudy measures, results for pronoun production also correlated positively with other measures of general English proficiency. For these reasons, pronouns were chosen for further analysis.

To compile the data for pronoun usage, contexts for all pronouns -including personal, impersonal, demonstrative, relative and reflexive -- were noted. Only the personal pronouns had sufficient contexts across <u>Ss</u> for evaluation and comparison. Even among the personal pronouns, there was a wide range in the frequency of usage, with several hundred contexts for such personal pronouns as <u>I</u> and <u>you (sub)</u> for each <u>S</u> and a mere 10 to 15 contexts for such personal pronouns as <u>them</u> or <u>her (Obj)</u>.

The category personal pronouns in this study includes those elements which are used in place of specific persons or things, and which can function as a subject, an object or a possessive adjective. A possessive adjective refers to such elements as <u>my</u>, <u>your</u>, <u>his</u>, <u>our</u>, etc., and can be considered to be an adjective since it functions as a determiner to a noun, and also since it is in contrast to possessive pronouns such as <u>mine</u>, <u>yours</u>, <u>his</u>, <u>ours</u>, etc. which function grammatically as nouns. The number of contexts requiring possessive pronouns in the data were too few for their inclusion in the pronoun analysis of this study. The number of contexts of certain possessive adjectives, on the other hand, were numerous. Since these elements are pronouns from the standpoint that they are used in place of nouns, they are included in the pronoun analysis of this study and for purposes of expediency, they are referred to as possessive pronouns.

Those pronouns with more than ten obligatory contexts for each <u>S</u> at both data periods included <u>I</u>, <u>me</u>, <u>my</u>, <u>we</u>, <u>you</u> (sub), <u>you</u> (obj), <u>he</u>, <u>they</u>, <u>she</u>, and <u>it</u> (sub). In addition to these, the following pronouns had combined totals of more than ten contexts for at least three of the <u>S</u>s at either or both of the data periods: <u>your</u>, <u>him</u>, <u>them</u>, <u>his</u>, and <u>it</u> (obj). (See Appendix J for specific results of each S for each pronoun at each period.)

Contexts for each pronoun were judged <u>correct</u>, <u>deleted</u> or <u>wrong</u> and percentages of CUOC were computed for each pronoun for each <u>S</u>. The average percentage of correct usuage across the ten most commonly used pronouns for each <u>S</u> are presented in Table 4.1. The pronoun averages reflect the OGEP for the four <u>S</u>s noted for prepositions. There was relatively little difference between Giovanni's average and Stefano's, but relatively more difference between the averages of Angelo and Roberto.

3. <u>Morpheme Analysis</u>: Morphemes were chosen for analysis because, like prepositions and pronouns, contexts for morpheme usage were prevalent in the data, but unlike pronouns and prepositions, numerous studies of language acquisition have been based on analyses of morpheme production by L2 learners (see Chapter one). The morphemes analyzed in this study are similar to those examined in other studies and are presented in Chart 4.1 with their abbreviations as they appear in this paper.

Many morpheme studies have employed morpheme elicitation tests such as the BSM (Burt & Dulay, 1973) or the SLOPE (Fathman, 1975). These tests were felt to be inappropriate for the <u>Ss</u> in the present study as they were designed for use with children. Therefore, data for the morpheme analysis were compiled in the following manner: 1. The first forty sentences produced by each <u>S</u> in the June data were identified and presented along with versions rewritten in standard English. Utterances of a few words and without subjects or verbs were generally not considered. 2. Contexts for the morphemes were identified and scored as correctly used or not. 3. The percentages of CUOC were computed for each <u>S</u> for each morpheme. 4. The morphemes were rank ordered for the average number of obligatory contexts across <u>Ss</u>, and they were also rank ordered according to percentage of CUOC across <u>Ss</u>. 5. The same procedure was repeated using twenty additional sentences for each S.

Chart 4.1

The Morphemes Analyzed in this Study

- 1. Cop The use of the verb $\underline{to} \underline{be}$ as a main verb
- *2. The The use of the definite article
- *3. A The use of the indefinite article
- #4. In The locative use of this preposition
- #5. On The locative use of this preposition
- Pl The use of regular plurals /s/, /z/, and /əz/
- 7. RP The use of regular past tense verbs

- IP The use of irregular past tense verbs
- 9. Aux The use of the verb to be in a progressive tense context
- 10. Ing The use of the suffix, ing, in a progressive tense context
- 11. Hav The use of the verb to have in a perfect tense context
- 12. 3PS The use of <u>s</u> on a verb of present tense with 3rd person singular subject The use of 's to show possession
 - referred to as <u>Poss</u> in other studies was not found in the data

*The uses of the definite and indefinite article are usually treated as a single morpheme in morpheme studies reported in the literature. They are treated here separately for three reasons: 1. both are used frequently by all <u>Ss</u>, 2. for all <u>Ss</u> the %s of correctness for the two kinds of articles are very different, and 3. the uses of the two kinds of articles are varied and complex in English and the degree to which they correspond to the definite and indefinite articles in Italian is also varied and complex.

#These are not always included in morpheme analyses but their frequencies of usage were high and some studies of Ll acquisition have analyzed them with morphemes (see Brown, 1973).

6. Spearman rank order correlations were computed between the averages based on forty sentences per <u>S</u> and those based on sixty sentences per <u>S</u>. High positive correlations between the <u>Ss'</u> results based on forty sentences and those from sixty sentences were sought to indicate that the sample was sufficient to be representative of the <u>Ss'</u> ability to use the target morphemes. Significant correlations were found (for frequency of usage, \P -.9423, <u>df</u> 13, <u>P</u><.01; for CUOC, \P =.916, <u>df</u> 13, <u>P</u><.01), and the reliability of the sample was accepted as representative of the production tendencies of four <u>S</u>s in June. 7. The first sixty sentences from the October data were analyzed in the same way. Spearman rank-order correlations were made between the June results and the October results for frequency of contexts and percentages of CUOC. Again, significant correlations were found (for frequency, $\Psi = .9231$, <u>df</u> 13, <u>P</u><.01; for CUOC, $\Psi = .9021$, <u>df</u> 13, <u>P</u><.01). 8. Finally additional contexts were found and scored for those morphemes for which particular <u>S</u>s had fewer than ten obligatory contexts in the one hundred and twenty sentences originally analyzed. These additional contexts were identified in subsequent October data.

The general average percentage of correct usage across the 12 morphemes analyzed for each \underline{S} are presented in Table 4.1 along with the results of the preposition and pronoun analyses. These results show that as a group morphemes had not been acquired to the same extent as prepositions or pronouns, but the results do indicate that Angelo and Roberto had developed a higher proficiency in their use than Stefano and Giovanni had. (See Appendix K for a more detailed presentation of the results of the morpheme analysis.)

4. <u>Negation Analysis</u>: Perhaps the most frequently described linguistic structure in the L2 acquisition literature is the negative (see, for example, Cazden et al., 1975; and Hatch, 1974). Negation is used frequently in normal discourse, it is distinctly marked, and there are various forms of negation in English with varying degrees of difficulty for the learner. For these reasons, and because the <u>Ss</u> used numerous negative phrases and sentences in their conversations with <u>I</u>, negations were chosen as the one structure to be analyzed in conjunction with the elements mentioned above.

Data came from the utterances in the free conversations of June and October. These utterances were grouped into four categories based on the type of negative structure: (1) negations requiring <u>do</u> insertion, (2) negations of the verb <u>to</u> <u>be</u>, (3) negative phrases without subjects or verbs requiring <u>not</u> as a negative marker, and (4) all other types of negative structures. (This last category, containing negated modals, negative phrases using <u>no</u> or <u>none</u> and perfect tense negations, were not numerous across <u>Ss</u> and were not examined further.)

Negative utterances made by the Ss were recorded according to the above categories and the nature of the productions were noted. For do insertion negative utterances, five types of productions were found: a. standard English form, e.g. I don't see; b. the element don't reduced to de, e.g. I de see; c. don't reduced to not, e.g. I not see; d. don't reduced to no, e.g. I no see; and e. other miscellaneous non-standard forms. For negations of the verb to be five forms were found: a. standard English form, e.g. I'm not here (Cases of the uncontracted form, I am not here, were not found in the data); b. Be deleted, e.g. I not here; c. not reduced to no, e.g. I'm no here; d. both be deleted and not reduced to no, e.g. I no here; and e. other miscellaneous non-standard forms. For negative phrases requiring not, two forms were found: a. containing not, e.g. not me; and b. containing no, e.g. no me. Counts were made of the number of instances that each S produced negative utterances using each of the above forms. From these tabulations, percentages were computed for each S to assess the relative frequency of each form for each category of negative structure. The results of these computations are shown in Table 4.2. These results show that Angelo and Roberto produced higher percentages of standard form negative structures in all three categories than Stefano and Giovanni did.

Table 4.2

The <u>S</u>s' Negative Productions According to Form (Figures are percentages of the forms used by each S for each category of negative structure)

Do insertion negatives:	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
a. standard form	6	6	31	73
b. don't reduced to de	23	14	8	1
c. don't reduced to not	0	2	28	3
d. don't reduced to no	67	72	38	14
e. other	3	6	1	9
Negatives of verb to Be:	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
a. standard from	0	12	0	57
b. Be deleted	54	17	60	17
c. not reduced to no	15	12	13	4
d. both b. & c.	31	59	27	4
e. other	0	0	0	17
Negative phrases with Not:	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
a. containing not	32	35	84	48
b. containing no	68	65	16	52

A consistent pattern of results was found among the <u>Ss</u> for the three linguistic features examined in this analysis -- prepositions, pronouns and morphemes -- and for the negative structures studied as well. This pattern based on percentages of CUOC for the linguistic features and on percentages of productions of standard English utterances in three categories of negatives was also consistent with the OGEP found from several measures reported above (see Chapter three).

II. The Stability of the Ss' LLSs

The principal method employed in this study to analyze the degree of stability of the <u>Ss'</u> LLSs was to compare productions of the above elements and structures over time. Computations of the <u>Ss'</u> productions of prepositions and pronouns were made from their discussions with <u>I</u> from three different data sources with respect to time: (1) the first session of the June data collection period which was an hour and a half of continuous, spontaneous conversation, (2) the spontaneous conversations during the three subsequent meetings of the June period which averaged nearly an hour and a half for each <u>S</u>, and (3) the spontaneous conversations made during the sessions of the October data collection period. Consistency of percentages of CUOC of the prepositions and pronouns examined from these three time periods for each S was taken as evidence of the stability of his LLS.

Table 4.3 gives the results for each \underline{S} at the three data periods. These results reflected considerable consistency in the productions of all four $\underline{S}s$ for both elements. Concerning prepositions, only seven percentage points separated Angelo's highest and lowest percentages, and only six points separated the highest and lowest percentages of each of the other three $\underline{S}s$ across the time periods. The differences between Stefano and Giovanni and between Stefano and the $\underline{SS}s$ were greater at each time period than the differences in the percentages of the individual $\underline{S}s$ from one period to another. This was not true between Angelo and Roberto, but the results did show that they were consistently close to each other at each time period. A further point to be noted in the comparative values of preposition production is that there was not a general trend toward higher percentages from the earlier date to the later date. These results indicated that the \underline{Ss}' LLSs with respect to preposition use had stabilized to a considerable extent.

Table 4.3

Percentages of CUOC for each S over 3 Time Periods

Average % CUOC - Prepositions:	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
June, 1st session	33	39	72	65
June, other sessions	27	46	66	70
October sessions	33	45	66	72
Average % CUOC - Pronouns:	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
June, 1st session	42	53	72	88
June, other sessions	36	60	69	92
October sessions	49	55	71	92

The results for pronoun usage reported in Table 4.3 were similar to those for preposition usage. The differences between <u>Ss</u> in these percentages were generally consistent. Giovanni was less consistent from one time period to another in pronoun production than he was in preposition production, but assuming 42% to reflect an average for Giovanni in pronoun usage, he was six points below that average in subsequent June sessions and seven points higher in October. This could be a potentially significant difference reflecting some kind of progression in pronoun proficiency, but it is more likely accounted for by differences in the nature of the pronouns he happened to use due to the topics he happened to be discussing.

To further test stability, an elicitation exercise was employed for the production of specific prepositions. This exercise consisted of having each \underline{S} describe what transpired while \underline{I} performed some twenty-three activities employing various prepositional relationships. The \underline{Ss} ' verbalizations were transcribed and their use of prepositions evaluated by computing their percentages of CUOC. The results, recorded in Table 4.4, show a consistent use of prepositions across \underline{Ss} whether in free conversations or in elicited situations. The interesting aspect of these results is the consistency of differences in the percentages between \underline{Ss} for both elicitation-exercise results and results from general discussions. That the actual percentages for each \underline{S} from the two measures are similar is not necessarily important as scores in elicited exercises can be manipulated by the choice of the target prepositions.

Table 4.4

Preposition Usage in Free Speech versus Usage in Elicitation Exercises (Figures represent %s of CUOC)

	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
Free Speech Prep. Usage	31	44	69	71
Elicited Prep. Usage	23	43	70	74

Evidence of stability in the production of negatives and morphemes was sought by comparing the results from the June data with those of the October data. For negatives, the data consisted of all incidents of negation used in spontaneous speech at the two data periods plus the results of a negative elicitation exercise. In this exercise, the <u>I</u> made statements about himself and asked the <u>S</u>s to comment on the validity of the statement with reference to themselves. The <u>S</u> could respond with a statement such as <u>I do too</u> or <u>so</u> <u>am I if I's statement was true for the S as well.</u> However, if the statement was not true for the <u>S</u>, he was asked to state the case with a negative transformation of I's statement.

Table 4.5

Comparison of Forms of Do-insertion Negatives by the <u>Ss</u> between June Data, October Data and Negative Elicitation Exercises (EE) (Figures are %s of the use of each form by each S)

Neg	ative Form:	Giova *Jun/	anni 'Oct	St Jun	efan /Oct	o /EE	Ro Jun	bert /Oct	.0 :/EE	r Jur	ngel /Oct	.0 :/EE
a.	standard form	4	12	7	5	0	31	33	0	76	53	100
b.	don't to de	23	27	14	22	0	3	18	0	0	3	0
c.	don't to not	0	0	3	0	14	26	15	41	0	6	0
đ.	don't to no	74	62	76	74	86	40	35	59	25	6	0

* The results of the elicitation exercise for Giovanni were inconsistent with his normal productions. They all contained <u>does</u>, an element he had just been shown and which he used in both positive and negative utterances. Outside of this exercise, Giovanni never used <u>does</u> in any utterances. For this reason, the results for Giovanni in the elicitation exercise are not presented. Table 4.5 presents the results of the analysis of one kind of negative form, the <u>do</u> insertion. These results indicate that three of the four <u>Ss</u> used predominately one structure for <u>do</u> insertion negation -- Angelo used <u>don't</u> while Stefano and Giovanni used <u>no</u>. Roberto seemed to use a variety of forms. All <u>Ss</u> showed consistent use of the forms in the free speech productions of June and October, but they tended to rely on one form more exclusively in the elicitation exercise. In each case, the structure used most frequently in the elicitation exercise was the structure with the highest percentage of use in the spontaneously produced negatives.

For a comparison of morpheme usage by each \underline{S} between June and October, the data from each \underline{S} 's first sixty sentences at both periods were compared. A sufficient number of obligatory contexts of most of the morphemes analyzed were available to compare each \underline{S} 's use of morphemes in general between June and October. The results, presented in Table 4.6, indicate considerable consistency among three of the \underline{S} s in their morpheme productions over time (Giovanni's percentages were consistently low for all morphemes at both data

Table 4.6

Morpheme	Giova Jun.,	anni /Oct.	Ste Jun.	fano /Oct.	Rob Jun .	erto /Oct.	Ang Jun	gelo /Oct.
The	62	90	67	52	87	91	80	80
In .	15	32	63	67	82	85	84	85
Cop	10	35	42	35	84	83	90	87
On	0	15	-	34	-	29	-	55
Pl	50	36	13	65	68	50	50	53
A	20	31	57	28	34	64	43	71
IP	-	35	-	10	18	22	48	50
Ing	43	-	17	-	-	29	-	-
Aux	-	-	-	-	-	-	17	-
Hav	-	0	0	14	-	0	20	-
RP	7	8	0	0	-	6	37	0
3PS	-	-	. 0	0	0	0	-	-

Comparison of Morphemes by <u>Ss</u> between June and October (Figures are %s of CUOC; - indicates fewer than 5 contexts)

periods with the exception of the definite article which was used correctly by him in a considerable but not consistent percentage of CUOC). Angelo's percentages of CUOC for five morphemes varied 3 points or less between the two data periods while Roberto's percentages for five morphemes varied 4 points or less. Stefano's percentages were less consistent but for six morphemes, the percentages of CUOC varied 15 points or less. In contrast, there were 5 instances of markedly inconsistent results among the three Ss. Three of these were for the indefinite article which had differences of about 30 percentage points for each S between the two data periods. This aberration in results might be explained by two factors affecting the Ss' use of the indefinite article. On the one hand, the Ss' NL employs indefinite articles differently than English does in some cases. The Ss may have encountered these cases more frequently at one data period than at the other. On the other hand, in some cases apparent use of the indefinite article by the Ss may actually have been the inclusion of an unstressed middle vowel, /a/, before nouns beginning with clusters difficult for the Ss to produce. All Ss had this tendency and the presence of these clusters may not have been in equal frequency at the two data periods. The combination of these two factors may explain why the Ss' production of the indefinite article was not as consistent with respect to time. With this exception, the Ss' morpheme productions were generally found to be consistent from June to October.

In general the combined results indicate that the <u>Ss</u> performed with considerable consistency in June and October. Such consistency would indicate that the target language mastery of these learners has 'crystalized' (Tarone et al., 1976). Differences between <u>Ss</u> in OGEP could mean that their stabilized individual LLSs reflect different stages in a common progression of acquisition of general English proficiency. Identity of potential stages in this progression is the theme of the next section of this chapter.

III. In Search of Common Stages in the Process of Acquisition

The consistent results of the <u>Ss</u> productions over time and their consistent performance on various measures of both general and specific aspects of English acquisition present the possibility that the <u>Ss</u> may reflect different stages in a common acquisition process described above (see Chapter three). Further evidence that this could be the case was sought by comparing the rank orders of percentages of CUOC across <u>Ss</u> for

the linguistic elements examined above. High positive correlations across <u>Ss</u> in these rank orders would suggest that the elements are individually being acquired in simialr orders by the <u>Ss</u>. A lack of correlation among these features across <u>Ss</u> would suggest that some features were relatively easy -- or difficult -- to acquire for some <u>Ss</u> but not for others. Differences in the rank orders of percentages of CUOC would suggest differences in the ways these Ss were acquiring English.

Therefore, rank order correlations were made across $\underline{S}s$ for percentages of CUOC for prepositions, pronouns and morphemes. The results of these correlations are presented in Table 4.7. The correlations were all found to be

Table 4.7

Correlations between <u>Ss</u> for Rank Orders of %s of CUOC of Prepositions, Pronouns and Morphemes (Figures represent values of <u>f</u> for Spearman Rank Order Correlations)

Roberto	.7115**	.6676*
	Stefano	.5934*
	Roberto	Roberto .7115** Stefano

Rank Order Correlations between Ss for Prepositions

Giovanni

Rank Order Correlations between Ss for Pronouns

Angelo	.8000**	.8273**	.8636**
	Roberto	.8818**	.6545*
		Stefano	.7576**

Giovanni

Rank Order Correlations between Ss for Morphemes

Angelo	.9790**	.8811**	.7622**
	Roberto	.9161**	.8392**
		Stefano	.8497**
			Giovanni

(* P<.05, **P<.01; for Prep. df 13, for Pron. df 10, for Morphemes df 12)

positive. Only one correlation failed to reach significance and 13 out of 18 correlations were significant to the .01 level. These positive correlations indicated that there were common orders of difficulty across <u>S</u>s in using the features analyzed. Therefore, further examination of the <u>S</u>s' productions was done to try to identify potential common stages in the process of acquiring these features. For this examination, a modified implicational analysis was used.

1. Background to the Implicational Analysis: Implicational analysis (IA) was first mentioned in the literature in connection with a study concerning Creole speech by De Camp (1971). The model followed in this study was fashioned on the work of Andersen (1977) and Hyltenstam (1977). The requirements for an IA are a group of features of the TL to be acquired and a group of L2 learners of recognizably varied TL proficiencies. These two factors are contrasted in an implicational grid. Along one axis of the grid, the TL features are listed in descending order of difficulty based on the number of learners who have demonstrated that they have fully acquired them. Along the perpendicular axis, the L2 learners are listed in descending order of TL skill, based on the number of TL elements they have acquired. For a feature to be considered as acquired, the learner usually has demonstrated that he correctly uses the feature in at least 85% or 90% of the obligatory contexts in which standard TL production would require the feature to be used. The grid is filled in as each feature is marked for each learner as being acquired or not being acquired. Reading down the list of results for each linguistic feature, one can see the approximate level among learners where the feature begins to be acquired relative to other linguistic features and also how consistently acquisition of each feature corresponds to degrees of over all TL proficiency. Reading across the L2 learners, one can see the level of general TL proficiency apparently required for a particular feature to be acquired and also how consistent a particular learner is in the features he has acquired relative to his fellow L2 learners.

2. <u>The IA Model Used in this Study</u>: The IA presented below differs in one important way from the IA reported in the literature. Previous IAs have employed the distinction of acquired/not acquired. This distinction does not allow for analysis of partial acquisition of TL features. The system employed below attempted to do this by using a five-point scale

reflecting degrees of acquisition based on percentages of CUOC. According to this scale, similar to one developed by Cohen (1974), letters were assigned to ranges of percentages as follows: A was assigned to percentages from 85 to 100, which indicated that the element had been completely acquired. B was assigned to percentages from 66 to 84, which indicated that the element had been acquired to an extent that it was employed correctly far more often than not, but that complete acquisition had not been attained. C was assigned to percentages from 40 to 65, a range which indicated that the learner was probably quite familiar with the feature but had a very incomplete understanding of its function. D was assigned to percentages from 20 to 39, a range indicating that correct usage occurred more regularly than could be accounted for by chance, but that acquisition of a feature in this range was in a very early stage. E was given in cases where an element was used correctly in fewer than 20% of the obligatory contexts. An E score was considered to be in a preacquisition stage where the learner might not realize it to be a distinct TL element but might use it in prefabricated linguistic patterns.

To form the implicational grids for this study, the elements were listed vertically according to their rank of correct usage. This rank was determined by computing the percentages of CUOC for each \underline{S} and then averaging the four percentages, a method similar to that termed the Group Mean Method by Dulay and Burt (1974A). The subjects were listed horizontally based on the OGEP. Then scores were recorded for each \underline{S} on each element based on his percentage of CUOC and the five-point scale described above.

