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CASE STUDY EXPLORATIONS OF SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING
DEVELOPMENT IN EARLY FRENCH IMMERSION GRADE ONE STUDENTS

Hella M. Gruter

A thesis submitted to the School of Graduate Studies and Research
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Education
Faculty of Education
University of Ottawa



Hella M. Gruter, Ottawa, Canada, 1990



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UNIVERSITÉ D'OTTAWA
UNIVERSITY OF OTTAWA

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I wish to express my deep appreciation to the children in my grade one class, for it was their writing which enabled me to discover the way children learn to write in a second language.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the second language writing development of 23 Early French Immersion (E.F.I.) grade one students who wrote in a Whole Language classroom. Data, consisting of Journal and Story writing, were collected over the 1986-1987 school year. Five Research Questions were studied:

1. How much did the subjects write?
2. About which topics did the subjects choose to write?
3. How much audience awareness was developed by the subjects?
4. How functional was the language used by the subjects?
5. What orthographic strategies were used by the subjects?

All writing under study was subjected to varying levels of analysis: statistical analysis of total written production; classification and categorization of topics, language functions, spelling strategies; correct spelling and writing vocabulary. The results of the analysis provided the following answers.

The answers to the first Research Question were as follows: 1) age was not a deciding factor in amount written; 2) girls wrote significantly more than boys; 3) significant increases in quantity occurred in Journal writing but not in Story writing; and 4) the mean increase in Journal writing over terms for boys, girls and all children was significant at the .001 level.

The answer to the second Research Question indicated that these young L2 writers wrote predominantly about human relations, personal ideas and feelings which were crucial to them.

The answer to the third Research Questions revealed that close to 70 % of the writing was addressed to the teacher. Audience categories: "Self" and "Peers" were found in the remaining writing.

Answers to the fourth Research Question (conducted from studying products of the 23 subjects) showed that Reporting Personal Facts; Stating General Facts and Opinions as well as Asking Opinion Questions were language functions most frequently found in the students' dialogue Journal writing. The teacher's written responses most frequently took the form of Asking Information Questions, Reporting Opinions, and Evaluating.

The fifth Research Question was studied from analysis of the spelling of 8 of the 23 subjects. The following are the answers to this question: 1) the majority of L2 spellings were not random, but reflected sensible linguistic decisions made by the writer; 2) L2 writers, like L1 writers, use a wide range of orthographic strategies to produce meaningful texts; 3) proportionally to their written amount, all writers increased the number of correct spellings and variety of words in their writing vocabulary; 4) the interlanguage spellings of L2 writers could be recognized by the use of English and French letter names as well as the omission of letters and the representation of certain French sounds by letters which provided the closest fit.

The findings of the study challenge traditional ways of introducing young children to reading and writing in the second language. They call into question instruction delivered in a predetermined, lock-step, sequential manner and favour a more holistic child-centered approach to L2 literacy learning.

The results of the inquiry suggest that replication of the present study in higher E.F.I. grades would be beneficial.

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CHAPTER 1

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

Motivation to undertake the research of grade one Early French Immersion (E.F.I.) students writing in the second language, was generated from dissatisfaction with the skills-oriented language arts program in E.F.I. In such a program, language teaching divides language into listening, speaking, reading and writing, a division which has led to a lack of understanding of the interdependence of language processes. The separation of the four language skills stemmed from the belief that children could not learn to write, until they had achieved a certain degree of verbal fluency, and they were able to read.

Recent views of language and language learning provide a more holistic focus. In the last two decades, researchers concerned with the acquisition of reading and writing by first language learners have accumulated much evidence, which demonstrates that children become readers and writers by actually reading and writing a great deal. These researchers therefore recommend that early language instruction should involve the children in reading real texts, taken from children's literature, and writing self-generated language dealing with meaningful, self-selected subjects, which are relevant to the children. Such natural language activities are becoming more and more a part of the curriculum in English primary classes. The link between recent literacy acquisition theory and educational practices however, has yet to be made in E.F.I primary classrooms.

At the time when work for this study was begun (September, 1985), writing as a meaning making process was not a part of the Immersion

Program. A review of the literature concerning young children writing in their first language, convinced this teacher that, second language grade one students would also be able to learn to write starting on entry to grade one, if they were given the opportunity to do so in a classroom set up to promote literacy acquisition. Consequently, during the 1985 -1986 school year, we conducted a pilot study in a special E.F.I. grade one class based on first language literacy acquisition principles. When the pilot study produced favourable results i.e. children naturally knew what it meant to write and spontaneously wrote an ever increasing amount, we strengthened our holistic second language program the following year. It was during this year (1986 -1987) that data consisting of story and journal writing produced by twenty-three E.F.I. grade one students for the present study were collected. The purpose of this study was to help determine whether grade one children, when encouraged to write daily starting on the first day of school, would be able to write in French, without formal instruction in writing, and produce meaningful and functional texts while at the same time developing their ability to speak and read in that language.

Knowledge of language processes enabled this educator to bring theory into practice, thereby gaining a better understanding of second language reading and writing acquisition and the kind of learning environment needed to promote it. The theoretical rationale for the educational practice in this classroom is described in the review of the literature in this chapter.

LANGUAGE AS A PROCESS

For some time literacy studies have made the distinction between language product and language process, between what is understood, said, or

written and the processes involved in these actions. Researchers stressing the centrality of the process, focus on how individuals construct meaning through language. This focus implies the cognitive process as well as the psychological and social strategies involved in successful written language use and learning. Harste, Woodward & Burke (1984) define process as the cognitive activity the language user engages in when making meaning. Meaning making, the creative work of the active mind, is the mental trip the language user takes in his explorations of written language. Access to the process can only be gained by engaging in it, and the cognitive strategies of the language user allow him to learn written language in the process of using written language. His most powerful learning strategy is his active involvement in the process. This permits him to bring to bear all he knows about language in order to test new hypotheses.

Smith (1976: 9), Goodman, K and Goodman, Y (1977: 262), Graves (1983), Bouffler (1983: 7) and Harste, Woodward & Burke (1984: 39) all have concluded that the meaning making process in literacy acquisition is the same for children and adults. They state that the only difference between children and adults is the degree of control over the process. Adults, having had more language opportunities, have acquired more experience. Therefore, adults have more information about language which they can apply in learning more language. These researchers also believe that language does not need to be simplified for children so that they may learn it. On the contrary children must encounter the language process in its complexity in order to learn control. All children need are adults who will support and encourage their efforts. The above named researchers see the construction of meaning through language as the pivotal element in the reading and writing process. Their description of the

language user as an individual, who processes language and while doing so constructs meaning, has established reading and writing as psycholinguistic processes. In addition to the psycholinguistic strategies the learner employs, there is the social environment to be considered. Man is a social being, and language and language learning can only be completely understood when viewed within a social context. Vygotsky (1978a and c), Harste, Woodward & Burke (1984), Rosenblatt (1985), Wells (1986), and Smith (1988) underline the importance of this context. The subjects in this study wrote within the social context of an E.F.I classroom where the language learning climate reflected the ideas expressed by the following researchers.

Krashen (1976, 1977, 1982a; Krashen, Long & Scarcella 1982; Krashen & Terrell 1983) states that young children acquire a second language in a way similar to that of first language acquisition. Krashen (1984b, 1985), Krashen & Terrell (1983) posit that children acquire a second language in a school environment when they receive comprehensible input. Second language acquisition is brought about when the teacher's speech is roughly tuned to the children's language level and focuses on communication. Children receive help in comprehension from extra-linguistic information such as concrete and visual aids. E.F.I. provides children with much comprehensible input as the program allows the children to gain in second language competence via comprehensible subject-matter teaching.

Widdowson (1979), Canale and Swain (1980) specify that more effective second language learning takes place when listening, speaking, reading and writing ability are developed in an integrated fashion within a curriculum emphasizing meaningful communication. In such a program the acquisition of grammatical competence is facilitated through reading and production of

authentic texts. Genesee (1987) adds that integrated and interactional language experiences provide a good basis for development of second language proficiency.

Wells (1983) studying the quality of teacher-child talk in first language infant schools found that at home as well as at school language acquisition is essentially a matter of meaning negotiation between adult and child. Negotiation of meaning involves a set of interaction strategies which promote mutual understanding among child and teacher. These strategies promote the learner's comprehension of what the teacher is intending to mean, what the situation means, and therefore what the language means and how it works. It is through comprehension of the total communicative situation, including both verbal messages and the nonverbal significance of events, that the child comes to learn how to comprehend language and ultimately how to use it effectively in self-expression and communication.

Donaldson (1978; 1983) who took issue with Piaget's (1959; Ginsberg and Oppen, 1988) concept of egocentric thought, replicated several of his experimental tasks. In doing so she altered the situational and linguistic contexts of Piaget's own experiments, and she found that a higher percentage of children was able to answer questions regarding situations where the child had to decenter. Her studies showed that there was little indication of egocentrism as a serious barrier to communication. Preschool children participating in her research demonstrated that they were able to see and appreciate someone else's point of view. The reason for the inability of the children in Piaget's study, according to her, was to be found in the use of language in the questions asked during the decentering tasks. Piagetian researchers failed to pay attention to the difference between language as it is spontaneously used and interpreted by a child and language used in a research

project. Frequently the children did not know what the language meant and the discrepancy in language led to the children's interpretation of the tasks which did not correspond to the experimenter's intention.

Donaldson (1978; 1983) found that children may experience difficulty reasoning in contrived experimental settings but that they can reason deductively in spontaneous every day real-life, meaningful situations. The reason for this discrepancy in thinking ability lies in the fact that for a child the meaning of language and the meaning of the situation are closely linked. The child's thought is embedded within the bounds of human sense and intentions. These intentions sustain and direct the child's thoughts and speech. If something in the situation is particularly striking for the child he will focus on it. The interpretation and the meaning of the language are affected by this salience. In the experimental situation the child's thought is required to operate out of the primitive embeddedness and in detachment from human sense and therefore the child is not able to show his skills as a thinker.

Donaldson came to the conclusion that the young child is much more capable of logical thought than Piaget's findings indicated and that mental development depends partly on the way in which language is learned and taught in school. It is the teacher's task to help the child make the transition from "embedded" to "disembedded" or more abstract thought. Donaldson argues that one way to do this is through early reading and writing as becoming literate effects the child's mental growth. Reading and writing have the power to help children become disembedded thinkers as story reading and writing provide opportunities for discussion of what is relevant or extraneous to the development of the content.

The above discussion underlines the importance of the social context in

understanding how children learn to comprehend and use a first as well as a second language. We understand that language processes form a whole in language use. Reading and writing are not separate entities as two-way connections exist between them and spelling is seen as an integral part of both. However, for the purpose of analyzing each process in some detail, we have separated them.

READING PROCESS

The children, whose writing constitutes the primary data for this study, wrote in a classroom which provided a completely individualized, literature-based reading program. From the beginning the four language skills were developed in a simultaneous and integrated manner. The integration of reading children's literature with daily writing provided the children with models of good story writing, a process they were learning. A brief description of the reading process which follows, serves to explain the theoretical rationale for the reading program implemented in this E.F.I. grade one class.

The findings of schema theorists have contributed to a better knowledge of the reading process and reading comprehension. Wilson & Anderson (1986) and Anderson & Pearson (1988) outline the long history of the notion of schema, its role in the study of cognitive development, and development of a theory of knowledge. Pearson & Spiro (1982), Clifton & Slowiaczek (1981), Rumelhart (1981) as well as the above theorists describe schemata as abstract structures representing the sum total of a person's knowledge. These structures continually undergo restructuring and fine tuning by incoming new information. Comprehension takes place when new information can be successfully related to and integrated with existing knowledge.

Schema theory holds that the written text does not carry meaning by itself. Meaning is constructed through the interaction between the reader's activated background knowledge and the information in the text. Each reader brings his personal knowledge to the text; therefore more than one interpretation is possible. Schema theory (Rumelhart, 1977) views reading as an interactive process which involves simultaneous analysis at many different levels, from the textual level of graphophonic, morphemic, syntactic and semantic features, to the experience based levels of knowledge of text content and structure and the reader's interpretive thinking. Efficient reading comprehension is seen as a process of creating the most plausible interpretation of the text. This is a function of the particular schemata activated at the time of the reading act. Rumelhart (1981) describes the two sources of schema activation. One is text based or data driven and the other is knowledge based or conceptually driven. The former processes language from part to whole and the latter deals with language from the whole to the part. Schema-directed processing is bidirectional and occurs at all levels simultaneously. Text based processing is evoked by incoming featural data and the reader's knowledge-based processing selects between alternative interpretations of this data.

Carrell (1984c; 1988a; 1988b) demonstrates that schema theory applies to first and second language comprehension; however, lack of control of the second language as well as cultural differences in the reader's background tend to cause processing difficulties leading to poor comprehension. Pearson & Spiro (1982) and Rumelhart (1981) outline the causes of reading comprehension failure. Problems arise in the following cases: when the reader lacks background knowledge necessary to make sense of text (schema

availability); when the reader has the background information but fails to bring it into focus (schema selection); when the reader gives too much attention to visual analysis of text so that there is no capacity left to deal with synthesis and integrative thinking necessary to create a coherent whole for the text (schema maintenance).

Carrell (1983; 1984a; 1984b; 1985; 1988a) has shown that the second language reader's inability to comprehend a text could be caused by his/her lack of the appropriate schemata i.e in the content area of the text (content schemata) or the rhetorical organizational structure of the text (formal schemata). Since there is an intimate bond between culture and language the reader's differing cultural background from the cultural content of the text, causes the reader to interpret the text in terms of his own culture. How some of these conflicts were minimized in this E.F.I. grade one reading program is described in chapter two.

WRITING PROCESS

A review of the literature showed that children best learn to write by writing and that it is more fruitful to look at the process rather than the product of writing when studying writing development. Until the early sixties, however, little was known about the writing process. Emig (1963) writes that until that time, writing was most commonly perceived as the linear recording of an already formulated conception in the writer's mind. To find out more about the process, researchers began to interview professional writers about their methods of writing and to analyse the writing process of students learning to write. Research of the process revealed the transactional nature of language as well as the interaction between language and thought.

We have divided the review of the literature of the writing process into the following subdivisions: The Making of Meaning; The Relation Between Language and Thought; The Description of Essential Characteristics of the Writing Process; and Writing in a Second Language.

The Making of Meaning

For Berthoff (1979a: 70) writing is "analogous to all those processes by which we make sense of the world". In composition, we make meanings, which includes perceiving, thinking, and writing. In the meaning making process language becomes the great heuristic. She says: "It is the discursive, generalizing, forming power of language which makes meanings out of a chaos of images, remembrances, from the mysterious and the unformed". Neisser (1976) posits that, in its general sense, perception is the construction of meaning. Individuals actively construct meaning from sensory input, from memory of past experiences from personal volition and expectations as they interact with their environment. Humans know reality not directly but by the meaning they make of it. The transactions between the perceiver and the perceived inform and transform him since perception forms a bridge between cognition and reality.

