UNIVERSITY OF QUEBEC

TO SPEAK OR NOT TO SPEAK ENGLISH: ESL TEACHERS' USE OF ORAL ENGLISH, AND THEIR USAGE PERCEPTION (at the CSRN)

BY

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"Give a man a fish and you feed him for a day.

Show him how to fish and you feed him for life."

Confucius

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES vi

ABBREVIATION AND ACRONYM LIST vii

RÉSUMÉ viii

ABSTRACT ix

INTRODUCTION 1

CHAPTER I: RESEARCH PROBLEM 2

1.1 Importance and Impact of the English Language 2
1.2 Time Constraints and Teachers' Use of Time 4
1.3 The Input 5
1.4 Goals and Significance of the Study 6

CHAPTER II: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK 7

2.1 Second Language Learning and Teaching 7
2.1.1 Historical Background of SL Approaches 8
2.1.2 Learning an L1 Versus Learning an L2 9
2.1.3 Age as a Measure of Language Success 10
2.1.4 Affective and Cognitive Aspects of Second Language Acquisition 11
2.1.5 The Relationship between Instruction and Acquisition 13
2.2 What About the Classroom Environment ? 14
2.2.1 Adapting L2 from L1 Considerations 14
2.2.2 Classroom Regulation in the Modern Era 15
2.3 Cross-Linguistic Interference 15
2.3.1 Sources of L1 15
2.3.2 Factors Determining the Non-selection of L2 17
2.3.3 The Native/Non-Native Issue: Should Non-Native Teachers Feel Insecure? 17
2.3.4 Necessity of an Adequate Model 19
2.4 Synopsis and Hypotheses 21

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY 23

3.1 Research Types and Justification 23
3.2 The Population 24
3.3 Subjects 24
3.4 Methods and Data Collection Instruments 25
3.4.1 Audio-cassette Recordings 25
3.4.2 Material Used for the Recordings 25
3.4.3 Teacher Question 26

3.5 Procedure 26
3.6 Quantitative Data Analysis and Processing 27

CHAPTER IV: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS 29

4.1 Collected Data 29
4.1.1 Case # 1: Secondary 1 teacher 29
4.1.2 Case # 2: Secondary 2 teacher 29
4.1.3 Case # 3: Secondary 3 teacher 30
4.1.4 Case # 4: Secondary 4 teacher 30
4.1.5 Case # 5: Secondary 5 teacher 30
4.1.6 Perception of all the CSRN teachers 30
4.2 Method of Analysis 32
4.3 Results from the First Calculations 32
4.4 Results from the Second Set of Calculations 34
4.5 Analysis and Interpretation of the Results 37

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION 40

5.1 Summary of Theoretical Findings 40
5.2 Methodology, Generalizations, and Limitations 41
5.3 Questions 41
5.4 Practical Implications 42
5.5 Final Words 43

APPENDIX A : INTRODUCTION LETTER 44

APPENDIX B: RECORDING PERIODS 46

APPENDIX C: MEMO SENT TO TEACHERS 48

APPENDIX D: TAPE-RECORDER INSTRUCTIONS 49

APPENDIX E: INVITATION TO LUNCH SENT OUT TO THE 5 VOLUNTEER TEACHERS 50

APPENDIX F: MODEL OF CLASSIFICATION GRID FOR ENGLISH AND FRENCH WORDS 51

APPENDIX G: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS 52

BIBLIOGRAPHY 53

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Figure 4.1 Volunteers' Perception and Actual Use of English. 33
Table 4.1 Volunteers' Perception and Actual Use of English 33
Table 4.2 All of the Teachers' Perception 35
Figure 4.2 All of the Teachers' Perception 37

ABBREVIATION AND ACRONYM LIST

CSRN	Commission scolaire Rouyn-Noranda (Québec, Canada)
EFL	English as a foreign language
ESL	English as a second language
FL	Foreign language
L1	First language (mother tongue)
L2	Second language
MEQ	Ministère de l'éducation du Québec
NEST	Native English speaking teacher
SL	Second language
SLA	Second language acquisition
SPEAQ	Société pour la promotion de l'enseignement de l'anglais, langue seconde, au Québec

RÉSUMÉ

L'anglais étant considéré comme la langue internationale, sa maîtrise est nécessaire dans plusieurs contextes, d'autant plus que la province de Québec est entourée de voisins anglophones. Cependant, la recherche nous indique que le niveau d'habileté langagière des élèves québécois en anglais langue seconde (ALS) est insuffisant (Pratte, 1999). Certaines raisons pour cette faible performance sont possiblement attribuables à l'enseignant.

Le but de la présente recherche est de mieux comprendre la quantité d'anglais utilisée par les enseignants d'ALS de la Commission scolaire Rouyn-Noranda (CSRN) de différents niveaux et d'évaluer s'ils utilisent plus d'anglais qu'ils ne le croient. Dépendamment des résultats, être conscient de ces différences pourrait jouer un rôle dans leur enseignement, notamment en ce qui concerne la consolidation ou en ce qui concerne le changement (augmentation ou diminution) de l'utilisation de leur langue première et de leur langue seconde.

Les hypothèses suivantes sont présentées:

- Il n'y aura pas de différence significative entre la perception de l'utilisation de l'anglais oral par les enseignants et leur utilisation réelle.
- La perception du pourcentage d'anglais utilisé par les enseignants de la première à la cinquième secondaire augmentera à mesure que le niveau d'enseignement sera plus élevé.

La différence des moyennes de deux échantillons dépendants fut retenue pour la vérification de la première hypothèse. Plus précisément, la perception des volontaires et leur utilisation réelle furent calculées et soumises à un *test t* afin d'obtenir une différence de pourcentages pour chaque paire de données. Le but était d'objectiver si les enseignants utilisaient significativement plus d'anglais qu'ils le pensaient. La seconde étape constituait une analyse du coefficient de détermination. Le graphique d'une régression linéaire montrait la variation de la perception de l'utilisation de l'anglais de la première à la cinquième secondaire. L'objectif était de trouver si les enseignants croyaient qu'il y avait plus d'anglais utilisé de la première à la cinquième année du secondaire.

Les résultats montrent qu'il y a une différence significative entre la perception et la quantité d'anglais utilisée: en moyenne, les enseignants utilisent plus d'anglais qu'ils le croient. De plus, les enseignants pensent qu'il y a plus d'anglais utilisé à mesure que l'on monte de niveau d'enseignement. Cependant, ce n'est pas nécessairement vrai d'un niveau à l'autre.

ABSTRACT

As English is the chief international language, its mastery is necessary in many contexts, even more so in the province of Quebec since it is surrounded by English neighbours. However, research has shown that the proficiency level of English as a second language (ESL) Quebec students is inadequate (Pratte, 1999). Some of the reasons for this low achievement might be teacher related.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the quantity of English used by some Commission scolaire Rouyn-Noranda (CSRN) ESL teachers from different levels and to evaluate if their perception and actual usage are comparable. Depending on the results, being aware of these discrepancies might play a role in their teaching, notably on the consolidation or the changing (increase or decrease) of their first language (L1) and second language (L2) usage. Also, all of the CSRN teachers' perception will be verified in order to objective if they think that there is more English used at the higher teaching levels.

The following hypotheses are presented:

- There will be no significant difference between the perceptions of the teachers' use of oral English and their actual usage of the languages.
- The perception of the percentage of English used by the secondary 1 to 5 teachers will increase as the teaching level rises.

The difference in averages of two dependent samples was selected for the verification of the first hypothesis. More precisely, the volunteers' perception and actual usage were calculated, and a *t test* was completed to better understand the relationship between their usage perception and their actual usage. The second step consisted of a determination coefficient analysis. The graph of a linear regression presented the variation of English usage from secondary 1 to secondary 5. The objective here was to find if the teachers thought there was more English used at the higher teaching levels.

The results show that there is a significant difference between the perception and the quantity of English used: the teachers use more English than they think. Also, the teachers believe that there is generally more English used as the teaching level rises. Nonetheless, this is not necessarily true from one level to another.

INTRODUCTION

English is the chief international language. Mastery of this main means of communication allows people to be more efficient in the world-wide work force, helps many people interact in different places on the planet, and benefits the population which is increasingly stimulated by a growing number of media (Encarta, 2000; MEQ, 1997b; MEQ, 2000). However, in the province of Quebec, research has shown that ESL students'[1] proficiency level is known to be inadequate (Info-PPAALS, 1999). In fact, they are rated slightly below the *low-intermediate* level. Furthermore, according to the MEQ (Ministère de l'Éducation du Québec) secondary 5 graduating students speak little or no English (Pratte, 1999). There are many reasons for this low achievement, some of which are teacher related. The Minister of Education also acknowledges that, with some teachers, the language is "sometimes taught in French" (Pratte, 1999). At the CSRN the situation is comparable to the rest of the province. The use of English by ESL teachers at the secondary level varies considerably. It is known among teachers and students that some barely use English in their classrooms, while others exclusively speak English.

Most second language (SL) and Foreign language (FL) research has been based on students, even if student learning is led by the teacher (Papaefthymiou-Lytra, 1987). Subsequently, she believes that teacher-related research should be increased. We also strongly believe that more research is needed in this area so as to better understand the role teachers play in ESL classrooms.

In the light of this belief, this study will address the following questions:

- At the secondary level of the CSRN, is the ESL teachers' use and perception of the quantity of oral English they use precise?
- Do the teachers believe there is an increase in the quantity of English used by these teachers as the level rises?

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[1] By student, we refer to a primary or secondary level learner, as in the American definition (Encarta, 2000).

In an attempt to answer these questions, the issue of ESL students' proficiency level will be discussed. Secondly, since little research has been conducted on the topic, theory on second language learning/teaching will be examined. Thirdly, the methodology used to obtain the data necessary for analysis will be presented. Finally, the results will lead to a discussion and conclusion.

CHAPTER I

RESEARCH PROBLEM

Since English is the international language and since English neighbours surround Quebec, it is of paramount importance to communicate and exchange in this language (MEQ, 1997b; MEQ, 2000). The MEQ (1997b) adds that the classroom is the ideal place to start and mentions the teacher's role is to familiarize the learners with the language. Nonetheless, nothing is mentioned about the teacher's use of English, which we believe, is a major learning factor. For these reasons, the following chapter aims to identify the relative and rising importance of English in the world in which we live, to analyze the ESL programs and importance of having studied in the field, and to initiate reflection on the teacher's use of time and input in the ESL classroom. Following this, the goals and relevance of the present research will be presented.