Figure 4.1 presents the IA of the <u>Ss</u> performance on 31 mixed linguistic elements. The degree to which the IA reflects a consistent, progressive pattern of acquisition can be assessed by reading down the four columns of scores. An individual's score for an element should be the same as or lower than the element immediately preceding it, the same as or higher than the element immediately succeeding it. Each column can be arbitrarily divided into general sections indicating stages of acquisition. Generally, the sections are established when, moving down a column, two or more successive elements receive the same letter score. A further stipulation is that the lowest point of any section of a stronger learner must be level with or higher than the lowest point of the corresponding section of a weaker learner. All elements found in each of these sections should reflect the stage of acquisition of the element for the learner.

Element	Average % CUOC		Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
After	98	-	-#	A	А	A
Му	97		A	А	А	А
Me	94		A	A	А	A
About	92	A	#	A	А	A
You(Obj)	85		в	A	А	A
You (Sub)	85	-	В	в	А	A
For(Per)	80		c	В	A	A
The	76	ъ	B+*	c \	A*	B+
I	71	D	С	c \	A	А
In (Loc)	69			C	В	B∔
With	61		D	D+	∖в∖	А
From	60		D	<u> </u>	\ c+ ``	A
Cop	59		D	D \	В	<u> </u>
On(Loc)	53		D	D	В	в
We	53	с	D*	E+	c \	Ał
Pl	51		C+	C+		C+
To(Inf)	50		D	D) B+)	в
He	48		E+	C+	[c	В
A	44		D	D	\ c \	c+
It(Sub)	40	_	C+*	E+	E+	в
To(Loc)	38		Е	▶	\ c	\ C+
They	35		Е		\ c	∖в
She	35	D	E	E	L c	В
IP	29		D+*	E \		<u> </u>
Ing	25		E	D+		D
At	22	_	E	E		D
Aux	19		E	E		D
Of	19		E	E	\	D
Hav	10	Е	E	E	E	E
RP	9		E	E	E	E
3PS	0		Е	E	E	Е

not sufficient contexts to evaluate a percentage of CUOC + Scores not fitting the pattern for an individual <u>S</u> * Scores not fitting the pattern across <u>S</u>s

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Figure 4.1: Implicational Analysis of 31 mixed linguistic elements.

3. <u>The Implicational Analysis</u>: It is possible to assess the degree of conformity of the results to the implications made by the IA grid in three ways. First, the degree to which the scores for the elements conform across <u>Ss</u> to the expected pattern can be judged by reading across each row of the grid. Exceptions to the expected pattern occur when a score to the left is closer to A than a score to the right. Out of 124 scores on the grid, only six scores did not conform to the expected pattern. This indicated that the order of features listed in Figure 4.1 corresponded to a potential order of degree of correct usage which, by extention, could reflect a common order of acquisition across <u>Ss</u>.

The second way to assess the degree of conformity of the results presented in Figure 4.1 is to examine the consistency of each <u>S</u>'s scores by looking down the columns. Of the 124 cases in the grid, only twenty-one scores -- spread across all four Ss -- failed to conform.

The third way to assess the conformity of the grid is to look for the number of cases in which scores fail to agree with the stage of acquisition in which they are placed. To do this, the stages of acquisition as established by the grid for each \underline{S} were analyzed. Seventy-five percent of these stages were either exclusively composed of the appropriate score or contained only one exception, and all of the stages delineated in the grid had a majority of scores commensurate with the stage. Only one score in the grid was more than one letter above or below the letter commensurate with the stage in which it was located.

The results of these three assessments suggest a general progressive process of English acquisition by the <u>S</u>s which can be identified by varying percentages of correct usage of the elements analyzed. The existence and general consistency of prospective stages among the elements for all four <u>S</u>s provide evidence of this. In addition to this, most of the analyzed elements showed degrees of partial acquisition by some or all of the four <u>S</u>s and in a large majority of cases, the degree of partial acquisition fit the IA grid.

Figure 4.1 also identifies four different classes of elements with regard to the degree or nature of acquisition by the <u>Ss</u>. The first class contains elements for which all <u>Ss</u> got scores of <u>A</u> or <u>B</u>. These elements -- <u>after</u>, <u>my</u>, <u>me</u>, <u>about</u>, <u>you(obj)</u> and <u>you(sub)</u> -- can be considered as completely or nearly completely acquired by all <u>Ss</u>. The second class consists of

elements for which the Ss had scores of D or E. The Ss can be said to have had little or no acquisition of these elements which include IP, Ing, At, Aux, Of, Have, RP, and 3PS. The third class consists of twelve elements which were apparently being acquired by the Ss in a manner that suggests an acquisition continuum, stages of which were exemplified by the four Ss. These elements are I, Cop, With, From, For(Per), We, He, They, She, On(Loc), To(Inf) and To(Loc). The fourth class contained elements which either appeared to have been acquired to nearly the same degree by all Ss -- Pl, A, and In(Loc) -- or which had results that were inconsistent with the pattern of the other elements -- The and It (Sub). The results for these last two elements suggested idio-syncratic usage inconsistent with a common pattern of acquisition across all Ss. It is of interest to note that no elements moved from a score of E to a score of A or even from a score of D to A between Ss. This indicates that among the elements analyzed, none were acquired without some stage of partially correct usage indicating stages of partial or incomplete acquisition.

Concerning individual variation across <u>Ss</u> evidenced by the IA, there is one point to note. The lower levels of acquisition of the elements, levels <u>E</u> and <u>D</u>, were nearly identical for Angelo and Roberto. Yet Angelo had less than half as many elements with a score of <u>C</u> (4) as Roberto (9). This could mean that once Angelo begins to acquire an element in the TL, his acquisition process becomes complete more rapidly than Roberto's does. It might alternatively indicate that for those elements which both have begun to acquire, Angelo had progressed to a higher stage of acquisition than Roberto, but that both had not yet reached a plateau of proficiency where they began to progress toward measurable acquisition of those elements at the bottom of the acquisition order.

4. <u>Implicational Analyses by Linguistic Features</u>: An examination of the IAs for morphemes, prepositions and pronouns provides additional evidence for a common order of acquisition across <u>Ss</u> of related elements partially acquired.

The implicational analysis for morphemes is presented in Figure 4.2. In this grid, the percentage of correct usage for each morpheme is presented by <u>S</u> along with the corresponding letter score. Of interest first is the consistency of the overall pattern of results. Three entries were potential aberrations from the implied order reading across the grid, two of these for

the morpheme <u>the</u>; and four entries were out of the pattern reading vertically, two of these for the morpheme <u>Pl</u>. With these exceptions, the order of acquisition for all Ss implied by IA was consistent.

Morpheme	& CUOC	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
The	76 B	80 B*	55 C	89 A*	80 B
In(Loc)	69 B	54 C	<u>65 C</u>	81 B	76 B
Cop	59 C	26 D	37 D \\	83 B	88 A †
On (Loc)	53 C	29 D	32 D	79 в	72 B
Pl	51 C	41 C+	48 C+	63 C	52 C
A	44 C	29 D	36 D	54 C	58 C
IP	29 D	29 D	10 E*	27 D	49 C
Ing	25 D	16 E	31 D	26 D	25 D
Aux	19 E	ΟE	17 E	21 D	<u> 3</u> 8 D
Hav	10 E	ΟE	9 E	12 E	20 E
RP	9 E	8 E	0 E	8 E	19 E
3PS	OE	ΟE	OE	0 E	• 0 E

+ Scores not fitting the pattern for an individual <u>S</u> * Scores not fitting the pattern across <u>S</u>s

Figure 4.2: Implicational Analysis for 12 morphemes.

Looking more closely, one finds that all of the morphemes with a letter score of A or B were unbound morphemes with the partial exception of <u>Cop</u> which was usually realized as a bound morpheme. Further, all of the morphemes with a letter score of E were bound morphemes with the partial exception of <u>Hav</u>. The conclusion is that the acquisition of unbound morphemes preceded that of bound morphemes for these <u>S</u>s (this is discussed more fully in the next section of this chapter).

Of further interest is that not a single morpheme had been acquired by more than one \underline{S} if one goes by the standards for an element being acquired used in most morpheme-order studies. Yet by using the IA approach together with scores for partial acquisition, a clear pattern of an acquisition continuum can be discerned. The final inference of interest from the morpheme IA is that Giovanni and Stefano tended to be much alike in their results. Their scores were generally separated by a few percentage points and they had different letter scores on only three morphemes. With consistently higher values than Giovanni and Stefano, Angelo and Roberto also tended to have very similar morpheme scores, with the single exception of IP. These results were consistent with the discrete point evaluations made to assess the <u>Ss'</u> general English proficiency and with their overall averages of morpheme usage reported in the first section of this chapter. This would suggest that for morpheme acquisition, the four <u>Ss</u> would seem to represent two stages of proficiency rather than four.

	Average				
Preposition	% CUOC	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
After	98 A	#	95 A	100 A	100 A
About	92 A	#	94 A	93 A	89 A
For(Per)	80 B	62 C 🔪	68 в	96 A	93 A
In (Oth)	71 B	25 D+	80 B	95 A*	82 B
In (Loc)	69 B	54 C	65 C \	81 B	76 B
To (Oth)	66 B	63 C	51 C \	81 B	68 B
For (Oth)	62 C	13 E+	70 B+	83 B	81 B
With	61 C	32 D	38 D+	80 B	95 A+
From	60 C	40 D	65 C	↓ 47 C+	89 A +
On (Loc)	53 C	29 D	32 D \	79 в	72 B
To(Inf)	50 C	33 D	20 D	80 B	66 B
On (Oth)	44 D	13 E	36 D	∖ 58 C ∕	70 B
To (Loc)	38 D	20 E	33 D	44 C	56 C
At	22 D	6 E	3 E 🔪	42 C*	35 D
Of	19 E	7 E	8 E	26 D	34 D

+ Scores not fitting the pattern for an individual S

* Scores not fitting the pattern across Ss

Not sufficient contexts to evaluate a percentage of CUOC

Figure 4.3: Implicational Analysis for 15 prepositions

The results of the prepositional IA are presented in Figure 4.3. The values for four prepositional categories excluded from the general IA are included in this analysis -- In(Oth), To(Oth), For(Oth) and On(Oth). There was again considerable consistency between the predictions implicit in the grid and the individual results. Reading down the columns, there were only seven exceptions out of a possible sixty -- three of these being <u>other</u> categories. Reading horizontally, only two values failed to comply with the implied pattern -- one of which was also an <u>other</u> category. The ordering of the prepositions in Figure 4.3 appears then to indicate an order of difficulty or acquisition among these prepositional functions for these <u>S</u>s.

In general, there was more variance in prepositional percentages of CUOC among <u>Ss</u> than among morpheme percentages. Angelo and Roberto had apparently acquired five and four prepositional uses respectively while Stefano and Giovanni had shown little or no ability in seven and ten prepositional uses respectively. As was the case with morpheme analysis, there was little difference in the individual percentages of correct usage and letter scores between Angelo and Roberto (the one real difference was <u>From</u>). Unlike the morpheme results, however, there were many differences between Stefano and Giovanni with Stefano consistently getting higher percentages.

Figure 4.4 presents the IA for pronoun usage. Again, the implicational grid shows consistent results across Ss, (10% of the scores on the grid were not consistent with the implied pattern.) The pronoun IA indicated that first and second person pronouns were acquired before third person pronouns. Further, singular pronouns were further along the acquisition continuum than their corresponding plural forms.

Two points of general interest emerge from the Pronoun IA results: (1) there were few D scores for pronouns relative to the number for morphemes and prepositions, and (2) there was a greater difference between the values of the grid (both letter scores and percentages) for Angelo's results and Roberto's results.

Pronoun	Average % CUOC	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
My	97 A	92 A	97 A	98 A	100 A
Me	94 A	94 A	93 A	90 A	99 A
You(Obj)	85 A	66 в	86 A	98 A	91 A
You(Sub)	85 A	79 B		89 A	95 A
I (Sub)	71 B	41 C	60 C	90 A	94 A
We	53 C		20 E+*	63 C	91 A
Не	48 C	20 E	42 C	50 C \	78 B
It (Sub)	40 D	65 C+*	9 E 🔪	12 E+ \	75 B
They	35 D	8 E	22 D+	41 C	67 В
She	35 D	4 E	18 E	47 C	72 B

+ Scores not fitting the pattern for an individual <u>S</u> * Scores not fitting the pattern across <u>S</u>s .

Figure 4.4: Implicational Analysis for 10 pronouns.

5. What the IAs have portrayed: The IAs presented above collectively offered evidence of a common acquisition continuum across Ss characterized by increasing abilities to use English features correctly in their obligatory contexts. As described in chapter three above, the process of acquisition of a TL feature requires increasing familiarity with several aspects of the feature and may be characterized by stages of partial acquisition. The IAs employed hypothetical but potential stages of acquisition of the morphemes, prepositions and pronouns analyzed in this study based on the Ss' percentages of CUOC of them. The consistency portrayed in the IAs across Ss and among features offers evidence that stages of acquisition do exist. The few exceptions noted in each IA suggest that not all features follow an identical progression of acquisition and not all Ss are locked into a single process of acquisition for all English features. Nevertheless, the IAs seem to portray an acquisition process characterized by considerable consistency across L2 learners and L2 features, progressing through various stages toward complete acquisition of individual TL features.

IV. The Nature of Stages in the Acquisition Processes

The second section of this chapter presented evidence that the <u>S</u>s' LLSs were stable and that their general English proficiencies were not changing over time. Section III above presented evidence through IAs of potential stages in a progressive acquisition process common across <u>S</u>s. The purpose of this section is to analyze the TL productions of the <u>S</u>s to gain insight into the nature of their stages of acquisition.

1. <u>Stages in Pronoun Acquisition</u>: Evidence from the IA of pronouns indicated that person and grammatical function were factors that affected the order of acquisition of the various pronouns. Therefore, the <u>S</u>s' productions of pronouns were compared combining their pronoun usages according to these two aspects. The results of these comparisons are presented in Table 4.8. All four Ss used first person pronouns with greater accuracy

Table 4.8

The <u>Ss</u> Pronoun Productions According to Person and Grammatical Function (Figures are percentages of CUOC)

Table 4.8a Person:	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
lst person pronouns	66	68	85	96
2nd person pronouns	48	54	70	88
3rd person pronouns	30	40	61	83
Table 4.8b Function	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
Subject pronouns	32	40	63	83
Object pronouns	60	76	79	97
Possessive pronouns	47	42	62	81

than second person pronouns and second person pronouns with greater accuracy than third person pronouns. Furthermore, for these categories of pronouns, differences among <u>Ss</u> reflected the OGEP among them. The results for grammatical function indicated that all <u>Ss</u> used object pronouns more correctly than other personal pronouns and that all <u>Ss</u> used subject pronouns and possessive pronouns with nearly the same percentages of CUOCs (in this study the term possessive pronoun always refers to possessive adjectives -- see section one of this chapter). Differences among <u>S</u>s in percentages of CUOC for pronouns according to grammatical function also reflected the OGEP.

Additional evidence of the nature of pronoun acquisition was also found from the <u>Ss'</u> productions. Order of CUOC among the pronouns in the categories analysed was not affected by the type of error made when the target pronoun was not correctly produced. Moreover, it was found that singular pronouns were learned before their corresponding plural forms and masculine forms of third person pronouns were acquired before the corresponding feminine forms were. (See Appendix J for statistics indicating these aspects of pronoun acquisition).

2. <u>Stages of Morpheme Acquisition</u>: The analysis of morpheme production across the <u>S</u>s indicated two aspects to the acquisition process: first, the acquisition process for unbound morphemes preceded that for bound morphemes, and second, the acquisition process for noun phrase (NP) morphemes preceded that for morphemes connected with the use of the verb (VP).

In regard to the bound-unbound distinction, the use of four unbound morphemes was analyzed -- <u>the</u>, <u>in</u>, <u>on</u>, <u>a</u> -- and five bound morphemes --<u>Pl</u>, <u>IP</u>, <u>Ing</u>, <u>RP</u>, and <u>3PS</u>. (Three morphemes can be either bound or unbound --<u>Cop</u>, <u>Aux</u> and <u>Hav</u>. The data did not contain sufficient contexts to differentiate between bound and unbound occurrences of these three morphemes.) The unbound morphemes were rank ordered first, second, fourth and sixth respectively across <u>Ss</u> for percentages of CUOC. Bound morphemes were rank ordered fifth, seventh, eighth, eleventh and twelfth. In the implicational analysis for morphemes, Angelo and Roberto had scores of A or B for all unbound morphemes except the indefinite article while the highest score for any of the bound morphemes for any <u>S</u> was a C. Table 4.9 presents the average percentages of CUOC of bound and unbound morphemes for each <u>S</u>. The percentages for unbound morphemes are consistently higher across Ss.

In regard to the NP-VP distinction, the use of five NP morphemes were analyzed -- <u>The</u>, <u>In</u>, <u>On</u>, <u>Pl</u>, and <u>A</u> -- and seven VP morphemes -- <u>Cop</u>, <u>IP</u>, <u>Ing</u>, <u>Aux</u>, <u>Hav</u>, <u>RP</u> and <u>3PS</u>. The NP morphemes were rank ordered first, second, fourth, fifth and sixth respectively across <u>Ss</u> for percentages of CUOC; the VP morphemes were ranked third and seventh through twelfth consecutively. As shown in Table 4.9b, the average percentage of CUOC of NP morphemes was consistently higher across <u>Ss</u> than the corresponding average for VP morphemes.

Table 4.9

Comparison by Percentage of CUOC of Morpheme type across Ss

Table 4.9a	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
Unbound Morphemes	48.0	47.0	75.7	71.5
Bound Morphemes	18.8	17.8	24.8	29.0
mable 4 0b	0	0 h a £ a n a	Debente	N mgolo
Table 4.90	Glovanni	Sterano	Roberto	Angero
NP Morphemes	36.8	47.2	72.2	67.6

Some of these morpheme results are consistent with rank orders of morpheme acquisition reported in the L2 acquisition literature. Andersen (1977) and Krashen (1977) reported relatively high ranks for the acquisition of Cop and Art (combining scores for The and A) and low ranks for the acquisition of RP, 3PS, and Hav. Moreover, IP is ranked ahead of <u>RP</u>. The results of this study support these findings. On the other hand, the low incidence of Ing and Aux was surprising. Krashen puts Ing among the top three most readily acquired morphemes, yet in this study, Ing was consistently low for all Ss. Aux, which Andersen ranks ahead of Ing, was also consistently ranked low in this study (the results for both of these morphemes were so low and inconclusive that it is not possible to infer whether the acquisition of Ing precedes that of Aux or vice versa.) Generally, the L2 literature does not report acquisition differences among L2 learners based on the distinctions made above between bound and unbound and between NP and VP morphemes.

These distinctions are discussed in the literature of pidginization and creolization. Schumann (1974) suggests that the process of pidginization leads to the acquisition and employment of word order (using unbound morphemes) rather than affixation (using bound morphemes), and makes use of lexical nominal concepts (expressed in noun phrases) more often than verbal concepts (using verb phrases). The morpheme results for the <u>Ss</u> may be an indication that the Ss' acquisition process contains aspects of pidginization.

3. <u>Stages of Preposition Acquisition</u>: The order of acquisition of prepositions established for the IA above shows considerable consistency across <u>Ss</u> and possibly reflects the relative difficulty of learning the most common English prepositional functions. However, there is nothing in the order itself that would suggest the nature of the process that leads to acquisition of these particular prepositions. There is no evidence, for example, that locative prepositions are learned before or after temporal ones. The correlation between the frequency of the contexts and the percentage of CUOC is close to zero across Ss (f = -.1429, df 13).

To get a more complete understanding of the use to which the <u>Ss</u> put the various prepositional elements, an analysis was done of the actual occurences of each element in the <u>Ss'</u> productions. The total numbers of cases in which a <u>S</u> used prepositional elements were tabulated and the percentages of these cases which were obligatory contexts of the element was computed -- the percentage of correct use based on frequency of use (percentage CUF). These percentages of CUF were compared with percentages of CUOC for each prepositional element across <u>Ss</u>, as shown in figure 4.5 where the prepositions are presented in ascending order based on average percentages of CUOC.

The prepositions were then divided into categories representing potential stages of degree of acquisition. These stages correspond to the categories established for the IAs with the lower two stages combined into one. Therefore, four stages were established based on percentages of CUOC: stage one, from 0 to 39; stage two from 40 to 65; stage three from 66 to 84; and stage four from 85 to 100. When the curve of results for the percentages of CUF are analyzed across <u>Ss</u> according to these four stages, relatively high percentages are found for those prepositions in stages one and two of their acquisitions processes; in stage three the percentages of CUF are relatively lower than they were in stages one and two, and similar to or lower than their corresponding percentages of CUOC; in stage four, both percentages are high.



Prepositions presented in ascending order for % CUOC

Stage One Prepositions: of, at Stage Two Prepositions: on, to, with Stage Three Prepositions: from, in, for Stage Four Prepositions: about

Figure 4.5: Prepositional usage; %s CUOC vs %s CUF.

Analyses of this type were then made for the results of each \underline{S} to assess the extent to which their individual potential acquisition stages reflected the general pattern of the four stages shown in Figure 4.5. These results are presented in Figure 4.6.



Figure 4.6: Prepositional usage for each S: % CUOC versus % CUF.

 \square




The curve of Giovanni's results indicated that he was still in the first or second stages of acquisition of all the prepositional elements, and with one exception, the preposition from, his percentages of CUF were all high which is consistent with the general pattern found for all Ss for prepositions in the first two acquisition stages. Stefano had five prepositions at acquisition stage one which all have relatively high percentages of CUF. He has no prepositions at the second stage of acquisition, but he has three prepositions apparently at the third stage of acquisition, and he has low percentages of CUF for all three. He also has one preposition at the fourth stage with a high value for the percentage of CUF. All of Stefano's results coincide with the pattern of acquisition suggested by the results across Ss. Roberto and Angelo had generally higher percentages of CUOC for most prepositions, with fewer prepositions in the first acquisition stage than Stefano and Giovanni and more prepositions in the third and fourth acquisition stages. Nevertheless, their percentages of CUF for each preposition reflected the acquisition stage in which the preposition fell. Percentages of CUOC and CUF varied considerably for prepositions in acquisition stages one and two with the percentages of CUF consistently high. Percentages of CUOC and CUF were much more similar for prepositions in acquisition stages three and four with lower percentages of CUF only found in stage three and four.

These potential stages of acquisition of prepositions would appear to indicate a consistent pattern for all <u>Ss</u> concerning the relationship between the degree to which a preposition had been acquired and the manner in which the preposition was used. Prepositions which had not been acquired to much of an extent, as evidenced by low percentages of CUOC, were used with a considerable degree of correctness when the learner used them. Prepositions which had been acquired to a more complete extent as evidenced by high percentages of CUOC, were used incorrectly more regularly until they were close to being completely acquired. The explanation for this apparent contradiction can be made by attempting to describe the processes of preposition usage involved at each of the four stages.