It is in this perceptual context, that the transactional nature of language and writing can best be understood. The writer in writing down his own ideas, creates further ideas. The writer's ideas, in transaction with written language, change as the text evolves. Writing therefore is a generative act as the alliance between the author's use of language and his thoughts is responsible for the element of discovery in the writing process. Language and thought both act and react upon each other; thought is affected by its linguistic formulation. The meaning which the author is creating is both input and output, between his

ideas to be expressed and the words to say it. Language modifies the author's meaning, the writer in turn refines his language to better express his ideas. Language is no longer seen as a separate entity but as an instrument the author uses in the discovery and clarification of his meaning.

Language and Thought

Vygotsky (1962) studied the relationship between language and thought in the thirties, but it was not until an English translation of his text became available, that writing researchers were able to use his findings in the explanation of the writing process. John-Steiner, a Vygotsky scholar, sees a direct link between Vygotsky's concept of inner speech and the creative thought of the artists she studied.

John-Steiner (1985) stresses that to understand the writing process, we must rely on the insights of writers who have discovered the varied ways in which ideas are woven into text. Her analysis of thought and the creative process of "experienced thinkers" in various fields provides an explanation of how writers experience sudden bursts of creative thoughts. The writers in her study developed the habit of recording these flashes of insight into quick notes so that these ideas could be developed and expanded into a more elaborate form at a later date. The modes to record these fleeting ideas varied according to the discipline of the artist. Ideas were recorded in sketches, diagrams and short notes. Writers generally would make notes although they were not constrained to verbal thinking. She called these private, fragmentary notebook and journal notations, from which writers and other creative people work, the "telegrams of thought".

John-Steiner sees writing as an externalized form of thought. The writer,

in the course of developing an effective form for the externalization of his thoughts, produced successive, approximations of text through expansion, rephrasing and editing in order to create an integrated work. Her definition of writing leads to the much discussed connection between thought and language. The debate regarding this connection (Piaget, 1959; Macnamara, 1977; Piatelli-Palmarini, 1980; Steele, 1980; Rieber & Voyat, 1983) is extensive with opposing points of view. However, for the purpose of this study we will concentrate on Vygotsky's position only, as it best corroborates the analysis of the writing process. It is the opinion of researchers in writing such as Emig, Berthoff and John-Steiner that Vygotsky best illustrates the intertwining of communicative language with nonverbal thought, which occurs when writers write. A grasp of Vygotsky's concept of "inner speech", which John-Steiner says resembles her concept of "telegrams of thought", is essential for the understanding of the writing process. Vygotsky (1962: 149) describes "inner speech" as "thinking in pure meanings". He further defines it as a "dynamic, shifting, unstable thing, fluttering between word and thought, the more or less firmly delineated components of verbal thought".

Vygotsky specifies that thought and language have different genetic origins. In the beginning speech is nonintellectual and thought is nonverbal but when the child is between two and three years old, the curves of development of thought and speech intersect to initiate rational speech and verbal thought. The major function of speech is to communicate and a vast area of thought forms a person's nonverbal intellect but branching off from social, communicative speech is what Vygotsky calls egocentric speech, language used by the individual for his own purpose. Egocentric speech, not yet separate from social speech, is functionally and structurally different from

it. Egocentric speech, abbreviated and partly incomprehensible to others, but still overt in form, is a transitional stage in the evolution from external social speech to inner speech. As egocentric speech becomes interiorized the child's speech structures become the structures of his thinking.

With Vygotsky defining inner speech as "thinking in pure meanings" and John-Steiner seeing writing as an "externalized form of thought" the complexity of writing becomes clear. Writing involves a transformation of the condensed idiom of inner speech into articulate language intelligible to others. Vygotsky (1962: 144) sees inner speech as the first "mental draft" of a piece of writing. The complex process of writing, which is the communication between two minds, Vygotsky (1962: 148-149) says can be achieved only in a roundabout way: thought must first pass through meaning and then through words.

Characteristics of the Writing Process

In John-Steiner's study the emphasis is mainly on the inspiration of the writer; however, the findings concerning the creative element in the writing process of the last decade, show that writers have other means to create new ideas. Freedman & Pringle (1980) argue that with a renewal in composition research, the creative, uniquely personal element in writing is now reconsidered. In the past, having ideas, the creative discovery component of the writing process, was considered a given. Recent studies of the writing process have brought to light that the element of invention in writing is less elusive. It is now accepted that it can be studied and defined. The contemporary view of invention in Freedman's formulation, "involves making as well as finding, creating as well as discovering" meaning. Invention now

pervades every step of the process. To quote Freedman & Pringle (1980: 182) again: "The whole writing process is seen in the reinvented rhetoric as a creative process in which meanings are made through the active and continued involvement of the writer with the unfolding text".

Writers like Elbow (1973), Mandel (1978), Berthoff (1979a) and Emig (1977) describe the chaotic beginnings of writing with multitudes of ideas invading the writer's mind and only a basic idea of where the writing is going to go. Perl (1979; 1980a) calls it a "felt sense" which sets the stage and establishes a frame of mind within which writing is likely to occur. Emig (1963: 18), Murray (1982: 129) and Britton (1980: 61-67) are aware that from the rather global beginning to the specific final product exists the long difficult process of text creation, involving finding and clarifying one's own ideas, discovering new ones and integrating both.

Studies of the writing process involving students of various ages and abilities by Emig (1971), Perl (1979; 1980b) and Pianko (1979a; 1979b) have brought out the recursive as well as the anticipatory features of the process. The recursiveness of writing has revealed the strong connection between writing and reading. When writing, the writer continually reads and rereads his text to assess whether ideas have been adequately captured, to help him know more fully what he means in order to continue writing what he intends to say. The writers in Pianko's study have demonstrated that not much planning precedes writing but rather that the frequent pauses during writing serve to reorient the writer and help him to decide what to write next. Reviewing that what has been written, frequently leads the writer to revise his text. Perl found that good writers were capable of thoroughly restructuring their piece through revision; the weaker writers however, tended to make only surface corrections

dealing mainly with spelling. Sommers (1979; 1981; Sommers & Butterff 1980) found that for her experienced writers revision is ongoing throughout the entire composing process and is fundamental to good writing. It involves a profound reorganization of the text through rereading and rewriting and as such exemplifies a recursive process, shaping the writer's thought through language.

Writing in the Second Language

Reviewing the literature for research in writing, Graves (1973; 1980: 914) found that it consisted mostly of experimental designs seeking to find "good methods" in the teaching of writing. From 1955 until 1972 only twelve percent of writing research looked at children's writing process. Zamel (1976) discovered that even less research in composition in English as a Second Language (ESL) had been done: only the studies with adult L2 students by Erasmus (1960); Brière (1966); and Povey (1969) dealt to some extent with writing as a meaning making process. Erasmus advocated free composition in much the same manner as Elbow (1973) did, so that students would be less inhibited and produce greater quantities of written language. Brière tested Erasmus' concept in a pilot study and found that the length of texts by ESL university students increased significantly over a period of an academic year. With increase in number of words of each subsequent text came a decrease in number of errors, thus supporting the theory that in beginning writing there should be emphasis on quantity before quality. Povey declares that writing can best be taught by writing.

Emig's (1971) classical study of the composing processes of twelfth graders marked a turning point in first language writing research which has since blossomed. Krashen (1984a: 38) reports that this has not been the case

for ESL writing studies and that there is still "very little known about writing in a second language". However some research has been done in this field: first we present studies in writing where English is the second language and then those that deal with Spanish and French.

Taylor (1981) proposed that instruction in second language composing should focus on the process of writing rather than the product. Zamel (1982; 1983) undertook the study of the writing process in the second language. The proficient ESL adult students in her case study, represented a variety of language groups. She observed and recorded their composing behaviour and followed these activities up with interviews at the end of the study. Her findings reveal that there are clear similarities in first and second language writing processes. The results of her study provide information about the writing process of the skilled and less skilled writer writing in English as a second language. Her findings parallel those of adult writers writing in a first language by Perl (1979) and Pianko (1979a).

Proficient adult ESL writers, like native language writers, experience writing as a meaning making process. Their writing behaviour and their revelations about the constant interplay between thinking, planning, writing and rewriting reinforce the notion that writing in a first as well as a second language is a process of discovering and making meaning. Zamel's (1983) data for adult students revealed that through the act of writing itself, ideas are explored, clarified and reformulated and as this process continues, new ideas suggest themselves and become assimilated into the developing pattern of thought. The process of less skilled writers was different. They lost track of what they meant because they had a constant concern with grammar, spelling and the mechanics of writing. They confused revision with editing. They made

surface-level corrections but rarely made changes which affected the meaning of their piece of writing. Their final version was basically just a neater version of an earlier draft.

Zamel's (1983) study also shows that certain composing problems transcend language factors and are shared by both native and non-native writers of English. The better writers demonstrate that language is not a real part of the problem. They find it hard to get the ideas down the way they want, but the second language does not seriously impede that process. Zamel (1983) goes on to say that skilled writers devised strategies that allowed them to pursue the development of ideas without being side-tracked by lexical or syntactic difficulties. They used the native language when an English word failed them, they misspelled words or left a blank space for an unknown phrase or word, knowing they could attend to these errors later. The exploration of their ideas was of primary importance and once the ideas were in place they began to focus on the grammar and made the necessary corrections. Efficient ESL writers thus demonstrated that composing in a second language is also an exploratory, recursive and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning. The weaker students on the contrary attended to surface problems before they had clearly sensed and expressed in some form what they meant to say.

The next three studies deal with children in bilingual classrooms, writing in both Spanish and English and the last with French and English. Hudelson (1980; 1981; 1984) states that findings about literacy learning for natives are shown to be true for second language learners. Children speaking little or no English are able to read English environmental print, they read English before they have complete oral control of that language, and in writing they use many

of the spelling strategies described by Read (1971; 1975). Edelsky (1982; 1986) studied the writing process in bilingual programs, and found that the knowledge young writers have about writing in the first language forms the basis of new hypotheses rather than interfering with writing in the second language. Flores, Garcia & Gonzalez (1985) studied writing in biliterate primary classrooms where the reading program was based on children's literature, which differed from the Hudelson and Edelsky studies where basal readers and the Language Experience Approach were used. Flores found that, once the children had a good grasp of writing in one language, they applied this knowledge to writing in the second language.

Jilbert and Maguire (1986) conducted a combined study of spelling in the second language by children in a grade three class. Jilbert worked with native speakers of Spanish writing in English as a second language in a rural Arizona community. Maguire worked with native speakers of English writing in French as a second language who were residents of urban Montreal. Their data reveal that students construct hypotheses about the second language as a linguistic system distinct from the first language. These students spelled a high percentage of words correctly in the second language and for words with which they had difficulty, they applied spelling strategies inherent to the first language in rendering second language nonconventional spelling. These studies show that learning to write in a second language involves, to various degrees, the use of the native and the second language.

SPELLING PROCESS

Language acquisition studies (Chomsky, 1975; Carey, 1978; Elliott, 1981; Lightfoot, 1982; Wells, 1986) describe the child's innate ability to learn to

speak and acquire a large vocabulary before reaching school age. Early literacy development studies (Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1982; Goodman, K and Goodman, Y, 1977: 251; Harste and Woodward & Burke, 1984) have demonstrated the child's active involvement in interpreting and producing written language. Descriptive accounts of children's success in learning to write by inventing their own spelling either before or simultaneously with learning to read have been reported by Clay (1975; 1977), Bissex (1980a and b), De Ford (1980), King (1980), Coles & Goodman (1980), Graves (1973; 1983), Milz (1983; 1985), Hausler (1984) and Clarke, L. (1988) among others. All of the above researchers clearly show the child's active and continued search for meaning in oral and written language. Their findings provided the impetus to encourage the children in this study to write in a second language and to spell to the best of their ability. Meaning making was emphasized, errors were viewed as a necessary part of the learning process in gaining control over written language and correctness of form was dealt with in the editing stage of writing.

The review of the literature in nonstandard spelling has largely been conducted with native speakers of English; we found only one in French by Gill (1980). We begin the review with Read (1971; 1975) as he was the first scholar to undertake the study of nonstandard spelling and because he viewed spelling as a cognitive process. His analysis of the misspellings of written samples of four and five year old preschoolers revealed the existence and nature of children's phonetic categorizations. The children studied had learned the conventional names of the letters of the alphabet and had begun to spell out messages without the aid of formal instruction; the nonstandard spelling system which they developed could therefore be considered the

result of a spontaneous linguistic performance. He called the unconventional writing "invented spelling". These children created writing in which all phonemes were represented in letter names. When vowels could not be represented in that way the children used a phoneme which was very similar to the one that was missing. The unknown phonemes were constructed on the basis of phonetic similarity as they perceived it. He found that the primary sources of variation in invented spelling were the age of the child, the amount that each child wrote, degree of influence of standard spelling and influence of dialect variation.

Henderson and Beers (1977), Henderson (1980a and b) and Beers (1980) replicated and extended Read's line of investigation by studying spelling of primary school-aged children. Their work supports Read's findings. The longitudinal nature of their study enabled them to state that a child's knowledge of orthography is acquired systematically and gradually, spelling patterns are sequential, generally invariant regardless of when a child starts to write, and patterns reflect a progressive differentiation of orthographic knowledge. Gill (1980) analysed the spelling of unilingual French children in the four primary grades of a French private school in Montreal. She found that spelling errors in French are analyzable according to Henderson & Beer's theory and she concludes that learning to spell is a cognitive process in French as well as in English. What these researchers all had in common was that they focussed entirely on the phonemic system of language by intensively studying the child's sound-to-letter strategies.

Harste, Woodward & Burke (1984: 48) took issue with several of Henderson and Beers' statements: the fact that they saw spelling mainly as a system which consisted of making connections between oral and written language; their view of stages of development; the importance they attributed

to the child's development of "wordness" as a sign of growth in literacy; as well as calling the early scribbles a random activity. They found that Henderson's description of stages left too much unexplained, developmental trends were not consistent enough across all children and that it was "literally impossible to decide when children first develop a notion of "wordness" as young children frequently write in chunks of meaning". Henderson and Beers, had also failed to explain nonphonetic elements in the spelling process.