1.1 Importance and Impact of the English Language

The *Microsoft Encarta Encyclopedia* (2000) states that the English language is the chief medium of communication of many major countries. It is also the official language in many nations of the Commonwealth of Nations. It is spoken by more parts of the world (62 countries) than any other language, except Chinese (Mandarin). The encyclopaedia discusses the extensiveness of its vocabulary. There are from 500 000 to over 1 000 000 known words. The fact that it borrows a lot from other languages makes it an even more popular and accessible means of communication. Nunberg (2000) suggests that with the ascension of the Internet, this tendency can only increase. For instance, the Internet is dominated by English content, in a proportion of 72 % compared to 7 % for its closest counterpart, which is French. In other words, it is quite fashionable to be able to use English in different circumstances.

This predominance for ESL use has been present for over 25 years (Lalande, 1988; Seward, 1973). It is practically a necessity to know English as a second language in order to be competitive in many fields, even more so in the present context of globalization and internationalization (Pratte, 1999). Traveling

almost anywhere on the North American continent requires English, for it is the official language in the United States and one of the two official languages of Canada (Government of Canada, 1999). Canadian Amerindians also primarily use English as a means of communication with the rest of Canadians (Government of Canada, 1998). Many Quebecers are now over the scare of assimilation–of English taking over French (Des Rivières, 1999). The new fear is the possibility of unilingualism that would limit Quebec's strength in many areas. For all these reasons, Quebec secondary 5 ESL is now a college pre-requisite (MEQ, 1997a). Furthermore, the elementary ESL MEQ program (2002) begins in grade 3 instead of grade 4, as of September 2002. Even in the USA, the minimum high school graduation requirements for standard diplomas include the knowledge of one to four foreign languages (U.S. Department of Education, 1994).

Among other elements, what seems to guide some teachers is the programs, as they give an idea of what the MEQ expectations are. Presently, there are three programs at the CSRN: the elementary program, the secondary first-cycle program, and the secondary second-cycle program. The elementary program used to be taught from grades 4 through 6. Considering the importance of learning the L2 at an early age, the elementary ESL MEQ program (2002) now begins in grade 3. The secondary programs are taught from secondary 1 to 5 (MEQ, 1982; 1985). The program focuses on four learning abilities namely listening, reading, writing, and speaking. Speaking is considered the most important skill (Lalande, 1988 and Williams and Sharp, 1997). Also, in 1996 according to the *The Illinois Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language Accents* (ICTFLA), achieving oral communication is the primary goal for foreign language study today. The latest elementary-level program, which is based on the present reform, emphasizes that the speaking competency should be at 100 % (MEQ, 2002; Johnston, 2000). Johnston, an MEQ collaborator, added at the 2000 SPEAQ (Société pour la promotion de l'enseignement de l'anglais, langue seconde, au Québec) convention, that this percentage is a good indicator for the future reform-based secondary-level program (effective in 2003-2004). For the existing secondary programs, the oral production objective accounts for 16% to 20%, the other percentages being 20% to 24% for writing, 30% to 36% for reading and 24% to 30% for listening (MEQ, 1982; 1985), depending on the level. As mentioned previously, because English is used all over the world, Quebec secondary 5 ESL is now a college requirement (MEQ, 1997a). College programs are also adapting themselves by focusing

on the mastery of a SL. As of 1994, there are now two compulsory courses, compared to none prior to the adjustment (MEQ, 1998). Following other universities' initiative, as of 2002-2003 the University of Quebec network should also add an obligatory English course to every bachelor degree (Jean, 2001).

Having such programs also represents a major drawback for specialists. Cauchon (1997) mentions that the above programs are renewed approximately every 15 years. Therefore, they are often outdated and do not deal with current needs. Another problem is the use of programs as guides. Many teachers do not or seldom use/consult their programs (Shkedi, 1998). Consequently, the required percentages related to each objective/competency are not respected. Often, teachers will adapt their teaching to their skills, preferences, personalities and students. The emphasis will then be on portions of the program and not on what is required or suggested. They do this because of personal opinions and preferences, which may diverge from the MEQ suggestions and objectives.

A solution that could palliate the lack of curriculum information is the specialized training from universities, which leads to an ESL teaching diploma. Indeed, having studied in the field of ESL, we believe some practioners might be more aware of the MEQ program requirements. A Quebec linguist, Professor Bibeau, affirms that elementary-school English is often taught by non-specialized teachers (Pratte, 1999). He adds that many of them do not even speak English. The situation at the secondary level is not much better. Indeed, the MEQ reports that less than half of the ESL teachers have a diploma in the field (Société Radio-Canada, 2001). The situation at the CSRN is different, as approximately 60 % of the teachers have an ESL degree of some kind (certificate, bachelor's or master's). Furthermore, even if the teaching of foreign languages has gained in popularity at many levels, Lalande (1988) adds that the recruitment issue is still a major problem. Perhaps promotion is what universities and the MEQ should emphasize on, in order to have more qualified teachers. For instance, promoting ESL teaching degrees to college students could possibly correct the present shortage.

1.2 Time Constraints and Teachers' Use of Time

Even if all the teachers were qualified, there would still be some restrictions at different levels. A major restrictive area is time. Students do not have enough allotted time for them

to acquire a sufficient proficiency level (Info-PPAALS, 1999; Johnston, 2000; SPEAQ Out, 2001). The MEQ does suggest a minimum of teaching time for ESL. Since this is not compulsory, it is often not respected by many school boards. At the elementary level, currently students get three years of ESL. The courses include 45- to 60-minute classes, twice a week. This amounts to approximately 72 hours per year (MEQ, 1997a; SPEAQ, 2000). However, a 1994-1995 provincial survey, which included every school board, demonstrated that students had only 95 minutes of English per week (60 hours a year) (Info-PPAALS, 1999). In order to compensate for the lack of time in the weekly agenda, the MEQ is now considering adding two extra hours per week of ESL at the primary level (Radio-Canada, 2001). For the secondary level, the two 75-minute periods per week add up to approximately 100 hours yearly (MEQ, 1982; 1985). Colleges (Cegeps) also offer two compulsory English courses. This adds up to 90 hours (MEQ, 1997a; Info-PPAALS, 1999). Some universities will soon offer a 45-hour obligatory course (Jean et al., 2001). Considering that a minimum required time to master a SL is 5000 hours and 1200 for a basic knowledge, the province of Quebec is far from producing bilingual students (Stern, 1992).

1.3 The Input

As mentioned previously, one of the education minister's main preoccupations is to develop oral communicative skills in students. For him, this will determine a teacher's efficiency. As Gathbonton and Lecca (1998) state, many elements are linked to a teacher's competence. Among Johnson's (1992) variables are experience and language ability, while Fillmore's (1985) key elements to understanding English as a foreign language (EFL) are quantity of teacher-directed activities, quality of the learning environment, and instructional language. For many students, the only English they will hear is from their ESL/EFL teacher. According to Krashen (1985), for the second language classroom to be an efficient place to facilitate language learning, the teacher should provide optimal input. This input hypothesis is the focal point of our research since it illustrates the relative importance of using L2. This is closely linked to our two research questions, which deal with the quantity of English used by ESL specialists. Krashen's theory will be developed in greater detail in Chapter 2.

1.4 Goals and Significance of the Study

Considering the importance of the English language, based on the program requirements, and taking into account the necessary input and use of time by teachers, the desired consequence of this study is to examine the quantity of English used by some CSRN ESL teachers from different levels and to evaluate if their perception and actual usage of oral English are somehow related. Depending on the results, being aware of these discrepancies might play a role in their teaching, notably on the consolidation or the change (increase or decrease) of their L1 and L2 usage. Furthermore, the results might yield relevant information for future research.

For the moment, supplementary research findings on language learning/teaching related to the research question are necessary before moving on. The theoretical framework (Chapter 2) should help clarify different concepts previously mentioned and we will expand on related topics.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Now that the elements surrounding the problem have been investigated, it appears appropriate to find out what has been documented in the field of L2 learning and teaching. Unfortunately, few studies deal specifically with the problem under study. Indeed, ESL research on the matter is scarce, especially considering the fact that in the province of Quebec, English is more than a second language. It is one of the two official languages (Government of Canada, 1999). Therefore, EFL references and closely linked information will also be analyzed in the theoretical framework. This information will help to understand the notion of SL teaching and learning as a whole, to overview classroom environment considerations, and to examine cross-linguistic interference that may occur between the first and target language. In turn, this will lead to a synopsis of the main relevant elements excerpted from the presented literature and to an introduction of the two research hypotheses of this study.

2.1 Second Language Learning and Teaching

This section will discuss the main elements present in second language acquisition. The goal is to better understand the process that deals with non-native language learning. We begin with an overview of SL learning. Focus will be on second language teaching since this paper is teacher-oriented.

Before going on any further, we believe it is necessary to make a distinction between language acquisition and language learning, since the two terms will be used at many occasions in present study. Most authors see a major difference between the two terms (Brown, 2000; Krashen, 1982; Lightbown and Spada, 2000; Nunan, 1999). For them, learning is a conscious process, while acquisition is done more subconsciously. For example, an adult learner will consciously process the new language and incorporate it in already existing knowledge, while a baby will naturally and subconsciously acquire a language. Nonetheless, this does not mean that it is not possible for a young learner to learn new information, and it is possible for an older learner to acquire a new language. Furthermore, the conscious effort is mainly made during the first phase of learning. To this, Nunan (1999) adds that L1 and L2

acquisition are different because children learning an L1 usually do so at an earlier age. As we can see, it is difficult to determine what part of knowledge is conscious and unconscious; therefore, for the purpose of the present study it will be considered that it is possible to learn and/or acquire a first language and a second language.

Let us now continue with a brief historical background of the main theories of SL teaching.