Stage One: The preposition is in a pre-acquisition stage. Its presence in the learner's production is as part of a prefabricated pattern or patterns. The learner is not aware of the form of the preposition as a distinct linguistic feature.

- Stage Two: Continued use of the preposition as part of one or more prefabricated patterns. Recognition of the preposition as a distinct linguistic element but used only for very limited (and mostly correct) semantic contexts.
- Stage Three: The learner is developing a broader understanding of the prepositions at this stage. Because he is more familiar with the preposition, he uses it more regularly in obligatory contexts, but he regularly uses it in inappropriate contexts as well because his mastery of the preposition's functions and meanings is not complete.
- Stage Four: Complete or near complete acquisition of a prepositional element. The learner's rules for the use of the target prepositional element coincide with standard TL rules and there are no longer aspects of his rule which cause the learner to use the preposition in inappropriate contexts.

These four stages in the acquisition process are consistent with the progressive acquisition process described in Chapter three above. They are also consistent with theories of the process of acquisition reported in the literature of L2 acquisition. Lightbown (1978) refers to prefabricated patterns as unanalyzed routines which she suggests are used before the learners are able to isolate and identify the constituent parts. According to Corder (1979), as a linguistic element becomes identified by the learner, a mental mechanism is activated that seeks regularities in the use of the element. This leads to the formulation of rules of usage. Corder's explanation could refer to stage two. The complexification of these rules, stages three and four, is consistent with Nemer's approximative systems (1971) and the creative hypothesis theory of language acquisition posited by Dulay and Burt (1975).

4. <u>Stages of Negative Acquisition</u>: The acquisition processes described above have been concerned with discrete linguistic elements easily isolated for analysis by their forms and functions. The acquisition process for negation involves the forms and functions of discrete elements in conjunction with their incorporation into linguistic strings. For example, the form of the negative marker is dependent upon whether the aspect to be made negative is an action, quality, opinion, or amount. The location of the negative marker is influenced by the verb and the tense of the utterance. When specific auxiliary verbs are contained in the utterance, the form of the negative marker is generally (but does not need to be) modified.

Initially unaware of these influences on the English negation system, the adult informal learner no doubt has an awareness of the concept of negation. He is exposed to situations involving various negative forms used unsystematically. These forms may reflect different types of linguistic strings for different kinds of negatives. The learner begins to sort out differences and establish rules but he also has immediate needs to express negation. The initial expression of negation can be in either of two categories: one is an important idea which the learner finds immediate and frequent need to express which is always negative (for example, 'I don't understand'), the other is an idea which the learner finds immediate and frequent need to express both in affirmative and negative contexts (for example, 'I want-I don't want'). These two categories might represent different learning processes. For the first, a negative pattern might be learned as an integrated unit, an unanalyzed routine. For the second, a negative particle or element might be sought to be used or not used with the idea to be expressed.

In the first situation, the learner is employing a prefabricated pattern, which when used resembles standard TL production, a situation similar to the first acquisition stage for prepositions. The second situation corresponds to acquisition stage two described above for prepositions. Using a particle or element with an idea to make the idea negative is employing a linguistic rule. The particle may or may not be used in the prefabricated pattern. Furthermore, and unlike the acquisition process described for prepositions, the particle may not be the standard form for the negation of the target idea, but rather a particle used for other types of negation. The result is that utterances in this stage of negation are not correctly formed as regularly or as frequently as was the case for stage two prepositions. Stage three of this negation acquisition process involves the 'complexification' of the rule which for negation means modification of the negative particle to apply to different kinds of negations. Stage four is realized when a standard negative form is used consistently in all or nearly all obligatory contexts.

Table 4.2 above presented structures produced by the <u>S</u>s for three types of negation. These results can now be examined in relation to the four stages of acquisition discussed here.

Stefano and Giovanni had 20% and 25% of their <u>do</u>-insertion negatives respectively fall into the correct or <u>don't</u> reduced to <u>de</u> categories. The rest of the <u>Ss' do</u>-insertion-negative productions (except for the few utterances classified as other) were characterized by the negative marker <u>no</u> placed before the main verb. Eighty-two percent of these <u>Ss' don't</u> plus verb or <u>de</u> plus verb productions were to express the idea of '<u>I don't</u> know'. When the '<u>I don't know</u>' contexts are removed from the data, 90% of Stefano's <u>do</u>-insertion negatives and 98% of Giovanni's <u>do</u>-insertion negatives employ the structure <u>no</u> plus verb. These results suggest that Giovanni and Stefano are at the stage two level of acquisition for <u>do</u>insertion negatives.

Stefano would appear to be at the second stage in his acquisition of the other kinds of negatives as well. Seventy-one percent of his negatives in contexts with the verb <u>to be</u> used <u>no</u> as the negative marker as do 65% of the negative phrases he produced that required <u>not</u> as a negative marker. There was evidence that he had begun the 'rule-complexification' process toward acquisition stage three as about one third of his utterances of these two kinds of negatives contain the marker <u>not</u>. Giovanni appeared to have progressed further into the third acquisition stage for negatives with the verb <u>to be</u>, as more than half of his utterances contained the <u>not</u> marker. However, he used <u>no</u> in nearly 70% of the negative phrases he produced which had obligatory contexts for not.

Roberto's negative utterances indicated that he was following a negative acquisition process similar to Stefano and Giovanni but had progressed further. Roberto produced sixty-one <u>do</u>-insertion negative utterances using the negative markers <u>don't</u> or <u>de</u>, but 70% of these utterances were to express the clause 'I don't know'. He made one hundred eleven utterances which were obligatory contexts for the <u>don't</u> or <u>do not</u> negative marker, excluding the contexts for 'I don't know'. In 53% of these contexts, Roberto used the negative marker <u>no</u>, and the marker <u>not</u> in 33%. In negative structures with the verb <u>to be</u>, he used the <u>not</u> in 60% of the contexts. In negative phrases requiring the <u>not</u> marker, he used <u>not</u> in 84% of the contexts. Roberto would therefore seem to be in acquisition stage four with negative phrases, in stage three with verb <u>to be</u>- negatives, and between stages two and three with <u>do</u>-insertion negatives.

The process of negative acquisition followed by Angelo appeared to be quite different from that of the other <u>Ss</u>. Angelo's productions of the idea of 'I don't know' all contained the negative marker <u>don't</u>, but thirty-nine other <u>do</u>-insertion negative utterances also contained the marker <u>don't</u>, representing 74% of all such negatives. He used <u>no</u> plus the verb in 21% of his <u>do</u>-insertion- negative utterances, and <u>not</u> plus the verb in only 3%. With the verb <u>to be</u> he used the marker <u>not</u> in 91% of the contexts (21 cases out of 23). In contrast to Roberto, Angelo used <u>not</u> in only 48% of the obligatory contexts of negative phrases, and he used <u>no</u> in 52%. These results indicate that Aneglo produced 'I don't know' as a prefabricated pattern and began to use <u>no</u> as a negative marker in other contexts. He followed the complexification process of changing <u>no</u> to <u>not</u> but only for negating the verb <u>to be</u> and in negative phrases. He would seem to have followed a different complexification process for <u>do</u>-insertion negatives changing no directly to don't, a process not followed by the other Ss.

V. A Brief Discussion of the Linguistic Analyses

Throughout the presentation above, considerable linguistic consistency has been found among the productions of the <u>S</u>s of this study. They performed consistently over time. They performed consistently relative to their OGEP. The elements and structures analyzed apparently had been or were being acquired in consistent orders possibly following common stages in the individual acquisition process of each feature. Finally, the natures of the stages being followed in acquiring these various features appeared to be similar across <u>S</u>s for all four linguistic categories examined with the possible exception of the acquisition stages of one type of English negative used by one of the four Ss.

CHAPTER FIVE

Discourse Analysis

I. Background to the Study

The linguistic analysis examined the use of selected features by the four <u>Ss</u> and suggested ways in which they may have acquired these features. This chapter is concerned with the ways the Ss communicated in English.

Sociologists and sociolinguists have given considerable attention to the nature of communication and the role of language in communication. Hymes (1967) defines seven categories for speech events which consist of: (1) communicational situation, (2) nature of the interlocutors or communicators, (3) intention of the communication, (4) form or content of the communication, (5) tone, (6) channel of the communication, and (7) norms of interaction and interpretation applied to the communication. Each of these aspects of communication affects the nature and degree of success of a communication act for L2 learners as well as for L1 users.

Studying the productions of the <u>S</u>s in situations which varied conditions with respect to Hymes's categories would have provided insight into the nature of communication among informal adult learners, but such an analysis was beyond the scope of this study. The data for this study were collected through a process which tried to control these variables by holding them constant across <u>S</u>s. Data were collected from all <u>S</u>s in the same place which was equally new to all of them. All discussions were with the same interviewer (<u>I</u>), a person equally acquainted with all <u>S</u>s. <u>I</u> spoke to all <u>S</u>s with the same intention, discussing topics of similar content. He initiated the discussions as consistently as possible, and chose topics for discussion to control the orientation of the <u>S</u>s and <u>I</u>. This was done by centering the discussions on the <u>S</u>s' lives and interests -topics about which <u>I</u> had very limited knowledge (see Chapter three for the general topics discussed).

It was the intention of this study to analyze the role of communication along the lines suggested by Hatch, Lezberg and Helferty, and others who are concerned with how the L2 learner employs communication in the TL to compensate for his incomplete knowledge of the TL and to increase his proficiency in the TL. Hatch (1978) believes that L2 acquisition studies which concentrate on linguistic analyses of the learners' productions analyze the acquisition process from the products of the process. She posits that looking at the learner's TL interactions allows a more direct examination of the process itself. This premise is based on the notion that the learner develops communicational strategies to convey information in situations where his communicational needs exceed his TL abilities. These strategies help the learner develop syntactic rules about the TL by making use of the strategies to increase his experience and knowledge of the TL. Hatch has analyzed the discourse in which L2 learners are involved to identify their communicational strategies. She has found strategies, for example, by which the learner is able to induce his TL model to express ideas he is unable to express himself in the TL. She has found learner strategies which elicit elements and structures from the TL model in such a way that the learner can mimic and practice the TL features elicited.

The method of discourse analysis which Hatch employs searches out and compares utterances from the discourse of a L2 learner which have the same communicational function. The method enables one to infer the communicational strategy being used by the nature of the interactions which the utterances elicit. Lezberg and Helferty (1978) employ a type of discourse analysis that begins by posing questions about the function of each utterance in the communicational process between learner and TL model. Utterances which answer particular questions form categories based on communicational function which can be further analyzed for evidence of communicational strategies. Examples of the types of questions used by Lezberg and Helferty are, "How does the conversation move from topic to topic?" or "Who controls the. course of the conversation?" By noting the functions of the individual utterances of both the L2 learner and the TL model in an on-going discourse, one can measure the frequency with which various discourse categories are employed, and whether the learner or the TL model employs them. This approach was followed in analyzing the discourse patterns of the discussions of the Ss and I.

II. Method of Discourse Analysis used in This Study

The transcribed conversations of the four <u>Ss</u> were scrutinized using Lazberg and Helferty's method of questioning to categorize the discourse function of each utterance. This involved identifying the topics discussed, the way these topics were introduced and developed, the parts of the conversations that reflected communication breakdowns and the ways the conversations moved from topic to topic. (See also Keenan & Klein, 1975).

Categories were needed which accurately described the various productions of the <u>Ss</u> and <u>I</u>; and which could be applied to the utterances of all communicators with equal facility. These categories also had to be mutually exclusive. In order to establish these categories, three levels of analysis were formulated, and mutually exclusive categories were then defined for each level.

The first level concerned the <u>role</u> of the speaker in relation to the listener as the conversation transpired. The role of a particular utterance was determined by answering one of two questions: (1) Is the speaker choosing the direction of the conversation by his utterance or responding to an utterance directed at him? (2) Is the speaker contributing to exchanges of information, ideas, etc. of a topic under discussion or is he trying to clarify a previously expressed utterance unsucessfully communicated? This level of analysis consisted of four categories which are defined in Chart 5.1.

The second level was concerned with the <u>purpose</u> of each utterance in relation to the on-going discourse. The analysis of an utterance at this level was based on the question of what function or purpose the utterance served for the speaker in the context of the conversation. The eight categories for this level of analysis are defined in Chart. 5.2.

The third level categorized the <u>form</u> of the utterances. The categories for this level were based on whether the utterance was a statement, question, or command, and if it contained a subject and verb or was instead a simple phrase or word utterance. The eight categories for this level of analysis are presented in Chart 5.3.

Discourse Categories for the Role Level of Analysis

DIRECTING Where a speaker controls a discussion by communicating D information related to the topic at hand but not in response to what the other speaker has said. These utterances either initiate a new direction in the discussion or continue a direction established prior to the other speaker's preceding utterance.

RESPONDING Where a speaker responds directly to what the other R speaker has said. This could be an answer, an extension, an opinion or a request for more information on what the other speaker has said.

BREAKING When the discussion is broken for reasons of communication B problems due to language as evidenced by the speaker's utterance, or when exchanges about the linguistic nature of an utterance are initiated by a <u>S</u> for his interest or to verify his comprehension.

CONTINUING Providing comment subsequent to statements falling in C any of the other roles. This occurs when the topic under discussion is expanded upon in some way by the speaker who has alaready and just initiated or directed a topic or has responsed in some way. An utterance categorized as continuing must be preceded by some other utterance by the speaker with one of the other categories of this level.

Discourse Categories for the Purpose Level of Analysis

REQUESTS Utterances asking the other speaker for a specific RI response. These could be requests for information, requests for opinion, requests for agreement or seeking acknowledgement.

INFORMATION Any utterance which is said to offer information of a topic being discussed. These could be statements Inf of fact, personalizing a topic, adding information, giving an example, making an explanation, elaborating or extending a topic, giving a reason for or a result to something that was said before, or telling an experience.

OPINIONS An utterance which presents the speaker's opinion, feeling, beliefs, or thoughts.

0

ANSWERS

Α

TRANSITIONS

т

Rep

BREAKS

в

Utterances which are direct responses to requests from the other speaker with no additional information beyond what is specifically requested. These utterances may include direct responses, acknowledgements and agreements.

Utterances which are used to direct the conversation without adding new ideas or information. These may be statements which summarize what's been said in preparation for an opinion or topic change, utterances used to return to a former topic, or exclamations used to keep the conversations moving.

CLARIFICATIONS Utterances requesting or indicating that the speaker wants help in comprehension. These include direct Cl requests for help in expression, requests for clarification or repetition, or questions indicating a lack of comprehension due to linguistic problems.

REPETITIONS Repeating an idea previously stated. It may be a restatement or an idea or a paraphrase of it. It may be repeating the speaker's idea or the listener's idea.

> Utterances in the conversations which failed to communicate including nonsequiturs or unintelligible utterances.

Discourse Categories for the Form of Analysis

STATEMENT St	Utterances which have a subject and a verb. Each statement contains an idea or point of communication whether independent or subordinate to some other communicated point.
QUESTION ?	A question containing a subject and a verb and requiring an answer on the part of the listener. It may or may not be expressed with subject-verb inversion when obligatory.
COMMAND Com	An utterance telling the listener something he is expected to do.
PHRASE Ph	A group of words expressed as a communicational unit or utterance but without a subject or a verb.
WORD W	A word expressed as a communicational unit or utterance. Though an individual word, it expresses a complete idea.
QUOTED SPEECH Q	Utterances where the speaker tells about a person's actions or thoughts by using direct speech even though not necessarily using actual quotations.
PHRASE QUESTION Ph?	A question asked by using a phrase rather than a linguistic string with a subject and a verb.
WORD QUESTION W?	A question asked by using a word.

To assess the reliability of these categories, two evaluators independently categorized the utterances from sample segments of conversations of all four <u>S</u>s. The raters categorized a data sample from each <u>S</u>'s conversations that constituted a total of more than 450 utterances. They each made four judgments for each utterance: its boundaries, and its appropriate category at each of the three levels of analysis. Each evaluator, therefore, made a total of 8,824 judgments. There was agreement between the evaluators on 91.5% of these judgments. With one exception, the range of agreement for each category among the various levels was from 83% to 100%. The exception was the <u>Quotation</u> category in the <u>form</u> level of analysis which had a relatively low 53% of agreement, but it represented an infrequent seventeen utterances across all four <u>S</u>s.

The generally high percentages of agreement between evaluators indicated that the discourse categories of all three levels could be consistently applied to the data by different evaluators. They were, therefore, applied to a larger sample of the data for a more comprehensive comparison of the discourse performance of the four <u>Ss</u>. Thirty-minute segments of discussion between each <u>S</u> and the <u>I</u> from the June and the October data were analyzed. Each utterance made by the <u>Ss</u> and the <u>I</u> was categorized for the three levels of analysis. Counts were made of the number of utterances in each discourse category and percentages were computed for the relative frequencies of each discourse category by each speaker for each conversation. (see Appendix L for Discourse Analysis results across <u>Ss</u>).

III. Stability in the Use of Discourse Categories

To analyze the similarities of discourse patterns for each learner over time, the counts and percentages in the use of each category by each \underline{S} and by the \underline{I} with each \underline{S} in June and in October were compared. The results are presented in Table 5.1. Evidence of consistency was arbitrarily assumed in cases where the percentages of a category of utterances by any speaker were five percentage points apart or less between the June and October data.

The figures in Table 5.1 show more agreement in production by <u>S</u>s over time than is the case for the productions by <u>I</u> with particular <u>S</u>s over time. In only four cases out of thirty-six -- one for Giovanni, two for Stefano, and one for Roberto -- were the differences in percentage more than five points between the June and October data. There are eight such cases for I's percentages.

In looking at the figures in Table 5.1 from the standpoint of levels of analysis, it would appear that the <u>role</u> and <u>purpose</u> percentages were consistent over time, especially for the <u>Ss</u>. Only one percentage --Giovanni - directing -- was more than five points different. The I's

Table 5.1

Consistency of Discourse Patterns over Time (Figures are percentages of total numbers of utterances of <u>S</u> and <u>I</u> at each level of analysis at each period)

		Gio	vanni	Ste	fano	Robe	erto	Ang	elo
Roles	5:+	<u>s</u>	ī	s	ī	S	ī	<u>s</u>	ī
1.	D - June	21	17	28	19	34	18	32	27
	- Oct.	*15	12	23	22	38	15	36	20*
2.	R - June	40	16	43	8	33	12	23	13
	- Oct.	41	16	43	10	32	12	26	13
3.	B - June	2	5	1	0	1	2	2	0
	- Oct.	4	11*	1	2	1	1	3	3
Purpo	oses:								
1.	Inf & O - June	29	5	33	4	44	11	35	12
	- Oct.	29	12*	35	8	48	12	40	12
2.	RI & T - June	4	21	4	18	3	17	4	21
	- Oct.	5	14*	2	18	7	11*	4	15*
3.	Other - June	28	12	35	7	20	4	20	7
	- Oct.	26	15	30	7	18	5	19	9
Forms	s:								
1.	St & ? - June	25	22	55	21	50	28	47	34
	- Oct.	25	22	*41	23	49	20*	47	25*
2.	Ph & W - June	34	14	15	5	14	5	10	6
	- Oct.	32	11	*22	4	*20	4	15	6
3.	Other - June	2	2	1	3	3	1	1	2
	- Oct.	3	6	3	6	4	4	2	6

+ Values for C are included in the category which they followed in context. * These percentages are not within five points of each other.

percentages for these levels were less consistent, with six corresponding percentages being more than five points different from one time to the other. Half of these cases were for the <u>purpose</u> category dealing with directly seeking information and in all three cases, the October percentages were lower than the June percentages. This may be a reflection of the <u>S</u>s' increased willingness to contribute to the conversations without specific questioning from the <u>I</u> at the later date. There was evidence in the percentages for <u>role</u> that support this explanation. <u>I</u> directed the conversations less in October for the same three <u>Ss</u> though the differences were not great. The percentages were consistent across <u>Ss</u> for <u>form</u> except for Stefano who used proportionately more phrase and word utterances in October than he did in June. The cause of this difference is not apparent and it was not reflected in similar differences in other categories of Stefano's discourse analysis.

Aside from these few differences, the results shown in Table 5.1 indicate that the <u>S</u>s' productions were consistent with respect to the frequency of usage of the various discourse categories. In nearly every case, the differences between <u>S</u>s for either the June or the October data were greater than the differences for each <u>S</u> between the two times. The <u>S</u>s were individually more consistent over time than <u>I</u> was in communicating with each one. The conclusion to be drawn from these results is that these discourse categories were used consistently by each <u>S</u> in frequencies differing among <u>S</u>s. This raises the question of whether these patterns of discoursecategory usage are indicative of different communicational strategies used by the <u>S</u>s. Before analyses were made to answer this question, however, evidence was sought of indications of relationships between the <u>S</u>s' usage of these categories and the OGEP.

IV. Discourse Analysis Results Reflecting the OGEP

Four general tendencies, indicated by the results of the discourse analysis, were found that reflected superior communicational ability for Roberto and Angelo over Giovanni and Stefano -- tendencies consistent with the OGEP. The results that characterize these four tendencies are presented in Table 5.2.

The first tendency, illustrated by the figures reported in Table 5.2a was for the <u>SSs</u> to direct proportionately more of the discourse than the <u>WSs</u>. Stefano and Giovanni directed roughly a third of the utterances of their discourse, made relatively few directing statements and/or statements which the <u>I</u> responded to, and were asked more questions by <u>I</u> apparently because they were reluctant to direct the conversations. Angelo and Roberto directed roughly half of their conversations, made utterances which <u>I</u> responded to more frequently than did the weaker Ss, and were asked fewer

Table 5.2

Discourse Analysis Results Consistent with OGEP (Figures are percentages, where indicated, of total numbers of utterances. Otherwise figures refer to raw totals)

Table 5.2a Results related to directing the discussions:

		Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
1.	<pre>% of discourse directed by S, including I's responses</pre>	30%	37%	58%	49%
2.	Number of <u>S</u> 's directings	58	61	83	92
3.	Number of responses made by \underline{I} to \underline{S} 's directings	22	41	63	67
4.	Number of direct requests made by <u>I</u>	155	178	99	134

Table 5.2b Results comparing utterances conveying ideas to those expressed to facilitate comprehension:

		Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
1.	<pre>% of S's utterances convey- ing info. or opinions</pre>	48%	49%	65%	62%
2.	<pre>% of S's and I's utterances conveying info. or opinions</pre>	38%	40%	58%	50%
3.	<pre>% of S's utterances adding no. info. and not requesting</pre>	45%	47%	27%	32%
4.	Number of S repetitions	116	162	52	74

Table 5.2c Results indicating the number of grammatically and communicationally complete utterances:

		Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
1.	Number of short answer or agreement utterances	144	139	92	95
2.	% of word or phrase utter- ances made by <u>S</u>	55%	29%	21%	22%
3.	Ratio of number of <u>S</u> 's re- sponses to <u>I</u> 's directings	2.1	1.8	1.2	.78
4.	Number of <u>S</u> 's utterances	633	702	571	543

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Table 5.2 Continued

Table 5.2d Results indicating I's modifications to facilitate Communication

		Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
1.	% of <u>I</u> directed discourse	70%	64%	42%	51%
2.	<pre>% of <u>I</u>'s utterances convey- ing information or opinions</pre>	22%	19%	39%	30%
3.	% of <u>I</u> 's dis. not clauses	37%	25%	17%	19%
4.	Number of uninverted ?s	33	39	13	19

questions by \underline{I} because they made more directing statements which volunteered ideas before they were asked for causing the conversations to be more like discussions and less like interviews.