Harste, Woodward & Burke's longitudinal study added new dimensions to the knowledge of the spelling process. They closely examined the very early writing efforts of three year olds with the aid of video tapes. The visual evidence enabled them to retrace the step by step development of a scribble including the commentary the child gave to explain his work. They thus came to the conclusion that scribbles were not random but intentional. Children consciously discriminated between writing scribbles which were predominantly linear, and art scribbles which tended to be circular. Both types could be found in one and the same piece of writing. Art and writing, both served to represent the child's thoughts and complemented one another in placeholdering the child's meaning. Vygotsky (1978e), several decades earlier, had made a similar statement by positing that make believe play, drawing and writing were different moments in the unified process of written language development. He argued that drawing was an important step on the way to writing. First the child discovered that by drawing he could represent the object or the situation as he had understood it, while at a later stage he learned that the speech in which those objects are referred to could also be represented. The written language of children therefore developed by shifting from drawing of things to drawing of words.

Harste, Woodward & Burke observed that children use spelling strategies not only involving the "phonemic" system of language (spelling the way it sounds) but also the "graphemic" (spelling the way it looks) and the "morphemic" (spelling the way it means) systems of language. These researchers substituted the term "invented spelling" for "functional spelling" because the as yet unconventional marks on paper enabled the writer to placeholder meaning at the point of utterance and they enabled the reader to predict the author's meaning.

Bouffler refined and increased Harste, Woodward & Burke's categories of spelling strategies to create a taxonomy for coding the spelling data collected from the written products of children and adults. She found that spelling is not a linear, monolithic skill going from oral to written language, developing through various stages of competence towards the ideal standard form, but a multisensory process including progress and regression. Everything the writer knows about language and the context of the situation in which he writes affect the way he spells. In order to improve one aspect of spelling another may temporarily suffer and regression often becomes the stepping stone to a higher level of development. She found as well that invented spelling was not a stage which children pass through on their way to becoming standard spellers but that it represented a functional use of language for children as well as adults, since learning to spell and increasing spelling ability depends mainly on the amount of daily reading and writing one does.

The theoretical rationale for the acquisition of French orthography, and the production of interlanguage forms by the subjects in this study as they invent second language spelling is based on Adjémian's (1976) reformulation of Selinker, Swain and Dumas' (1975) interlanguage hypothesis. Adjémian

states that if learner languages are linguistic systems in the same way Natural Languages are, then they fit into the set of all possible human languages and are subject to their general constraints. He defines a natural language as any human language shared by a community of speakers and developed over time by a general process of evolution. He interprets interlanguage as a linguistic system between the native language of the learner and the target language. By nature incomplete and in a state of flux, interlanguage is, however, a linguistic system in its own right. The key difference between an interlanguage and another natural language system is the absence of stability resulting from the general property of permeability. The grammar of an interlanguage system being permeable can be penetrated by rules of another natural language as well as allow the overgeneralization or distortion of its own rules. The property of permeability explains why learners can transfer grammatical properties from their native language and why they can generalize or otherwise distort target language properties in an effort to communicate. The internal consistency of an interlanguage can be violated by the use of production and communication strategies.

Interlanguage has a rule and feature system which is systematic. The systematicity or internal consistency of this system allows the learner to generate novel utterances and structures for which he has grammatical intuitions. The learner using the available linguistic data makes hypotheses about the grammatical rules of the target language to be learned. In an attempt to convey his meaning, he will use whatever resources he can muster to overcome linguistic obstacles. However, when "the desire to express meaning overrides the learner's emerging grammatical intuitions, or lack of intuitions (then he) produces a string which is either inconsistent or impossible for (his)

own interlanguage norm" (Adjémian, 1976: 308).

Adjémian states that there are two ways in which incorrect forms are generated. Either the interlanguage system is penetrated by rules or forms of the native language or an internalized target language rule or form is improperly generalized or distorted in some other way. The learner may let a foreign rule penetrate his interlanguage system, then through further exposure and use of the target language, the learner could possibly permanently incorporate this rule into his interlanguage system. The evolution of the interlanguage system will continue with as ultimate goal to replicate the system of the target language in the learner's language acquisition device.

If interlanguages are a subset of the set of all natural languages then Adjémian says one can make useful hypotheses about the nature of the interlanguage linguistic system. He (1976: 302-304) declares, however, that if a description of interlanguage is to have any value, a distinction between learning strategies and linguistic rules must be clearly made. He explains that learners make use of learning strategies in their attempt to determine the form of the inherent systematicity of the language system they are attempting to acquire. He views learning strategies as cognitive processes used by the learner to create hypotheses as to the grammatical possibilities of the linguistic system being learned. Learning strategies can result in the improper formulation of the rule but they can also result in correct formulation of a characteristic of the target language system. Learning strategies are concerned with a learner acquiring a language system. However, linguistic rules, have to do with the actual form of a linguistic system. Adjémian says that the, as yet unknown, interlanguage system of linguistic rules allows the learner to generate novel utterances, which they have never heard and which may differ in structure from both the form of the utterances in the native and target language; this is

why typically interlanguage forms exist.

Earlier in this review of the literature it has been outlined that successful language acquisition requires forming and testing hypotheses about the ways in which language functions. In reading and writing the learner employs the hypothesis-testing procedure, which involves risk-taking and the making of errors. The discussion of the interlanguage system has shown that errors, which reveal the user's strategies, are due to the unique property of permeability.

The study of learner language errors has been used in various fields to better understand language acquisition processes. Goodman (1973: 94) used miscues in oral reading in understanding the reading process. Milz (1983) and Bouffler (1983) have both made use of the miscue concept in order to understand young writers' nonstandard written forms of the first language. Perl (1979: 323) applied the concept with unskilled college writers.

Errors made by mature first year college students with limited language training writing in a first language have lead to a remarkable study by Shaunessy (1977). She found that writing in a first language for these adult students, whom she calls basic writers with mature perception of ideas and rudimentary skills in writing, was similar to writing in a second language. Shaunessy (1977: 105) found that their errors were "the result not of carelessness or irrationality but of thinking". Bartholomae (1980) and Horning (1987) further develop the theory proposed by Shaunessy. Horning came to the conclusion that "basic writers learn to write as others learn a second language because for them, academic discourse is a distinct language". Writing in English, their first language, was a challenge which compared to learning a second language.

Miscue studies in first language reading and writing acquisition, and the

study of basic writers' incorrect language forms have provided a perspective on errors, which permits their interpretation and classification. The present study adopts the same philosophy of looking at the nonstandard forms of written language produced by E.F.I. grade one students. Their unconventional language forms will be considered indications of the nature of their stage of interlanguage development. Errors, due to the permeability of interlanguage, will be viewed as signs as to how children organized and applied their knowledge of this system in the production of meaningful texts.

THE NEED FOR THE STUDY

As a result of questions raised by the literature and experience gained from the pilot study it was decided to conduct a more comprehensive study. A group of twenty-three Early French Immersion grade one children was used for this study. The group was composed of 12 girls and 11 boys. We refer to this research as a naturalistic inquiry even though conventional tools such as a teacher log usually found in a naturalistic study were not used. The study was conducted by a teacher-researcher who functioned as participant-observer.

The idea as well as the need for the present study originally arose through the observation of five and six year old children learning to read a second language. For a number of years E.F.I. grade one children in this teacher's class had learned to read by reading self-selected stories from children's literature. Since the children had learned to read by reading and because recent research in literacy learning (Goodman, 1986; Murray, 1982: 8; Harste, Woodward & Burke, 1984: 195) presented reading and writing as complementary processes, it was therefore reasonable to suspect that children could learn to write by writing, in a similar way, without previous formal instruction. Growing

numbers of studies in first language writing development supported that view (Clay 1977; Graves 1983; Milz 1983; Harste, Woodward and Burke 1984).

Studies of written production in E.F.I. classes by Bruck, Lambert & Tucker (1977: 25); Barik & Swain (1975) and Harley & Swain (1984) were reported in the literature; however, they dealt with the written product rather than the writing process as described in this study. A review of the literature of writing in a second language revealed that a study of young Anglophone five and six year old children learning to write in French as a second language in a biliterate classroom had not been done. Since to our knowledge such a classroom did not exist at the time when this research was planned, we constructed such a program ourselves. In order to complement our existing literature-based reading program, we implemented a process-oriented writing program during the 1985-1986 school year in school A. Characteristics of such a program are discussed in chapter two. When the children naturally took to writing, it became evident that a study in second language writing would be feasible. Therefore the study was begun the following year with the collection of writing samples from all twenty-three students.

The following research questions guided the study:

- 1. How much will grade one children, without previous instruction, actually write in the second language in a biliterate E.F.L. classroom, when they are given the opportunity to write daily?**
- 2. What are the topics about which these children choose to write?**
- 3. How much audience awareness do these children develop?**
- 4. How functional is the children's use of language?**
- 5. What learning strategies do young second language writers use to translate text into an orthographic form of language?**

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH DESIGN

INTRODUCTION

For children to acquire a second language, they must experience much language by being exposed to large amounts of input. Krashen (1976, 1977, 1982a), Krashen, Long and Scarcella (1982) state that young children acquire a second language in a way similar to that of first language acquisition. Krashen (1985), Krashen and Terrell (1983) add that in a school environment children acquire a second language when they receive comprehensible input. Free reading was one form of comprehensible input which formed an important part of the curriculum; however, it is not the object of the investigation to demonstrate that reading played an influential role in the results of this study. The focus is on how twenty-three E.F.I. grade one children acquired second language writing in this specific E.F.I. Whole Language classroom. In such a class the findings of research in language and literacy learning of the past two decades provide the theoretical foundation for instruction. The review of the literature has shown the strong similarity between learning to read and learning to write in both a first and a second language; therefore, recent theories of literacy acquisition are also applicable in an E.F.I. classroom. Many descriptions of the whole language philosophy appear in the literature (Goodman & Goodman 1981; Goodman 1986; Harste, Woodward & Burke 1984; Newman 1985; Edelsky 1986; Altwerger, Edelsky & Flores 1987). Its major assumption is that reading and writing are acquired, not through practice exercises, but through actual reading and writing.

Since the emphasis in this study is on children learning to write, it is

necessary to state what role the teacher plays in a writing program. Coles (1967: 112) announces "that writing is an art and deserves to be treated as an art by teacher and student alike: that it is a writer's responsibility to improve his writing because no one else can do it for him". Although some aspects of writing may not be teachable, Coles argues that teachers can help to make writing possible. Young (1980: 55) feels that this requires changing the teacher's role from "purveyor of information" to "designer of occasions which stimulate the creative process". Writing cannot be taught in the traditional sense of the word "teach" (Emig 1979b; Falk 1979), as writing is predominantly learned rather than taught; yet adults can help others learn to write when they themselves become learners and writers, fellow practitioners, providers of experiences and feedback.

This E.F.I. class was designed to support and expand the children's existing knowledge and learning skills and encourage children's oral and written second language development. The teacher in this class was co-learner, demonstrating, explaining and constructing meaning together with her students. She provided large amounts of second language input, and increased opportunities for the most productive type of writing such. The description of the various kinds of second language input which the children received is presented here to provide the classroom context in which the subjects wrote. Each aspect of classroom practice is preceded by a theoretic justification for the pedagogy.

SOURCES OF WRITTEN INPUT

Language Experience Units of Study

Stauffer (1970) states that reading is an active, thinking process and that

reading instruction should be based on the knowledge and the oral language the child already possessed. Language Experience from the fifties through the seventies was the most progressive comprehensive view of written language teaching and learning and in a way a precursor to what is now called Whole Language. The Language Experience Approach as opposed to Whole Language, presumes written language to be a secondary system derived from oral language. We now know that written language learning need not wait for oral language acquisition to be complete. Children can learn vocabulary, syntax and gain meaning directly through written language. Secondly the Language Experience Approach perceived of writing as a linear and sequential recording of previously formulated ideas; we know now that ideas are generated during the writing process.

The language experience approach, despite its shortcomings, is a valuable tool in introducing E.F.I. students to second language reading. The following researchers support that view. Pearson & Spiro (1982) and Rumelhart (1981) have demonstrated that when the reader lacks background knowledge necessary to make sense of a text this causes language processing difficulties which in turn lead to poor reading comprehension. In order to promote second language text comprehension Anderson and Barnitz (1984) recommend the building of background knowledge by means of providing the children with an actual experience which becomes the basis for the construction of beginning reading materials. They further argue that in second language reading Language Experience Units provide the reader with a perfect match of reading material and his prior knowledge.

We used the Language Experience Approach based on actual experiences planned by the teacher to construct reading materials with familiar content

and language comprehensible for all children because we were aware of the importance of building background knowledge through this method. Three units of study based on this approach were completed during the first term. Upon completion, the unit went home in booklet format with a cover letter to the parents to encourage their involvement in the reading program and receive feedback from them as they monitored their child's progress (Appendix A-3). During the second term this approach was discontinued as the children lost interest when they became more independent readers and writers.

Shared Reading

Holdaway (1979) created Big Books to share stories with a group of children. Big Books are enlarged copies of popular children's books with large print and large illustrations, so that every member of the group will be able to follow along the text which at first is read by the teacher. The large print and pictures, the predictable structure of the language, the repetitive patterns in rhymes or refrains draw the children into participation and after several readings the children start to read along the familiar passages. In this classroom we read twelve Big Books. Once the story was known children continued to read and reread the story using regular book size versions in a listening centre with a taped version of the story to listen to. Through these demonstrations the children develop what Doake (1985) calls reading-like behaviour.

Story Telling

Rosen (1984; 1985; 1986) and Meek (1988) describe the potency of narrative and how it is part of daily living for children as well as adults, as we transfer into story experiences we have had, as well as that which we have

heard and read. Listening to stories helps to build a frame of reference about patterns of stories and what to anticipate in written language.

All children, except two, had been read to in English from an early age on. The exposure to printed materials in the second language, however, had been minimal when these children entered grade one. This became evident when during the early visits to the school library, children pointing to the title of a book would ask me whether a book was written in French or in English. From the first day of school until the last, several stories were told daily to help the children become familiar with book language. Thus, children were introduced to reading by hearing books read to them. Having demonstrated the pleasure and knowledge books can give, children were then encouraged to read them. To help children acquire French books to read at home, they were given the opportunity to order books monthly. When the book order came in by courier, everyone read or shared a new book with a friend and at the end of the session the teacher would read a new story, which she had acquired for the classroom library. During the school year the children would also go to the public library asking for books by a particular author, often the author of books which the teacher had read to them. They were developing tastes for certain authors similar to the way adult readers do.

Reading Materials

Motivation for learning to read comes from the desire to read real stories, where something happens to believable characters. Huck (1987: 375) is of the opinion that books which are well written and well illustrated and which represent the pluralistic nature of society should be at "the very heart of the reading program". Meek (1988: 21) finds that writers who take children seriously as readers write books which teach untaught lessons, such as understanding the meaning as well as the force of texts, "the nature and variety

of written discourse, the different ways that language lets a writer tell, and the many different ways a reader reads". Making active choices and decisions as to what to read, Harste (1987: 250) says, is an essential part of the reading process. Young children will work hard to master the ability to independently read real books which give back personal satisfaction and enjoyment. Rosenblatt (1980), Meek (1985), Huck (1987), Bennett (1987) and Waterland (1988) recommend that children learn to read in a literature-based reading program as it provides the child with a wide choice of texts. Some studies (Steffenson, Joag-Dev & Anderson 1979; Carrell 1984a, 1988; Nelson, 1987; Steffenson 1987) have shown that second language readers tend to better understand materials which reflect their culture.