2.1.1 Historical Background of SL Approaches

One cannot think of teaching without considering its psychological aspects. What usually stand out in past research are behaviouristic and cognitive theories. Brown (1987) mentions that behaviouristic approaches were adopted before the 1960s, when the classroom climate was more rigid and based on discipline. The emphasis was on the language itself, and not on the information conveyed by the language (Lightbown and Spada, 2000). A typical example would be the teaching of vocabulary or grammar rules by the teacher, in order to have the students pass an exam (Brown, 1987). Little focus was put on interactional communicative skills. These traditional schools of thought put the accent on repetition, drills, reinforcement, conditioning, and performance. Even though certain results were obtained with the above methods, they did not leave any room for fluency and accuracy. Consequently, since the 1960s, more natural approaches, based on cognitive theory, have arisen. Brown (1987) suggests that bases of such a theory are regulation, analysis, competence, and mentalism. Here, stress is put on a more flexible concept, where error making is welcome, where the learner can regulate himself to a better and more durable performance. Teachers also have to analyze how the SL learning process works, and for what reasons. It will then be easier for them to help their apprentices in their learning process. Researchers also prefer competence versus performance. They believe in a rationalistic approach rather than gross output, where teachers have a better knowledge of their learners' human behaviour. By being mentally conscious of SL learning processes, teachers will lead their learners to fluency and accuracy with more intuition. Certainly, such "natural" situations produce more unstable and unknown outputs, which are necessary to obtain a desired competence. Still today, the current programs aim for such oral communicative skills (MEQ, 1982; 1985; 1997b). This does not denigrate some of the benefits of the behavioural model, which can at times be useful in the ESL classroom. At this point, we would like to

add that one flaw to the communicative approach has recently been suggested. By communicative approach, we mean that the students are placed in situations where they are able to interact and communicate in simulated and actual real-life situations. Some researchers and teachers point out that too much freedom for learners, without proper correction and explanation of rules, can lead to the *fossilization* of errors (Lightbown and Spada, 2000). Nonetheless, the communicative approach has to prevail, for it stimulates genuine, spontaneous, and meaningful L2 learning situations (Nunan, 1999; MEQ, 1982; 1985; 1997b).

2.1.2 Learning an L1 Versus Learning an L2

From the historical viewpoint, a preference for a communicative second language environment has emerged. It should resemble *natural* situations, but does this mean reproducing L1 first-time learning situations? In fact, is there a difference between L1 and L2 learning? Well, although spontaneous belief is that FLs are learned the same way as native languages, research has led to converse results (Nunan, 1999). Children learning an L2 differ in many ways from others acquiring an L1. Usually, SL apprentices learn the new language when they are older, their cognitive development is more elaborated, and they have already experienced learning a language. In addition, as Brown (1987) points out, "it is rather illogical to compare the first language acquisition of a child with the second language acquisition of an adult" (by adult, he means a post-puberty individual) (p. 40). This seems to tally with Piaget's findings of changes provoked by puberty (Brown, 1987). Formal thinking and the capacity for abstraction usually characterize this period, which is not present at pre-puberty. These changes inevitably add a cognitive aspect of non-flexibility to language acquisition, compared to a more natural and creative type of learning for children. Younger learners are said to be somehow unconsciously aware when they are learning a SL. There are believed to be little L1 syntactic pattern transfers. Also, the new language does not constitute a threat for children. At puberty, a certain *language ego* sets in and the learner feels a certain inhibition and he[2] turns out to be defensive and frightened of making mistakes. Since the organization of the L1 is more solid, there is also more interference between both languages. These factors create difficult situations for practioners to deal with.

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[2] The masculine form is used in order to simplify the reading of the text.

In 1994, Pinker elaborated a theory that suggests that our first language is an innate foundation of the human race (Nunan, 1999). In other words, the ability to acquire a first (native) language is part of our genetic code. This unique feature is attributed to human beings, as is the ability to migrate into other species. For this reason, Pinker estimates that very few people who begin to master a second language, will be able to attain the level of mastery of a native person. This opinion is also shared by Medgyes (1992). Moreover, Lightbown and Spada (2000) differentiate sequential bilinguals and simultaneous bilinguals: when both languages are learned at the same time, both languages can be learned at the same rate and with a similar quality as for monolingual children (nonetheless, for political reasons, one language still has to be considered a first language and the other a second language). The authors add that there is little support to show that learning more than one language at an early age can slow down the child's cognitive development. There is also no evidence stating that, as a child learns another language, his knowledge of the first language will recede. However, Cummins' *iceberg theory* (1987) does state that SL acquisition is both benefited and hindered by the L1. Linguistically speaking, Brown (1987) suggests that for simultaneous bilinguals, language acquisition might be slightly slower, but their intelligence may be superior for they have more facility with language concept formation and mental formation.

As we can see, many authors manifest an interest for research on children and on early learning of a language. This leads to our next question: Does age really matter in SL learning?

2.1.3 Age as a Measure of Language Success

As frustrating as it may be, children learn new languages faster than adults (McGlothlin, 1997). For them it is more of a game than work. Perhaps a good model to reproduce as language teachers is somehow that of a natural learning environment, like a child's milieu. This point of view is also shared by Cook (2000), who believes that when we learn a new language on a long-term basis, it is better to do so as a child. Krashen (1982) also hypothesizes that children *acquire* language, while adults *learn* it, the learning process being less natural and more theoretical. This is additionally supported by his monitor hypothesis, which states that a trigger in the brain applies grammar rules that were previously learned. A person,

before speaking, will analyze (instinctively) what will be said. As this person grows older, the analysis is too late and therefore an error (lapse) may be produced.

Many studies have dealt with pronunciation achievement in relation to age (Brown, 1987; Nunan, 1999; Lightbown and Spada, 2000). Most of the results suggest that after a certain biologically determined period of time, the language will gradually be more difficult to pronounce and also to learn. For instance, after this critical period, older learners are usually bound to have a foreign accent. These differences related to age are referred to as the *critical period hypothesis*. The foundation of the theory is based on biological brain changes around puberty, where the two hemispheres of the brain start to work independently, after which time it is almost impossible to acquire a native-like competence in an L2. However, Ellis (1988) mentions that this hypothesis has become controversial, especially with mental activity mapping which is now available with new technology. Nonetheless, Lightbown and Spada (2000) give extra support to the *critical period hypothesis* by presenting a study by Patkowski. The results show that the language level of pre- and post-puberty learners varied tremendously depending on whether they started learning ESL before or after puberty.

2.1.4 Affective and Cognitive Aspects of Second Language Acquisition

We have seen that there are differences in learning a first and second language and that age can make a difference in learning an L2. Therefore, we already have an idea that different affective and cognitive factors influence L2 competency. We will now take a look at what makes a successful second language learner. Lightbown and Spada (2000) report that the more academic or intelligent the student is, the better are his chances of succeeding at learning a new language. Even if IQ (Intellectual Quotient) tests have been questioned lately, there still seems to be a relationship between the test results and L2 performance. The same authors add that recent findings have been able to discriminate that this is mostly true for reading, grammar, and vocabulary. This would not be the case for oral and interactional skills. Some people seem to have an aptitude for learning foreign languages. For example, they have a talent for learning languages quickly.

Lightbown and Spada (2000) think that research does not seem to clearly link personality and SL acquisition. Many believe, for example, that certain traits, like extroversion, may help in the learning process. However, this has not been proven, for it is very difficult to isolate the extroverted personality traits and to link them to SL efficacy. Even though studies have failed to demonstrate such an association, researchers are confident that personality is associated to successful language learning. Contrary to Lightbown and Spada, Brown (1987) finds it useful to examine research linked to personality. We share this opinion, for the presentation of the results on certain personality traits constitutes valuable information for teachers and for future studies. Even if imperfections are present, certain generalities can still be outputted. The author isolated and analyzed different personality elements, and research presented on self-esteem seems to have given interesting cues about SL acquisition. This personal judgement has proven to correlate with oral-production performance. The problem lies in the interpretation. Is it self-esteem that produces language success, or the other way around? Future investigation might clarify this relationship. Furthermore, it is common knowledge that to learn an L2, we need to make mistakes (see Section 2.1.2). This is one reason why Brown (1987) thinks inhibition needs to be limited in the classroom. However, the only interesting research on inhibition is that it can be reduced with the consumption of small quantities of alcohol. The learners, who feel less threatened, have a better pronunciation. This does not mean that they have a better overall language competence. Nonetheless, being less inhibited does produce a better performance, which is precious information for a SL teaching environment. Last, but not least, motivation was also studied by Brown (1987). Here, a distinction is made between instrumental and integrative motivation. Instrumental stimulation is proper to wanting to learn a language in order to use it on the job, to travel to other countries, etc. Integrative stimulation refers to people who want to blend in the culture and the mentality of the L2 society. It was found that integrative motivation translated into higher FL proficiency test scores. Other studies have shown that higher instrumental motivation also provides higher results in English proficiency test scores. If both sub-elements were found to develop higher language ability, it might be because both are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Any SL learning situation is bound to include an amalgam of instrumental and integrative motivation. With this information, we believe it is quite obvious that motivation plays an important role in SL learning.

2.1.5 The Relationship between Instruction and Acquisition

Since our research revolves around the teacher's use of English, it also is necessary to go through teacher-related studies. We will now take a look at what makes a successful second language teacher. As instructors, we all strive to have an impact on our learners' progression as SL users. Do teachers really make a difference in students' L2 learning? Nunan (2000) reviewed the main studies, which investigated the relationship between instruction and acquisition. Unfortunately, nothing definite seemed to emerge from the studies. Therefore, even if all the authors do not agree, generally speaking, one cannot say whether what the teacher teaches is related to what the learner learns. Nonetheless, the results can constitute precious information for teachers and researchers. In order to have a better picture of the results for and against the relationship between the two variables, the bases of the different results will be presented. We will present various studies that show that instruction leads to acquisition, as well as others which invalidate the relationship. Some reasons for such gaps might be due to the learner's developmental stage, for in certain studies there was a relationship only if the child's developmental stage was taken into consideration (Hyltenstam and Pienemann, 1985). This does not seem to make sense, since we have already examined the impact that age can have on learning. Another study shows that small group tasks are as effective as teacher-directed instruction (Fotos, 1993). However, this does not mean that the act of teaching is not efficient. Sometimes teaching was proved to influence acquisition, but only for certain grammatical forms (Zhou, 1991). As well, instruction associated to communicative situations usually leads to acquisition (Montgomery and Eisenstein, 1985; Schmidt and Frota, 1986; Spada, 1990). What also stands out from Nunan's review is improvement in proficiency when students have the opportunity to participate and interact (Montgomery and Eisenstein, 1985; Schmidt and Frota, 1986; Spada, 1990; Lim, 1992). In other words, frequent language use is necessary to attain better language competency. The communicative classroom is an appropriate example of the interactive milieu.