A second tendency was for the conversations of the strong \underline{Ss} to be used more for exchanging information and opinions while the conversations of the weaker \underline{Ss} contained more utterances to facilitate comprehension whether necessary for communication or not. The results presented in Table 5.2b reflect this tendency. They indicated that a higher proportion of the utterances of both \underline{Ss} and the \underline{I} convey ideas in the conversations of the \underline{SSs} , while the \underline{WSs} had a higher proportion of utterances used to agree, repeat or make simple responses.

The third tendency was for the <u>SSs</u> to speak in completed ideas. The results reported in Table 5.2c indicated that the <u>SSs</u> used full clauses more regularly than the <u>WSs</u> and relied less on word and phrase utterances. The <u>SSs</u> also made fewer utterances overall and they made fewer responses relative to the number of directings made by <u>I</u>. Assuming that the <u>SSs</u> communicated as much information as the <u>WSs</u> (they probably communicated more), these results suggest that the <u>SSs</u> required fewer utterances to express their ideas implying that their utterances expressed more completed thoughts. Finally, the figures in Table 5.2c indicated that the <u>SSs</u> used fewer but longer and more completed utterances than the WSs.

The fourth tendency found in the conversations which characterized the differences between the <u>WSs</u> and the <u>SSs</u> was for the <u>I</u> to modify his performance to accommodate communication with the <u>WSs</u>. Evidence of these modifications is presented in Table 5.2d. With the <u>WSs</u>, the <u>I</u> directed the conversations more, expressed his opinion or provided information less frequently, used more words and phrases in place of subject-verb utterances and asked questions with a reliance on intonation while frequently deleting obligatory subject-verb inversion in questioning. Such changes in the \underline{I} 's production were noted though the \underline{I} tried to speak with each \underline{S} in basically the same manner about the same general topics.

These four tendencies differentiated the <u>WSs</u> from the <u>SSs</u> in the same manner as the morpheme analysis did. In more than half of the comparisons, however, Roberto's results differed more from the weaker <u>Ss'</u> results than did Angelo's -- a finding inconsistent with the apparent OGEP. In some cases, Stefano's performance was more like that of the <u>SSs'</u> than Giovanni's, while in others, Giovanni's performance was more like that of the <u>SSs</u> than Stefano's. These results were also not commensurate with the established OGEP. This suggests that factors other than language proficiency affect the choice of the communicational strategies indicated by the use of various discourse categories.

The following section presents more evidence from the discourse analysis that imply individuality among $\underline{S}s$ in their use of communicational strategies.

V. Individual Differences in Discourse Patterns

The results for particular discourse categories varied across <u>Ss</u> in ways not explained by general language ability. Instead, these results reflected idiosyncratic aspects of the <u>Ss'</u> communicational tendencies which can be illustrated with samples from their discussions with I.

Giovanni

Giovanni was the most hesitant of the four $\underline{S}s$ to direct conversations, the discourse between him and \underline{I} contained the most reductions from subjectverb utterances to word and phrase utterances, and his discourse contained higher percentages of utterances dealing with linguistic problems than with exchanges of information on topics under discussion (see Table 5.3).

As Table 5.3a suggests, Giovanni let the <u>I</u> do more of the communicating than the other <u>Ss</u> did. He did this in two ways: by directing very little of the conversation himself, and by questioning <u>I</u> on topics under discussion which required the <u>I</u> to respond to Giovanni's responses.

Table 5.3

Discourse Analysis Results Indicating Giovanni's Communicational Strategies (Figures are percentages, where indicated, of total numbers of utterances. Otherwise, figures refer to raw totals)

Table 5.3a Figures showing Giovanni's reluctance to speak in English

		Giovanni	An.	Ro.	St.
1.	% of discourse directed by <u>S</u>	30%	50%	58%	37%
2.	Number of directing utts. by <u>S</u>	182	290	289	247
з.	Number of requests by <u>S</u>	28	20	13	16
4.	Number of answers made by \underline{I}	67	32	24	38
5.	Number of utts. made by \underline{I}	406	342	244	315

Table 5.3b Figures showing linguistic reductions

		Giovanni	An.	Ro.	st.
6.	% of <u>S</u> 's utts. without sub/verb	55%	23%	24%	29%
7.	Number of repetitions by <u>I</u>	78	35	19	38
8.	Number of agreements by \underline{I}	60	37	19	32
9.	% of I's utts. made in breaks	39%	20%	17%	25%

Table 5.3c Figures showing linguistic breaks in the discourse

		Giovanni	An.	Ro.	st.
10.	Number of breaks made by <u>S</u>	20	18	4	7
11.	f of <u>S</u> 's utts. made as breaks	21%	8%	5%	4%
12.	Number of breaks made by \underline{I}	50	10	10	9
13.	% of <u>I</u> 's utts. made in breaks	38%	9%	11%	6%

As shown in Table 5.3b, the discourse between Giovanni and \underline{I} contained more utterances without subject-verb components and more utterances which neither added nor requested information than those of the other Ss. Moreover, increases in these types of utterances were reflected in the productions of both Giovanni and \underline{I} . Giovanni produced more word and phrase utterances than the other Ss, and \underline{I} produced more of these types of utterances when speaking with Giovanni than he did when speaking with the other <u>Ss</u>. <u>I</u> also used more repetitions, short answers and agreement utterances with Giovanni than he did with the other <u>S</u>s.

The figures in Table 5.3c show that breaks in Giovanni's discussions for linguistic clarifications were far more common than in the other <u>S</u>s' discussions. Relatively large numbers of breaks were found in the productions of Giovanni and of the <u>I</u> in their conversations, indicating that both recognized frequent breakdowns in communication and made efforts to insure comprehension.

Of the four, Giovanni was the most reluctant to express himself in English. He employed several communicational strategies in his English which were rarely if ever used by the other <u>Ss</u>. First, he frequently used French when speaking English (he works in the building that houses McGill's French Department) as shown in this sample:

Giovanni: What's sunny?

Interviewer: Sun...sun shine.

<u>Giovanni</u>: Oh, yeh, yeh, yeh, maybe no, no, de, de 'soleil', dis no no like, no, because e de head, e, I don know.

Interviewer: Soleil is sun.

Giovanni: Yeh. Soleil, sun, yeh.

Giovanni made specific reference to his lack of confidence in expressing himself in English and did so apparently for two purposes, to excuse himself for what he may feel to be poor communication, and to elicit help in communicating as seen in the following sample:

Giovanni: I'm sorry, my, my, I de know, eh, eh,

Interviewer: Do you remember?

<u>Giovanni</u>: Remember, 'mais' not so very ... speaking, you know, English.

Interviewer: That's ok. I can understand.

On occasion, Giovanni specifically asked for help as in this example:

<u>Giovanni</u>: What a ye done, me? I know its a the same, eh, I de know, wha, e, e, oh, dis, complicate.

Interviewer: Well, try and I'll help you.

Giovanni: I de know. Help a me, maybe, you know.

Interviewer: Ok, did you go on vacation?

These samples show how Giovanni used words and phrases frequently to communicate his ideas rather than speaking in utterances with subjects and verbs. The first sample also demonstrates ways in which the interviewer modified his language to communicate with Giovanni.

Table 5.4

Discourse Analysis Results Indicating Stefano's Communicational Strategies (Figures are percentages, where indicated, of total numbers of utterances. Otherwise, figures refer to raw totals)

		Stefano	An.	Ro.	Gi.
1.	Number of Utts. made by <u>S</u>	702	543	571	632
2.	Number of repetitions made by <u>S</u>	162	74	52	116
з.	Number of RIs made by \underline{I}	139	97	65	92
4.	Number of <u>S</u> responses to <u>I</u>	353	156	155	291
5.	% declarative statements made by \underline{I}	7%	19%	14%	11%
6.	Number of I's utts. giving info.	54	87	85	76

Stefano

Stefano did not seem to be as reluctant a speaker in English as Giovanni. He made more utterances in the same discussion time than all other \underline{Ss} . However, Stefano indicated a degree of insecurity when speaking English in a different way from Giovanni.

As shown in Table 5.4, Stefano not only made more utterances than the other \underline{Ss} , but he also made far more repetitions. He was asked more questions than the other \underline{Ss} and he responded more to the \underline{I} 's leads in the discussions, but the \underline{I} contributed relatively fewer utterances to communicate information to his discussions with Sterano than he did in his discussions with the other Ss.

Stefano's frequent use of repetitions indicates that he evidently felt a need to clarify his responses. Unlike Giovanni, who used the \underline{I} to help him and to reaasure him that his ideas had been communicated, Stefano relied on his own restatements, responding repeatedly to the same cue. By doing this, Stefano on occasion prevented the \underline{I} from developing the topics under discussion. This practice of regular and frequent repetition indicates a communicational strategy aimed at insuring communication without calling on the listener for acknowledgement. The following sample illustrates Stefano's use of repetitions:

Interviewer: I'm sorry you didn't get the job.

Stefano: You know, because, eh, this job, e have more senor en me. That's why. Oh, maybe, have noder chance, noder building, late, maybe, late.... maybe late have noder chance for noder building, make er a make application and, i, now I think maybe have chance noder building.

On occasion Stefano would seem to become fixed on an idea and keep to it, regardless of what the \underline{I} said, as in the following example where he was trying to communicate the color of a door to his house which he had painted over the summer:

Stefano: Door, paint de doors, yes.

Interviewer: Outside?

Stefano: Yes.

Interviewer: White?

Stefano: No white, no no white.

Interviewer: What color is the door?

<u>Stefano</u>: Um, think little bit, no red, and e lets, a like a red... more little bit change color like dat. different little bit. no red. red, red like dis, anyway.

Interviewer: Like this sweater, or maybe a rust color.

Stefano: Rust color. not like that (pointing to a bright red color in a picture). Yeh, like red, like dis, maybe more shine, more shine.

Interviewer: What else did you do besides paint your house?

Stefano: Like rust color. Maybe like rust only darker. Color's darner 'n rust.

Stefano would seem to use his repetition strategy for several purposes. When the <u>I</u> used a word he wasn't familiar with, Stefano would repeat it several times as with the word 'rust' in the example above. Moreover, he repeated to keep the discussion moving, even when a repetition was out of context and not appropriate.

Unfortunately, Stefano's repetition strategy could be counter productive to communication. By relying on his own repetition rather than listener feedback, Stefano could not be sure he had made his point, which tended to increase the repetitions further without listener participation. He did this the most assiduously when he felt his idea to be the most difficult to communicate, but without any feedback from his listener as to whether the repetition was necessary or what part of his idea was not communicated. More often than not, he repeated the portion of his idea that had been understood in the first palce, ignoring the portion which he failed to communicate. The listener tended to stop listening, whether he had comprehended or not. The result was that topics were not developed between Stefano and the <u>I</u>. Stefano failed to make his ideas clear, and the listener was at a loss as to how to proceed with the topic or where Stefano had left off, so he began a new topic, most easily with a question. The resulting discourse became characteristic of a question-answer L2 drill.

Roberto

Roberto was the most expressive of the four \underline{Ss} , leading much of the conversation with the \underline{I} and expressing information and opinions without requiring much input from the \underline{I} and without requiring feedback on the linguistic appropriateness and correctness of his utterances. Evidence of these tendencies is found in Table 5.5 which shows results from the discourse analysis across the four \underline{Ss} which indicate Roberto's communicational strategies.

Roberto controlled a larger portion of the conversation than did the \underline{I} as evidenced by Table 5.5a. He regularly decided the way a topic was developed, the duration of the discussion on a certain topic and at times how the discussion moved from one topic to the next. He spoke often in a narrative style adding his and others' experiences to the discussions as examples and expressions of what he was trying to say.

Table 5.5

Discourse Analysis Results Indicating Roberto's Communicational Strategies (Figures are percentages, where indicated, of total numbers of utterances. Otherwise, figures refer to raw totals)

Table 5.5a Results showing degree to which S controlled discussions

		Roberto	An.	St.	Gi.
1.	% of Discussion directed by <u>S</u>	58%	51%	37%	30%
2.	Number of S's utts. to their own topics after \underline{I} 's responses	82	41	43	17
з.	Number of S expressed opinions	52	27	29	21

Table 5.5b Results showing the I's percentage and role of the discussion

		1	Roberto	An.	St.	Gi.
4.	Number of utts. made by \underline{I}		244	342	315	406
5.	Number of RIs made by <u>I</u>		65	97	139	92

Table 5.5c Results showing frequency of Breaks in the discussions

		Roberto	An.	St.	Gi.
6.	Number of breaks made by <u>S</u>	4	18	7	20
7.	Number of requests for clari- fication made by <u>S</u>	0	13	11	18
8.	% of discourse used for linguis- tic breaks	26%	29%	40%	45%

The following sample illustrates his ability to lead the discussion and bring in his own experience. He had just seen the \underline{I} for the first time after an interval of several months during which the \underline{I} had grown a beard:

> <u>Roberto</u>: OH! No! Are you the same John?! or another John?! Oh, boy, oh boy, oh boy... oh you look so different now.

Interviewer: I knew you would say that. Roberto: You know, I have my son with a beard.

Interviewer: Your son?

Roberto: Yeh, and a when he have the graduation, you know, gonna shave and a no body know on the family, you know. When every be saw him, oh boy, oh boy, oh boy, I tell, I tell him, is better you start to have a beard right away. Is you change the face, you know, look de face small. I de know, look so different.

Roberto might use the I's initiating question as a cue, after which he often developed the discussion topic in a direction he wanted it to go. He even seemed to anticipate the I's question and had planned what he would say, as if he had practiced or had thought of specific vocabularly which he would use. On one occasion, for example, in answer to 'How did you spend your weekend?', Roberto began a twenty minute discussion of an Italian-style wedding he had attended, much of which was in monologue form. Roberto apparently had two communicational purposes; first to inform the I who was not of Italian origin about Italian wedding customs, and second to express his opinion that in the future there would be fewer weddings in the Italian community of Montreal like the one he was describing. Roberto appeared to use the I more as a listener than as a discussion partner or a TL model.

Roberto's conversations were also relatively free from interruption for linguistic problems, as shown by the figures in Table 5.5c. He rarely broke the conversation, and never asked for clarification though on occasion the I found it necessary to do so for comprehension purposes.

In the following sample, Roberto is describing how his son, in building his own house, is too fastidious:

> Roberto: So, and a before that guy come to start the work, you know, he (his son) try to make level everything, you know.

Interviewer: He tries to what?

Make e level and eh spend lot a time, but when the guy Roberto: come, you know, gonna destroy everything, you know, they goen by, you know, make de hole and a use a look and he lose time and de money for make, you know, level, because when the truck start to work, you know, are goen destroy everything.

> Interviewer: You mean it's not going to stay level because the truck will ...

<u>Roberto</u>: Yeh, but, a, the guy, you know, he know how to make the French drill... (He continues on).

As is evidenced in these two samples of Roberto's discourse, he was quite aggressive in his desire to express himself, relative to the other subjects.

Angelo

Angelo's input into the discourse was quite different from Roberto's. Although Angelo contributed much of his own information to the discussion, he was more concerned with sharing ideas between himself and the <u>I</u> than Roberto. This was reflected in two ways: (1) he sought out the <u>I</u>'s ideas and opinions on topics of discussion, and (2) he requested information concerning the correctness of utterances he made from the <u>I</u>. Angelo also spoke in complete ideas more consistently than the other Ss.

These conclusions about Angelo's communicational interests are supported by the data in Table 5.6 which show that only Angelo broke the discussions for linguistic purposes more often than the <u>I</u>. Analyses of these breaks shows that frequently they were not necessary for communication, but reflected Angelo's interest in knowing the standard English form for structures he used.

The following sample contains two examples of Angelo asking for the appropriate tense for what he wanted to say:

Interviewer: When did I see you last?

Angelo: You saw me in a in month of July.

Interviewer: What have you been doing since then?

Angelo: Oh, I, I've a I was on vacation, I've been on vacation (Spoken with rising intonation).

Interviewer: I was, I've been. Either one.

<u>Angelo</u>: I was on vacation. So I told you, e, see, my sister from Australia, its came, come, came ats (again rising intonation).

Interviewer: She was going to come.

<u>Angelo</u>: She came from Australia and e stay in my home for about a month.

Table 5.6

Discourse Analysis Results Indicating Angelo's Communicational Strategies (Figures are percentages, where indicated, of total numbers of utterances. Otherwise, figures refer to raw totals)

Table 5.6a Results showing the Ss' and the I's relative use of Breaking

		Angelo	Ro.	st.	Gi.
1.	Number of Utts. in <u>I</u> initiated breaks	31	37	24	204
2.	Number of Utts. in <u>S</u> initiated breaks	42	15	19	80

Table 5.6b Results showing degree of linguistic and communicational completeness of Ss' utterances

		Angelo	Ro.	st.	Gi.
з.	Number of S's utts. without				
	subjects/verbs	115	138	204	345
4.	% of <u>S</u> 's utts. with sub/verbs	74%	69%	66%	38%
5.	<pre>% of discourse in which <u>S</u> con- tinued his idea</pre>	31%	44%	44%	35%

Table 5.6c Results showing degree of similarity of production between S & I

		Angelo	Ro.	St.	Gi.
6.	Difference in number of Utts in all role categories between <u>S</u> & <u>I</u>	190	307	368	351
7.	Number of I's utts. expressing opinions	19	8	8	11
8.	Number of I's utts. with sub/verbs adding information to the topic	169	117	80	115

The figures in Table 5.6 indicate that Angelo's utterances were the most complete. Not only did Angelo speak more regularly in utterances containing subjects and verbs, but he also tended to complete his ideas in relatively few utterances as indicated by the fact that his discourse had the lowest percentage of utterances categorized as continue. Angelo made fewer total utterances in the time period analyzed than the other Ss made

in comparable time periods. The inference is that Angelo's productions were characterized by longer utterances than those of the other Ss.

Finally, as shown by the figures in Table 5.6c, Angelo involved the \underline{I} in an exchange of ideas and information. When comparing the <u>roles</u> of Angelo's and the \underline{I} 's utterances, category by category, the differences in the number of utterances in all categories is less than when similar comparison's are made between the other $\underline{S}s$ and the \underline{I} . The \underline{I} expressed his opinion more often to Angelo than to the other $\underline{S}s$ and made more informative statements during Angelo's conversations, adding to an exchange of ideas, usually upon Angelo's request.

The following sample from Angelo's discussions shows his interest in the study in which he was participating. It gives an idea of his ability to express ideas in utterances with subjects and verbs, and how he elicited information from the \underline{I} .

- <u>Angelo</u>: So you teach us and you study over us. And when end, I go away from here. What do you get from those one hour and a half?
 - Interviewer: Well, I try to understand how you speak English.
- <u>Angelo</u>: Oh, you make experience how the strange people how could find for learn English?
 - <u>Interviewer</u>: Yeh. There are things about the way people learn languages that I am studying.
- <u>Angelo</u>: And then you give exam and your professor for those things your, you get from this scholar?

Interviewer: a huh.

These results in the discourse analysis of Angelo's conversations suggest that relative to the other <u>S</u>s he was the most willing or able to exchange ideas, he spoke in a form closest to standard English and he actively sought information to improve his English.

The individual differences found in the communicational strategies used by the four <u>Ss</u> are summarized in Chart 5.4. These strategies are presented according to specific aspects of discourse which facilitate comparison and contrast between Ss.

	Contr	asting Communicationa	l Strategies	
Communicational Aspect	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
Disposition to speak English	Hesitant and lack- ing in confidence to express his ideas in English	Responds easily to questions but stays with one topic as though reluctant to move to new topics	Eager to speak on just about any topic apparently from a desire for expressing himself	Eager to exchange ideas in English for 2 reasons: 1 practice in English 2 increase Know.
Characteristic Way in which <u>S</u> made use of <u>I</u>	Giovanni used the <u>I</u> to help him ex- press ideas he was not able to say in English.	Used \underline{I} only to pre- sent conversation cue in the form of questions. Did not draw on \underline{I} for feed- back.	Used <u>I</u> as an audi- ence to whom he expressed his opin- ions and related his experiences.	Used <u>I</u> as a dis- cussion partner and as a source of information on correct forms of English structure
Concern for correctness of form and whether he was being understood	Aware that he can- not communicate well. Used <u>I</u> to clarify comprehen- sion and correct- ness	Concern for being understood covered by repetitions. Little apparent concern for cor- rectness.	No apparent concern for correctness or being understood. Apparently takes either or both for granted	Considerable inter- est in both form and degree of comprehen- sion, spearately and sometimes together
Frequency and nature of the breaking of dis- course for com- prehension	Very frequent and initiated by both <u>S</u> and <u>I</u> . Done to assist comprehension and usually done when necessary	Moderately frequent. Done by both $\underline{S} \& \underline{I}$ but more often by \underline{I} . Done only for Comprehension	Done rarely and only by <u>I</u> . <u>S</u> seldon if ever breaks conver- sation, and apparent- ly feels no need to	Conversation broken frequently by both <u>S</u> and <u>I</u> both for comprehension and for interest in correct expression
General discourse characteristics	Disjointed, commu- nication achieved with effort. Frequent interruptions for explanations neces- sary for understand	Verbose and repetitive	Long monologues Narratives of <u>S</u> 's experiences and opinions.	Utterances charac- terized as complete and more correct than other <u>Ss'</u> . Most like on-going dia-

The first aspect of the discourse is the Ss' relative disposition to speak English. Giovanni and Stefano both revealed signs of reservations about their English-speaking abilities but in different ways. Giovanni asked for help and Stefano repeated himself. Both Roberto and Angelo appeared much more competent and sure of themselves in speaking English but took very different approaches to their respective conversational situations. Roberto spoke at length with little direction from and relatively little interaction with the I. Angelo by contrast used the episodes for an exchange of ideas and information between himself and the I. On occasion, Angelo did directly state that he felt himself relatively weak in English, but this was never in a context where he was trying to express himself and couldn't, such as was the case with Giovanni. His selfcriticism seemed more a reflection of his opinion of the quality of his English productions than a feeling of inadequacy in communicating in English. Comments similar to Angelo's self-criticisms were not made by Roberto.