The classroom library contained 300 books from children's literature (Appendix A-1), 12 Big Books, monthly children's magazines Hibou and Coulicou, six dictionaries for primary children and 95 student-authored books. From time to time children would bring French or English books from home to share with their classmates. Children took turns looking after the classroom library.

During the middle of October some children started to read individually some very basic books. The children preferred reading French translations of children's books written by Anglophone writers. By December most children had read their first book entirely on their own. When a child felt he could read a book, he would read it to the teacher. After completion of the story, she would ask a few questions to find out if the reader had grasped the meaning of the text. In order to keep track of the number of books the children read, they would record the titles read on a card (Appendix A-2). As more children became independent readers, mothers who had volunteered

their help came to listen to children read. Ten volunteers helped in this capacity from January until the end of June. These volunteers all had at least the equivalent of High School French. Three of them were Francophone. At the completion of the story they verified the child's comprehension of the story, dated and initialed the recorded title.

SOURCES OF PRINT

This grade one class was set up to promote second language literacy learning and much print was made available to the children. Some sources of print were these:

Calendar

The Math Their Way calendar was designed to promote the learning of number concepts and patterns in the mathematical system, but at the same time provided much opportunity for developing oral and written language.

Blackboard

It was used daily for work related to the language arts program and to record the date, special events, the names of children signing up to read with parent volunteers.

Bulletin Boards

These boards displayed published stories written by the children; records of experiments, songs, poems, rhymes recently learned, illustrated vocabulary relevant to the environmental studies' topic studied, messages from the teacher and the names of the children attending school for that day.

Labels

To encourage functional reading and help children become self-reliant workers, materials in learning centres, storage units, mailboxes and coat hooks

were all labelled.

Published Materials

Materials kept in the library corner consisted of: 300 trade books, 12 Big Books, Coulicou and Hibou magazines, 6 children's dictionaries and 95 student-authored books.

Listening Centre

A cassette recorder with headphones and small versions of the commercially produced Big Books and matching cassettes allowed for individual listening to favourite stories if the children so wished.

SECONDARY FACTORS

Teacher-Parent Interaction

During the entire 1986-1987 school year the parents of the children in this study were kept informed about the nature of the program. They were encouraged to become active participants in the second language learning process in which their children were involved. The writer of this study as well as the principal of the school felt that this was essential since this approach to second language literacy learning differed considerably from the established tradition.

Information was provided through frequent classroom newsletters which explained the various aspects of the program and monthly publications in the school newsletter which described in greater detail important elements of literacy learning. These articles appeared under the following titles: Language across the Curriculum; The Importance of Play in a Whole Language Classroom; The Reading Process; Beginning Reading; Reading and Writing: How You Can Help as a Parent; The Writing Process; The Reading-Writing

Connection.

On November 23, 1986, we made a presentation which focused on the reading process and the strategies which children employ to get to the meaning of a text. Parents were also shown a collection of children's books in the second language to help them choose appropriate books for their children which they could read at home. Further support of literacy development at home was suggested through the use of various activities, such as leaving messages for children to read, reading daily to children, listening to beginning readers and providing materials and writing implements for beginning writers. Parents were encouraged to read to their children in English or in French, or in both, depending on their familiarity with the language. It was suggested that they write notes to their children (Appendix A-5). A pamphlet, composed by the teacher, was provided with suggestions as to how to help children with reading. Since French books are difficult to obtain, parents were given the opportunity to order books, with the teacher as intermediary, through a collective order to a book-club.

On February 24, 1987, we made a presentation on the writing process, which was followed by a discussion of the types of writing which were developed in the program. The parents were shown the developmental aspects of the writing with the aid of their child's written production. During this meeting the nature of this study was explained and the parents were asked to support this project. Formal approval was received on March 2, 1987.

Active involvement by the parents was felt to be the best way to help them understand their child's development as a reader and writer. Parents came to listen to children read; they participated in field trips on which the Language Experience Units were based; they participated by making blank

books for the student-authored stories; they came to several Open House events to share in their child's progress.

Community

The children who provided the writings for this study attended School B, a public school under the jurisdiction of The Carleton Board of Education. This new school was located in the community of Orleans in the North Eastern section of the City of Gloucester. (1987) The City of Gloucester borders Canada's Capital City of Ottawa on the East and the South. The city has a large agricultural base which is supplemented by light industry. It is a part of the larger Regional Municipality of Ottawa-Carleton. During the period of 1980-1987, Gloucester has shown itself to be one of the fastest growing communities in Canada, acquiring four to six thousand new residents each year. It had a population of 100,000 in 1987. The population consisted mainly of young families. The largest age group in the workforce consisted of people between the ages of 22 and 44. Most of the residents worked outside the city, primarily in the city of Ottawa. The parents of the children were middle class and many of them lived in new neighbourhoods where the houses had recently been constructed.

School Environment

The school offered a variety of programs including the Early French Immersion program from Senior Kindergarten to grade 6, and the Regular English program at the Junior Kindergarten and the grade 6 levels. The students were housed in a new building which opened its doors on November 17, 1986. It had many facilities such as: a Music Room, a Family Studies Room, an Industrial Arts Room, a Computer Room, a Science Laboratory, a Library Resource Centre and a Special Education Resource Unit Room. At the time of the study 540 students attended the school. There were three grade one classes

in the school. The children in the study were in a heterogeneous grade one class with twelve girls and eleven boys. One girl left the program on May eight, 1987 to attend a private school. The author of the study was the teacher in this grade one class.

Room Arrangement

The classroom had large windows which looked out over a small wooded area of the playground. The floor was carpeted, shelves for storage as well as those which held the classroom library books were low and easily accessible to the children. Each child had a small desk and unattached chair. There was a long blackboard on one wall and all the other walls had corkboard bulletin boards. These bulletin boards served to display the children's work in art, writing, social studies and mathematics.

The classroom arrangement was subject to change as materials were removed or new things were added to accommodate changes in the program. The seating arrangement changed also; however, most of the children preferred to sit in little groups of four. Four desks pushed together allowed the children to sit face to face, which encouraged talk. Children turned to each other for help, to discuss their writing, to ask questions when they were stuck in reading, and to share writing and drawing materials. Seeking and obtaining assistance from available sources was part of their ongoing social action associated with learning.

Grouping desks in this manner created open spaces in the classroom which were used for group discussions and work areas when more space was required for various learning centres. Every effort was made to provide a place where children "had opportunities to exercise and increase their linguistic resources by using them in collaboration with the teacher and other children

to explore ideas, tackle problems, exercise their imagination, and reflect upon their own and other people's experiences to gain greater understanding of themselves and of their relationship with the world around them" (Wells, G. and J, 1984: 193).

THE STUDY

PRELIMINARY FACTORS

From the theory developed in Chapter One, emerges a socio-psycholinguistic view of language which is both holistic and context dependent. Harste, Woodward & Burke (1984: 151-163) assert that embedded in the text is context, which refers to the linguistic, situational and cultural milieu of language in use. Since language is context dependent, they say it must be studied in actual use within a situational context. The appropriate research paradigm for such a study is naturalistic inquiry. Such a paradigm assumes that all aspects of a situation are an essential part of the phenomenon the researcher wishes to explain. Freedman & Pringle (1980) support this assertion as they view a piece of writing within the total rhetorical context, which includes writer, audience and their world. Emig (1979a; 1981), Carey (1980), Bouffler (1983: 14), and Guba and Lincoln (1985) corroborate this claim, saying that naturalistic inquiry always takes place in a natural setting because phenomena of study take their meaning as much from their contexts as they do from themselves. The subjects and the inquirer, including the relationships that exist between them, are an integral part of the inquiry.

Teacher-Researcher

Guba and Lincoln (1985: 187-200) specify that the naturalistic inquirer be a responsive, adaptable human with the ability to learn and to profit from

experience. Based on his criteria, the researcher in this study, who was the teacher of these children, would be well suited to collect data from children writing in a second language. Guba and Lincoln explain that a contextual inquiry demands an inquirer who builds on her tacit knowledge. The tacit knowledge of this researcher consisted of her professional experience, which became the base on which she built many of the insights and hypotheses that eventually developed and propelled the study. The indeterminate initial form of the naturalistic inquiry demanded that she use her intuitive knowledge to let the design emerge as a function of her interaction with the phenomena.

The decision to use students from her own grade one class as subjects for this study was prompted by reasons similar to those offered by Perl (1980b: 17); Milz (1983: 4) and Zamel (1983: 171). They found that being teacher and researcher provided greater insight into the children as learners because of the firsthand knowledge of school program and the child's home background. The dual role placed her in a position to understand and appreciate elements in the children's writing which may have been incomprehensible to others. When studying real language situations where all language skills are allowed to interact, the role of teacher and researcher potentially converge. The value of this fact has been acknowledged and appreciated by Britton, Burgess, Martin, McLeod and Rosen (1975: 21), Berthoff (1979b: 31), Harste, Woodward & Burke (1984: 51), Milz (1985) and Y Goodman (1985).

Home Literacy Survey

This survey (Appendix A-6) was designed to provide information concerning: family background; previous schooling; language use at home; and the early reading and writing of the children.

SUBJECTS

The subjects in this study were twenty-three E.F.I. grade one children. This group was composed of 12 girls and 11 boys. An analysis of the Home Literacy Survey (Appendix A-6) revealed that the children had diverse ethnic origins, varying abilities, multi-interests and experiences, typical of the differences found in any classroom. All but two children had attended an Early French Immersion Senior Kindergarten and eleven children had attended a nursery school for either one or two years previously. Classes in the nursery school were conducted in English. All children, except two, were born in 1980. They were either six years of age or turned six before December 31, 1986, when they entered grade one. Two girls turned seven before that date. One boy came to this grade one without any previous school experience.

The language all the children most often used at home was English. Four children had Francophone mothers, one child had a Francophone father and one child had parents who were both French speaking. These Francophone parents would occasionally use French with their children. One father reported that he would speak French with his son "when he thought of it" and one mother would do so "when the mood was right".

French was occasionally used outside the home. The children (10) with Francophone or French speaking grandparents would practice their French when they went to see them on visits. Two children had Francophone babysitters and one boy had had a Francophone babysitter since he was 4 months old. Children could also use their French with a neighbour (1) or playmates (6) since Orleans is an area of Gloucester where many French Canadians reside. Three girls were exposed to a third language i.e. Ukrainian or Arabic.

When mentioned in this study, the girls (A to L) and the boys (M to W) are indicated with the letters of the alphabet in order to protect their anonymity.

COLLECTION OF DATA

Data collection techniques were those commonly used in field studies. A variety of procedures were applied. The data were collected from primary and secondary sources. The primary data were used to directly answer the five research questions, and the secondary data served to provide additional information about each child as a language learner.

Primary Data:

All written texts produced by each child constituted the primary data. The data consisted of daily journal writing and weekly story writing. Writing was collected from twenty-three children from September 2, 1986 to June 24, 1987. This time span consisted of 183 school days during which the children wrote daily.

Journal Writing

On the first day of school the children were given a notebook. They were told that they could write in it and that they could write whatever they liked. At all times when the children wrote, they were expected to write as much on their own as possible. They were always encouraged to spell as best as they could on their own. During the first term the children wrote in standard primary notebooks, and many children used both spaces for drawing and writing (Appendix D-1). During the last two terms they used spiral notebooks. Dialogue Journals were used as they had been found to promote second language learning (Kreeft Peyton, 1984: 4-8). The dialogue journal is a notebook in which students write daily about topics of their own choosing and the

teacher writes back daily to each student, not to evaluate the student's writing but as an active participant in a written "conversation" which continued throughout the entire school year. The goal of dialogue journal writing is communication and comprehension. The teacher's writing served as a daily model of written language providing supportive feedback in the second language, so that the child would feel free to make new efforts to use it. The children wrote in the morning and they were encouraged to complete their entries during that period. They were, however, allowed to use other times during the day to do so.

Key attributes of the dialogue journal are that writing occurs daily and that teacher and child focus on communicating a genuine message. The form of the message is only in focus when the meaning is incomprehensible or unclear. In September when children would draw, copy words, write isolated letters or consonant strings the teacher went from pupil to pupil to discuss what they were trying to say. To be able to reread these entries later at night, in order to respond with a commentary, she would write little notes in the margin or under the drawing. Allowing the child to talk about his entry she would record it in English or in French according to the child's response. With children who did not use spaces to indicate word boundaries or represented a word with one letter this reading to the teacher was needed for initial understanding. Timing was important for sometimes the child could not read back what had been written just moments before and the message was lost. Through this verbal and written dialogue the teacher got to know the children (Appendix D-2) and it helped with deciphering their invented spelling, particularly during the first term. This interaction, where the spoken word supported the written text, provided a language environment which promoted writing as well as

reading.

Collection of Journal Writing involved the following procedure. After receipt of parent approval for this study, we started to duplicate the children's original work. Each time a journal was completed, the pages were photocopied so that the original notebook could be returned to the writer. The dated copies were kept in chronological order in a three-ring binder for each child.

Story Writing

Story writing was introduced in January with the use of stories written by pupils in the Pilot Study (School A, 1985-1986). On three occasions during this month four students from the pilot study were invited by the researcher to come and read their published stories to the children. The books were left in the class for a period of two months so that the children could browse through them and read them at their leisure. After this introduction, when the motivation was high, writing folders were introduced. The creation of writing folders as well as the approach to story writing through the various steps of rough drafts, revision, editing and publishing were based on Graves (1983), Calkins (1986) and Murray (1985). Their suggestions formed the outline of procedure; they were, however, modified to suit the second language program as well as the young age of the children.