Lightbown and Spada (2000) also add that research has shown that learners can learn what no one has taught them. They use meta-cognitive features to generalize and make associations between complex structures of the language. In other words, our learners are able to learn much more than they are taught.

2.2 What About the Classroom Environment?

At this point, we know more about SL acquisition as a whole, so our next step is to specifically look at the classroom environment, for it also mediates language impulses and can act as an L1 or L2 amplifier. Its characteristics will be taken into consideration, because they play an important role in the SL setting. For instance, hints to better and more adapted teaching methods can surface from comparing the L1 with the L2 learning milieus.

2.2.1 Adapting L2 from L1 Considerations

Section 2.1.2 showed that children learning an L2 differ in many ways from others learning an L1. Nonetheless, McGlothlin (1997) observes that knowing the child's environment (and not development) can produce quality insights for educators and researchers. Therefore, the linguist analyzed a first language setting of a child in order to transpose some of the pertinent information onto SL acquisition situations. He states that a child's stimulating L1 learning environment includes no direct pressure to learn, no evaluations, no report cards, etc. Also, there is no time limit and no deadlines need to be respected (i.e.: tests to finish in a set time). The language is not sequenced by grammar or vocabulary and there are no textbooks from which to learn certain aspects of the language. Repetitions are often used and accepted. In addition, the language world is new, interesting and therefore motivating to the apprentice. The vocabulary is used in the context of the surroundings, and not in isolated situations. The child is immersed in the language and native speakers surround the child. In addition, many opportunities are given for the learner to use the language and communicate with others around him. Finally, the language is adapted to the level of understanding of the child, which keeps him interested. The author stresses that a better knowledge of the language surroundings of children learning an L1 is essential data for the ESL teachers (see Section 2.3.1 for further details). For instance, they may adapt their teaching strategies in order not to create a replica of the above in their classrooms, but to use some of the relevant information to adapt the learning environment, and thus make it more like a natural milieu. Brown (1987) adds that a replica of an L1 environment would be any teacher's *dream;* however, the analogies presented can definitely produce constructive conclusions for SL learning.

2.2.2 Classroom Regulation in the Modern Era

As seen in Section 2.1.1, teaching methods have changed. This also means classroom organization must be adapted to modern-day conceptions. The traditional way of teaching had the teacher in front of the group, with all of the students in perfect rows in front of him. This led to little communication, which is now one of the main goals of SL courses. Today, the aim is for communicative skills: cooperative activities, task-based projects, group work, pair work, role-playing, focus on form, etc. (MEQ, 1997b; Nunan, 1999). In the mentality of cross-curricular competencies, this is also what is required on the work force. However, in many schools, rigid and traditional methods still prevail.

Even if communication is one of the main concerns of the SL community, there is a major obstacle in the way. Indeed, every SL and FL teacher will have to deal with the challenging interlanguage problem, that is, having to deal with L1 and L2 opposition.

2.3 Cross-Linguistic Interference

People learning a new language are bound to mix it with their other language(s). Many reasons are responsible for this phenomenon, but the situation can certainly be improved. For instance, knowing the sources of L1 and the factors determining the non-selection of L2, may provide useful information for teachers. The examination of the native/non-native issue between teachers might also help focus on each speaker's advantages as an ESL instructor. Lastly, presentation of the necessity for the learners to have an adequate model (teacher) can emphasize the importance of his role, for in many cases he is the only model the students have. Consequently, this section is dedicated to the overview of all these major issues concerning the use of L2 versus L1, which should help the reader better understand the difficulties and implications in prioritizing a language over the other.

2.3.1 Sources of L1

In this chapter, evidence for communicative SL situations emerges from various sources. In addition, research seems to suggest that the first language must be limited, if not eliminated from the classroom. Acknowledging what can stimulate L1 spurs might help limit the use of the first language. In the EFL classroom, Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1987) identifies four sources of L1. They are: the environment, the

materials, the teachers and the learners. Generally, the environment does not help learners and teachers to switch from L1 to L2, as it generates mostly L1 messages. Examples are the intercom, different classroom guests, people outside the classroom being overheard, various forms of posters, etc. Ideally, every teacher should have his own room, where different L2 impulses would fill the room. However, we are aware that this is not always possible. The learning materials are expected to be written in the L2, though some teachers argue that certain instructions can be written in the L1 to increase the learners' autonomy. Certainly, what this does is it stimulates L1 usage at the expense of L2. Teachers use the L1 for the following reasons: to help learners understand, to introduce, to explain, to review, to correct, to interrupt in order to give extra explanations, to maintain discipline, to encourage learners to use English in the classroom, to make transitions during the lesson, to help, and to answer an L1 question by the learner. Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1987) adds that an extensive use of the L1, however, leads to the teaching of the L2 through the L1. Therefore, teachers need to consciously and skilfully shift back to the L2 when the class spontaneously employs their L1. This should be done in different situations, in order to give learners the opportunity to observe and practise different conversational features in action. She adds that instead, to help their students, teachers may employ visual prompts, eye contact, gestures and so on. Learners are the most influential source of L1, for they are of greater number. Since they feel more comfortable in their native language, they will naturally switch back to it. They too, choose to use their L1 for different reasons, such as for explanations and clarifications, out of lack of confidence and because they are scared of being laughed at, to comment or criticize, to ask if an interpretation was well understood, and finally simply out of lack of interest and motivation. Once again, Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1987) insists that it is the teacher's role to incite them to use the FL—it is him who decides on how much English will be used in the classroom. Nonetheless, we are aware that the quantity of L2 will probably vary as the teaching level increases, but to what extent? Later in this research, we will attempt to answer this question.

Each of the four sources of L1 encourages the teacher and/or students to use more of the native language and less of the target language. Being meta-cognitively aware of these influences, it is more probable that a regulation can occur, in order to limit L1 usage.

2.3.2 Factors Determining the Non-selection of L2

The main goal of the EFL/ESL classroom is obviously to teach the English language to apprentices. However, there are teachers who do not always use English in their classrooms (Papaefthymiou-Lytra, 1987). Some of the factors behind the lack of L2 use are:

- Linguistic: this includes the learners' and/or teachers' inability to use the L2 as a means of communication, to go over certain things rapidly (time-saving), and when teachers judge the learners are unable to understand the instructions;
- Affective: the following deals with motivation, interest and preference to speak in their L1;
- Social: this is where there is interaction, as learners usually feel more confident using the L1. Also, certain teachers use the L1 when they do not feel confident enough to handle metalinguistic or meta-communicative language in the L2. It helps them save their credibility and at the same time prevents discipline problems;
- Pedagogical: this is used as a teaching/learning aid when other strategies may not work, to make sure students understand and before a break-down occurs because of restricted knowledge of the L2. The L1 is also used to prevent awkward situations where the message is not comprehensible because of an unnatural use of the language. Therefore, such feelings as aggressiveness, disagreement, dissatisfaction, dislike, as well as discipline problems, etc., are often expressed in the native language.

If teachers could spot these causes in their daily practices, they could gradually diminish L1 usage. The lack of L2 in the classroom could also be attributed to some teachers not feeling comfortable enough with the language. Being non-native speakers, they might be insecure with the language.

2.3.3 The Native/Non-Native Issue: Should Non-Native Teachers Feel Insecure?

As mentioned in Chapter 1, English language teaching is constantly gaining in popularity. At the same time, it is influenced by many cultures and by modern technology (Medgyes, 1992). Consequently, the standardisation of the language is falling behind. Genuine native speakers of English have become a minority because of the transition and influence the language is going through. For instance, we now have Yugoslav and Black English (Ebonics) that are influenced by the specificities of their respective

cultures. Paikeday (1985) argues that English users should be looked upon as more or less accomplished communicators. After all, every user of English is a learner of the language. Therefore, there is no use in establishing two categories (referring to natives and non-natives). This does not put aside the fact that users of English as their L1 have an advantage over others for whom it is a FL. Most non-native speakers will never achieve a native speaker's competence (Arva and Medgyes, 2000; Medgyes, 1992; Stern, 1986). This statement embraces the critical period hypothesis mentioned in Section 2.1.3. For these reasons, many non-native speakers feel uncomfortable using English less accurately, appropriately and fluently. However, there are far more important issues. Since most native and non-native English people use the language differently, they teach differently too. Moreover, one's weakness can also be another person's asset.

We will now attempt to present and explain some advantages of being a non-native English speaking teacher (non-NEST) and a native English speaking teacher (NEST), as presented by Medgyes (1992). Obviously, NESTs are the better language models, for their pronunciation is usually impeccable. They have learned the language in a more natural manner, which is to a certain extent, what we want for learners. This also means that they have a better (more natural) knowledge of grammar rules. If the NEST can speak the class' L1, it can be appreciated if he makes the effort to speak this L1 with the students. For instance, if the teacher and learners meet in the street, and they have a conversation in the learner's L1, the teacher's effort to speak his L2 will most likely be appreciated. On the other hand, only non-NESTs can serve as imitable models of the successful learner of English, proof being that they are English teachers. Non-NESTs can teach learning strategies more efficiently, for they have adopted language-learning strategies during their own learning process. These adaptable working methods can be passed on to the students. Non-NESTs can also provide learners with more information about how the English language works, since their language learning was done in a more *critical* (less natural) way. Non-native teachers are able to anticipate language difficulties, which they probably have lived as learners. Non-NESTs can be more empathetic to the needs and problems of their learners. Indeed, understanding and sensitivity toward what the apprentice goes through is much easier when one has been there. Non-NESTs can benefit from sharing the learner's mother tongue. For example, for certain languages of common origins, it is easier to find cognates (equivalents in the other language) when one

knows the L1 of their students. These differences between native and non-native instructors were also observed by Reves and Medgyes (1994), where an international survey was conducted on 216 non-native speaking ESL/EFL teachers on their perceptions of teaching differences between Non-NEST and NEST teachers.

Medgyes (1992) adds that native and non-native teachers are unique in their own ways. They both bring desirable outcomes to the profession. He specifies, "In an ideal school setting, there should be a good balance of NESTs and non-NESTs". This should form a better equilibrium that will help students achieve target language mastery. One element that stands out of the above analogy between native and non-native teachers is the notion of model for the learner. It also seems to surface regularly in different parts of our paper. Subsequently, we will examine this more thoroughly. We would like to add that we are aware the presented concepts of ESL/EFL teachers do not apply to every teacher and to every situation.