The four <u>Ss</u> used the <u>I</u> in very different ways. Giovanni used him as a resource to help him express what he wanted to say. Stefano used him as a cue giver. Roberto seemed to consider the <u>I</u> as an audience while Angelo interacted with him as both a discussion partner and an informant.

Angelo was the only \underline{S} who actively attempted to learn linguistically correct structures for the sake of correctness while also having discussions. Roberto paid almost no attention to how his or the <u>I</u>'s ideas were expressed, no doubt because he assumed the on-going degree of communication to be adequate. Stefano did seek corrections on occasion but only where communication necessitated such correction, and these occasions were frequently obviated by his use of repetition. Giovanni actively sought help in developing his thoughts in English which like Stefano resulted from communicational necessity.

These differences are reflected in the frequency and manner in which the discussions with the various $\underline{S}s$ were broken for linguistic purposes. Roberto's discussions were rarely broken, and only by the \underline{I} in the few occasions when they were. Stefano's discussions were broken by him and by the \underline{I} but only where necessary for comprehension. Giovanni broke his discussions often for help; the \underline{I} did so as well. Angelo broke for reasons of interest more often than for communicative necessity.

Because of differences among the <u>S</u>s in these aspects of the discourse, it is possible to characterize the discourse of each <u>S</u> in general descriptive terms. Giovanni's discussions were disjointed, reflected much effort and achieved communication through the joint effort of the <u>S</u> and the <u>I</u>. Stefano's discussions were verbose and repetitive. Topics were not well developed through <u>S</u> - <u>I</u> exchange but rather through question answer - repetition. Roberto's discourse pattern incorporated long, narrative monologues describing his experiences and those of his acquaintances. Angelo's discourse reflected an exchange of ideas and information between himself and <u>I</u> with frequent breaks for side discussions on how to express something in standard English.

VI. Summation of the Discourse Analysis

A method of discourse analysis was developed for this study using a three-level approach to analyzing the utterances of conversations between \underline{I} and the four \underline{Ss} . Section II of this chapter presented the system of discourse analysis and evidence concerning the reliability of the coding.

Section III presented results which demonstrated a degree of consistency in the use of the various discourse categories by each <u>S</u> over time. Section IV presented results from the discourse analysis that were commensurate with the established order of general English proficiency across the <u>S</u>s.

In section V, results from the discourse analysis were reported to describe communicational strategies uniquely employed by each \underline{S} . The use of these individually employed strategies suggests individual approaches to L2 use and the possibility of individual language learning strategies. This possibility is the central theme of the following chapter where the results of the discourse analysis presented here are discussed in relation to the results found in the linguistic analyses discussed in the previous chapter and the sociolinguistic data presented in Chapter Three.

CHAPTER SIX

Discussion

I. A Pattern of Acquisition

Developing L2 skills necessitates acquiring ability to use individual and specific L2 features which in turn involves familiarization with various aspects of these features such as knowing the form and meaning of the feature, being able to produce the feature correctly where appropriate and to modify the feature where possible. Familiarization with these features does not occur instantaneously; it develops progressively through an acquisition process (see chapter three for a more complete explanation). At any point in the L2 learner's TL experience, he is involved in the process of acquiring numerous TL features.

The learner's LLS can be described by features the learner has demonstrated to have acquired or by features with which he has no ability, but it can also be described by the features that are in the process of being acquired. Attention to these features provides insight into the acquisition process, the relative speed with which various features are acquired and the stages of general TL proficiency necessary for the acquisition process of particular features to take place.

The acquisition process of various English features has been studied through analyses of the LLSs of four adult informal learners. An order of general English proficiency was established among the four <u>Ss</u> based on several measures. Giovanni was found to be the weakest in English ability. Stefano was found to be somewhat stronger. Angelo and Roberto were both found to be more advanced than the other two, and their English abilities were found to be very similar. The LLSs of the four <u>Ss</u> were analyzed in two ways: percentages of correct usage of linguistic features and structures in obligatory contexts (CUOC) were computed, and frequencies and percentages of usage of utterances of various discourse categories were tabulated and computed. These computations were done for the <u>Ss</u>' performances at two periods of time. Considerable consistency was found in the performance of all four <u>Ss</u>, when their productions from the two periods were compared. This consistency indicated that the learners' LLSs were systematic and stabilized. When the percentages for linguistic usage were contrasted among $\underline{S}s$, resulting differences were commensurate with the order of general English proficiency (OGEP). Four discourse tendencies were also found to correlate with the OGEP: (1) the extent to which the $\underline{S}s$ directed the conversations, (2) the extent to which their conversations were free of utterances not adding substantive information to the conversations, (3) the degree to which the $\underline{S}s$ produced linguistically and semantically complete ideas and (4) the extent to which \underline{I} 's productions were free of accommodations from standard discourse needed to facilitate communication. The OGEP among the $\underline{S}s$, based on measures of general ability, therefore, was supported by percentages of correct use of specific linguistic features and by four discourse tendencies.

When individual linguistic features were compared across <u>Ss</u>, a pattern was found. The pattern resulted from consistent differences in the percentages of CUOC between two linguistic features among <u>Ss</u>, as the percentages of each feature increased across <u>Ss</u> commensurate with the OGEP. An example of this pattern can be seen in the results of the linguistic analyses of the four <u>Ss</u> for the prepositions <u>in(L)</u> and <u>to(L)</u> (shown in Table 6.1). All four <u>Ss</u> had higher percentages of correct use of <u>in(L)</u> than they did of <u>to(L)</u> and the percentages for both prepositions were greater for Angelo and Roberto than for Stefano, and greater for Stefano than Giovanni.

Table 6.1

Scores for correct use of 2 Prepositions Across <u>Ss</u>; an Example (Figures are percentages of correct use in Obligatory contexts)

Feature	Average of A & R	Stefano	Giovanni
<u>in(L)</u>	78.5	65	54
to(L)	50.0	33	20

Differences, then, between the percentages of CUOC of various features that were consistent across <u>Ss</u> can be thought of as reflecting an order of general difficulty for these features. Features with higher percentages are less difficult than features with lower percentages. Since the

other features. Roberto, however, had a percentage of 47, which was not consistent with the results of the other <u>Ss</u> according to OGEP nor with his relative results on other prepositions. Other exceptions to the general pattern indicating an order of acquisition were the morphemes <u>the</u>, <u>IP</u> and <u>ing</u>; the preposition <u>to(0)</u> and the particle <u>to(I)</u>; and the pronouns <u>we</u> and <u>it(S)</u>. With these few exceptions, however, the features analyzed in this study conformed to the pattern reflecting a general order of acquisition of these features across <u>Ss</u>. The processes of acquisition of these features, indicated by the various percentages of CUOC, are characterized as progressive on-going processes.

Concerning the order of acquisition found above, two questions arise: (1) what determinants explain why the features are acquired in this order? and (2) what determinants affect the relative positions of each <u>S</u> along the progressive order of acquisitions. These are discussed in the following sections.

II. Communicational Determinants to the Order of Acquisition

As mentioned in chapter one, a natural order of acquisition has been proposed by those who have reported morpheme study results. Possible determinants for these orders have been proposed, such as inherent difficulties in underlying grammatical complexity, semantic complexity, frequency of occurrence in input, underlying relationships, distance between contrastive forms of NL and TL. There is nothing in the data of this study as analyzed that would deny the possibility of any of these as determinants of an order of at least some features within a process of acquisition. This study was concerned with the role of communication as a determinant of the order of acquisition.

One aspect that was explored was the relationship between communicational need and the order of acquisition. Communicational need refers to the regularity of obligatory contexts for a linguistic feature in the contexts of the utterances the L2 learner produces. The more frequently standard language forms would require the production of a particular linguistic feature, the greater is its communicational need. Evidence of a relationship between communicational need and order of acquisition has appeared in the literature of morpheme analyses (see Lightbown & Spada, 1979).

Counts were made of the frequencies of obligatory contexts of the linguistic features examined in this study. Evidence was sought first of any correlation in the rank order of these frequencies across $\underline{S}s$, and then of any relationship between the rank order of these frequencies and the rank order of percentages of CUOC. Tables 6.2 and 6.3 present the figures dealing with these frequencies of obligatory contexts.

Table 6.2

Rank Order Correlations between <u>Ss</u> for Frequency of Obligatory Contexts (Figures are values of **Y**)

Prepositions:	Angelo	.5879*	.6868*	.5330*
		Roberto	.8022**	.7143**
			Stefano	.7912**

Giovanni

.8664**	.8051**	.8909**
Roberto	.9167**	.9271**
	Stefano	.9259**

Giovanni

|--|

Pronouns:

Angelo

Angelo

.8881**	.8531**	.8741**
Roberto	.9196**	.7902**
	Stefano	.7273**

Giovanni

*P<.05, **P<.01 (df 11)

Table 6.3

Correlations between Frequencies of Obligatory Contexts and CUOC (Figures are values of **f**)

Correlations across Ss for Linguistic Features

Prepositions: $\Upsilon = -.1429$ Pronouns: $\Upsilon = .1364$ Morphemes: $\Upsilon = .7363**$

Correlations by S between Frequency and Correct Use

	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
Prepositions	2170	2912	.0989	.0220
Pronouns	.1273	1152	0242	.4394
Morphemes	.7133**	.4126	.5455*	.7552**
* <u>P</u> <	.05 (11 df)	** <u>P</u> <	.01 (df 11)	

There was considerable agreement across Ss in the orders of frequencies of obligatory contexts in all linguistic categories as shown in Table 6.2. Moreover, there was some evidence of a correlation between rank orders of frequency of obligatory contexts and percentages of CUOC with regard to morpheme usage. Similar correlations, however, were not found for prepositions and pronouns, as evidenced by the figures presented in Table 6.3. These findings were supported by rank order correlations made for each S between frequency of context and percentage of CUOC, also reported in Table 6.3. Significant correlations were found for three of the Ss for morpheme use. The correlations may indicate that the Ss had acquired certain morphemes more completely than others because they more frequently found a need to use them. But if there was direct influence on the acquisition process by communicational need, the influence would seem to be more significant for Angelo and Giovanni than for Roberto and Stefano and this influence was important in morpheme acquisition but not in the acquisition of pronouns and prepositions.

A second possible communicational determinant to the order of acquisition is frequency of use. This possibility would imply that using a feature would stimulate the acquisition process of the feature. For this to be an important factor, the order of acquisition of various features should correlate with the order of frequency of their use.

To assess the importance of this factor, counts were made of the number of contexts in which each \underline{S} used a specific preposition, whether correctly or not. Rank orders were made of frequency of use among the prepositions which were compared to rank orders of these prepositions based on percentages of CUOC. (The results of these correlations are presented in Table 6.4). Significant correlations were found for all \underline{S} s except Angelo. This would mean that for Giovanni, Stefano, and Roberto, those prepositions which they used the most frequently, they also used most correctly and those prepositions which they used least frequently they used least correctly, but this was not the case for Angelo.

Table 6.4

Rank Order Correlations between Frequency of Use and Percentages of Correct Use in Obligatory Contexts for Prepositions

Angelo	Roberto	Stefano	Giovanni
.183	.797**	.797**	.833**

**<u>P</u><.01 (13 df)

These results are explained to some extent by the process of preposition acquisition described above (see chapter four, section IV). In the first two stages of preposition acquisition, the percentages of CUF were found to be high because, relative to the frequency of obligatory contexts, these prepositions were seldom used. Only in the third stage of acquisition were the frequencies of use sufficient enough to have low percentages of CUF, and in the fourth stage, the acquisition process was complete enough for the percentages of CUF and CUOC to both approach 100. Thus, it might be anticipated that a positive correlation would exist between percentages of CUOC and frequencies of Use for prepositions
restricted to the first three stages of acquisition which included nearly all prepositions for Giovanni, Stefano and Roberto. However, Angelo had acquired many prepositions to the degree specified by the fourth stage of acquisition. For these prepositions, no apparent relationship was found between frequency of use and percentage of CUOC. For preposition, therefore, frequency of use would seem to be an important factor in the early stages of the acquisition process.

When the acquisition of pronouns was analyzed, the same relationship between frequency of use and percentage of CUOC was not found. The pronouns with the highest frequency of use across <u>Ss</u> were the subject pronouns. However, pronouns with much lower frequencies of use by all <u>Ss</u> had higher percentages of CUOC than the subject pronouns.

A third potential communicational determinant to the order of acquisition among the features analyzed is the use of common communicational strategies. One of these common strategies is the tendency to use prefabricated patterns or unanalyzed routines. This was presented as a potential first step in the acquisition processes of prepositions and negatives. In the case of prepositions, those with the lowest percentages of CUOC were correctly used as parts of prefabricated patterns. As their use became more consistently correct, they were used outside of these patterns in more contexts. It is perhaps possible that those prepositions occurring in prefabricated patterns which Ss used early would actually be acquired earlier as well, and those prepositions which don't occur in prefabricated patterns are not acquired until later. This argument would suggest that as the unanalyzed routine is incorporated into the LLS, the learner begins to identify the component parts as TL features themselves which then go through a more complete acquisition process. There was no evidence to support or refute this theory in the data for prepositions as analyzed in this study; but there would appear to be an example of this process in the data collected on negative production from Angelo.

Beginning with the prefabricated pattern <u>I don't know</u>, Angelo demonstrated ability to substitute other features for the components <u>I</u> and <u>Know</u> widening the contexts where he correctly produced do-insertion negatives. The other <u>Ss</u> all produced the pattern <u>I don't know</u> in appropriate contexts but for the most part did not extend the pattern to do-insertion negatives of other contexts. Instead they used different features, either

<u>no</u> or <u>not</u>, in contexts where don't was appropriate. The explanation is that unlike Angelo, the other 3 <u>Ss</u> didn't subdivide the pattern into component features, but used the complete prefabricated pattern as a single feature.

A second communicational strategy, referred to as NL transfer, is when the learner attempts to apply rules of his NL to the TL as he tries to communicate. There was evidence from the results of this study that some of the features had low percentages of CUOC because of differences of contrastive forms between Italian and English.

Italian does not require subject pronouns in most declarative sentences, English usually does when a noun is not used. This difference between the two languages may explain why subject pronouns, though used more often than other pronouns, appear to be less well acquired than other pronouns by the Italian-speaking <u>S</u>s of this study.

A second example concerns the use of the English preposition \underline{at} . The most commonly occurring context for \underline{at} in the productions of the Ss was in its locative meaning, where they rarely used it correctly. Instead they frequently used the preposition to. An explanation for this tendency can be made by considering a simple contrastive analysis between the locative prepositions \underline{at} and to in English and their Italian equivalents. Sentences 6.a and 6.b are translated into Italian equivalent sentences 6.c and 6.d respectively. For the Ss of this study, 'al magazzino' is translated 'to the store' regardless of the verb of the sentence. This may explain why \underline{at} had the lowest or next to the lowest percentage of CUOC among the prepositions for all Ss.

6.a I saw Luciano <u>at</u> the store.
6.b I drove Luciano <u>to</u> the store.
6.c Ho visto Luciano <u>al</u> magazzino.
6.d Ho guidato Luciano al magazzino.

In studies of morpheme acquisition, transfer has been demonstrated to have little effect on the orders in which learners of various Lls have acquired English morphemes. In the order of acquisition of features such as prepositions and pronouns, the strategy of transfer may be an important determinant.

In sum, the importance of aspects of communication as determinants to the order of acquisition would appear to vary between the types of features and among learners. Frequency of communicational need was important in the acquisition of morphemes for two <u>Ss</u> but not for the other two, and communicational need was not found to be important for the order of acquisition of prepositions or pronouns. Frequency of use was found to be an important determinant for prepositions at the initial stages of acquisition, but not at the more advanced levels and it was not found to affect the order of acquisition of pronouns. Communicational strategies were not believed to be important in the acquisition of morphemes, but their importance in the order of acquisition of certain pronouns and prepositions as well as the process of acquiring negative structures was demonstrated.

III. Determinants of the OGEP among Ss

The factors considered as most important in determining the rate or degree to which a L2 learner masters a TL are his attitude including his motivation to the TL, his aptitude for language learning, the quality and quantity of his involvement with the TL, and his approach to learning the TL.

Attempts were made to control for the first of these factors by choosing <u>Ss</u> with similar and essentially positive attitudes to learning English. They all had relatively strong instrumental motivation toward learning English for advancement in their jobs and for communicating with people in their work. They encouraged their children to learn English for instrumental ends -- higher education and success in the job market. However, the <u>Ss</u> had relatively little integrative motivation for learning English. They participated in cultural and entertainment activities in Italian, not English. Italian was used almost exclusively in their homes. As immigrants, all four <u>Ss</u> believed they had had relative success here in Canada. For this reason, they had positive attitudes toward Canada which they believed to be a predominantly English-speaking country. There would seem to be little difference among the <u>Ss</u> in their attitudes toward English or in the nature of their motivations for learning English though there may be variations among the strengths of their individual motivations. Aptitude for language learning refers to a hypothesized mental ability associated with learning a foreign or second language. This ability has been likened to or associated with mathematical ability, the abilities to deduce patterns and systems, remember or memorize and to differentiate sounds. Verbal ability in one's first language is often associated with the <u>g</u> factor considered by some psychologists to be a measure of general intelligence. There is less evidence for whether this same ability is important in L2 learning. Valette (1976) suggests that aptitude, achievement and intelligence are closely related factors affecting language learning in formal language-classroom environments.

The exact nature of language learning aptitude is not a primary concern of this study. That different L2 learners have different mental skills or ranges and combinations of intellectual abilities is accepted. The question is to what extent these differences affect L2 acquisition by learners in informal L2 environments. To assess this, language aptitude tests, such as the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT) developed by Carroll and Sapon (1958), were considered inappropriate for the <u>Ss</u> because of their reliance on academically oriented testing techniques and the knowledge of English which these tests assume the testee to have. It was decided that the Raven Progressive Matrices (Raven Test) (1960) was the most appropriate instrument to assess the <u>Ss'</u> relative mental abilities. Though it is not a language aptitude test, it is a non-verbal test equally suitable for adults and children. It assesses the ability to recognize patterns, a mental skill considered important in terms of both general intelligence and language aptitude.

When the Raven Test was administered, the directions for the test were explained to the <u>Ss</u> in Italian to facilitate their understanding and to reduce their anxiety about taking the test.

Table 6.5

Raven Test Scores

	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
Raw scores out of 60	28	30	21	37

The results -- presented in Table 6.5 -- show no correlation with the OGEP across <u>Ss</u>. Angelo and Roberto who were the most advanced in English mastery and whose LLSs were the most similar were the most diverse in the scores they earned on the Raven Test. These results would suggest that whatever mental processes are measured by the Raven Test, they are not essential for L2 acquisition. Roberto was apparently considerably weaker in these mental skills in spite of the fact that he was a relatively successful learner of English. Angelo, however, was considerably higher in his test scores than the other <u>Ss</u>. There is no reason to believe that he did not use whatever mental skills the results of this test indicated he had, and he was also a relatively successful learner of English.

Krashen (1977b) argues that language aptitude is important for formal learners of L2s and enables one to learn aspects of a TL, but aptitude is not involved in the acquisition process. The results from the Raven Test for Roberto would support this argument, but those for Angelo would not.

The third potential determinant to the rate and order of language acquisition is the time factor. The time factor has two dimensions with respect to its potential effect on L2 acquisition. One dimension is the quantity of time. Theoretically the more a L2 learner is exposed to the TL, the more his TL skills will develop. The second dimension is the way in which the time is spent. Exposure time without involvement in TL communicational situations is not as conducive to language acquisition as time spent participating in TL communications, whether comprehending or producing TL utterances. Corder (1977) and others refer to a distinction between language input -- the sample of TL which the learner is exposed to -- and language intake -- the sample of the input that the learner actually processes and understands. Of the two, the latter is considered more important.

As for the amount of time spent in interacting in English, a clear order was found among the <u>S</u>s. Both in quantity and quality of exposure time to English, Roberto had clearly had the most, followed by Stefano, followed by Angelo. Giovanni had had the least. This variable alone can be used to explain the OGEP between three of the four <u>S</u>s. Giovanni's, Stefano's and Roberto's relative English abilities were definitely commensurate with the relative amount of English involvement they had had.

But this factor does not account for Angelo's relatively advanced level of English proficiency.

The fourth factor is the approach used by the L2 learner to gain skill in the TL. Whatever approach the learner may use is affected by the conditions under which the L2 is being acquired, the TL goals the learner may have and the strategies which the learner uses both to learn and to function in the TL. This factor is more easily described for formal language students because their approach to L2 learning is largely determined by the teaching methods used in their formal learning situations. However, even for the formal learners, the approach is affected by how they respond to the directions and circumstances of their learning situation and what TL associations they have outside of their formal learning experiences.

The informal learner's approach to L2 learning is more completely determined by the learner himself since he has no teacher or syllabus to follow nor can he control as easily the form of the TL he is exposed to. Left to his own devices, the informal learner is more dependent on his communicational strategies to determine his approach to L2 learning.

In the previous section, common communicational strategies were discussed in relation to the order of acquisition of linguistic features. These strategies, while common to all learners, are not necessarily used to the same degree by all learners. Further, other communicational strategies though not used by all L2 learners, may be more important to increasing TL skill. Relative success in TL mastery may actually be a result of the choice the learner makes, consciously or unconsciously, in the communicational strategies he uses.

The discourse analysis in the last chapter indicated various communicational strategies and their relative degree of use by the <u>Ss</u>. These are of interest when analyzed in relation to the <u>Ss'</u> relative general mastery of English.

1. <u>Practice</u>: Results from the discourse analysis indicate that two <u>Ss</u>, Roberto and Stefano, got relatively more practice speaking English than Angelo and Giovanni.

Stefano practiced with repetitions. He repeated his own words and sentences, and he paraphrased his ideas. When he heard a word that was new for him, or when an idea of his was rephrased, he repeated what he

heard. This method of practice would not appear to be an especially successful learning strategy to judge by Stefano whose general language skills were relatively weak.

Roberto's practice resulted from a tendency to express his opinion and speak as frequently as he could. The discourse analysis results indicated that for a specified period of time he controlled the conversations more than the other <u>Ss</u> and allowed <u>I</u> to speak less than he spoke with the other <u>Ss</u>. The sociolinguistic survey results would indicate that Roberto tended to do this more regularly than the other <u>Ss</u> in his day to day life as well. From the standpoint of practice through self expression, the example of Roberto would suggest that this strategy is a good one for acquiring a L2.

The <u>S</u> who showed reluctance to speak and therefore reduced his chances for practice in the TL was Giovanni, and his relatively low mastery of English may in part be a reflection of his tendency not to employ the strategy of practice. Angelo was neither reluctant nor excessive in his use of this strategy.