After these demonstrations of formally published stories, authored by children their own age, they started to write stories of their own. Thursday mornings (Appendix A-4) were set aside for story writing, conferencing and illustrating published books. The children each had their writing folder with a supply of paper and room to store their work in progress. Some children would write more than one story during that period of time. Story writing was

an ongoing process as children kept their rough drafts of stories in their folders until they felt they were completed. This meant that one child might complete the first rough draft of a story in one writing session, whereas another child might have gone back to an incomplete draft, completing it and handing it in for possible publication. Each child decided when he felt a story was finished and then put it in a designated box on the teacher's desk. While the children were working on their stories the teacher would circulate for part of the time and provide help and encouragement, using the rest of the morning for conferencing. Conferencing took place on a one to one basis between teacher and child. Before this conference the teacher made a photocopy of the original for the purpose of this study, which required untouched first draft copies. During the conference the teacher was a listener and observer who attended to the child's talk as he clarified his intended meaning. The text was revised in cooperation with the child. Since the children were writing in a second language this time was opportune to discuss and correct grammatical constructions and vocabulary, which reflected the influence of the mother tongue. Sometimes after such a session the child felt he would like to add on to his story. Another conference was then slated for the next writing session. If the child had several stories ready for conferencing, the teacher would suggest to the child to select the one he liked best, which was then looked at for publication. The children were very keen to publish once they had seen some stories published as hard-cover books. This would sometimes lead to quickly finishing a story. Generally though, the children could be encouraged to be more discriminating and do some more work on a draft of a story before publication. The conference served to get storyline and syntax in an acceptable form. The final editing for correct spelling and

punctuation was done by the teacher when she typed the final copy of their stories on the microcomputer. She made two copies in large print as this appealed to beginning readers. A second copy consisted of small sections of one or two lines so it could be cut up and pasted onto the pages of a blank book. Early in the school year a team of four parents had prepared a good collection of blank books from which the children could choose. Once the pasting was completed, the children illustrated these sections on the various pages and turned a one page story into a story booklet. The pride of ownership and authorship was very evident when the child finally could present and read the story to the rest of the children in the class.

Collection of Story Writing involved the following procedure. Each child had a writing-folder in which to keep rough drafts of stories. The working copies of a draft were kept there until the child was ready to publish a story. Each draft was dated, photocopied and kept in a second storage file, before revision, editing and publication procedures. Photocopied rough drafts of stories were added, in a separate section, to the child's binder containing his journal writing.

All journal and story writing of the 23 subjects in the study was used to find answers to the first three research questions:

1. **How much will grade one children, without previous instruction, actually write in the second language in a biliterate E.F.L. classroom, when they are given the opportunity to write daily?**
2. **What are the topics about which these children choose to write?**
3. **How much audience awareness do these children develop?**

The quantity of data collected was overwhelming; therefore a case study format was adopted to find the answers to the remaining research questions.

This decision was supported by Emig (1971), Graves (1973), Perl (1979), Pianko (1979a), Milz (1983), Bouffler (1983) and Zamel (1983) who had shown that the case study approach is an appropriate and effective way to examine the writing process.

Two two-week journal writing samples of six children were used to answer the fourth research question:

4. How functional is the children's use of language?

Amount of writing and gender were the criteria for sample selection. The choice of three girls and three boys was based on Emig (1979 b) who stated that research on writers of various ages suggested sex differences. We decided on amount of writing as the second criterion upon completion of each child's total word count. We used representative sampling in selecting one girl and one boy from each of the following levels of amount of writing: high, low and average.

Ten journal entries, one for each school month, by four girls and four boys, was used to answer the last question:

5. What learning strategies do young second language writers use to translate text into an orthographic form of language?

Maximum variation sampling (Guba and Lincoln, 1985: 102) was applied for the selection of four boys and four girls in the analysis of spelling, in order to document unique variations in the spelling system. Children who were absent for an extended period during the school year and those children whose writing tended to be formulaic were eliminated from this case study. Formulaic writing i.e. copied whole structures consisting of unassimilated language forms which the child could spell conventionally, was unsuitable for analysis of spelling strategies. In addition one child's writing was not considered since much of the text had become illegible by the end of the

school year. The criteria for the selection of the eight children were: 1) the amount written, 2) the time when children began using letters to signify meaning and 3) the number of stories read during the year.

Secondary Data:

Classroom Diary

A classroom diary was kept to record observations regarding the childrens' writing process; interaction between children when writing; and reflections concerning my adjustment to the needs of the children as beginning writers. Entries were frequent in the first two semesters and became sporadic in May and June.

Books Read

Children recorded and numbered on a card the titles of the books they read (Appendix A-2). Each time a record card was full it was photocopied. The original went home with the child and the photocopy was kept in a file. The numbering was continuous so that it was known how many stories each child had read through the year. The number of stories read by a child went from a high of 138 to a low of 55 with an average number of 77. With the use of a tally system, we found the number of children who had read a specific book in the classroom library. With the use of a data base, a high frequency list of most favourite to least favourite book was made, based on the number of times each book was read (Appendix A-1).

CHAPTER 3

METHODS OF ANALYSIS

INTRODUCTION

A variety of analysis procedures was used to find answers to the five research questions:

1. How much did the subjects write?
2. About which topics did the subjects choose to write?
3. How much audience awareness was developed by the subjects?
4. How functional was the language used by the subjects?
5. What orthographic strategies were used by the subjects?

The analysis procedures consist of a word count; topic categories as established by the author; and for definitions of functions of writing as well as categories of the writer's sense of audience, we applied Shuy's (1982a; 1988b) and Britton's (1975) taxonomies. In the analysis of the spelling ability of eight children, we used Bouffler's (1983) taxonomy and adjusted it to accommodate the writing in a second language.

To determine how much each child wrote, a word count was done for all subjects. First we clarify the influence of second language characteristics on the word count. First language writing research has provided us with a framework for understanding young children's development of writing. From the work of Clay (1975), Bissex (1980a), De Ford (1980: 162), Milz (1983: 158-168), Harste, Woodward & Burke (1984) we know that, after the early beginnings of scribbling and differentiating between drawing and writing, children develop concepts of linearity, left to right motion and top to bottom directionality. These researchers also state that a sense of linearity and directionality is

derived at an early age and that children establish word boundaries relatively early in their writing.

The children in this study drew, wrote letters and isolated words and had well-established concepts of linearity and directionality on entry to grade one. The convention of spacing between words, however, was not known by many children. This could possibly be explained by the fact that the writing was done in a second language. Children entering an Early French Immersion grade one class, speak French interspersed with considerable amounts of English. As they listen to the teacher speak, they hear a string of foreign sounds, and by recognizing key words, they understand the global meaning of the utterance. The second language appears to them as a series of connected sounds, and only words they know and understand stand out. The fact that boundaries between words are not represented in the surface structure of speech, Smith (1975: 87) says, is one of the greatest difficulties confronting anyone trying to understand the speaker of a foreign language with which he is not familiar.

The concept of "liaison" which does not exist in their native language, is possibly another factor why word boundaries were often ignored (Appendix D-3). Particularly in the beginning of the school year, parts of the text frequently all ran together. However, as the children saw more language in print through reading they became aware that in written language words are visible and can be identified as "a sequence of letters with a white space on either side" (Smith, 1975: 87).

WORD COUNT

Word counts were conducted to help answer the first research question:

How much will grade one children, without previous

instruction, actually write in the second language in a biliterate

E.F.I. classroom, when they are given the opportunity to write daily?

Taking into consideration that the writing was done in a second language and the fact that word boundaries were not always established, the meaning of a piece of writing was used to guide the researcher in dividing the text into orthographic units which she considered words. All words were counted, including names, labels, the month from the date, words copied from texts around the room, numbers if they were used to represent an amount within the text (Appendix D-4), as well as an initial standing for a last name. English words were included in the word count as children initially used both languages to construct meaning. The children included these words because the French equivalent did not exist e.g. for names of English songs, popular television programs or for popular toys. Children inserted English words as placeholders of meaning for the words they did not yet know in French. P at one time explained in a journal entry that he used an English word because he did not know it in French (Appendix D-5). English was thus used to keep the flow of writing going. Zamel (1983) reports that this was a second language writing strategy which adult ESL writers also used.

The children were not familiar with elision and the apostrophe taking the place of a letter, so when they wrote for example "de le l'oe" (de l'eau) it counted for three words. When the children repeated a word because they had forgotten that they had already written it, it was counted only once. Strings of consonants or numbers which some children wrote in the early stages of writing and which they could not relate to meaning were not counted. Not counted either were the strings of consonants which shortly after having been written the children were unable to read back to me.

From September until Christmas when children drew, copied words, wrote isolated letters in creating texts, the teacher asked the children to read

back the passages she had difficulty deciphering. This was the term when some children would "forget" what they had just written. She made notes in the margin of their interpretations for future reference. When the word count of each child's writing was done after the completion of the data collection and some words were not readily recognizable, she could find the meaning of these words by taking the child's total written production into consideration as children were consistent in their own system of invented spellings.

When a child's writing could not be understood, other techniques had to be employed. T's text, for example, could not always be deciphered despite the fact that as soon as the journal entry or story was completed, the teacher asked him to read the text so that she could make a transcription for analysis at a later date. It was not until the end of the first term that this child started to create meaning. From the month of April on, his surface structure deteriorated and became more and more difficult to read. His total word count of 2088 words consisted of words which the researcher in collaboration with him could comprehend.

Statistical Procedures

1. Multiple T-Tests were applied to the means of total words written in Journals and Stories to make a series of comparisons in quantity of writing between boys and girls.

2. A Correlation Coefficient was computed to check for a possible relation between age and mean of total number of words written by girls and boys.

TOPICS

An analysis of the topics was conducted to help answer the second research question:

What are the topics about which these children choose to write?

Whenever the children wrote, they wrote about topics of their own choosing. Familiarity with the children's personal interests gained from our work with them helped to establish a tentative knowledge of possible topic categories. Then, having reread the total written production of all subjects upon completion of the data collection, the dominant frequency of certain topics became self-evident. It was the high frequency of those topics which formed the first criteria for categorization of topics in journal and story writing. Two separate databases were made of each journal entry and each story all children wrote over the entire year. The topics in a total of 2838 journal entries and 189 stories were categorized. Each listing of the database contained the following records: the date of the journal entry; the date when the story was written; the child's name and one topic category. It was the predominant topic that unified the piece of writing which was selected.

It was not until a topic in the child's text could be identified that a category was entered. This generally happened after the first few weeks of school during which the children drew, copied text, wrote strings of letters or produced a combination of several of these. H's new topic in her daily journal entry was often embedded in much repetitive formulaic writing, therefore only this topic in her entry was categorized. Four children started to write texts with identifiable topics early in the school year. This occurred in September for A (Sept. 4), U (Sept. 11), P (Sept. 17) and K (September 25). The majority of children (15) did this during the month of October and

another four did not start until November Q (Nov. 10), Q and M (Nov. 18) and T (November 25).

To make the initial fourteen categories mutually exclusive, we regrouped some of them upon completion of the database. In choosing the final seven categories, the goal was to have a small enough number to reduce the data and make it understandable as well as to keep the number of categories sufficiently large in order not to lose important information. The compromise between readability and loss of information resulted in the following categories: Me; Family and Relatives; Pets; Seasonal Activities; School Activities; Festivities and Other.

SENSE OF AUDIENCE

An analysis of the sense of audience was conducted to help answer the third research question:

How much audience awareness do these children develop?

Since Britton (1975) established his audience categories, based on writing of eleven to eighteen year old secondary school students, more study has been done in this field with adults and professional writers. Ede (1984) in a bibliographic review found that the current debate on audience awareness can be divided into two camps: "audience as addressed" and "audience as invoked", a dichotomy which had earlier been recognized by Park (1982: 249). Researchers in the first category such as Pfister & Petrick (1980) believe that the audience's attitudes, beliefs and expectations can be analysed and that in so doing discourse can be adapted to it. Researchers in the second category (Flower & Hayes 1980; Berkenkotter 1981: 396) stress that the audience of written discourse cannot be known and therefore becomes a construction of

the writer.

Ede & Lunsford (1984) conclude that both views of audience distort the processes of writing and reading by oversimplifying the power of the writer and undervaluing the reader. Both create meaning and the interrelationship between author and audience should therefore recognize the creativity of the writer as well as the reader. Murray (1982: 165) adds to this that any writer is after all the first critical reader of his own text. The writer through critical rereading will therefore make an effort to choose language that provides clear cues for his audience and then it is up to the reader to take from the text what he chooses.

Beginning writers clearly are not too concerned about their audience when text production demands all their attention. Graves (1985: 193), Elbow (1985: 291) and Mc Cormick Calkins (1985) have shown though that with help children can learn to become more aware of how well a reader will be able to understand their writing. It is through talk between the teacher and the emerging writer that the child can be encouraged to critically look again at his own text, so that ultimately he will learn himself to anticipate the questions a reader might have about his text.

Using dialogue to help children develop audience awareness was practiced in this particular classroom where children were writing to a known audience, their teacher. In Journal writing she read her written comments to the children while they were still unable to read them by themselves. As children learned to read these comments on their own, the dialogue continued in writing. In Story writing she conferenced with the children. These strategies led to discussions about their text. The teacher asking questions, the child explaining what his text meant.

Britton, Burgess, Martin, McLeod & Rosen (1975: 68) underline the

importance of such adult support when they say: "writing is a way of committing oneself and (...) young children may rely upon the trusted adult reader in even the simplest piece of work. Later, the fact that this particular adult wants to hear *anything* (italics: Britton, Burgess, Martin, McLeod & Rosen) (...) may operate as a strong incentive, and a liberator, so that children (...) now feel free to say what really matters".

Britton, Burgess, Martin, McLeod & Rosen (1975) developed a multidimensional category system which could evaluate the students' use and development of written language. Development was equated with the process of mastering different kinds of writing. They suggested (1975: 58) that: "one important dimension of development in writing ability is the growth of a sense of audience, which is revealed by the manner in which the *writer* expressed a *relationship* with the *reader* in respect to his (the writer's) *undertaking*" (italics: Britton, Burgess, Martin, McLeod & Rosen). Awareness of audience showed itself in the ability to make adjustments and choices in writing which took account of the audience for whom the writing was intended. Evidence of this growth would reveal itself in a gradual differentiation, with beginning writers having very little sense of audience and mature authors possessing a highly developed sense of audience.

The main divisions of Britton, Burgess, Martin, McLeod & Rosen's (1975: 66-71) category system are self, teacher, known audience (peers), unknown audience, virtual named audience and no discernible audience. Since their study was done in a school environment it is not surprising that the teacher donned different roles which lead to sub-categories under the teacher heading: Child to trusted adult; pupil to teacher, general; pupil to teacher, particular relationship and pupil to examiner. With the aid of a database set up in the

same fashion as for topic categories, 2837 journal entries and 189 stories, the entire year's production, were coded for audience awareness. For each entry and each story one category was selected.

Here are the categories which were found in the writing of the subjects of this study.

1. **Self**

Writing from one's own point of view without considering the intelligibility to others of that point of view; a written form of "speech for oneself".

2. **Teacher**

Child to trusted adult, is characterized by the transference into writing of the talking relation with the mother. The child feels free to write anything at all because the teacher has given him clear indication that she wants to hear what he has to say.

3. **Wider Audience (known)**

Child to peer group, which involved classmates and other students in the school.

FUNCTIONS OF WRITING

An analysis of the functions was conducted to help answer the fourth research question:

How functional is the children's use of language?