2.3.4 Necessity of an Adequate Model

As mentioned in Chapters 1 and 2, if the students do not hear the teachers speak English, their learning may be affected, and they certainly will not be inclined to speak the L2. More specifically, our research problem deals with many elements that can be responsible for the students' poor linguistic achievement. We believe that the main element at stake is the teacher's input; therefore, this section is dedicated to the analysis of his contribution and impact in second language acquisition (SLA). Lalande (1988) stipulates that students *tend* to learn what they are taught, meaning they need to have a suitable model. In the same line of thought, Fillmore (1985) demonstrated that native language and target language should never be mixed. For her, this is the key to proficiency and it has been shown to lead to great improvement in SLA. Once again, Krashen (1983) stresses on the input hypothesis. The most important factor in the amount of language acquired is the quantity of comprehensible input... plus a little more (*input + 1*). In other words, the teacher must use adequate and understandable English, and at the same time incorporate new challenging language aspects. This hypothesis also suggests the exclusive use of L2 in the classroom, but the input must be comprehensible, in sufficient quantity, and challenging to the students. Otherwise, the learner may deduce that he is not apt to learn the new language. This opinion is shared by

Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1987). She argues that in order to achieve better results, EFL classroom interaction depends (among other things) on the quantity and quality of *appropriate* input generated by the materials and teacher talk. In 1983, Allright (cited by Papaefthymiou-Lytra, 1987) mentioned that there are two variables at stake in a learning environment: the first is the interactiveness of the classroom behaviour and the second is centred on the teacher's talk input. The choice of teachers to use their L1 in the EFL classroom is incongruent because of the principle of input, which stresses on sole L2 usage. This is also expressed by many authors (Brown, 1987; Krashen, 1981; Larsen-Freeman, 1976; Lightbown, 1985; Lightbown and Spada, 2000; Nunan, 1999). The input theory states that excessive use of L1 restricts the amount of time for the L2 input. Still according to Krashen (1983), for the instructor to help the acquirers understand, he will use a simplified English called *teacheresing*. This involves using a slower rate of speech, a more distinct pronunciation, shorter and simpler sentences, more rephrasing and repetitions, more frequent meaning checks, gesture and visual reinforcement, and greater concrete referents (e.g.: realia). Another point worth noting is that L2 input is also limited outside the classroom. This is an additional indicator that L2 input is of high importance. Teachers provide live and authoritative models. The higher the frequency of the input, the better the language learning (Brown, 1987; Larsen-Freeman, 1976; Lightbown and Spada, 2000; Nunan, 1999; Selinger, 1983). Increasing the L2 input will speed up the learning process and learning rate.

The reviewed literature seems to suggest an English-only environment. This was also observed by Tremblay (1998) who analyzed the use of L1 by French SL teachers. She also found that, even with research as a base, FL teachers still adapt their practice to what they think is best. Tremblay points out that in a study conducted by Duff and Polio, teachers used English in a proportion varying from 9.5 % to 100 %. The choice of what quantity of English to use is a personal one, based on personal preferences and on limited or no empirical data. Moreover, the input theory is not praised by all. For instance, some school politics prioritize *English-only* periods, meaning that at times it is accepted to switch from the L1 to the L2 (Williams and Sharp, 1997). Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1987) argues that in the EFL classroom, it is out of the question to ban the L1. Native language usage can function as an important teaching/learning strategy. It should be used when other strategies fail to get the message across, for example, by giving equivalents in the native language, when instructing grammar rules, when dealing

with discipline problems, or when the students do not understand the L2 message. It should, however, be restricted to a minimum. Furthermore, at early L2 learning stages when communication cannot be sustained in the language, teachers may resort to the L1. Nonetheless, teachers must remember that the goal is to learn the FL. Therefore, English usage is required both by observers and by participants in speech events (Papaefthymiou-Lytra, 1987).

Inevitably it is every teacher's duty and job to do everything in his power to help the student through his learning process. Therefore, he must discipline himself into being an adequate model. In many cases he is the only English reference the class will have.

2.4 Synopsis and Hypotheses

Research findings presented in Chapter 2 have given many insights on what the world of ESL is. Chapter 1 introduced a major problem we have in the province of Quebec: the current secondary schooling system is far from producing bilingual students. At this point, many elements could be analyzed in order to better understand this phenomenon. Obviously, it is impossible to investigate and research on every possible factor. The MEQ mentions that the language is sometimes taught in English. We believe that this is an interesting issue as the present study will be limited to the analysis of the teachers' quantitative use of English in the classroom. It was found that target usage varies tremendously from one teacher to another (Pratte, 1999). Many instructors are often torn between conveying their messages in the L1 or L2. Furthermore, even after reflection and because of their different backgrounds and perceptions, it is difficult for teachers to estimate what percentage of each language they actually use. It is even more difficult for them to estimate if their perception resembles reality. The level taught is also bound to influence target language usage, but is it really the case? During practicum supervision, it was observed that in certain cases a greater amount of English was used at the primary level, than in secondary 5. With all these elements in mind, we present the following hypotheses:

- There will be no significant difference between the perceptions of the teachers' use or oral English and their actual usage of the languages.

- The perception of the percentage of English used by the secondary 1 to 5 teachers will increase significantly as the level rises.

The present study explores the teaching and learning background and features of ESL. This should help teachers and researchers better understand English usage and progression in context. Furthermore, we presume the results, if conclusive, might help teachers have a better idea of what quantity of English they use and of what quantity is used at different levels. As well as acknowledging the results, the numbers might influence the educators' practice. The possibilities we see are that they might want to decrease, maintain, or increase their target language usage. In addition, further research may emanate from the present findings

The mentioned predictions will be tested and analyzed with adequate statistical tools, in order to verify if they can be accepted or rejected. Chapter 3 will describe the methodology used to collect and analyze the data.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In the previous chapters, we reviewed the problems related to the use of English in the ESL/EFL classroom and the theoretical framework. The research hypotheses were also stated. In this chapter, we will describe the methodology used to gather data. More precisely, this section aims to illustrate the research process, the description of the population and subjects, the description of the methods used to collect the necessary data, the procedure undertaken in the research, and data analysis and processing.

Before going any further, the research type selected will be clarified in order to have a better idea about the scope of the present study.

3.1 Research Types and Justification

Considering what is being evaluated, different research types could be used. However, a quantitative approach was prioritized in order to verify our two hypotheses. More precisely, this study took the form of a descriptive method, where the goal was to statistically demonstrate the relation between two variables. The statistical tools used were the following:

- a differential analysis (using Student's *t test*) between the actual use of oral English and the perception of the monitored teachers. The goal was to verify if there was a significant difference between the perception of the teachers' use of English and their actual usage of the language.
- an analysis of the slope representation of the variation of English usage from secondary 1 to secondary 5, in order to objectivize if the perception of the percentage of English used by the teachers increased significantly as the teaching level rose.

The research type having been selected, the next step consists in describing the population and the subjects.

3.2 The Population

The study was conducted in Rouyn-Noranda. This city is located in the Abitibi-Temiscamingue region, province of Quebec, Canada. It is mainly (95.84 %) composed of a French-speaking population. 34.13 % of the city's inhabitants are immigrants (Statistics Canada, 1996). No information as to how long the immigrants have lived in the city was available. However, most of them moved to Rouyn-Noranda during the mining boom of the1920s (Doucet, 2001). In Abitibi-Temiscamingue, English is important to promote exchange with its English-speaking neighbours (Ontario and the other western provinces). The Quebec-Ontario border is approximately 70 kilometres from Rouyn-Noranda. On a larger scale, Francophones represent only 2 % of the mostly English North-America (Bibeau, 2000), and approximately 15 % of Canada is French speaking (Department of Public Works and Government Services Canada, 1998).

3.3 Subjects

Every one of the 14 secondary ESL teachers from the CSRN was sent an introduction letter on October 2, 2000 (see Appendix A). This letter was written in French, since this is habitually the format used among ESL teachers. They were then contacted in order to see if they were interested in taking part in the study. To have a better representation and as a selection method, the ones with the greater number of groups of the same level were contacted to take part in the study. If they refused, the ones with fewer groups of the same level were reached. Furthermore, to make sure the quantity of French and English used in the classrooms was *fairly stable*, the teachers with more experience were prioritized—we believe that the more experienced teachers use a relatively fixed (with limited variation) quantity of English that suits them. All the targeted teachers had taught at the evaluated level for over three years. With the above criteria as a selection guide, every contacted teacher accepted, except for one. As some teachers asked to remain anonymous, we will not specify their ages, credentials or any other personal information.

The five monitored teachers taught compulsory ESL courses to secondary (1 to 5) students at the CSRN. The students' ages varied from 12 to 17. The classes were mixed (girls and boys) and had between 28 and 32 students. The four 75-minute periods per nine days add up to about 100 hours yearly (MEQ,

1982; 1985). Prior to the secondary level, these students had three years of ESL. The courses included 45- to 60-minute classes, twice a week. This amounts to approximately 72 hours per year (MEQ, 1997a).

3.4 Methods and Data Collection Instruments

In order to have a better understanding of the quantity of English used by the different teachers, four random lessons were chosen for each participating teacher, at every level.. All classroom interactions were recorded on audio-cassettes (see Section 3.4.1 for extra information). The data (300 minutes for each teacher, for a total of 1500 minutes) were then classified and analyzed (this will be developed in Section 3.6). This period of time was sufficient in order to average out the quantity of English used by the teachers, as this period of time constitutes approximately 30 % of the school year.

3.4.1 Audio-cassette Recordings

Each of the five volunteer teachers was recorded four times over a period of twelve weeks, for a total of 300 minutes. Four groups (approximately 120 students) per teacher were chosen. Each period lasted 75 minutes. As soon as the teachers were selected, they were handed out a schedule (see Appendix B) with the precise dates and times, for them to record themselves. At the beginning of the week, where teachers were to be recorded, they were reminded by a memo left on their desks (see Appendix C). The researcher was not present in class, for his presence might have influenced the teachers' use of English and the students' behavior. However, it is possible that the teachers were still influenced by the fact that they were recorded. Each recording took place at a different time of the day and at a different day of the week. The reason is that we wanted to compare equivalent recording sessions. There was one slight exception, due to a scheduling constraint. The secondary 5 teacher was recorded twice on a period-one class. This probably did not affect the study, as the teacher spoke English 100 % of the time. The lessons did not include tests, where the interactions are limited, and where certain teachers possibly have greater recourse to the L1.