2. Listening: Listening has been given considerable importance in the literature of late as a key strategy to language acquisition. It is the primary means by which the learner can process TL intake from the TL input he receives, especially for L2 learners such as the <u>Ss</u> who have little if any written material in their English input. All of the <u>Ss</u> displayed evidence of careful listening to ideas directed to them by <u>I</u>, but beyond this, Roberto was more inclined to talk himself than to listen further as was Stefano. Angelo and Giovanni showed by their discourse patterns that they had tendencies to direct their parts of the conversations in ways that gave them chances for extended listening. Giovanni did this apparently to maintain the discussions and also at times to increase his conscious understanding of English structures. Thus one <u>WS</u> and one <u>SS</u> tended to rely more heavily on communicational strategies involving listening than the other WS and SS did.

3. <u>Speaking in complete sentences</u>: Speaking in forms that are syntactically complete would seem to correlate with the order of general ability across <u>Ss</u>. Only Giovanni used a relatively large proportion of incomplete utterances to communicate his ideas. Stefano used proportionately

fewer than Giovanni, Roberto and Angelo had fewer still, and they each had about the same percentage of word and phrase utterances. These results were commensurate with the OGEP.

4. <u>Paying attention to form</u>: Angelo regularly sought information about the correctness of the form of utterances he made. On other occasions he stopped mid-sentence and corrected himself with no apparent reason other than a concern for correctness of form. In a few instances he even verbalized his reasons for the corrections and it seemed to <u>I</u> that Angelo was directing these verbalizations to himself. The following is an example of Angelo employing this communicational strategy. It is from a June conversation where he is explaining a difficulty he had in understanding homonyms:

"But I no say what you talk about before. I understand <u>I</u> <u>understood, that's the past, understood</u>. I understood. That's the sun but no about your word, about the sentence. Because, if you pronounce sun, and me (mean) the boy, your son, that's about the same."

In the discourse analysis, these productions were recorded as breaks in the conversations because they seemed to reflect a communicational strategy to produce utterances with grammatically correct form. Angelo was the only <u>S</u> who displayed such a communicational strategy. Stefano and Giovanni made breaks in the conversation for reasons of communicational necessity only. Roberto seldom broke the conversations for any reason. It could be argued that the use of this communicational strategy was a reason for Angelo's relatively advanced English skills, but it is unlikely that Roberto's advanced degree of language skill could be accounted for by this strategy.

The conclusion one draws from the evidence presented here is that all of the factors discussed above have some influence as determinants of the rate and degree that an adult informal L2 learner masters a TL; but none of them is necessarily more important than another. Instead, the relative importance of attitude, aptitude, time and approach varies from learner to learner. Similar positive attitudes among the four <u>Ss</u> to learning English explains to some extent why all four <u>Ss</u> were able to hold extended discussions with <u>I</u> in English. But this factor alone does not explain why Roberto and Angelo had developed English proficiency considerably superior to Stefano and Giovanni. Aptitude may explain why Angelo was better in English than Stefano and Giovanni, but if aptitude were the prime determinant to development of English skill, it is difficult to explain the poor atptitude scores of Roberto. Exposure time both in terms of quantity and quality explain the order of proficiency among all the <u>Ss</u> except Angelo who apparently used English less regularly and less frequently than Roberto and Stefano but who had developed English skills superior to Stefano's and at least equal to Roberto's. The <u>Ss</u> approaches to using English differed in ways that indicated variations among the communicational strategies they relied on. One <u>WS</u> and one <u>SS</u> were good talkers while the other <u>WS</u> and <u>SS</u> were good listeners. The degree to which completed ideas are expressed in the TL would seem to correlate across <u>Ss</u> with order of mastery, but concern for correctness of form seems an important factor in the development of only one <u>SS</u> and not the other.

IV. The Formal-informal Distinction Revisited

Subjects were chosen for this study who were adult, who could communicate to some extent in English and who had had no formal English language instruction. Such L2 learners were considered to be informal by virtue of the nature of their language learning environments. If the learners had not been taught the rules of the TL and if the TL was not presented to them systematically, then the <u>Ss</u> could not be considered formal language learners.

A comparison between the two <u>SSs</u> of this study suggests a modification to this original assumption. Both Roberto and Angelo conformed to the criteria listed above defining an informal learner. However, their orientations to language learning as seen by their communicational strategies and the natures of their discourse patterns were very different. Roberto was an extrovert who appears to have learned English by using the language to express himself without hesitation. Angelo was an introvert whose language mastery had come from listening.

Evidence of this was found in the discourse analysis reported above. It was also found in ideas each <u>S</u> expressed in conversations with <u>I</u> about how they acquired their Engish skills. The following comments were made by Roberto at different times during his conversations (the words in brackets are added by the writer to clarify S's ideas): When (I) have the conversation and find something wrong or me or somebody else, I gonna think about, you know, about the words is right or not.
 I try, I tried all a time, talk, talk with the kids in a house. I talk in English and they answer in Italian.
 I start to learn (English) a little bit, and right now I no talk very good but I try to understand and they understand me.
 What I learn is just a talk to each other. That's why the grammar and all is bad because in learning like that to talk to each other.
 I try to have conversation with her (a relative who is an English teacher). I (am) fine one moment, (then) I stop because I no find the right words and conversation.
 I understand (English TV programs) but not exactly, you know,

the words.... but if you talk to people to people, you know, (it) is different. Cause when you talk like that, if I can (can't) say the words, you know, (they) find a way to try to understand (what) I talk.

The important aspect of learning English for Roberto seemed to be talking. Production is the most frequently referred to language skill and he mentioned being understood as often as understanding in regard to his English learning and his English abilities. Contrast these statements with similar statements made by Angelo:

 Cause for learn any language, to learn it's not enough only de school teacher, you know, (you) need to (have) conversation.
 I can't correct my sentences because the sentences I use I never heard from someone else.
 Many word(s), when I find too hard to understand, I go home ask my son. When some new words and I hear it, I don't understand what you mean. I try to understand.
 Many time I heard it, the same words. So I could imagine the meaning. Some one (times) I ask somebody. I learn.
 (I learned).... when I hear English. Sometime on some jobs, not on ever job I did. And I stud(y) on grammar dictionaire, from American dictionaire.

6. I heard, I used to (hear) in English when I was a boy. I pass(ed) (the) war at my home. I stay(ed) with the soldier sometime.

The words Angelo used to explain how he learned English describe the activities of listening and understanding, not speaking. Angelo repeatedly referred to asking, or looking up the meaning of something he had heard. Roberto stressed the importance of knowing the right words to speak.

Related to this difference is the attention each <u>S</u> pays to correctness of form. Roberto was concerned with getting his ideas across to his listener without conscious concern for the correctness of the form. Angelo, on the other hand, showed considerable concern for the correctness of form as reported above. Angelo described this difference in approach to language use directly to <u>I</u> when attempting to explain why the two <u>Ss</u> used different negative forms in different kinds of negative structures (see chapter four, section IV):

"I think the thing depend from the grade school how the guy learn his language. For long sentence, (I) think what to say. Maybe (I am) more correct. For short, I make mistake because I don't think 'bout it. The other one (Roberto), he have more contact with people so he make short sentence correct because he have more contact with people, but he's not have education like me for think 'bout good sentence."

In other words, Angelo attributed his ability of producing correct negative sentences to concentrating on the correct form, and he credited this ability to a relatively good formal education (even though that education did not include English). He believed that Roberto was not as well educated and so Roberto did not think about what he said. However, at times Roberto used correct English because he had had more practice speaking with native speakers. Angelo would seem to be describing himself as a formal learner and Roberto as an informal learner.

To analyze the <u>Ss</u> relative appreciation for correct form further, a series of negative utterances, made during the conversations with <u>I</u>, were read to them. Some of these utterances contained standard negations, others contained deviant forms commensurate with the type of negative errors the <u>Ss</u> produced. The <u>Ss</u> were asked to judge each utterance for correctness of form. Roberto judged each utterance to be correct though he expressed doubts that he would be asked to make such judgements if they were all correct. In other words, he assumed that at least some of the sentences were not correct but nevertheless, he could not identify which sentences they were. This was the case even for utterances which he had originally made using standard form negation, but which had been changed. He was no more successful when utterances were read to him a second and third time. Angelo accurately identified 6 out of 8 correctly formed negative sentences and 5 out of 15 incorrectly formed ones. With a second hearing, he correctly identified 10 out of 15 incorrect sentences and 7 out of 8 correct ones. (See Appendix M for the sentences the <u>S</u>s were asked to judge.)

These differences between Angelo and Roberto lead to the inference that they had very different approaches to learning English. Roberto was an informal learner as reflected both by the environment in which he learned English and the way he used the language. Angelo was not a purely informal learner despite the informal environment in which he had been exposed to English. Instead he depended on a conscious understanding of what he heard and actively sought explanations for what he didn't understand. He even corrected himself in ways that indicated he was monitoring his own production. Thus in many respects Angelo can be classified as a formal learner.

This formal/informal difference between Angelo and Roberto was reflected in several ways. As shown above, they differed considerably in their abilities to recognize correct form. Discrete point measures of their English abilities also reflected these differences (as shown in Table 6.6a). Angelo out performed Roberto in measures requiring accuracy in comprehension of specific grammatical features examined in the Michigan Oral Exam, and in the Janitor's listening comprehension test. The same results were obtained on the Ilyin test where both comprehension and production of specific linguistic features were examined.

Table 6.6

Results between Angelo and Roberto on Various Measures of English Proficiency

Table 6.6a

Discrete point meaures

	Cloze test	Mich. test	Janitor's Comp. Test	Ilyin test	Pronoun use
Possible range	0-80	0-100	0-50	0-100	8
Angelo	52	55	39	46	86
Roberto	36	37	29	36	68

Table 6.6b

Measures of General English Proficiency

	Nat. Speak Comm.	k. Eval. Ling.	Oral Comp Picture	Ilyin Less Gram.	Prep Use	Morpheme Use
Possible range	(Rank ord	er 1-15)	0-60	0-50	ક્ર	8
Angelo	4	3	55	39	71	48
Roberto	3	4	55	36	69	45

This difference may also result in differences in the nature of what parts of their LLSs were products of NL transfer. Roberto tended to omit subject pronouns when he spoke which is a practice reflective of Italian grammar. Angelo usually included subject pronouns which explains why the results from the linguistic analysis reported higher percentages of CUOC for Angelo than for Roberto. However, Angelo's productions included errors in adjective-noun order, attributable from Italian. Roberto didn't make this type of error.

Despite this difference between Roberto and Angelo, their general English abilities were characterized more by similarities than by differences (as shown in Table 6.6b). When native speakers appraised their English ability relative to other informal L2 learners, Angelo and Roberto were judged to have very similar degrees of English abilities. When given a comprehension task involving semantic rather than syntactic skill the two performed similarly as evidenced by the picture comprehension tests and by the results of the Ilyin test when values were subtracted from the scores of both Ss for production of specific linguistic features. When their productions were analyzed, their uses of prepositions and morphemes were found to be similar in 3 ways: first, they had very similar percentages of CUOC for both types of linguistic features, secondly, there was a significant correlation between them for the order of difficulty among the prepositions and morphemes based on percentages of CUOC, and thirdly, there was a significant correlation between the orders of frequencies of use of the morphemes and prepositions between these two learners.

V. Summary

Relative to Giovanni and Stefano, Roberto and Angelo were successful English learners. But they were successful for different reasons: their strengths were found in different determinants of language acquisition. Angelo had a high aptitude for L2 learning and a formal orientation to L2 learning stressing understanding and correctness. Roberto had a high degree of involvement in L2 learning situations and an informal orientation to L2 learning stressing production. Despite these differences, they were similar both in the degree of advancement of their general English proficiencies and in the natures of their LLSs. CHAPTER SEVEN Conclusion

I. Implications for Future Research

The principal method of data collection used in this study was a multiple case study approach which Bialystok and Swain (1978) suggest is well suited to exploratory research. It combines the advantages of crosssectional types of analyses (see, for example, Dulay & Burt, 1974a) with longitudinal studies (see, for example, Cazden et al., 1975 and Raven, 1974), and enables one to analyze learners at different levels of proficiency with indepth examinations of their individual LLSs. Using this method, four L2 learners were studied who reflected three levels of general English proficiency. When their English productions were analyzed, it was found that their LLSs had developed similarly. The order of correct usage of several morphemes was common among them as was the extent to which they used non-standard negative structures. Similar findings have been reported from cross-sectional and longitudinal studies of other L2 English learners which have been interpreted as indicating a natural or common order of acquisition. Examinations of the Ss' productions of specific pronouns, and prepositions, and the use of certain aspects of discourse also resulted in common orders among the Ss of this study. These findings suggest that a natural order of acquisition might include more aspects of the TL than have been reported to date in the literature. However, caution must be taken in making generalizations.

The number of $\underline{S}s$ in this study was small. Furthermore, the $\underline{S}s$ had all had similar exposure to English, a fundamental reason why they were chosen to be studied. Therefore, the question arises whether the preposition, pronoun and discourse results can be generalized to other L2 learners or if they are reflective of the peculiar nature of the adult informal $\underline{S}s$ studied.

One important possible influence on these latter results which may not be involved in the results for morphemes and negatives, is the role of native language transfer. Dulay and Burt (1975) and Krashen (1978a) conclude from their studies that morpheme acquisition is relatively free of Ll interference for learners of various native languages. A similar conclusion cannot be made concerning the acquisition of prepositions and pronouns. To the contrary, as reported in chapter six, there was evidence that the order of pronoun acquisition was influenced by native language transfer. Furthermore, the discourse analysis results may have been affected to a considerable extent by social and cultural factors connected with the <u>Ss'</u> native language backgrounds.

For these reasons, replication of the analyses done in this study on the <u>Ss'</u> uses of prepositions, pronouns and discourse categories is needed for substantiation of the orders of acquisition and usage found. Moreover, the question arises as to what other categories of English features could be analyzed which might reflect acquisition orders. Possibilities might include verb tenses, articles (including various determiners), conjunctions, modals, irregular past tense verbs, or even types of embeddings.

Following the <u>S</u>s over time through the multiple case study method of analysis produced evidence to suggest that the <u>S</u>s' LLSs had stabilized and were not changing appreciably over time. It is inferred that this stabilization is due to the fact that over the years of exposure to English, the <u>S</u>s had arrived at levels of proficiency which were sufficient for their English communicational demands and/or reflective of the effort and attention they routinely gave to developing English communicational skills.

As such, their LLSs are characterized by a lack of permeability (Adjemian, 1976) and have fossilized to a considerable extent (Selinker, 1972; and Selinker & Lamendella, 1978). Of interest would be the extent to which fossilized constituents of the <u>Ss' LLSs</u> are similar to or different from fossilized constituents of LLSs of other types of language learners. Evidence of regularities with other studies were found in the analysis of the <u>Ss'</u> negative productions. Further analyses of their nonstandard productions is needed.

Concerning the nature of the acquisition processes identified in this study, aspects of these processes were found that were commensurate with findings from acquisition studies of younger L2 learners or of more formal L2 learners. However, other findings were noted that were consistent with the stages in the development of pidgins identified by Valdman and Phillips (1975), and with the characteristics of pidgin development noted by Schumann (1978). Bickerton (1977) believes that pidginization, the process of developing a pidgin of a TL, is essentially L2 learning with a restricted TL input. Andersen (1979) goes further in proposing that pidginization and L2 acquisition are opposite ends of the same process: pidginization occurs in situations where only initial stages of L2 acquisition are achieved. In these situations, continued development is prevented either by Bickerton's restricted TL input or by a lack of what Schumann (1975) refers to as acculturation, the degree of social, psychological and physical distance from the TL. The results found in this study would suggest that the <u>S</u>s had been involved in English acquisition which reflected the processes of both pidginization and L2 acquisition -depidginization, but further work is needed regarding the relationship of these two processes.

Percentages of CUOC which were found to be stable for a <u>S</u> over time were used in this study to indicate relative degrees of acquisition of English linguistic elements and structures. Orders of difficulty of acquisition among features were based on these percentages, and these orders were then used to identify potential stages of acquisition for these features. However, the degree to which a particular feature was acquired by a learner at a particular level of over all proficiency did not indicate how quickly the feature was being acquired. Some features appeared to have been acquired relatively rapidly as indicated by considerable differences in percentages of CUOC among <u>Ss</u> commensurate with the OGEP. Other features had relatively similar percentages across <u>Ss</u> regardless of OGEP indicating that all <u>Ss</u> had acquired some mastery of these features, but that complete acquisition occurred after a relatively slow process. Further research is needed to examine the relative rates of acquisition of TL features.

The discourse analysis of this study made use of discourse categories at three levels of analysis. These were found to adequately categorize the utterances made by the $\underline{S}s$ and \underline{I} in the discussions conducted for this study. Of interest is the extent to which these discourse categories could be applied to other language learners in other communicational situations. Should they be found applicable with or without modifications, their use in subsequent research would help increase our understanding of how L2 learners strive to make use of their TL skills.

Communicational strategies were inferred from the <u>Ss'</u> uses of the discourse categories. The question remains, however, whether the discourse results were reflective of general communicational strategies in English or whether they were affected by the topics under discussion, the situations under which the discussions took place or the type of interaction each <u>S</u> developed with <u>I</u>. To have controlled for all of these possibilities was beyond the scope of this study, but further examination, taking these factors into account, would serve to verify the results of this study and at the same time elucidate more clearly the nature of the strategies L2 learners use to communicate in the TL. No doubt, in the process, additional strategies would be identified which went unnoticed in the analysis of this study.

Further discourse analyses of the type done for this study may also provide insight into the relation between communicational competence and linguistic competence. Relationships were found between the <u>Ss'</u> uses of various discourse categories and their general English language proficiency as measured by linguistic aspects of L2 proficiency. The question remains whether the correlation between linguistic and communicational proficiency is attributable to the nature of the L2 learners studied. Further study, perhaps applying the discourse-category method of analysis to productions by more formal or younger L2 learners, would clarify the relationship between linguistic and communicational competence.

Finally, the <u>S</u>s of this study were chosen specifically because of the informal nature of their exposure to English as L2 learners. For this reason, similar approaches to language learning were expected to be found among them. However, considerable variation was found in terms of their ideas about language learning, the communicational strategies they used and the approaches they had toward using standard forms of the language. Variation among language learners in learning a L2 has been reported in other research studies of L2 acquisition (see, for example, Genessee, 1979). Krashen (1978b) describes three distinct types of L2 learners with respect to the use of the monitor in functioning in the TL. Cohen and Robbins (1976) found important differences among three L2 learners of English with regard to the ways they felt they had learned English, the methods they used to correct themselves and their attitudes toward errors they made in written English. Seliger (1977) found differences among his subjects in

the ways they sought out opportunities to use the TL. These various findings suggest that much is to be learned about the L2 acquisition process by looking for basic differences among learners as well as by searching for commonalities in the acquisition process. Differences, for example, in the use of discourse strategies are only just beginning to be analyzed (see, for example, Cook, 1977; and Hatch, 1978), as are the perceptions of and acceptance of deviance from the standard TL form by the learner (see, for example, Schachter, et al., 1976; and Tucker & Sarofim, 1978). More work needs to be done in these areas of research.

II. Implications for ESL Instruction

It is difficult to speculate on what type of instructional L2 program, if any, would benefit the <u>S</u>s of this study. The limited evidence presented in the L2 acquisition literature would suggest that the <u>S</u>s' LLSs as used in communication situations would not be modified to much of an extent by formal English instruction (see Schumann, 1976).

However, the existence of differences among L2 learners in their approaches to L2 learning has implications for English as a second language (ESL) instruction. Two relatively successful English learners of this study, Angelo and Roberto, portray quite different profiles in their attempts to develop English communicational skills despite relatively similar backgrounds with respect to exposure and involvement in English learning situations. It is possible to speculate that the orientations of learners with less similar L2 experiences would differ even more in their appraoches to learning a L2.

The educational implication of these differences is that different instructional approaches would benefit diverse ESL learners in varying ways. This means on the one hand that an instructional method considered appropriate for one type of ESL adult learner might be inappropriate for a second type, and on the other hand that learners with different approaches to developing L2 skills would exploit a learning situation employing a particular instructional method in different ways. This would indicate that an eclectic approach to ESL instruction would be more effective than reliance on any single methodological approach.

In a different vein, an instructional approach which would complement variations among learners in their orientations to L2 learning is referred to by Knowles (1975) as Andragogy. Through this approach, the learner is given responsibility for setting his own educational objectives, for seeking out appropriate learning materials and opportunities, and for exploiting his individual learning strategies to achieve his goals. In such an approach, the instructor's role is that of guide and potential resource, as the learner develops his individual learning skills through his individual approach to learning and through his individual exposure to and association with the target subject. Knowles' approach could be adapted to an ESL instructional situation (see Nelson, 1979b) resulting in various and different instructional programs for the learners of a single adult ESL class.

III. Contributions to Original Knowledge

The inspiration for this study, including the selection of its subjects (\underline{Ss}) , the methods of data collection and the interpretations of its results came largely from the literature on adult second language (L2) learning as has been documented throughout the text. Nevertheless, there are aspects of this study which, as far as the author is aware, are contributions to original knowledge on L2 acquisition.

The nature of the <u>Ss</u> studied in this investigation are distinct from those of other investigations. Young L2 learners have been studied in groups and individually, in formal learning situations and in more natural language learning situations. Studies of adult L2 learning, for the most part, had been limited to cross-sectional examinations of learners in formal language learning situations. The adult <u>Ss</u> of this study, by contrast, had not had formal language instruction and were followed as individual learners. It is believed, therefore, that by examining the English abilities of these <u>Ss</u>, insight was gained of the possible extension and/or modification of current acquisition theory, as applied to individual learners, to adult L2 learners and to learners who have not been directly instructed. The <u>S</u>s of this study were unique in a second way. Unlike the subjects in studies reported in the literature, it is believed that the <u>S</u>s of this study were not in the process of improving their English skills but were thought to have reached stable levels of language proficiency. Various analyses substantiated this belief. It was found that the <u>S</u>s' English performance was characterized by the consistent production of English utterances containing specific non-standard features. The nature of these non-standard, regularly produced features provided evidence of learner language systems (LLSs) used by these learners, in line with findings from similar studies. However, since the language skills of the <u>S</u>s had stabilized, their LLSs were found to be consistent over time. Thus, findings from data collected on the <u>S</u>s' productions at a later date could be added to those from previous data, expanding our understanding of their LLSs as our data base increased. This facilitated comparisons between LLSs of individual L2 learners at various proficiency levels.

The linguistic analysis used in this study was based on a method frequently employed in acquisition studies of this kind. This is to evaluate the degree of acquisition of a feature by computing the percentage of incidences in which the feature is correctly used for contexts where a native speaker would be obliged to use the feature. However, several modifications of this method were developed for this study.