Smith (1982: 170-174; 1988: 1-17) has stated that children learn to read and write in the context of meaningful interaction with a great deal of assistance from adults who present them with many collaborative reading and writing activities, which provide demonstrations and encourage engagement. Wells

(1984; 1986) has documented the importance of such collaboration and assistance in young children's development of oral language proficiency. In learning to write Graves (1983) and McCormick Calkins (1985; 1986) have demonstrated the importance of the conference, a dialogue between teacher and child, helping the learner to critically review his evolving text. Shuy (1988a) Reed (1988) and Kreeft Peyton (1988b) have similarly outlined the benefits of the teacher assisting writing students through written responses to their journal entries. This view of learning is supported by Vygotsky (1978c) who asserted that anything children can do with help one day, they can do themselves another.

We adopted the dialogue journal format because it was suited to assisting young children learning to write in a second language. The daily one-to-one verbal and written interaction between teacher and child provided the collaboration needed to initiate and sustain the second language writing process. The teacher's written responses served many purposes. Initially by reading her written entries to the children, she explained the meaning of the written text to them. At times she asked the children to read their writing to her in order to better understand it. Thus both teacher and pupil mutually mediated each others' written meaning with oral language. Her writing in their journals also provided a model of written language and text for independent reading; it stimulated young writers to continue writing and sparked discussion of possible future topics. The interactive and integrated nature of this type of writing engaged the children in all four language skills and thus provided assistance at many levels in learning to write.

Shuy (1988b) is of the opinion that as the language user improves his writing, his expanded language ability will become evident in the wider range

of language functions used by him. He cautions however, that change is not necessarily interpretable as improvement. In learning to write, as in any learning process, individuals go through periods of progress and regression before moving to a higher level of understanding. Graves (1983: 270) agrees that the writer's individuality makes for an idiosyncratic process. Clay (1975; 1977), Y. Goodman (1985b) and Sulzby & Teale (1985) found this also to be true in emergent writing. Despite overall recognizable patterns of development, the beginning writing of individual children is complex and highly personal.

Shuy (1987: 390) posits that learning to write should involve functional, natural, self-generated language which is contextually relevant. Just as the child gradually becomes a more competent speaker who uses language purposefully to get things done, so will a young writer become a more competent user of written language if he is allowed to generate his own language, to choose his own topic and be allowed to focus on the functional use of language rather than language form. As the young language user improves he learns more language functions and he learns to use them more appropriately, thus steadily approaching functional language competence.

Shuy (1982a & b; 1987; 1988b: 113-119) defines functional language competence as the underlying knowledge which people possess and which allows them to use language to make utterances in order to accomplish goals and to understand the utterances of others in terms of their goals. The language user's underlying idea or thought is realized first as a language function, such as reporting facts, questioning or evaluating and then the language function is realized through a written utterance. A functional analysis of written language examines the kinds of language functions a writer uses. In

such an analysis the focus is on how the writer accomplishes his goals and intentions (the functions of language) rather than on the form of his utterance (language strategies).

Shuy analysed dialogue journal writing of grade five and six students, writing in their first language. They wrote daily and their teacher responded in writing to each of their journal entries. An analysis of a 2-week sample of 10 journals, taken in the fall and the spring of one school year, yielded 15 language functions. These functions recurred with sufficient frequency to be considered representative of almost all the functions used in dialogue journal writing. He found that more than one function could occur simultaneously in a sentence division unit of analysis.

Collection of Language Functions in the Sample

Shuy's description of language functions was used in the analysis of the journal writing of the subjects in this study. A functional analysis was carried out on a sample of two weeks of journal writing at two periods of the year. The first starting on January 5th, and the second, starting June 1st. The sample comprised 20 days of journal writing for each of the six children. If a child was absent during the two periods, additional days were added to come to a total of 20 days. The purpose of two periods with a four months interval, was to show the possible growth in use of language functions by the children.

It was not until the end of November that all students had started to make entries expressing language functions and in December there were a high number of special events in anticipation of the Christmas holidays which affected the regular school program therefore January was chosen as the start of the first period. The first two weeks in June were chosen rather than the last two, since one of the children in the sample left early for the summer holidays.

Six journals of a total of 23 were selected for the study. The six children, 3 boys and 3 girls (Appendix B-3), were determined on the basis of their potential for representing the range of dialogue journal writing and development.

A database was set up with each record of the database containing the date of the function entry, name of the student, the text of the language function in the child's invented spelling and an interpretation in conventional spelling as well as a function code symbol. A sample of 120 journal entries, 20 journal entries per child, contained a total of 750 language functions. Dialogue journal writing is an interactive form of written communication between the teacher and the child, and 578 of those functions were used by the six children and 172 by the teacher.

Definitions of Language Functions: Examples from the Sample

Of the 15 functions which Shuy established 13 were found in the data. Examples of thanking as an expression of gratitude, and offering, as a willingness to perform a service, were not found in this sample. Two language functions i.e. promising and apologizing were only used once by the teacher, and complaining was used once only by J. This left 10 functions in the analysis.

1. Reporting Opinions

An opinion is an expression of feeling, preference, or evaluation which cannot be judged against an external standard or norm.

H: J'aime fare de la ptur (1/6/87) (* J'aime faire de la peinture.)

* Interpretation of the invented spelling in the child's text.

B: j'aime les livre (1/7/87) (J'aime les livres.)

2. Reporting Personal Facts

This type of reporting concerns events happening to the writer or to

those connected to him.

Q: Youpi demain ca la sikik (1/16/87) (Youpi, demain c'est le weekend.)

3. Reporting General Facts

General facts are widely shared and are often objective facts or generalizations.

J: la reas c'est vie metn on va trn dans la classe (6/15/87) (La récréation est finie maintenant, on va retourner dans la classe.)

4. Responding to Questions

When the entry of either student or teacher was a response to a question in an immediately preceding entry it was marked as the simultaneous functions of responding to questions and another function. In this sample responses to questions belonged to one of the above three reporting functions.

S: Non! Il Ne-Vient Pas Dans Cette Ecole (5/26/87)

(Non, il ne vient pas dans cette école!)

5. Predicting

The function of predicting includes all entries in which the writer expresses an indication that he will do something in the future. The writer's indications of hopes and intentions are included in this category.

W: je va a la fête de James demain (1/6/87) (Demain, je vais à la fête de James.)

6. Giving Directives

The writer indicates, directly or indirectly, his desire for the reader to bring about the state of affairs expressed by the proposition.

Teacher: Si tu veux que je lise ce que tu as écrit, il faut écrire clairement. (6/3/87)

7. Evaluating

Evaluations are expressions of feeling, preference judged against standards. Self-evaluation and evaluation of external persons, things or events are included. Shuy included statements involving "like", as reporting opinions, but statements involving "love" or "hate" as evaluations. In the French language "j'aime" means "I love" but in a specific context can also mean "I like". The children in this study frequently used the structure "j'aime..." Most often they meant "I like" and it was considered as reporting opinions, however, when the statement was further qualified with "beaucoup", "pas beaucoup", or "mieux" and the context clearly indicated that the child was making an evaluation, it was qualified as such.

S: j'aime va à l'école quand c'est vendredi. (1/8/87)

(J'aime aller à l'école quand c'est vendredi.)

8. Requests for Information

Requests for information may take the clear form of a question whether or not it is appropriately punctuated.

B: Est-ce que tou à des frère (6/10/87) (Est-ce que tu as des frères?)

9. Requests for Procedure

J: est-ce que toi se Mlle qui vin deman (6/9/87)

(Mlle, est-ce que tu sais qui vient (lire) demain?)

10. Requests for Opinions

E: Bonjour mlle Ha Ha Est-ce que tou aimes la pain avec du miel? (6/2/87)

(Bonjour Mlle ha, ha, est-ce que tu aimes le pain avec du miel?)

Teacher: Tu t'es bien amusé à la fête de James? (1/16/87)

SPELLING STRATEGIES

An analysis of spelling strategies was conducted to help answer the fifth research question:

What learning strategies do young second language writers use to translate text into an orthographic form of language?

Having observed the writing of these children over one school year, their writing clearly demonstrated that spelling, like other aspects of language learning, was developmental. Henderson (1980a), Beers (1980), Henderson & Beers (1977) and Gentry (1985; 1987) have defined this development in terms of stages. Harste, Woodward & Burke and Bouffler found such an approach limited, for while these stages explained some spelling phenomena, much that was highly idiosyncratic in their spelling was left unexplained. Bouffler (1983; 1987) building from and extending the work of Harste, Woodward and Burke (1984: 93-99) identified a number of language strategies which children used to spell. Bouffler views spelling as an integral part of writing, a language process rather than an isolated skill, existing in and of itself. She makes no distinction between spelling and learning to spell, since both are part of the process of writing. How competent a writer is at spelling depends on his knowledge of the language and his past experiences as a language user. The language user learns spelling through meaningful encounters with language. Children learn to spell as the need arises, by the demands of their own writing and reading. Children learn as much about writing from reading and talking as they learn from writing itself. Bouffler (1987) summarizes her theory of spelling by saying that as manifestations of language, writing and spelling both are functional, social and contextual. Spelling is functional because spelling serves to record meaning created in the writing process. Spelling is social as it enables readers to reconstruct this meaning. Spelling is contextual since the way we spell is

shaped by the circumstances in which we write. In some contexts i.e. writing for others, standard spelling is important; in others e.g. when we write to ourselves to aid our memory, it is less so.

Collection of Spellings in the Sample

This analysis was carried out on a sample of eighty journal entries. For each of the 8 children in the sample we took the first journal entry of each of the ten months they attended school. When a child was absent on that day, the next journal entry was chosen. A database was set up with each record containing the data of the journal entry, the name of the student, the word in functional spelling and a transcription in conventional spelling as well as spelling strategy code symbol (s). The eighty journal entries yielded 1549 words which were considered for analysis. Most words showed evidence of composition by means of several spelling strategies and a total of 2128 spelling codings were recorded. After the words were sorted in alphabetical order, a list was made of the individual words each child had in its writing vocabulary. Those words which the child had spelled conventionally were also listed.

This sample of eight children included four boys and four girls. These subjects were divided into two groups according to the following criteria: 1) the amount written 2) the time when they began using letters to signify meaning, and 3) the number of stories read during the year. The two boys and two girls in Group 1 were children who wrote between 4000-6000 words. They started to make entries using letters which signified meaning, as early as September and over the entire school year, they read 80 to 140 stories from children's literature. In addition their parents reported that by the end of the school year they wrote and read both in English and French. Children in

Group 2 wrote from 2000 to 3150 words. Their first meaningful text entry occurred during the months of October or November. They read from 45 to 60 stories and only one child in this group read and wrote in both languages by the end of the school year.

In order to code the 1549 words in this study we used Bouffler's taxonomy for the preliminary coding of one boy and one girl's writing during September and June. Through this work it became evident that some categories needed refining and that additional categories were needed to accommodate the interlanguage aspects of second language spelling to classify all the spellings. These changes and additions were made after which the adjusted taxonomy proved satisfactory for our analysis.

DESCRIPTION OF SPELLING STRATEGIES

Examples of functional spellings have been presented in capital letters and letters which are in focus have been underlined.

1. Spelling as it sounds

1. 1 This refers to what is known as phonetic spelling and is based on the assumption of a direct sound/symbol relationship. The representation of sound by a related symbol may include leaving out silent letters, letters with zero phonological representation.

J - je

AVAN - avant

MALAD - malade

BOCOU - beaucoup

ATOSIO - attention

MM - maman

ABIT - habite

JOUON - jouons

PRISQUE - presque

CERA - sera

1. 2 In addition to standard sound/symbol relationships the writer may make use of English or French letter names.

English

OC - aussi

PT - petit

French

AID - aidé

CE - sait

2. Spelling as it sounds out

- 2.1 This is similar to the previous strategy except that it involves a sounding-out procedure which results in exaggeration of sounds, so that phonetic features not normally represented in spelling are identified.

DARE - dort

HOPITALE - hôpital

JOURE - jour

MALE - mal

SOIRE - soir

ICSPLICA - expliquer

3. Spelling as it articulates

3. 1 This strategy involves substitution of certain articulatory aspects of sound.

L'ANVARSAR - l'anniversaire

MITRE - mettre

JORE - jour

C'ESTE - c'était

CHARCHE - cherche

VE - veux

NUMIRO - numéro

ETE - était

J'AITE - j'étais

SAR - soeur

3. 2 This strategy involves omission of certain articulatory features.

GAÇON - garçon

QUACE - quelque

OREE - oreilles

VAIN - vient

FAURIDE - Floride

GA - grand

LIN - ligne

GAI - gagné

HER - hier

GRPER - grimper

4. Spelling as it means

Representation of semantic rather than phonological units.

4. 1 Semantic units expressed usually in several words, may be perceived as one word. This most often occurs through liaison and the elimination of the apostrophe.

OREVOIR - au revoir

MA - m'a

VIACI - viens ici

DALE- d'aller

TLSAMI - tous les amis

JARIVE - j'arrive

5. Spelling as it looks

A visual strategy using graphic patterning rather than sound/symbol relationships.

5. 1 All or most words are represented but not in conventional order.

ENCOER - encore

MUNET - minute

LONIN - loin

BINSIOIN - besoin

JAI'ME - J'aime

PEITT - petit

5. 2 Repeated attempts to write a word, within the same text, using a number of variations in graphic patterns.

COMOTERE, COMOTER, COMOTAR - commentaire

5. 3 Letters, usually lower case letters, and numbers are reversed. Children are not yet aware, that when you change the orientation of the letter in space, you often change them.

PLEU - bleu

DEAUCOUP - beaucoup

6. Spelling by analogy

6. 1 The writer perceives the nasal sound relations but does not distinguish the difference in spelling.

PANS - pense

ANTANDRE - entendre

TAN - temps

NON - nom

6. 2 Direct analogy between parts of the word and other smaller known words.

SES - c'est

MES - mais

MES - met

MÈME - m'aime

POLISET - policier

DIXANE - dizaine

JET - j'ai

DEDANS- dedans

7. Spelling by reference to an authority

- 7.1 Copying from written language displayed in the classroom.

8. Opting for alternate surface structure

8. 1 Use of non-linguistic signs by drawing a picture or use of mathematical sign
8. 2 A strategy involving strings of letters, sometimes in alphabetical order, which could not be interpreted as representing meaning.
8. 3 Using abbreviations and acronyms (ideosyncratic or standard)

MICH - Mitchell

SIVOPLA - s.v.p.

9. Use of native language

9. 1 English words, correctly spelled, misspelled or spelled in both languages.

10. Uncertainty about French accents

10. 1 Adding additional accents.
10. 2 Omitting accents.
10. 3 Placing accent over correct letter but in the wrong position.
10. 4 Using a different accent from the correct one.

11. Correct second language spelling

- 11.1 Any word spelled correctly in the second language, disregarding capitalisation.

AVec - avec

PaPa - papa

12. Correct spelling with special consideration

Any word spelled correctly in the second language, disregarding errors in syntax and those dealing with accents.