3.4.2 Material Used for the Recordings

For the recordings, a *Marantz, model PMD220* professional portable two-speed cassette recorder was selected for its long play mode at a speed of 15/16 IPS. This provided a recording time of twice that

stated on a cassette. For instance the tape-cassettes used lasted 90 minutes instead of the regular 45 minutes (for one side). Therefore, no changing of cassette sides was necessary. This way, the teacher could focus more on teaching instead of the recording itself. Operating instructions were provided, to make sure it was set up correctly (see Appendix D).

3.4.3 Teacher Question

To find out the quantity of English the teachers believed they used in class, all of the 14 secondary teachers (including the non-participants) were asked what percentage of English and French they used in their classrooms. They were only questioned once, on January 9, 2001, concerning the perception of the quantity of English and French they used. The question was similar to: "I'm curious, what quantity of English and French do you use with your groups?" They were asked informally and were not recorded, in order for them to answer more spontaneously. Furthermore, after each recording, the five participating teachers were asked (in writing) if they believed there had been a change in their usual use of English. There were no changes reported.

We are aware that certain teachers might have wanted to please the interviewer, by suggesting a higher use of English. To this might be added the meta-cognitive difficulty of certain teachers to try to determine how the researcher planned to work with his research. Longer questionnaires and/or interviews were considered; however, we believe they would not have conveyed any extra relevant information concerning the quantitative goals of the study.

3.5 Procedure

This section intends to summarize the procedure that was followed in conducting this research. The steps are presented in chronological order.

Timetable of the events:

- October 2, 2000: all the 14 secondary CSRN ESL teachers were sent an introduction letter requesting them to participate in the research (see Appendix A);

- December 18 to 22, 2000: telephone calls were made to the teachers, asking them to participate in the study. Those who accepted (one teacher per level) provided the researcher with their schedules, which were used to plan their recordings;
- January 8, 2001: on this pedagogical day, the five participating teachers were handed out tape-cassettes and a schedule of the dates on which they were to record themselves. All of the 14 ESL teachers from the CSRN were asked the percentages of English and French that they thought they used in their daily teaching;
- January 9-April 5: recording of lessons;
- February 16: gathering of the first set of tape-cassettes;
- April 6: gathering of the remaining tape-cassettes;
- Mid-April: invitation to lunch sent out to the five volunteer teachers, as a sign of appreciation for their cooperation (see Appendix E).

The researcher administered every listed operation. Prior to each recording, the five participating teachers were reminded of the upcoming event. Immediately following the collection of the audio-tapes, the data (words used by the teachers) were counted and classified as being French or English. A hired assistant executed this step, in order to save time. Being an ESL specialist, she had no problem completing the task. She finished after 55 hours of work.

3.6 Quantitative Data Analysis and Processing

As mentioned previously, from the collected classroom data, each word was classified as being French or English. If a borrowed French word was used in an English context, it was considered as being English if it also was part of the *Merriam-Webster* English dictionary (1999). The opposite was also true.

Once the five volunteers' data (perception and actual usage) were outputted, the results from the estimated and actual usages were submitted to Student's *t test*, in order to verify if the teachers significantly used more English than they believed. Then, with the data from all the 14 teachers' perceptions, an analysis of the slope representing the perception of variation of English used from secondary 1 to secondary 5 was conducted.

If there was found to be a link between the actual usage and the five volunteers' perception, a generalization could possibly be made with all the 14 teachers' perceptions and an estimate of the real usage.

The *Microsoft Excel* software was favored to verify the manual statistical calculations. It adequately calculated the difference between the observed variables (using Student's *t test*) and produced a slope of English usage perception (from secondary 1 to secondary 5) for analysis purposes.

Now that the methodology has been completed, we will present and analyze the results.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

In the past chapter the different parts included in the research methodology were presented. The present chapter proposes two major divisions: a descriptive analysis where the hypotheses are accepted or rejected and an inferential analysis where the results will be inspected and interpreted. We will begin by presenting the collected data and method of analysis selected for the present study.

4.1 Collected Data

To reach our goals, the numbers collected were necessary to provide information concerning the estimated and real use of English by the five volunteer ESL teachers, and concerning the difference in usage perception from one level to the other (for all of the 14 teachers). Furthermore, these numbers helped create graphs, which give a simplified visual appreciation of the data.

The parts in the following section include the percentage of English used (for 300 minutes) and estimated by the five selected teachers, and also all of the ESL CSRN department's perception (14 teachers in all). Only the English percentages are shown. The remaining percentage is automatically attributed to French usage. The numbers are presented as a whole, in order to obtain a global appreciation; however, in specific sections of this chapter they will be divided and presented as tables.

4.1.1 Case # 1: Secondary 1 teacher

- Percentage of English used: 43
- Perception of percentage of English used: 28

4.1.2 Case # 2: Secondary 2 teacher

- Percentage of English used: 66
- Perception of percentage of English used: 50

4.1.3 Case # 3: Secondary 3 teacher

- Percentage of English used: 98
- Perception of percentage of English used: 70

4.1.4 Case # 4: Secondary 4 teacher

- Percentage of English used: 76
- Perception of percentage of English used: 68

4.1.5 Case # 5: Secondary 5 teacher

- Percentage of English used: 100
- Perception of percentage of English used: 100

4.1.6 Perception of all the CSRN teachers

- Secondary 1 teacher no. 1
  - ✓ Perception of percentage of English used: 28
- Secondary 1 teacher no. 2
  - ✓ Perception of percentage of English used: 60
- Secondary 1 teacher no. 3
  - ✓ Perception of percentage of English used: 50
- Secondary 2 teacher no. 1
  - ✓ Perception of percentage of English used: 70

- Secondary 2 teacher no. 2
  - ✓ Perception of percentage of French used: 50
- Secondary 2 teacher no. 3
  - ✓ Perception of percentage of French used: 60

- Secondary 3 teacher no. 1
  - ✓ Perception of percentage of English used: 70
- Secondary 3 teacher no. 2
  - ✓ Perception of percentage of English used: 95
- Secondary 3 teacher no. 3
  - ✓ Perception of percentage of English used: 70
- Secondary 3 teacher no. 4
  - ✓ Perception of percentage of English used: 88

- Secondary 4 teacher no. 1
  - ✓ Perception of percentage of English used: 85
- Secondary 4 teacher no. 2
  - ✓ Perception of percentage of English used: 68

- Secondary 5 teacher no. 1
  - ✓ Perception of percentage of English used: 95

- Secondary 5 teacher no. 2
    - ✓ Perception of percentage of English used: 100

With the data collected, it is now possible to choose an appropriate method of analysis for those numbers.

4.2 Method of Analysis

The average difference of two dependent samples was selected for the verification of the first hypothesis. More precisely, the five volunteers' perception and actual usage were submitted to a *t test* to find out if there was a significant difference between the two means (percentage and actual use). The goal was to find out if the teachers significantly use more English than they think. Refer to Section 4.3 for further details.

The second step consisted of a determination coefficient analysis (r^2). The graph of a linear regression will present the variation of English usage from secondary 1 to secondary 5. The objective here was to find out if there was a significant difference in the perception of English used from secondary 1 to secondary 5. Refer to Section 4.4 for further details.

4.3 Results from the First Calculations

At this point, we believe it is appropriate to restate the first initial hypothesis, which is: There will be no significant difference between the perceptions of the five volunteer teachers' use of oral English and their actual usage of the languages. Hence, the fore-mentioned graph is presented in figure 4.1.

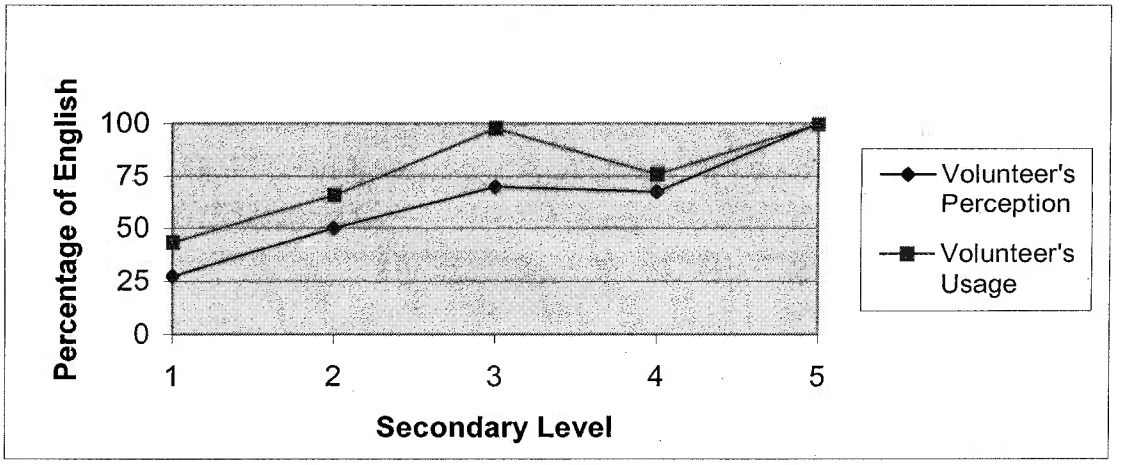


Figure 4.1 Volunteers' Perception and Actual Use of English.

By examining the graph, we can observe that the teachers seem to use more English than they think. A statistical computation will confirm or reject this alternative hypothesis.

In order to obtain a visual appreciation of the collected numerical data from the five volunteers, a summary table is presented below. The remaining information is needed to acknowledge acceptation or rejection of the hypothesis and alternative hypothesis.