First, not only were morphemes and negative structures analyzed in this way, as had been done in many such studies, but the use of prepositions and pronouns were analyzed using this method as well.

Second, a common procedure for analyzing relative acquisition of features by L2 learners is to assign a percentage at which a feature is considered to be acquired, usually 85% or 90%. Then the relative difficulty of acquiring one feature or another is determined by the number of learners who have achieved the assigned percentage. Such a method cannot be used to analyze the acquisition of features which learners might use but which no learner has completely acquired. For this study, a modification of this method was devised which established categories of partial acquisition based on the percentage of correct use of the feature in obligatory contexts. When percentages for features for the <u>S</u>s were so categorized, insight was gained of how these features were being acquired and of potential stages of acquisition.

Third, the usual method of collecting samples of speech across learners for analysis is to use a standardized production test. For this study, a spontaneous conversational format was used with common but openended topics discussed. Therefore, the frequency with which specific features were used was not controlled for. For this reason, a method was devised to assess how consistently a \underline{S} used these features and how representative of the S's speech the data sample was.

Fourth, analyses were made of the frequencies with which features were actually used by the <u>S</u>s whether in obligatory contexts or not. These frequencies of use provided further insight into the way certain features were acquired.

The discourse analysis used in this study was designed to categorize the utterances of conversational exchanges between the <u>S</u>s and an interviewer in order to analyze and compare the <u>S</u>s' communicational skills and proclivities. For this purpose, each utterance of these on-going discussions was evaluated in three ways using three sets of discourse categories devised for the study. The relative uses each <u>S</u> made of these various categories provided quantifiable evidence of the <u>S</u>s' communicational strategies and offered evidence of their approaches for developing English proficiency as well. It is believed that this original method of analysis provided valid insight into various aspects of the <u>S</u>s' communicative competence.

A single research study cannot presume to present definitive evidence on the nature of L2 acquisition beyond a limited extent. Hopefully, each study, while attempting to broaden our knowledge of L2 learning, offers insight into new aspects of the process and either substantiates or disputes ideas previously gleaned. It is not a modest hope that the results of this study offer some new understanding of the ways adults acquire L2 proficiency and that the findings and interpretations presented here can be integrated with those of other studies seeking to understand how L2s are learned. Moreover, it is hoped that the methods of analysis and data collection used in this study will be of interest to future researchers.

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Appendix A

The Janitors' Listening Test

In this test, the subjects listened while the interviewer read some fifty sentences. The sentences were read twice at normal speed. For each group of sentences, the subjects were asked to identify specific aspects of the sentences on their answer sheets. These aspects included: time (sentences 1 to 15), type of content by answering what question word (sentences 16 to 25), the nature of the statement with regard to whether it made a statement, asked a question or gave a command (sentences 26 to 34), whether the sentences were concerned with singular, plural or <u>none</u> ideas (<u>none</u> means sentences with negatives) (sentences 35 to 42), and whether the content of the sentence described a situation that was happy, busy, or dirty (sentences 43 to 50). Each item also provided the subjects with the option of answering with a question mark meaning they didn't know the answer or they didn't think a suitable choice was given to answer.

The test was scored objectively, each item being either correct or incorrect. For those subjects who could not read, efforts were made to help them memorize the possible answers of each section of the test by giving four examples of each type of question orally in a group before the subjects answered the actual items individually.

The purpose of the test was to assess the subjects' ability to understand certain grammatical concepts in general terms through listening. Test scores ranged from 12 to 43 out of a possible 50 when given to approximately 30 janitors at McGill.

The Janitors' Listening Test

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I.	Tim	e: Now Before now After Now ?							
	1.	He's cleaning the room now.							
	2.	He didn't speak at the meeting last week.							
	3.	For next week, read lesson number 3.							
	4.	He fixed the coffee machine in the cafeteria.							
	5.	I've done that already.							
	6.	I'll change the light bulb when I have time.							
	7.	Will you come in to see me after work?							
	8.	I didn't see him after work.							
	9.	He's working in the Education Building.							
	10.	I don't know where he is.							
	11.	Have you had your coffee break?							
	12.	What did you have for lunch?							
	13.	Where shall I put it when I'm finished with it?							
	14.	Where's he going with all that paper?							
	15.	What're they going to do with the broken tables?							
II.	Ques	tion words:WhereWhenHow?							
	16.	I start work at 7:30 in the morning and I'm finished at 4:30.							
	17.	The garbage containers are in the closet on the second floor.							
	18.	It's easy to clean that if you have the right detergent.							
	19.	Use detergent soap.							
	20.	Go downstairs to the second floor.							
	21.	I'll do it after I finish waxing the floor.							
	22.	I haven't seen him, but you might find him in room 246.							
	23.	The meeting's at 2:00.							
	24.	I don't know him very well, but he seems like a good worker.							
	25.	He usually comes in about now, but I haven't seen him today.							

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III.	Sentence	type:	A question	A command	A statement
			?		

- 26. Do you understand?
- 27. How long have you worked here?
- 28. It won't take very long to finish this.
- 29. Help me change this light bulb, please.
- 30. Clean that room first, will you? There's a class in there soon.
- 31. Order more brushes, we'll need them.
- 32. Have you seen the porter?
- 33. Take all the chairs out of here and put them in the next room.
- 34. It's nearly time to wax the floors again.

IV. Singular-plural: None One Many ?

- 35. There's a book on the table.
- 36. There aren't any cigarette machines in here.
- 37. So far this year, we haven't had any snow.
- 38. There are fifteen of us here now.
- 39. The mops are all downstairs.
- 40. There's no toilet paper in the washroom.
- 41. The vacuum cleaner is in the closet.
- 42. We need some more fire extinguishers.

V. Sentence interpretation: Happy Busy Dirty ?

- 43. I have a lot of work to do today and when I'm finished, I have to go to English class.
- 44. The tables in the cafeteria are covered with paper and empty cups.
- 45. Don't talk to me. I have too much to do.
- 46. His wife just had a baby boy.
- 47. I want to go home and take a bath.
- 48. I enjoy watching hockey games. My favorite team is the Canadians and they are winning almost all of their games this year.
- 49. Your teacher has a lot of classes to prepare for, a lot of papers to correct and a family to take care of.

50. It's not easy to rearn a foreign language.

The Janitors' Listening Test Sample Answer Sheet*

Name:

Whe	n did these	sentences happ	pen?			
1.	NOW	BEFORE	NOW	AFTER	NOW	?
2.	NOW	BEFORE	NOW	AFTER	NOW	?
3.	NOW	BEFORE	NOW	AFTER	NOW	?
4.	NOW	BEFORE	NOW	AFTER	NOW	?
5.	NOW	BEFORE	NOW	AFTER	NOW	?
6.	NOW	BEFORE	NOW	AFTER	NOW	?
7.	NOW	BEFORE	NOW	AFTER	NOW	?
8.	NOW	BEFORE	NOW	AFTER	NOW	?
9.	NOW	BEFORE	NOW	AFTER	NOW	?
10.	NOW	BEFORE	NOW	AFTER	NOW	?
11.	NOW	BEFORE	NOW	AFTER	NOW	?
12.	NOW	BEFORE	NOW	AFTER	NOW	?
13.	NOW	BEFORE	NOW	AFTER	NOW	?
14.	NOW	BEFORE	NOW	AFTER	NOW	?
15.	NOW	BEFORE	NOW	AFTER	NOW	?

I.

II. What question word to these sentences answer?

16.	WHERE	WHEN	HOW	?
17.	WHERE	WHEN	HOW	?
18.	WHERE	WHEN	HOW	?
19.	WHERE	WHEN	HOW	?
20.	WHERE	WHEN	HOW	?

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21.	WHERE	WHEN	HOW	?
22.	WHERE	WHEN	HOW	;
23.	WHERE	WHEN	HOW	;
24.	WHERE	WHEN	HOW	;
25.	WHERE	WHEN	HOW	;

III. What kind of sentence is it?

26.	A QUESTION	A COMMAND	A STATEMENT	?
27.	A QUESTION	A COMMAND	A STATEMENT	?
28.	A QUESTION	A COMMAND	A STATEMENT	?
29.	A QUESTION	A COMMAND	A STATEMENT	?
30.	A QUESTION	A COMMAND	A STATEMENT	?
31.	A QUESTION	A COMMAND	A STATEMENT	?
32.	A QUESTION	A COMMAND	A STATEMENT	?
33.	A QUESTION	A COMMAND	A STATEMENT	?
34.	A QUESTION	A COMMAND	A STATEMENT	?

IV. How many things are these sentences about?

35.	NONE	ONE	MANY	?
36.	NONE	ONE	MANY	;
37.	NONE	ONE	MANY	<u> </u>
38.	NONE	ONE	MANY	?
39.	NONE	ONE	MANY	?
40.	NONE	ONE	MANY	?
41.	NONE	ONE	MANY	?
42.	NONE	ONE	MANY	?
V. Which word describes each of these sentences?

43.	HAPPY	BUSY	DIRTY	?
44.	НАРРҮ	BUSY	DIRTY	?
45.	HAPPY	BUSY	DIRTY	?
46.	НАРРҮ	BUSY	DIRTY	?
47.	НАРРУ	BUSY	DIRTY	?
48.	НАРРҮ	BUSY	DIRTY	?
49.	HAPPY	BUSY	DIRTY	?
50.	НАРРҮ	BUSY	DIRTY	?

*The answer sheets used with the subjects had spaces for examples with each section.

Appendix B

The Cloze Test

This test was administered to assess to what degree the subjects could follow a reading passage and fill in blanks deleted for certain function words rather than having every Nth word deleted. The context of the passage was topical for the subjects at the time they were taking the test. The passage was read once to the subjects and they discussed how they got to work during the snow storm. Then it was read a second time to familiarize them with the overall passage. Then they were given as much time as they needed to fill in the blanks.

MARIO AND THE STORM

One day last week there was a big storm. There was a lot of snow. There was more than _____ foot of snow. Mario did not drive his car _____ work because of the snow. He took the bus to work. But _____ had to wait a long time for the bus to come. When ____ bus came, there were too many people on _____. Mario had to wait for the next bus. Finally he got

_____ the bus but it moved away very slowly because of the snow _____ the cars on the road.

At one place, the ______ stopped and didn't move for a long time. Mario knew that ______ would be late for work. He looked at ______ watch again and again. The bus didn't move. Finally ______ bus began to move. It passed an accident. A _____ had run into a light pole.

Later Mario got off the bus and _____ on the Metro. Soon he was downtown. He walked _____ the metro to McGill through the snow. When he finally got _____ work, he was two hours late. He hoped that _____ supervisor wasn't angry because he was late. But _____ he finally got to work, his supervisor wasn't there. The _____ got to McGill even later than Mario. So Mario _____ to work and tried not to think about how he would _____ home when he finished his work.

When this test was scored only for exact answer, out of a possible twenty points, one subject got 17 and all of the others were below seven. Therefore, the following grading scale was developed: Correct answer -4 points; correct response for the content but more than one word -3 points; correct part of speech, but the wrong word - 2 points; a logical answer but incorrect from a grammatical standpoint - 1 point; a logical answer if one is repeating the idea of a word with a pronoun -1 point; any other answers - 0 points. The justification for part scores was that those responses which are listed above as receiving partial credit reflected some comprehension of the passage and perhaps reflected the way the subjects would speak though they did not reflect standard English form.

Appendix C

Job Description Test

On this test, the subjects were asked to describe their jobs to a native English speaking listener. Specific questions about their jobs were put on individual cards along with suggestions of the information each question requested the janitors to give about their jobs. They were allowed to read the question and information cues and to ask a third person to explain anything they didn't understand. Then tney spoke to the listener. The listener was allowed only to state whether or not he understood. He could not ask specific questions about what the subject told him. When the required information was communicated, the listener indicated for the subject to go to the next card. These exchanges were recorded and later timed. Each subject had to communicate the same amount of information to the same questions.

Two types of scores were tabulated on the Job Description Test: 1) the communication scores were tabulated based on time, the amount of prompting each subject required and the number of repetitions the subject felt he had to make because the listener didn't understand. 2) the linguistic scores were computed from the number of errors made per total number of words, the number of errors made per number of clauses and the number of deletion errors made per number of clauses. Each of these scores were converted to standardized scores across the subjects and then combined in sets to provide a composite communicational score and a composite linguistic score.

Instructions given to the subjects and the questions as they appeared on the cards are on the following page. (For a method of scoring similar to that used in this test see Oller, 1973.)

Instructions for the Job Description Test.

Talk to John about your work on your job.

- 1. You have a new job.
- 2. John will have your job.
- 3. He doesn't know anything about your job.
- 4. Tell John about your job.

Specific Instructions on Cards:

- 1. Tell John when you work (days, hours).
- 2. Tell John where you work (building, floor).
- 3. Tell John what work you do (cleaning, checking).
- Tell John what things and machines you use (soap, mop, cleaner).
- 5. Tell John what breaks you have on your job (coffee, lunch).
- Tell John if you get a vacation or any holidays (summer, Christmas).
- 7. Tell John who you work with (porter, janitors).

Appendix D

Picture Description Test

Each subject was given three pictures and told to describe them, one at a time, to the listener until the listener could identify which picture the subject was describing. Each of the subject's pictures was one of a set of four pictures of similar scenes (see the following three pages for the three sets of pictures). The subject had to describe a picture in general for the listener to know from which set the picture came, and then in more detail for the listener to pick out the picture from the related ones in the set of four. In this test, the listener could respond to anything the subject originated in trying to identify which picture was being described. If communication broke down, the listener could then initiate communication on content previously not mentioned by the subject. The conversations were recorded and timed.

Scores for this test were computed in the same manner as those for the job description test (see Appendix C).

(For similar tests referred to in the literature, see Taylor & Gardner, 1970; and Upshur, 1973).







Appendix E

Picture Identification Listening Comprehension Test

The subjects were shown each set of pictures that were used in the Picture Description Test (see Appendix D) individually and listened to sentences each of which described one of the four pictures of the set. They were asked to identify the picture which the sentence described. There were five sentences for each picture set. The test was scored in the following manner:

- Correct identification on the second attempt without hearing the sentence a second time, or

- Correct identification on the second attempt after the second hearing......2 points
- Correct identification on either the third hearing or the third attempt.....l point

Questions on the picture-set portraying the office scene:

1. There is one chair in front of the desk.

2. The clock is behind the person at the desk.

3. The door and the clock are on the same wall.

4. There are two pictures between the door and the plant.

5. The man who is standing is facing the door.

Questions on the picture-set portraying the traffic scene:

- 1. The car hit the back of the truck.
- 2. There is a man with a large, black hat.
- 3. Cars are only parked on the left side of the street.

4. There are three boys watching the accident.

5. There is something in the upstairs windows of the house. Questions on the picture-set portraying the room being cleaned:

1. The broom is lying on the floor.

2. There are three pictures on the wall, at different heights.

3. The man who is mopping the floor is facing the two machines.

4. The curtains on both sides of the window are straight.

5. The noticeboard and the flag are on the right side of the picture.

Appendix F

Elicited Imitation Exercise for Negative Structures

The Ss heard the I make statements about himself. Their task was to communicate whether the statements also applied to them. If the statement did apply to them, they could respond with utterances such as; So do I, I am too, I do to, etc. If the statement did not apply to them, they were asked to repeat the idea of the I transformed to the negative form.

Responses of agreement were not analyzed. Negative responses were scored correct or not correct and analyzed according to form. They were then compared with negative statements the Ss made in the discussions. In this exercise, the Ss did not hear any negative utterances from I, nor were they corrected for non-standard negative forms. They were, however, asked to repeat if their response wasn't clear. If their response was inappropriate for the I's cue statement, I repeated his statement.

Cue sentences were mixed for tense and do-insertion versus verb-to-Be negatives, but were given in semantically related clusters to help the Ss with listening comprehension requirements of the exercise.

The cue sentences were:

1.	I'm a man.	14.	My	mother	is	0]	.d.
2.	I work at McGill.	15.	My	father	is	a	far
з.	I speak English.	16.	My	son goe	es 1	to	sch

- 4. I speak Arabic.
- 5. I am married.
- 6. I live in Montreal.
- 7. I live in N.D.G.
- 8. I have five children.
- 9. I am American.
- 10. I was born in Canada.
- 11. I went to school here.
- 12. I have a dog.
- 13. I have five sisters.

- mer.
- ool.
- 17. My son is very smart.
- 18. My son speaks Spanish.
- 19. My daughter is married.
- 20. My daughter has five children.
- 21. My daughter lives in New York.
- 22. My daughter went to Europe last year.
- My garden is very small. 23.
- 24. My garden gets very little sun shine.
- 25. I am growing tomatoes.
- 26. I am growing potatoes.

I am growing onions.
 I like Italian food.
 I was in Cairo last year.
 I like Chinese food.
 Last year we bought a new car.
 I like Indian food.
 Last year I took an English class.
 I like to watch television.
 Last year I took a French class.
 I like to go to the movies.

Appendix G

Elicited Imitation Exercise for Interrogative Structures

The $\underline{S}s$ were asked a series of questions, first about themselves and then about other members of their families and their neighbors. They were asked to answer the questions and where necessary discuss the answers. Then they were asked to try to repeat the question they had heard. When all of the questions had been answered and repeated, the list of questions was repeated and the $\underline{S}s$ was asked to repeat the question without answering first. The first fifteen questions were scored for each \underline{S} ; one score obtained from the delayed question-repetition, and one score from the immediate question-repetition. The scores were computed by analyzing the $\underline{S}s'$ productions of specific obligatory features in these sentences. These features, 34 in all, are underlined where they were evaluated in the fifteen sentences:

- 1. Are you listening? $\frac{1}{2}$
- 2. $\frac{\text{Do}}{3}$ you understand?
- 3. $\frac{Do}{4}$ you think this is easy? $\frac{1}{5}$
- 4. Where do you work? $\frac{1}{6}$ $\frac{7}{7}$
- 5. <u>When do you usually get home from work?</u> $\frac{10}{10}$ 11
- 6. What are you doing now? 12 13
- 7. Where are you going when you leave here? 14 15 16
- 8. $\frac{\text{Did}}{17}$ you <u>come</u> here last week?
- 9. <u>Did you understand</u> me <u>when you</u> <u>were</u> here last week? 19 <u>20</u> <u>21</u>

- 10. What time did you come here today? $\frac{10}{22}$ $\frac{10}{23}$
- 11. When did you come to work today? $\frac{1}{25}$
- 12. <u>How long have you worked here?</u> $\frac{12}{26}$ $\frac{12}{27}$
- 13. How long <u>have you lived</u> in Montreal? $\frac{13 \cdot 100}{28}$
- 14. <u>Have you finished</u> you work in your garden? 30 31 32
- 15. <u>Have you ever been</u> to Man and His World? 33 34

Each of the features numbered in the questions above were scored on a correct/not correct basis. However, some were evaluated for form, and others for word order. For example, in sentence #1, the form of the word <u>are</u> and the morpheme <u>ing</u> were sought. <u>You are listening</u>? would be scored as correct. <u>Are you Listen</u>? would be scored correct for <u>are</u>, not correct for <u>ing</u>. In sentence # 9, <u>Did you understand</u> was scored for word order, not for form. <u>You did understand</u>? would be scored as incorrect, but <u>Do you understand</u>? would be scored as correct because of the correct word order. In this way, various aspects of question formation were individually tested. The features scored for form include 1,2,3,4, 6,8,9,12,13,14,15,17,18,21,22,24,26,27,29, and 31. The others were scored for word order. (For reference on elicited-imitation techniques of data collection, see, for example, Hamayan & Tucker, 1979.)

Appendix H

Sociolinguistic Questionnaires

Two questionnaires were administered to the <u>S</u>s for collecting background data.

- A preliminary questionnaire was given to some thirty McGill janitors for preliminary screening, and general information. This questionnaire was administered in English to the janitors in groups. They filled out the questionnaires themselves and were encouraged to seek help from their peers and English speaking helpers while they were answering the questions.
- 2. The second questionnaire was conducted in Italian with each S speaking privately to a native Italian speaking interviewer. No reading or writing was required of the Subjects on this questionnaire. For the most part, the questions on this questionnaire were open ended. An S could respond with as little or as much as he wanted, and the Italian Interviewer could probe for more explanation if she felt the Ss' responses to be incomplete. This questionnaire appears to be quite long, but several of the questions depend on positive responses to previous questions. When the previous questions were answered negatively, the follow up questions were not asked. The questions were scored as objectively as the Italian interviewer was able to evaluate the Ss' responses, using previously established and common criteria for all 4 Ss. The questionnaire was originally constructed in English as it appears below. It was translated into Italian for administration to the Ss.

PRELIMINARY QUESTIONNAIRE

I.	ersonal Background: • Name:	
	Age: 3. Where were you born:/	
	. What is your native language?	
	. What language do you speak most often outside of your work?	
	What other languages do you speak?	
	How many years have you lived in Montreal?	
	 How would you describe the neighborhood or community that you live in? (Choose one of the following answers) Mostly French speaking Mostly English speaking Most people speak one language which is neither French nor English 	
•	Many languages are commonly spoken	
	Does your wife speak English?yesno	
	D. Do your children speak English?yesno If yes, how well do they speak English? very wellwellfairpoorly Do your children go to English schools?yesno	
	L. How many years of school have you attended?	
	2. Do you have a secondary school diploma?yesne	
	3. Have you had any Education in English?yesno	
	Have you taken any English classes before?yesno	
	5. How many years have you worked for McGill University?	
	Before you came to McGill, did you work anywhere else in Montreal?	
	yesne If yes, where? How many years did you work there?	
II.	of English:	
	How often do you use English in the following situations?	
	at home	
	at work	
	in neighborhood stores	
	the stands deputers	

	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
WITH FRIENDS				
watching television				
reading newspapers and magazines				
with strangess				
at church				
at the movies				
When you go to the doc- tor or to hospital	- 			

2. How often do you use English in the following situations?

3. Why do you want to improve your English? (Choose one of the following) _____ To help me in my work.

To help me both in my work and outside of my work.

4. How often do you sae the following skills in English in your work?

	OFTEN	SOLETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
speaking				
listening				
writing			•	
reading				

5. How often do you use the following skills in English outside of work?

•	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
speaking				
listening				
writing				
reading				

6. List the three people whom you speak English with the most often. (friend, fellow worker, teacher, relative, etc) name relationship



3.

O III. Ability in English

1. Rate yourself in each of these skills in English.

	VERY GOOD	GOOD	POOR	NO ABILITY
3peaking				
listening				
Writingeoegeeeeee				
needing			<u></u>	
Lawrrugecessesses				

2. Rate yourself in each of these skills in French.

	VERY GOOD	GOOD	POOR	NO ABILITY
speaking				
listoning				
writingecessosses				
reading		·		
				a transmission and the second s

3. Which of these is the most difficult for you in English?

Pronunciation		Granmar	Vocabulary
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4. Which of these is the easiest in English?