- 12.1 Any word spelled correctly, disregarding confusion of gender.

MA - mon

LE - la

UN - une

CE - cette

LE - lui.

Moi - me

- 12.2 Correct spelling but omission of accents.

LEAU - l'eau

CA - ça

AUJOURDHUI - aujourd'hui

LA - là

- 12.3 Correctly spelled verb but incorrect application for the sentence in question.

PEUT - peuvent

FAIT - font

- 12.4 Accented letters are translated by another having the same sound.

SA - ça

- 12.5 Silent letters are omitted. These letters do not change the sound of the word.

LES AUTRE - les autres

NOIR - noire

ELLE EST PARTI - elle est partie

TOUT - tou

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The writing of all twenty-three subjects was analysed to find the answers to the first three research questions. In the first part of this chapter findings are presented on the amount of writing produced, topics of writing as well as the audience to whom the writing is directed.

AMOUNT OF WRITING

A word count of each of the twenty-three children's writing was made in order to answer the first research question:

When given the opportunity to write daily, how much will grade one children, without previous instruction, actually write in the second language in a biliterate E.F.L. classroom?

When the word count was completed and the total production of journal and story writing was considered, it was found that the twelve girls in the study wrote a total of 62, 696 words and the eleven boys wrote 35, 002 words. The average for the girls was 5, 224 and for the boys 3, 182. The total of 97, 698 words for the 23 subjects produced an average of 4, 248 words per child. The amount of writing produced by all the subjects ranged from a high of 10, 706 words to a low of 2, 030 words. The portion of the 62, 696 words written by all the girls represented 64 % of the total.

The quantitative data was submitted to a series of T-tests to discover all possible differences between boys and girls in quantity of writing (see Appendices B-1 and B-2 for a complete presentation of the data). Taking total Journal and Story writing production into account, it was found that girls wrote

significantly more than boys (Table 1).

Table 1 Summary of T-tests: Journal and Story Writing for the School Year
Mean Number of Words: Boys (N=11) versus Girls (N=12)

	<u>Term 1</u>	<u>Term 2</u>	<u>Term 3</u>	<u>Total Terms</u>
1. Journals & Stories #				2. 47*
2. Journal Writing	1.70			
3. Journal Writing		2. 66*		
4. Journal Writing			3.68**	
5. Journal Writing				3.48**

* p<. 05 ** p<. 01 (in favour of girls)

Story writing for term 2 and 3 of school year.

Table 2 Summary of T-Tests:
Mean Increase in Journal Writing over Terms for Boys (N=11),
Girls (N=12) and All Children (N=23)

Difference in Total Mean Number of Words Between Terms			
	<u>Term 1 & Term 2</u>	<u>Term 2 & Term 3</u>	<u>Term 1 & Term 3</u>
1. Girls	7.18 ***	8.24 ***	6.27 ***
2. Boys	10.81 ***	13.80 ***	6.60 ***
3. All	9.81 ***	7.13 ***	9.61 ***

*** p<. 001

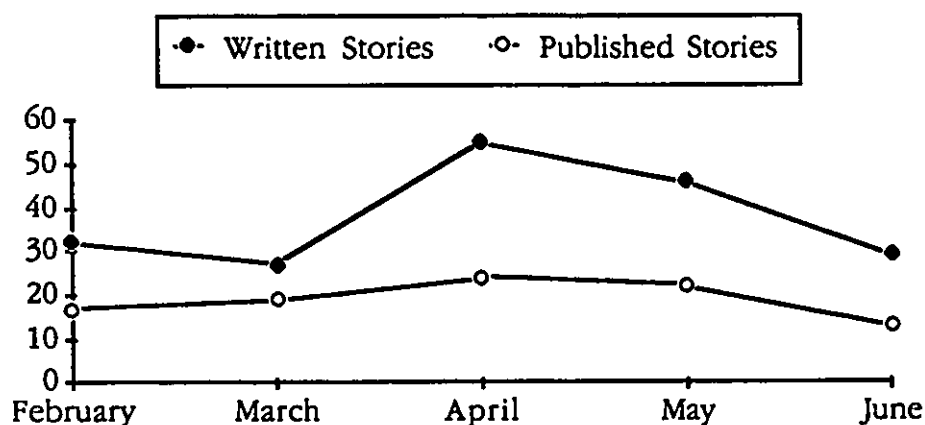
The writing indicated a sex difference, we therefore wanted to know whether

age played a deciding role in how much children wrote. However, the correlation coefficient (Girls: $r = 0.16$; Boys: $r = -0.10$) between age and mean amount of writing was not significant (see Appendix B-4 for complete data set).

The remaining T-tests produced results for journal writing and story writing. Findings for these two modes of writing will be presented separately. Considering only journal writing for the entire school year, we found that girls wrote significantly more than boys, for Terms 2 and 3 and for the Total Terms (Table 1). It is interesting to note, however, that both groups significantly (at the .001 level) increased their writing between Terms (Table 2).

In story writing no significant increases in quantity were found (Appendix B-2). The children wrote stories less frequently over a shorter period of time; therefore, this type of writing accounted only for 14 % of the total written production. Story writing did not produce steady increases in quantity. After peak production in April it diminished towards the end of June (Figure 1).

Figure 1 Story Production for Boys and Girls since the Start of Story Writing



TOPICS OF WRITING

All topics found in the total written production of the twenty-three children were considered to answer the second research question:

What are the topics about which these children choose to write?

When young children write, they write foremost about themselves, their experiences in their lives at school and at home, as well as about the people who play an important role in their existence. Their choice of topic reflects their focus on themselves and the people in their immediate environment. This self-centeredness constitutes the driving force in the young child's writing process. Graves (1983: 227) calls this part of the child's self the voice, the essence of the child's writing. The child's voice is the dynamo in the writing process. "The voice shows how (they) choose information, organize it, select the words, all in relation to what (they) want to say and how (they) want to say it".

Whenever the children in this classroom wrote they wrote about topics of their own choice. They needed very little encouragement to find a subject to write about. Writing about people and events in their own environment, subjects about which they knew a great deal, motivated them to write every day with energy and enthusiasm. Children would ask for help as to "how" to spell a specific word but they rarely asked "what" they should write about.

Table 3 shows the similarity in the children's choice of topic in the two modes of writing, journal and story writing. In both, the most important subject for writing is "me and my family". The range of topics in the journal writing is wider than in story writing which could be attributed to the fact that the children wrote more often and over a longer period of time, in their journals.

Table 3 Topics: Journals and Stories

	<u>Journals</u>	<u>Stories</u>
	% of total	% of total
Me	36.33	25.57
Family	18.75	55.11
Other	14.02	
Festivities	11.49	5.68
School Activities	10.86	3.41
Seasonal Activities	5.71	
Pets	3.03	10.23

Children writing in a second language have something to say as the tremendous array of topics confirms. A description of each category including writing samples to illustrate them, follows. A few examples, however, are hardly enough to demonstrate the rich variety of ideas and sentiments expressed within each category.

Me (Appendix D-6)

The child is the central focus in this category. Children name their friends. Children write about what they like to watch on television and how they enjoy going to Brownies or Beavers. They describe how they like cats, dogs, a new bike, new clothes or a new school bag. Children use writing to express how they feel about school, their teacher, the marks on their reports and their concern about passing an exam in skating or dancing. Through writing they express when they are hurt, do not feel well or how badly they feel when events upset them.

Play is an important part of a child's life (Ginsberg and Oppen, 1988; Vygotsky, 1978d). Play is an essential medium for learning and solving problems. Play with manipulative materials promotes the development of number concepts. Play ensures children the opportunity to interact with

classmates, materials and situations, which help five and six year olds to become aware of someone else's point of view. The various aspects of play are well represented in the children's writing.

The playground contained a large play structure and included a small wooded area. Many journal entries describe the playing the children did during the school recesses. They played baseball, soccer, hide and seek and tag. The play structure was the favourite play area of most children and sometimes this caused arguments and conflicts.

Toys of all kinds, lego blocks, marbles, dolls, cars, shell collections to mention a few, allow children to interact with others. The enjoyment they derived from this play was frequently a subject to write about.

The wooded area of the playground stimulated children to role play. They pretended to be Indians and Cowboys, Cops and Robbers, Knights and Dragons or T.V. personalities such as Ghostbusters.

Family and Relatives (Appendix D-7)

Families go places. They go to the movies, to the museum, to the theatre, to the fair and they go shopping. Families go skating at the Sportsplex or on the Canal. They go to see the Ottawa Rough Riders or they go for a boat trip to the Thousand Islands. The members of a family also like to go to garage sales to pick up treasures, go to a restaurant for a meal or to a nursery to choose evergreens for a new garden. Young children find all these outings interesting topics to write about.

Doing things together is another aspect of family life. Children go for walks in the park and in the woods, they play soccer with their father, they play ball with their brother, they make ice cream with their mother or they

read to a younger brother or sister. Playing with younger brothers and sisters, taking a bath in a bathtub full of toys or having a pizza supper all alone with your father are also events worthwhile writing about. Children described visits to cousins, aunts, uncles and wrote how much their grandparents meant to them.

Pets (Appendix D-8)

There were ten children in the class who had pets. They had a cat, a dog, a hamster, a bird, and fish. There were four children who wrote about wanting a pet but who could not have pets for one reason or another, allergies, a new baby in the family or just simply because the parents did not want pets. Some children consoled themselves with stuffed animals for pets or they wrote about a pet they had had a long time ago. D wrote realistically about Mickey her dog, yet he had been dead since she was four years old.

Seasonal Activities (Appendix D-9)

It is winter for half of the school year so it can be expected that children write about all the classical winter activities such as: throwing snowballs, building snowforts, making snowmen, sliding on the ice, skating, skiing and liking the snow. The highlight of spring activities is the arrival of the milder weather. Children play in the sand and mud, build dams with branches and generally get wet and dirty.

School Activities (Appendix D-10)

All facets of learning to read occupy a large part of the grade one curriculum. Reading is part of so many school activities that it is frequently

written about. Twin reading with an older student, going to the library, talking about books, taking pride in independently reading books to a volunteer parent or to the principal were important events to small children.

Fundraising activities by older students and all the preparations necessary to make the official school opening a success were further events which provided material for writing.

We made six trips outside the school. We saw three French Plays created for young children. We visited the museum, the orchard and the sugarbush. The last two visits were used to build a Language Experience Unit of study to help children learn to read with the use of their dictated stories.

Festivities (Appendix D-11)

Under this heading came all the descriptions of major festivities such as Hallowe'en, Christmas, Valentine's day, Easter as well as birthdays. They included the anticipation of the festivities, preparing decorations and cards as well as selecting gifts.

Birthdays are important to young children. They await with anticipation their own, as well as the birthday of a friend, a brother, a sister or a parent.

Other (Appendix D-12)

Under this heading was grouped writing which did not deal with real events in the child's life. P was the only child who wrote about fictional characters. He described animals in the woods who behaved like human beings. He did this kind of writing mainly during the first two months of school. Many children would rewrite favourite stories, changing certain aspects of the story but using the language and vocabulary of the story with which they

were so familiar through multiple readings. They would use in the same fashion their favourite T.V. stories. This kind of writing was frequent during the first term. It seemed that children used this kind of "copy" writing in order to discover what they themselves had to say.

SENSE OF AUDIENCE

The analysis of 2837 journal entries and 189 stories for audience categories served to find the answer to the third research question:

How much audience awareness do these children develop?

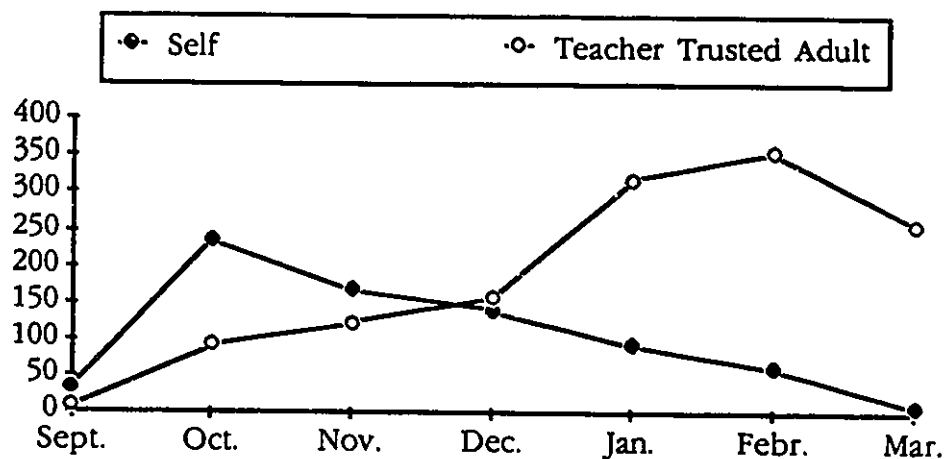
In Journal writing we found two audience categories: "Self" and "Teacher Trusted Adult". When the journal entry clearly indicated that language was used in an exploratory manner, the entry was coded "Self" (Appendix D-13). When the journal writing took on the form of a text and indicated an effort to communicate specific information, it qualified as "Teacher Trusted Adult" (Appendix D-14).

In September all children's journal writing consisted of exploratory writing. The kind of writing Britton, Burgess, Martin, McLeod & Rosen (1975) call writing for oneself. Journal entries for the first two months of school showed that getting any ideas down on paper demanded most of the child's concentration. Great effort was required to find out what letters to use, how to make them and it was a struggle to hang on to an idea long enough to put it in written form. Therefore, it is comprehensible that such a struggle with the form did not leave much room for audience awareness. Writing which belonged to the audience category "Self" was most often produced during the first term (Figure 2).

By October some journal entries had started to display writing in the

"Teacher Trusted Adult" category. The writing which fell in this category could be recognized by an ever growing increase in communication of ideas and personal information addressed to the reader. This kind of writing steadily increased in importance during the first term. Figure 2 shows that, starting in December, the children's audience awareness grew by leaps and bounds and writing for one-self starkly decreased until March. During the last term, writing for oneself had disappeared except for ten sporadic cases by A and B.

Figure 2 Audience: Journal Writing



When Story writing was introduced during the second term, children by then knew from their reading experiences that authors wrote for readers. They realized that once their stories were published, they were meant to be read by others. During the writing of a story, children also received feedback from their future audience through informal sharing of their writing with their classmates. The stories were all considered as addressed to a known wider audience (Peer Group) as they initially were read by their classmates and ultimately by their parents and other members of the family. Table 4 shows however, that the bulk of the writing was addressed to their teacher.

Table 4 Audience: Journal and Story Writing

	<u>% of total</u>
Peer Group	6.25
Self	23.93
Teacher Trusted Adult	69.82

FUNCTIONS OF WRITING

The analysis of one hundred and twenty journal entries, written by six children, was used to help answer the fourth research question:

How functional is the children's use of language?