Table 4.1 Volunteers' Perception and Actual Use of English

Teacher	Volunteers' Perception (VP)	Volunteers' Usage (VU)	Difference (VP-VU=d)	d - đ	$(d - đ)^2$
Sec. 1	28	43	15	1.6	2.56
Sec. 2	50	66	16	2.6	6.76
Sec. 3	70	98	28	14.6	213.16
Sec. 4	68	76	8	-5.4	29.16
Sec. 5	100	100	0	-13.4	179.56
		Total:	67		431.2

→ Statistical calculation used: difference of averages of two dependant populations (unilateral test):

H_0: $\mu_d = 0$

H_1: $\mu_d > 0$

Difference of averages = $\bar{d} = 67/5 = 13.4$

Standard deviation of the differences = $S_d = \sqrt{(431.2 / 4)} = 10.38$

A *t test* is applied to 5 differences

$\mu_d = 0$ implies that the difference of the results is equal to zero for all of the population

H_1 indicates that we must make a unilateral test (to the right)

n = 5, there are then 4 degrees of freedom, $\alpha = 0.05$

D = 4, the critical value of t is 2.13

$t = (\bar{d} - \mu_d) / (S_d / \sqrt{n}) = (13.4-0) / (10.38 / \sqrt{5}) = 13.4 / (10.38 / 2.236) = 13.4 / 4.643 = 2.89$

T	P
1.53	0.10
2.13	0.05
2.78	0.025
3.75	0.01
4.6	0.005

H_0 is rejected and H_1 is accepted; there is a significant difference in average between the perception and the quantity of English used–the teachers use more English than they think. Furthermore, *t* being higher than 2.78, the probability (*p*) that the teachers from the CSRN will not use more English than they expect is less than 2.5 %.

4.4 Results from the Second Set of Calculations

The second hypothesis is the following: the perception of the percentage of English used will be superior at the higher levels. Once again, to obtain a visual appreciation of the collected data from all of the 14 teachers, a summary table is presented below. The average for each level is also calculated with the purpose of using it for future computations.

Table 4.2 All of the Teachers' Perception

Teacher & Level	Teachers' Perception
Sec. 1 teacher 1	28
Sec. 1 teacher 2	60
Sec. 1 teacher 3	50
Average:	45.8
Sec. 2 teacher 1	70
Sec. 2 teacher 2	50
Sec. 2 teacher 3	60
Average:	60.0
Sec. 3 teacher 1	70
Sec. 3 teacher 2	95
Sec. 3 teacher 3	70
Sec. 3 teacher 4	88
Average:	80.6
Sec. 4 teacher 1	85
Sec. 4 teacher 2	68
Average:	76.3
Sec. 5 teacher 1	95
Sec. 5 teacher 2	100
Average:	97.5

→ Statistical calculation used to present the perception of the variation of English from secondary 1 to 5: determination coefficient (r^2) on the graph:

In order to find r^2, we must first find r with the following equation:

$$r = \frac{n\Sigma XY - (\Sigma X)(\Sigma Y)}{\sqrt{[n\Sigma X^2 - (\Sigma X)^2]}\ \sqrt{[n\Sigma Y^2 - (\Sigma Y)^2]}}$$

number of data (n) = 5

$\Sigma X = 15$ (1+2+3+4+5, which are the values of X or the teaching levels)

$\Sigma Y = 3.602$ (0.458+0.6+0.806+0.763+0.975, which are the values of Y or the average percentages for every level)

$\Sigma X^2 = 55$ (1+4+9+16+25, which are the values of X squared)

$\Sigma Y^2 = 2.7522$ (0.20976+0.36+0.64964+0.58217+0.95063, which are the values of Y squared)

$\Sigma XY = 12.003$ (0.458+1.2+2.418+3.052+4.875, which are the individual values of X multiplied by their matching pairs in Y)

$$r = \frac{5 \text{ X } 12.003 - 15 \text{ X } 3.602}{\sqrt{[5 \text{ X } 55 - (15)^2]}\ \sqrt{[5 \text{ X } 2.7522 - (3.602)^2]}}$$

$$r = \frac{60.015 - 54.03}{\sqrt{[275 - 225]}\ \sqrt{[13.761 - 12.974404]}}$$

$$r = \frac{5.985}{\sqrt{50}\ \sqrt{0.786596}}$$

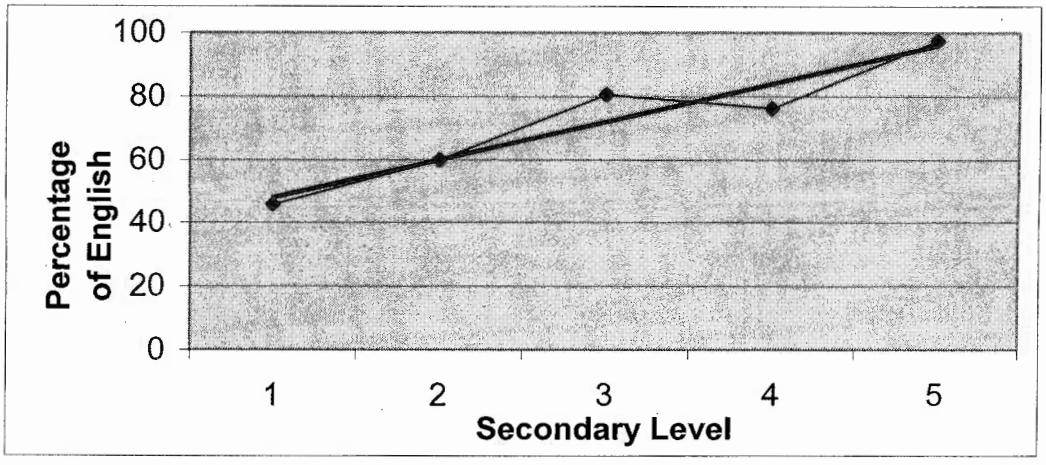
$$r = \frac{5.985}{7.07 \text{ X } 0.8869}$$

$$r = \frac{5.985}{6.27}$$

$$r = 0.9545$$

$$r^2 = 0.91$$

The visual result is presented hereafter in figure 4.2.



$r^2 = 0.91$

Figure 4.2 All of the 14 Teachers' Perception.

The determination coefficient (r^2) on the graph is 0.91. This positive ascending linear regression suggests that the 14 teachers from the CSRN believe they use more English at the higher levels. Nonetheless, this is not necessarily true from one level to another. As we can see in figure 4.2, average-wise the secondary 3 teachers think they use more English than the secondary 4 teachers.

These results from statistical calculations were necessary so as to acquire numerical answers to our questions. They will now be analyzed in a more practical manner.

4.5 Analysis and Interpretation of the Results

The first set of calculations shows that the five volunteer teachers significantly used more English than they had expected. Of course, this is not the case for the secondary 5 teacher who could not speak more than the 100 % he had expected. As mentioned in Section 4.3, the chances of an error are of less than 2.5 %. Moreover, the average difference between the perceptions of the teachers and their estimated usage of English was of 13.4 %.

The question that arises from these numbers is: why did they have lower perceptions compared to reality? A few attempts to answer this question will be presented. The first possibility is that they simply underestimated their English usage. In their minds, they used more French than they had expected. The second is perhaps because when they speak French, it stands out more than when they speak English. Therefore, when they use the L1 to a certain point, they feel that they are using it much more. The third answer deals with the fact that they felt somehow threatened when they were asked concerning the percentage of English they used in class. Many consider speaking too much French as being negative. Subsequently, by giving a conservative percentage, they had more chance of producing more English during the recording sessions. Finally, they possibly used more English because they were recorded. Once again, knowing they were monitored could have incited them to produce more of the target language. Obviously, we prefer the first explanations; however all of the possible alternatives have to be considered.

In the second set of calculations, the determination coefficient (r^2) on the graph is 0.91. This positive ascending linear regression shows the perception of the teachers: to them, there is more English used as the teaching level rises. As mentioned in Section 4.4, this is not necessarily the case from one level to another. Indeed, the secondary 3 teachers think they use more English than their secondary 4 colleagues. Even if it seemed quite obvious that there would be more L2 used by the teachers at the higher levels, we believe it was worthwhile to verify. Actually, even if it has not been objectivized, our past experience as student-teacher supervisors has given us indications that some elementary teachers use more English than second-cycle (secondary 3 to 5) secondary teachers.

At this point, we are tempted to identify a relationship between the perception and the actual English usage by all the teachers of the CSRN. There was a relationship between usage and perception of the five volunteers, the major difference being that the estimates were lower than reality. In fact, both of the curves (perception and usage) had a very similar pattern. For this reason, we believe in the possibility that all of the 14 teachers' actual usage would also rise from secondary 1 to secondary 5.

The analysis and interpretation of the results lead to a discussion and conclusion. We will discuss the research as a whole and we will make associations with the controversy of teaching English in English.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Chapter 4 presented and analyzed the results; therefore, we must now discuss and synthesize those findings. In turn, this will lead to new questions which surface from the present study. These issues will possibly constitute food for future research, as well as food for thought.

5.1 Summary of Theoretical Findings

In the present context of globalization and internationalization, the importance of being able to use English has emerged as a necessity. With the possibility of traveling being much more accessible than in the past, knowing this L2 is also a must. Another area where people are advantaged when they know the target language is when they are in contact with different media, notably considering the growth of the Internet, which also gives an opening onto the world. Since ESL students' level of proficiency is still far from being adequate, a lot of promoting has taken place in the province of Quebec. For instance, in general, more hours of ESL are being added and the new programs are emphasizing oral communicative skills. Furthermore, the Minister of Education has outlined a few problems, which might, if corrected, improve the situation. Some suggested solutions are teacher-based. Possible areas of improvement are teachers' better knowledge of programs, having more qualified instructors, and having them use more English in their classrooms. This led to our research questions, concerning the quantity of English used and the link with reality, and the perception usage of oral English as the level rises. We believe that we had to start by analyzing these factors that can give a certain appreciation of what goes on in the milieu. Furthermore, it also constitutes a head start for future research. This will be dealt with further in this final chapter.

Before moving on in our research, it was necessary to look at what has been theorized on SL learning. Briefly, it was found that today the aim in the ESL classroom is for oral communicative skills. Also, learning an L1 and an L2 are different in many ways, and age influences the success of learning a new

language. We saw that affective and cognitive factors could affect SL learning. The influence of instruction on acquisition was objectivized. This brought us to possible classroom adaptations, in order to have an effective learning environment. The last segment of the theoretical framework dealt with cross-linguistic considerations, which led to the following conclusion: the teacher needs to be a model for his learners. He must provide the apprentices with comprehensible and significant L2 input. Moreover, most studies suggest limiting L1 usage. After having analyzed the ESL situation as a whole, it was time to look into our research problem.