	Pronunciation	Grammar	Vocabulary
5.	When you use English, can When you use English, do y into another language?	you think in English? You translate in your m yesne	yesno
6.	When someone speaks to you I understand easily wit Sometimes I understand, I don't understand even I usually don't underst I never understand.	a in English, which stath th no problems. , sometimes I don't und ything, but I usually and.	tement below is trun? lerstand. get the idea.
7.	When you speak English, wh I can say any idea in H I have to think about h say what I want to say, Sometimes I can say what I usually cannot say what I never try to speak En	ich statement below is inglish with no problem now to say my ideas, bu it I want to say and so nat I want to say.	a true? 150 It I can usually I cannoto

Oral Questionnaire (Conducted in Italian with the Subjects)

- I. Subject & Children
- Do you ever talk to your children in English? If yes, how often?
 - a) most of the timeb) half of the timec) sometimesd) rarely

(These categories are used throughout the questionnaire when positive answers are given to the yes-no questions. They are not repeated each time, however, in this presentation)

- Do your children ever talk to you in English? If yes, how often?
- 3. Who usually starts a conversation in English? You or your children?
- 4. How do you determine which language to use with your children?
- 5. How do your children determine which language to use with you?
- 6. What determines whether or not your children use English with you?
- 7. What determines whether or not you use English with your children?
- 8. What kind of subjects do your children discuss with you in English?
 Do they discuss this with you frequently?
 Do you usually respond in English or Italian?
- What kind of subjects do you discuss with your children in Italian?
 Where you would not use English.
- 10. What kind of subjects do your children discuss with you in Italian?
- 11. When you discuss things in Italian with your children, do you ever use English words? If yes, how often?
- 12. At a PTA meeting do you ever speak English with your children's teacher? Principal?
- 13. If either the teacher or principal speaks Italian do you speak to them in Italian or English?
- 14. What determines whether you speak Italian or English to the teachers or principal?

- II. Subject & Wife
- 15. Do you ever talk to your wife in English? If yes, how often?
- 16. Does your wife ever talk to you in English? If yes, how often?
- 17. When you speak in Italian with your wife, do you ever use English words? If yes, how often?
- 18. Under what situations do you speak English with your wife?
- 19. What kind of subjects do you discuss with your wife in English?
- III. Subject & Relatives
- 20. Do you ever speak English with any of your other relatives? If yes, how often?
- 21. Do any of your relatives ever speak English with you? If yes, how many of them speak English with you? Who are they? Also if yes, how often do you speak with them in English?
- 22. Do you have any relatives outside Quebec in North America? If yes: Do you visit them often? Do they visit you often? Do you speak with them in English or Italian? Do they speak English more regularly than you do in their daily lives or less regularly than you do?
- 23. What subjects do you discuss with your relatives in English?
- 24. What subjects which you discuss with your relatives are not conducted in English?
- 25. When your relatives speak Italian, is their language affected by English? If yes, how much? a little, some, a lot; words and/or pronunciation.
- 26. Are there any specific circumstances in which you use English with your relatives? eg: subjects and/or specific relatives.
- IV. Subject & Friends
- 27. Do you ever speak English with your friends? If yes, how often?
- 28. Under what circumstances do you speak English with a friend? With what friends? About what subjects?

- 29. When you speak in Italian with your friends, do you ever use English words? If yes, how often?
- 30. Do your friends speak English to you? If yes, when and how often?
- V. Subject & neighbors
- 31. Tell me about your neighbors. Are they mostly Italians? Do you have any French neighbors? Do you speak to them? Do you have any English speaking neighbors? Do you speak to them? If yes, how often?
- 32. Do you ever speak to your Italian neighbors in English? If yes, how often?
- 33. Do your Italian neighbors ever speak to you in English? If yes, how often?
- 34. If English is ever spoken, what would be some of the subjects you discuss in English?
- 35. Do you ever speak to your French neighbors in English? If yes, as often as you speak to them in French? Also, if yes, do they ever speak to you in French?
- 36. Do you ever speak in French with your English neighbors? If yes, as often as you speak to them in English? Also, if yes, do they ever speak to you in French?
- VI. Subject & People he works with
- 37. Do you ever speak English with the people you work with? If yes, how often?
- 38. Who do you speak English with most regularly? How often do you meet with this person?
- 39. When you address someone in English, do they respond to you in English, French, or Italian most frequently?
- 40. Under what circumstances do you use English with the people you work with? How regular are these circumstances? Under what circumstances do you use Italian with the people you work with? How regular are these circumstances?
- 41. Who is your supervisor? What language does he use when he talks to you? What percentage of the time does he use English with you?

VII. Subject & the Community

42. Do you ever speak English when you go to a neighborhood store? If yes, how often?

- 43. When you are addressed in Italian, do you respond in Italian or in English?
- 44. Do you ever speak English when you go to the stores downtown? If yes, how often?
- 45. When you are addressed in the stores by a salesperson, what language do they use? When it is French, what language do you respond in? When English, what language do you respond in?
- 46. When you go to a restaurant, what language do you use to order in?
- 47. Do you ever use English when calling up for information about something on the phone, or do you use French?
- 48. In public places when you are with your family, what language do you use with your family?
- 49. Do you ever use English in public with people with whom you would speak to in Italian in private?
- 50. Do you ever speak English with strangers? If yes, how often?
- 51. When strangers ask you for directions, information or some related situation, what language do they use? What language do you respond in?
- 52. Do you ever speak English with your doctor? If yes, how often?
- 53. Do you ever speak English when you go to a hospital? If yes, how often?
- 54. When someone on the hospital staff addresses you, what language do they usually use? Do they ever use English? If yes, how often?
- 55. Do you ever watch English television? If yes, how often? Do you understand what you watch?
- 56. Do you ever watch French television? If yes, how often? Do you understand what you watch?
- 57. Do you ever listen to English radio stations? If yes, when? How often?
- 58. Do you ever listen to French radio stations? If yes, when? How often?
- 59. Do you ever read English newspapers and magazines? If yes, how often?
- 60. Do you ever write in English? If yes, when, why, and how often?
- 61. Outside of newspapers and magazines, do you read any books or other material? In what languages? How often?

- 62. When you travel, do you ever use English? How often? Where do you go? If you are in an English speaking situation when you travel, do you do the talking or does another member of your family do the talking in English?
- 63. Do you participate in sports or hobbies with others which require oral or written communication in English? If yes, what? How do you communicate?
- VIII. Subject & Self-expression
- 64. Are there any feelings, such as anger, happiness, sadness, for which you regularly use English to express yourself?
- 65. Are there any feelings which you believe you would only use Italian to express yourself in?
- 66. Do you ever enjoy English music? Do you enjoy watching sports in English?
- 67. Are there any situations in which you feel you can express yourself better in English than in Italian?
- 68. Think back to five years ago. Do you use more English now than you did then, or less? Why?

Appendix I

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Results of the <u>S</u>s' Preposition Computations at Each Data Collection Period (%s represent CUOC / Numbers represent Obligatory Contexts)

	GIOVANNI				STEFANO	
June 1st	June 2nd	Oct.	Prep.	June 1st	June 2nd	Oct.
22%/9	30%/10	37%/27	To(Inf)	12%/48	9%/23	33%/46
29%/21	18%/11	13%/23	To (Loc)	34%/32	31%/32	33%/12
65%/26	- /3	- /6	To(Oth)	20%/10	- /5	56%/27
ı						
67%/21	27%/22	61%/56	In(Loc)	68%/38	95%/19	50%/48
31%/36	12%/27	38%/16	In(Oth)	78%/72	70%/10	90%/21
- /2	- /2	29%/24	On (Loc)	- /8	- /3	45%/20
9%/11	- /7	- /5	On (Oth)	- /8	- /3	43%/14
- /2	- /7	- /3	For(Pr)	- /9	- /7	- /3
- /0	10%/10	- /6	For(Oth)	50%/12	93%/15	60%/10
- /8	- /4	60%/10	With	32%/22	- /4	- /3
0%/13	15%/20	3%/35	At	5%/20	- /5	3%/34
- /8	- /7	30%/19	From	68%/22	- /7	53%/19
25%/12	0%/11	1%/32	Of	1%/29	10%/10	1%/28

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Appendix I continued

	ROBERTO				ANGELO	
June 1st	June 2nd	Oct.	Prep.	June 1st	June 2nd	· Oct.
85%/74	88%/57	68%/66	To(Inf)	64%/55	71%/41	64%/56
64%/11	43%/10	36%/25	To (Loc)	57%/14	53%/17	58%/40
81%/27	75%/20	86%/21	To (Oth)	40%/10	- /3	83%/12
86%/30	71%/48	95%/20	In (Loc)	69%/29	73%/26	81%/47
98%/53	85%/13	94%/18	In(Oth)	68%/67	80%/10	57%/14
- /2	- /1	81%/26	On (Loc)	- /9	73%/15	77%/26
60%/15	- /4	58%/12	On (Oth)	- /5	- /5	70%/37
- /5	- /9	100%/10	For(Pr)	- /7	- /8	100%/12
100%/16	62%/13	83%/12	For (Oth)	71%/14	83%/12	90%/10
76%/21	85%/13	83%/24	With	100%/20	82%/11	97%/31
31%/13	50%/10	49%/39	At	43%/14	44%/18	28%/39
- /9	- /8	- /9	From	88%/24	88%/17	89%/37
100%/11	88%/17	94%/17	About	94%/18	71%/14	100%/13
30%/20	20%/10	25%/10	Of	27%/18	50%/10	35%/11

Appendix J

Results of the <u>Ss'</u> Pronoun Computations at Each Data Collection Period (%s represent CUOC / Numbers represent Obligatory Contexts)

	GIUVANNI				STEFANO	
June 1st	June 2nd	Oct.	Pronoun	June 1st	June 2nd	Oct.
43%/106	35%/100	44%/77	I	54%/238	66%/138	66%/105
100%/22	100%/8	93%/21	Me	100%/16	95%/19	82%/11
89%/19	95%/22	92%/12	Му	95%/22	97%/29	100%/10
- /3	- /2	- /8	We	- /4	10%/10	- /6
68%/22	58%/19	92%/49	You (S)	81%/43	75%/24	73%/37
- /3	- /3	- /3	You (0)	- /8	- /3	- /5
- /0	- /2	- /3	Your	- /0	- /4	- /2
11%/51	5%/21	46%/36	Не	50%/24	73%/11	36%/88
- /4	- /0	- /1	Him	- /2	- /3	- /5
- /0	- /2	- /0	His	- /0	- /6	- /9
0%/11	11%/9	- /5	They	26%/46	20%/10	9%/11
- /3	0%/11	11%/9	She	11%/9	- /4	- /4
74%/27	28%/18	83%/24	It(S)	11%/63	10%/21	4%/28
- /0	- /1	- /9	It(0)	73%/11	45%/11	80%/10

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Appendix J continued

	ROBERTO				ANGELO	
June 1st	June 2nd	Oct.	Pronoun	June 1st	June 2nd	Oct.
87%/287	94%/212	89%/171	I	91%/176	95%/115	96%/121
96%/28	80%/20	93%/14	Me	100%/20	100%/15	97%/14
100%/33	94%/52	100%/18	Му	100%/30	100%/39	100%/19
87%/74	90%/63	88%/76	You(S)	92%/60	97%/67	96%/85
100%/20	92%/13	100%/29	You (O)	80%/15	- /7	100%/10
- /1	24%/17	- /4	Your	- /5	69%/13	- /5
63%/27	48%/31	47%/100	Не	85%/13	86%/21	75%/53
- /2	73%/11	100%/10	Him	- /4	- /2	- /1
- /1	- /1	90%310	His	- /0	- /1	100%/11
47%/34	29%/24	44%/39	They	68%/25	82%/11	61%/28
66%/9	- /6	- /4	She	- /0	75%/12	71%/17
10%/71	20%/50	10%/84	It(S)	70%/50	62%/13	84%/45
31%/13	- /6	50%/10	It(0)	40%/10	- /7	- /0

Comparative results of pronoun production across Ss between corresponding <u>singular</u> and <u>plural</u> pronouns (rigures are %s)

Pronoun	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
I	41	60	90	94
We	38	20	63	91
He	20	42	50	78
They	8	22	41	67
Him	-*	50	77	100
Them		43	22	61

Comparative results of pronoun production across <u>Ss</u> between <u>masculine</u> and <u>feminine</u> pronouns (Figures are %s)

Pronoun	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
He	20	42	50	78
She	4	18	47	72
Him	-*	50	77	100
$\operatorname{Her}(0)$	_*	0	_*	86
His	_*	69	92	100
Her(P)	_*	0	33	47

* Contexts less than ten and not reported

Comparative results of pronoun errors across <u>Ss</u> for pronouns used as <u>subjects</u>.(Figures are #s of error type in OCs)

	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
Deletion Errors	33	48	39	18
Wrong Errors	31	17	5	9

Comparative results for pronoun errors across <u>Ss</u> for pronouns used as possessives. (Figures are %s of errors type in OCc)

	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
Deletion Errors	l	10	l	2
Wrong Errors	26	49	3 8	18

Appendix K

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Data from Morpheme Analysis

Figu: when A	res for Res veraged ac	sults ross Ss		Figures of Total	for Result Use Among	s Ss	Freque Ave.	ency c ï	of Use Cotal
Morph.	Rank O.	% CUOC	Morph.	Rank O.	% CUOC	# Cor/not	Rank (D. F	ank O.
The	1	76%	The ,	1	80%	204/51	1	The	1
In	2	69%	In	2	69%	278/126	6	In	7
Cop	3	59%	Сор	3	60%	124/83	2	Cop	2
On	4	53%	On	4	56%	77/61	9	On	9
Pl	5	51%	Pl	5	50%	58/59	5	Pl	4
A	6	44%	А	6	47%	53/61	4	A	6
IP	7	29%	IP	7	29%	45/111	3	IP	3
Ing	8	25%	Ing	8	25%	21/63	8	Ing	8
Aux	9	19%	Aux	9	20%	11/45	12	Aux	12
Hav	10	10%	Hav	10	10%	4/38	11	Hav	11
RP	11	9%	RP	11	9%	10/105	7	RP	5
3PS	12	0%	3PS	12	0%	0/55	10	3PS	10

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Appendix K continued

JUNE OCTOBER JUNE (Cont'd) OCTOBER (Cont'd) Total Ave. Ave. Total Ave. Total Ave. Total શ્વ ક્ર ፄ ક્ર CUOC CUOC MORPH CUOC CUOC CUOC R.O. R.O. CUOC MORPH CUOC CUOC R.O. R.O. The IPIn Ing Cop Aux On Hav P1 RP Α 3PS

Comparison of Morpheme data from the June and October conversations

1. Rank order correlation between % CUOC and Frequency of use f = .6783, 12 df

2. Rank order correlation between % CUOC among Ss total usage and average % CUOC across Ss Υ = 1.000

3. Rank order correlations between June and October results for average % CUOC across Ss Ψ = .9021

4. Rank order correlations between June and October results for total % CUOC among Ss Υ = .9231

Comparison of Morpheme results for each \underline{S} between NP Morphemes and VP Morphemes (\$s of CUOC Averages)

	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
NP Morphemes	36.8%	47.2%	72.2%	67.6%
VP Morphemes	11.3%	14.9%	25.3%	34.1%

Comparison of morpheme results for each <u>S</u> between unbound morphemes and bound morphemes. (Figures are %s of CUOC averaged across morphemes)

	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
Unbound Morphemes	48.0%	47.0%	75.5%	71.5%
Bound Morphemes	18.8%	17.8%	24.8%	29 •0%

Comparison of morpheme frequency for each <u>S</u> between NP morphemes and VP morphemes. (Figures represent average number of obligatory contexts for each morpheme group for each <u>S</u>)

	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
NP Morphemes	38.4	21.8	33.8	32.2
VP Morphemes	21.1	15.0	25.9	21.1

Comparison of morpheme frequency for each <u>S</u> between unbound morphemes and bound morphemes. (Figures represent averabe number of obligatory contexts foe each morpheme group for each <u>S</u>)

	Giovanni	Stefano	Roberto	Angelo
Unbound Morphemes	37.8	21.0	36.3	33.5
Bound Morphemes	24.4	21.8	28.2	21.8

Appendix L

Basic results from the Discourse Analysis for each <u>S</u> from June and October (Figures are indicated for each entry: June data above October Data)

ROLES Level of Analysis

		Ang.	Rob.	Ste.	Gio.
1.	Number of directing statements made by \underline{S}	127 163	135 154	132 115	105 77
2.	Number of responses <u>S</u> made to topics directed by \underline{I}	86 70	81 74	175 178	151 140
3.	Number of responses \underline{I} made to the <u>S</u> s' directed topics	32 35	33 30	17 24	15 7
4.	Percentage of the discussion directed by \underline{S} based on number of utterances	45% 56%	56% 60%	38% 35%	32% 28%
5.	Number of times the <u>S</u> directed the conversation	43 49	46 37	30 31	36 22
	PURPOSES Level of Analysis	:			
1.	Percentage of Ss' utterances that conveyed ideas or opinions	60% 63%	64% 66%	45% 53%	47% 49%
2.	Percentages of I's utterances that conveyed ideas of opinions with each \underline{S}	30% 30%	35% 42%	13% 25%	14% 29%
3.	Percentage of utterances of both \underline{I} and \underline{S} that conveyed ideas of opinions	48% 52%	55% 60%	36% 43%	34% 41%
4.	Percentage of the <u>S</u> 's utterances which neither requested nor conveyed information	34% 30%	30% 24%	49% 44%	468 448
5.	Percentage of <u>S</u> 's and <u>I</u> 's utterances which dealt with linguistic information off the topic of discussion or which communicated no information, declarative or interrogative	29% 29%	27६ 24६	44% 38%	45% 45%
6.	Number of short answers or agreements made by the \underline{S}	56 39	51 41	86 53	95 49
7.	Percentage of utterances of both \underline{I} and \underline{S} communicating ideas	43% 46%	47% 53%	33% 39%	31% 38%

	•				
		Ang.	Rob.	Ste.	Gio.
8.	Number of repetitions made by each \underline{S}	27 47	27 25	76 85	53 63
9.	Total number of utterances made by each \underline{S}	246 297	275 296	351 351	328 305
	FORM Level of Analysis				
1.	Percentage of utterances made by I which were declarative clauses	55% 42%	44% 47%	19% 30%	26% 30%
2.	Percentage of I's utterances which were either declarative or interrogative clauses	84% 77%	85% 81%	77% 73%	59% 68%
3.	Percentage of <u>S</u> 's utterances which were declarative clauses	79% 68%	73% 65%	72% 60%	39% 36%
4.	Percentage of <u>S</u> 's utterances which were declarative, interrogative or quotative clauses and commands	81% 74%	80% 73%	78% 64%	44% 46%
5.	Percentage of <u>S</u> 's utterances classified as word or phrase utterances	19% 26%	14% 27%	22% 36%	56% 54%
6.	Number of word or phrase utterances made by each \underline{S}	44 71	58 80	76 128	182 163
7.	Number of reduced questions used by the \underline{I} (with no Sub/verb inversion)	3 16	5 8	9 30	11 22
	General findings of intere	st			
1.	Number of utterances total of \underline{I} and \underline{S}	417 468	407 408	490 527	528 511
2.	Percentage of utterances made by \underline{I}	41% 37%	32% 27%	28% 33%	38% 40%
3.	Number of \underline{I} 's and \underline{S} 's utterances which communicated ideas without requests of utterances of agreement or breaks	180 216	190 215	162 206	165 193
4.	Percentage of utterances of <u>S</u> and <u>I</u> that communicated ideas	43% 46%	47% 53%	33% 39%	31% 38%
5.	Ratio of number of utterances communica- ting ideas to number of requests for information	3.0:1 4.6:1	4.0:1 8.0:1	2.1:1 2.9:1	3.0:1 4.1:1

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		Ang.	Rob.	Ste.	Gio.
6.	Percentage of utterances of <u>I</u> and <u>S</u>				
	which were A's, breaks, or requests	29%	27%	44%	45%
	for clarification	29%	24%	38%	45%
7.	Percentage of I's requests for information	28%	43%	18%	22%
	which were in response to S's statement	19%	29%	23%	9%
8.	Percentage of I's requests which asked for	1%	11%	0%	14%
	linguistic clarification	4%	98	10%	33%
9.	Percentage of S's production due to the	4%	4%	3%	15%
	role of breaking	11%	6%	4%	27%
10.	Percentage of I's production due to the	4%	8%	3%	26%
	role of breaking	12%	13%	8%	50%

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Appendix M

Negative Sentences about which the <u>Ss</u> were asked to make Grammaticality Judgments. (These sentences were taken from the <u>Ss'</u> productions. The errors reflect consistent errors made by some or all of the <u>Ss</u>.)

Do-insertion

- 1. You don have to help the old student like me.
- 2. When I was young, I didn't have a problem.
- 3. Because I don like it there.
- 4. I no exactly understand this word.
- 5. We no say, "I give" in Italian to mean "I say".
- 6. I not like so much French.
- 7. I don know how you call that.
- 8. You not pronounce that like this.
- 9. I no say what you say.
- 10. I not put trees in the front.
- 11. He don't speak good Italian.
- 12. She no go to school in Montreal.
- 13. He doesn't know what you mean.
- 14. He not go to school anymore.
- 15. In the family he don't speak good Italian.
- 16. It's at a place where people not speak English.
- 17. He no take care without me.
- 18. The house does not belong to him.
- 19. She not understand very well.
- 20. He don't study French any more.
- 21. My son <u>no speak</u> Spanish.
- 22. My daughter doesn't live in New York.
- 23. I think he no understand what you said.
- 24. My wife not like to play golf.
- 25. I no have a dog.
- 26. My son doesn't go to a French school.
- 27. My wife not cook Chinese food.
- 28. My neighbor don't have a very good garden.
Negation of the Verb to Be

- 1. They not supposed to pay.
- 2. I not interested in that.
- 3. Because that dialect of Italian isn't written.
- 4. My daughter no going to Italian school.
- 5. My neighbor not growing tomatoes.
- 6. My wife not at home.
- 7. I not able to help you.
- 8. They no in this building now.
- 9. I'm not sure this is correct.
- 10. The other students not coming today.
- 11. They not married.
- 12. He no goen to work at that place any more.
- 13. My children are not interested in learning French.
- 14. That's not in Montreal.
- 15. I no supposed to do that work.
- 16. I'm not happy today.
- 17. When I go to their house, they are not home.
- 18. I no gonna buy a car this year.

(These were presented as much as possible as the <u>S</u>s had said them but a few lexical changes were made to enable the <u>S</u>s to concentrate on the negation part of each sentence).

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