5.2 Methodology, Generalizations, and Limitations

Methodologically speaking, in order to calculate L1 versus L2 usage at the CSRN, we monitored teachers. This was done for four periods, with one teacher from every level (secondary 1 to 5), in order to estimate if there was a link between reality (monitoring) and their perceptions. The results were tested statistically, by verifying the *difference of averages of two dependant populations*. The use of *the distribution of the difference for the sampling average* was also considered; however, it could not be used since our sample consisted of less than 30 subjects ($n < 30$). Nonetheless, the selected statistical tool for the present study served its purpose for we only needed to have an idea of the English usage for a small population. The results showed there was a relationship between reality and the perceptions of the five volunteer teachers, although most of the teachers underestimated their use of English. Finally, with the first relationship we found, and with all the 14 CSRN ESL teachers' perception, it was estimated that there is a significant rise in English usage from secondary 1 to 5. The results cannot prove that the evaluated teachers used a sufficient or insufficient amount of English. However, the results help understand the language usage and perception of the CSRN teachers. The only way of finding out if these results can be generalized to other teachers would be to carry out this experiment to other school boards.

5.3 Questions

Many questions arise from the present findings. The first one being: does the quantity of English used by ESL teachers have an impact on their students' L2 proficiency? If we could show that there is a relative impact on the students when the teachers use more oral English, perhaps many of them would make a

special effort to speak the L2 of the learners. In the same line of thought, do the students feel that if they were to speak more in English, they would become more proficient, and to what extent? These questions constitute suggestions for further research. The findings could help many educators provide a better language experience for their students.

5.4 Practical Implications

Numerous authors (Brown, 1978; Krashen, 1983; Lightbown and Spada, 2000, Nunan, 1999) mention that there is generally a close relationship between theory and practice. Therefore, even if this is not the goal of our research, we would also like to present possible links between the results of this research and classroom applications. As mentioned previously, we believe the results might change some teachers' practice. For instance, being aware of those results might play a role in their teaching. The outcome of the study might produce the following effects: consolidation (no change) of the practice, or changing (increase or decrease) of their L1 and L2 usage. We consider it is not much of a challenge to consolidate one's practice, nor to decrease the usage of L2. Nonetheless, based on Chapter 2, increasing L2 usage represents a major challenge. The mentioned chapter is filled with theory that can help teachers to teach in English to a higher extent. Also, many more practical palliative options to using L1 are available. In order for an ESL teacher to become better at what he does, one can resort to Karsenti, Saada and Demers' (1999) strategies to facilitate ESL teaching:

- Contextual Strategies (Terroux, 1995): these include opposites (antonyms), simple definitions or synonyms, using the word in context, describing what the object is used for and what the agent (object, animal, person, etc.) does;
- Cognitive Strategies (Brown 1994): included are cognates (same words, pronunciations and meanings in both languages), cognitive islands (grouped words having a link between them), webs or semantic maps (to show interrelationship between words), semantic networks (to demonstrate similarities and differences between linked words);
- Visual Strategies: these deal with miming, showing authentic material (realia), mnemonic (mental) pictures, thematic pictures, idiomatic pictures and cultural pictures;
- Practical Techniques (Terroux, 1992): to his other strategies, Terroux adds techniques that can be applied to teaching English in English. Using useful cue verbs that are often repeated

in class and promoting the use of cue basic formulas are suggested. Furthermore, instead of explaining, the instructor should demonstrate or give examples.

All the suggested methods and techniques are available for those who wish to use more English in their classrooms; however, such an adjustment does not come easy. Maltz (1968) believes it usually takes approximately 21 days to change a habit. We do realize that this is certainly not a priority or a necessity for all teachers.

5.5 Final Words

To conclude, the goal of this research was to give an overview of the world of ESL and to give quantitative insights concerning the perception and actual usage of oral English by secondary-level teachers. The results do give the reader an idea of the CSRN milieu, and might be useful to the teachers in place. For example, they five volunteer teachers know what quantity of English they use. Furthermore, they know that the estimate of their personal English usage was conservative. It was also found the all of the CSRN teachers' perception is that more English is generally used as the teaching level rises, even if this is not necessarily the case from one level to another. Hopefully, further research on the matter will help practioners better understand their teaching environment and will possibly help them make up their minds on what quantity of English they should use in their classrooms.

APPENDIX A

INTRODUCTION LETTER

Le 2 octobre 2000

Chers collègues,

Permettez-moi de prendre quelques minutes de votre temps. Comme plusieurs d'entre vous le savent déjà, je suis actuellement en congé sabbatique pour retour aux études. Je me suis inscrit à la maîtrise dans le but d'étudier un sujet qui me tient grandement à cœur. Il s'agit de l'utilisation relative de l'anglais en classe, par l'enseignant de langue seconde au secondaire.

Tout comme moi, vous vous êtes sûrement demandés quelle quantité d'anglais utiliser en classe. Les résultats d'études passées quant à la proportion d'anglais varient. Donc, la meilleure façon de trouver une réponse à notre question, est l'étude locale sur le terrain.

C'est pour cette raison que je vous sollicite. En effet, j'apprécierais votre collaboration afin de porter ce projet à terme. Je suis parfaitement conscient qu'il est peut-être déstabilisant d'être impliqué dans un processus de recherche. Cependant, n'ayez crainte, je vous assure que le dérangement serait très minime. En résumé, si vous l'acceptez, le tout consisterait d'enregistrements de quelques leçons à l'aide d'un magnétophone (où je ne serais pas présent). Le seul moment où j'interviendrais serait pour les pré- et post-tests. Alors, je vous emprunterais vos groupes (ou quelques groupes) une fois au mois d'octobre et une fois au mois de février. Aussi, Il y a une petite possibilité que je procède à quelques courtes entrevues, avec un nombre minime d'élèves.

Soyez assurés que tout résultat, calcul ou analyse demeurera confidentiel à l'égard de l'identité des participants.

Je vous laisse mûrir le tout et je vous contacterai d'ici quelques jours. À ce moment, il me fera plaisir de répondre à vos questions et de vous donner plus de détails.

Thanks for your time and take care,

Stéphane Lacroix

PS Si vous désirez vous entretenir avec moi avant, vous pouvez le faire au 764-3191 ou par courriel: stephane.lacroix@sympatico.ca.

APPENDIX B

RECORDING PERIODS

	Sec. 1 teacher	Sec. 2 teacher	Sec. 3 teacher	Sec. 4 teacher	Sec. 5 teacher
Week 1: Jan. 9-12					
Week 2: Jan. 15-19	Jan. 15, Period 1 (Monday, day 9)	Jan. 15, Period 3 (Monday, day 9)	Jan. 18, Period 2 (Thurs., day 3)		Jan. 16, Period 3 (Tuesday, day 1)
Week 3: Jan. 22-25					
Week 4: Jan29-Feb2	Jan. 30, Period 2 (Tuesday, day 1)	Jan. 31, Period 2 (Wed., day 2)	Jan. 30, Period 4 (Tuesday, day 1)	Feb. 2, Period 1 (Friday, day 4)	
Week 5: Feb. 5-9					Feb. 5, Period 2 (Monday, day 5)
Week 6: Feb12-16				Feb.15, Period 4 (Thurs., day 4)	
Week 7: Feb. 19-23	Feb. 21, Period 4 (Wed., day 8)	Feb. 20, Period 1 (Tuesday, day 7)			
Week 8: March 6-9			Mar. 7, Period 3 (Wed., day 3)		March 8, Per. 1 (Thurs., day 4)
Week 9: Mar.12-16		March 15, Per. 4 (Thurs., day 9)		March 12, Per. 3 (Tuesday, day 7)	
Week 10: Mar.19-23	March 22, Per. 3 (Thurs., day 5)				
Week11: Mar.26-30			March 28, Per. 1 (Wed., day 9)	March 26, Per. 2 (Monday, day 7)	March 30, Per. 1 (Friday, day 2)
Week 12: April 2-6					

Please feel free to contact me if you have any questions.

- 764-3191 (home)
- 762-0931, ext. 1188 (work)
- stephane.lacroix@sympatico.ca
- ICQ: 9111873

Thanks a million!!! This means a lot to me.

Stephane

APPENDIX C

MEMO SENT TO TEACHERS

Memo

This is to remind you of your next recording on _____, period ___.

Thank you and have a nice day,

Stephane ☺

PS Don't forget the tape player.

APPENDIX D

TAPE-RECORDER INSTRUCTIONS

- Please place the tape-recorder in front of the class, with the internal microphone facing the group.
- Don't record testing periods.
- When done, please leave the cassettes on your desk. This way, I can get them back even if you are absent.
- All you have to do to record is to press on the "REC" button. However, if you think some buttons were tampered with, you can check the following default settings (from left to right):
    - Rec volume: to the left (none);
    - Vari-speed: center;
    - Volume (outside button): to the left (none) + Tone (inside button): center;
    - Monitor: tape;
    - Tape select (eq): 120 us;
    - Tape select (bias): low;
    - Anc: top position;
    - Rec select: arl (top position);
    - **Tape speed: long play (***very important***).**

APPENDIX E

INVITATION TO LUNCH SENT OUT TO THE 5 VOLUNTEER TEACHERS

Hello dear friend,

Once again, I'd like to thank you for taking part in my research. Without your participation, I wouldn't be able to fulfill one of my dreams. In order to show you my gratitude, I'd like to invite you for lunch. It would be informal, in the sense that we wouldn't have to talk about the research.

I'm eagerly standing by for your response,

Stephane

APPENDIX F

MODEL OF CLASSIFICATION GRID FOR ENGLISH AND FRENCH WORDS

-Secondary :_____
-Date : _____
-Period:_____

English	French

-Uncertain words:

APPENDIX G

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS

General Instructions:

- You must classify each word used by the teacher in the appropriate column, English or French. Each word is represented by a check (✔).
- For contractions, each contracted word counts as one check. For example: don't (do not) = 2 checks, j'suis (je suis) = 2 checks.
- If a French word that is accepted in the English dictionary is used in an English sentence, it counts as an English word. For example, "What a cliché" (cliché = 1 check). The same is true for the inverse scenario.
- Use the variable speed button for a slower pace (when the speech is too fast), and for a faster pace (when the there is no speech).
- The results must be kept confidential at all times.
- When done with a cassette, be sure to put it back in its original case.
- Also, don't hesitate to contact me if you have any questions.

Thanks in advance,

Stephane
764-3191
762-0931, ext. 1188
stephane.lacroix@sympatico.ca

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