The qualitative description of language functions is presented in two parts. First a look at all six children's use of functions and those used by the teacher, followed by a brief analysis of the children's individual use of language functions. In this study the children used 11 functions, six of which had low frequencies (Table 5).

Qualitative Description

Looking at the results of children as a group, the following observations can be pointed out. Fewer functions were found in this study than in Shuy's study, which seems logical since the writers in his study were teenagers writing in their first language. The bulk of the written language functions for both boys and girls are found in the reporting category. In this section the majority of functions consists of reporting personal facts, which seems natural for children of this age, who draw their inspiration to write from the relationship and experiences they have with people in their immediate environment. In this small sample of writing, the boys did not ask any information questions. The girls' writing reflects a wider range of language

Table 5 January - June Comparison in Student Use of Language Functions

	<u>Girls:</u>						<u>Boys:</u>						<u>Av. %</u>	
	<u>H</u>		<u>B</u>		<u>I</u>		<u>S</u>		<u>W</u>		<u>Q</u>			
	Ja.	Ju.	Ja.	Ju.	Ja.	Ju.	Ja.	Ju.	Ja.	Ju.	Ja.	Ju.	<u>Totals:</u>	<u>L. F.</u>
Rep. Opinions	16	26	16	3	-	4	6	6	1	1	-	-	79	13.7
Rep.Pers.Facts	21	54	15	2	10	13	5	51	16	31	11	21	250	43.2
Rep.Gen.Facts	2	19	4	1	4	17	5	5	1	18	7	1	84	14.5
Resp. to Quest.	-	-	5	4	2	2	1	6	3	6	7	-	36	6.2
Pred.Fut.Event	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	5	-	-	-	9	1.6
Complaining	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.2
Give Directives	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.2
Evaluating	-	3	1	7	-	-	3	2	-	4	-	-	20	3.5
Info. Question	-	-	1	4	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	1
Procedural Q.	-	1	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	0.7
Opinion Quest.	-	-	-	88	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	88	15.2
<u>Totals:</u>	39	104	42	109	16	41	20	74	26	60	25	22	578	100

Table 6 January - June Comparison in Teacher Use of Language Functions

	<u>Girls:</u>						<u>Boys:</u>							<u>Av. %</u>
	<u>H</u>		<u>B</u>		<u>I</u>		<u>S</u>	<u>W</u>		<u>Q</u>			<u>Totals:</u>	<u>L.F.</u>
	Ja.	Ju.	Ja.	Ju.	Ja.	Ju.	Ja.	Ju.	Ja.	Ju.	Ja.	Ju.		
Rep. Opinions	5	-	1	6	1	4	5	5	2	3	1	3	36	20.9
Rep.Pers.Facts	2	-	-	4	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	8	4.7
Rep.Gen.Facts	2	-	1	1	3	2	-	2	-	1	1	1	14	8.1
Resp. to Quest.	-	-	-	11	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	7
Pred.Fut.Event	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	2	-	-	-	-	4	2.3
Give Directives	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	4	2.3
Apologizing	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.6
Evaluating	-	-	6	8	-	1	3	2	-	2	-	2	24	14
Promising	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.6
Info. Questions	3	-	8	2	6	2	6	8	4	7	8	4	58	33.7
Procedural Q.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	0.6
Opinion Quest.	1	-	-	-	-	2	-	3	1	2	-	-	9	5.2
<u>Totals</u>	15	-	17	32	10	14	16	24	8	16	10	10	172	100

functions, which can possibly be explained by the fact that overall the girls wrote more than the boys. The teacher's use of language functions is presented in Table 6. In order to focus on the recurring functions for students and teacher we tabulated them in Table 7. Looking at this table we find that the three major functions found in the teacher's writing are in order of frequency: Asking Information Questions, Reporting Opinions and Evaluating.

Table 7 Average % of High Frequency Functions: Students and Teacher

	<u>Students</u>	<u>Teacher</u>
Reporting Personal Facts	43.2	4.7
Asking Opinion Questions	15.2	5.2
Reporting General Facts	14.5	8.1
Reporting Opinions	13.7	20.9
Responding to Questions	6.2	7
Evaluating	3.5	14
Asking Information Questions	1.4	33.7

Kreeft Peyton (1988a, 1988b) found that in dialogue journal writing the student-teacher relationship changed, the inequality of status between the two became more equalized. A mutuality developed between them as they shared views, personal information and knowledge. This special rapport between both participants in their collaborative writing was, in Kreeft Peyton's opinion, a contributing factor in the students' growth in writing. She states 'that there is a difference in asking questions in daily classroom discourse, where answers generally must be forthcoming, and the questions in dialogue journals where the one-to-one private interaction between teacher and student allows for freedom of choice. Reed's (1988) information questions consisted of two kinds: 1) to initiate a topic or 2) to continue to develop the student's topic. In this study the children always generated their own writing and all of the 58

teacher's questions were responses to the children's topic. The teacher's opinions also served to promote the written interaction. The children initiated a topic which opened the door to share opinions about it. Of the 36 teacher's opinions, 26 confirmed the child's writing, 10 expressed her surprise, pleasure or appreciation of it. Five out of 24 evaluations took the form of praise for the children's increased writing ability and the rest expressed agreement with the child's opinion. Table 7 shows that half of the teacher-student dialogue is occupied by children reporting personal and general facts (56.9 %) and the teacher responding with opinions and information questions (54.6 %).

Individual Analyses

Reporting individual changes in use of language functions provides another perspective of the children's personal growth in writing ability and reflects each child's writing process. To show the variety in language use by the six children, we refer to Tables 5 and 6. In Table 8 we visually presented change in language functions which occurred over a five month period.

H's greatest increase is found in the description of her personal experiences. Her family often travelled out of the country and in June she spent two weeks in the U.S. She took her journal with her and wrote about her new experiences. She wrote the most of all children, but during this period her journal entries were twice as long. Her accounts of personal information input indicate her feeling of mutuality with her immediate audience. It is self-evident why the June entries do not have a teacher's response. H extended her use of functions to six by the end of the year.

B's most striking change is her dramatic increase of the function of asking information questions at the expense of reporting opinions and

Table 8 January-June Comparison in Student Use of Ten Language Functions

	<u>Girls:</u>			<u>Boys:</u>		
	<u>H</u>	<u>E</u>	<u>I</u>	<u>S</u>	<u>W</u>	<u>Q</u>
Reporting Opinions	+	-	+	~	~	*
Reporting Personal Facts	+	-	+	+	+	+
Reporting General Facts	+	-	+	~	+	-
Responding to Questions	*	-	~	+	+	-
Predicting Future Events	*	*	*	+	-	*
Give Directives	+	*	*	*	*	*
Evaluating	+	+	*	~	+	*
Request for Information	*	+	+	*	*	*
Request for Procedure	+	*	+	*	*	*
Request for Opinion	*	+	*	*	*	*

Key: +Increase -Decrease ~No Change *Function not found in sample

personal facts. She alone accounts for the 15.2 % of such questions asked by the children. These questions became rather formulaic yet she never repeated herself. All the questions were directed to the teacher personally. The teacher's frequent attempts, through specific commentaries, to channel her writing in a different direction were ignored. The entire June sample consisted of this kind of writing.

I extends the number of language functions from three to seven over a five months' period. During the first term most of her writing was impersonal when she used language of a familiar story and changed it slightly to make a journal entry. In the second term she wrote about general school events. When at last she ventured into reporting personal opinions and she made a complaint, her entries became more personally involved. This seemed an indication of her growing confidence in writing.

In everyday classroom activities S was a quiet studious boy who volunteered little personal information, yet in his writing he found the medium to describe what interested him. He seemed to be able to express himself more comfortably in writing. His greatest increase in writing was made in reporting personal facts. His descriptions became more and more vivid. In June he extends into predicting future events when he started to look forward with anticipation to an upcoming trip to England which also allowed him to leave school one week early.

W's number of functions stayed the same but he considerably increased the personal and general reporting categories. It was not until the end of the school year though that his writing started to flow.

Q functioned in much the same manner. He seemed to prefer story writing as he wrote more in that mode. At the end of the year he concentrated on reporting personal facts. He came a long way though, having spent most of the first term drawing.

SPELLING STRATEGIES

The analysis of the spelling data served to answer the fifth research question:

What learning strategies do young second language writers use to translate text into an orthographic form of language?

Read's (1971; 1975) research proved that preschool children were able to spell meaningful messages spontaneously. He showed that the children's invented spelling, although not consistent with those made by adults, were not random occurrences but based on identifiable principles and sophisticated phonetic decisions. Harste, Woodward & Burke's (1984) data reinforced this

notion of preschool children as written language users and learners in a consistent way well before they received formal instruction. E.F.I. grade one children in the present study applied similar linguistic knowledge when they started to make meaningful signs in their journals. Their journal entries were first draft pieces which were not corrected but standard spelling was modelled in the teacher's written response.

The sample of eight children was too small to apply statistical procedures in the analysis and we understand that for this reason conclusions cannot be generalized. However, by presenting the results with the use of graphs, some interesting trends can be observed. The purpose therefore of this section is to show patterns in the spelling acquisition process, which will have to be studied further in future research.

The results of the analysis will be presented in four sub-sections with the following headings: Spelling Strategies: Group 1 Writers vs. Group 2 Writers; High Frequency Strategies for Both Groups; Low Frequency Spelling Strategies; Writing Vocabulary and Correct Spelling.

SPELLING STRATEGIES: GROUP 1 WRITERS VS. GROUP 2 WRITERS

Explanation: Reversing letters and numbers, copying text and drawing as well as starting to use most spelling strategies later than Group 1 subjects, were features typical of Group 2 writing. Reversals included letters, most frequently lower case letters, as well as numbers. Copying involved borrowing text which was part of Language Experience Charts or popular stories, songs and poems of which the teacher was aware. Drawing was an integral part of the children's writing as they began to use letters to produce text or text-like pieces.

Results: Tables 9 and 10 demonstrate that Group 2 subjects started using

all spelling strategies, except for strategies 7, 8 and 9, up to two months later than the Group 1 writers. These tables also show that six sub-categories with low frequencies were not used by Group 2 writers until the second half of the school year. Copying text from print on display in the classroom and symbol reversals as shown in Figures 3 and 4 were two other strategies which were used more by Group 2 subjects. After an initial stage of copying, the Group 1 children started to rely on their own resources while writing; Group 2 subjects, however, continued to copy isolated words until May. Reversals occurred more frequently in Group 2 writing. Reversals of letters and numbers reached its peak in March and gradually diminished towards June.

Conclusion: Although the writing of all beginning writers in this class was illustrated and displayed some evidence of copying and letter reversals, these characteristics were found more frequently in the writing produced by Group 2 subjects. Copying as Clay (1975: 12) explains was used by the preschool writers she studied, as a shortcut to accuracy in writing but they soon started to generate their own spelling in order to get on with their writing. Such is very possibly the case with the Group 1 writers in this study. Group 2 subjects used this strategy until May.

Our experience is that letter reversals are common in grade one, but towards the end of the year they occur only sporadically. This was the case for writers in both groups. However, Group 2 writers, during the period from February to May, made many more reversals as is shown in Figure 4. Temple, Nathan, Burris and Temple (1988: 29) explain that young children have difficulty with reversals until they have grasped that, changing the direction of certain letters, changes their identity. The writers in this class were no exception.

Table 9 Use of Spelling Strategies By Both Groups over Ten School Months

Group	Code	S.	O.	N.	D.	J.	F.	M.	A.	M.	J.	Total
<u>1. Spelling as it Sounds:</u>												
I	1.1	7	16	13	18	17	33	29	25	30		188
II			5	26	10	8	28	12	20	28		137
I	1.2	1		-	3	3	-	2	2	3		14
II		2		-	-	1	2	1	1	5		12
<u>2. Spelling as it Sounds Out:</u>												
I	2.1	1		-	-	3	3	2	4	2		15
II		2		-	2	-	5	-	-	1		10
<u>3. Spelling as it Articulates:</u>												
I	3.1	1	1	2	1	4	13	12	7	4		45
II								3	3	6		12
I	3.2	4		5	-	1	11	2	1	5		29
II		2		9	3	1	9	6	13	4		47
<u>4. Spelling as it Means:</u>												
I	4.1	1	3	2	2	1	6	5	2	4		26
II						1	1	1	2	-		5
<u>5. Spelling as it Looks:</u>												
I	5.1	2	5	9	6	12	19	8	9	18		88
II		2		-	4	5	5	9	4	8		37
I	5.2	4		-	-	2	2	5	1	6		20
II				2	-	-	-	-	4	-		6
I	5.3	1	1	2	6	2	3	3	1	4		23
II		1		3	4	10	9	8	1	35		
<u>6. Spelling by Analogy:</u>												
I	6.1		4	-	2	3	5	3	3	20		
II						1	1	5	2	9		
I	6.2		1	1	-	4	4	3	13			
II			1	-	3	-	5	-	9			
<u>7. Spelling by Reference to an Authority:</u>												
I	7.1	7	16									23
II		-	25	6	13	3	2	7	1	-	-	57
<u>8. Opting for Alternate Surface Structure:</u>												
I	8.1	4	1	5	1	7	5	10	8	3	10	54
II		2	-	4	3	5	4	9	7	3	4	41
I	8.2	4										4
II		1										1
II *	8.3								2	1		3

* Spelling strategy used only by group 2.

Table 10 Correct Spelling and Interlanguage Spelling

Group:	Code:	S	O	N	D	J	F	M	A	M	J	Total:
<u>9. Use of Native Language:</u>												
I	9.1	2	2	9	-	4	7	10	5	5	14	58
II		1	-	1	4	1	1	3	5	20	6	42
<u>10. Uncertainty about French Accents:</u>												
I	10.1	1	-	-	-	-	-	3	1	1	6	12
II								2	-	-	-	2
I	10.2	2	5	5	3	2	7	1	5	6	36	
II				1	2	2	5	4	4	6	24	
I	10.3			1	1	4	-	-	5	4	15	
II				1	-	-	1	-	-	-	2	
I *	10.4			1	-	-	1	-	1	2	5	
<u>11. Correct Second Language Spelling:</u>												
I	11.1	5	69	59	32	48	107	79	84	113	596	
II			8	14	23	24	32	36	48	49	234	
<u>12. Correct Spelling With Special Consideration:</u>												
I	12.1	1	3	2	1	2	-	6	-	2	17	
II					1	1	1	1	1	2	7	
I	12.2	2	-	4	3	9	12	4	6	4	44	
II				2	2	2	6	2	1	3	18	
I	12.3		4	2	-	1	-	3	2	3	15	
II					1	1	1	-	2	1	6	
I	12.4							1	3	-	4	
II									1	-	1	
I *	12.5	-	1	1	-	1	1	4	1	2	6	17

* Spelling strategy used only by group 1.

Figure 3

Copying Text

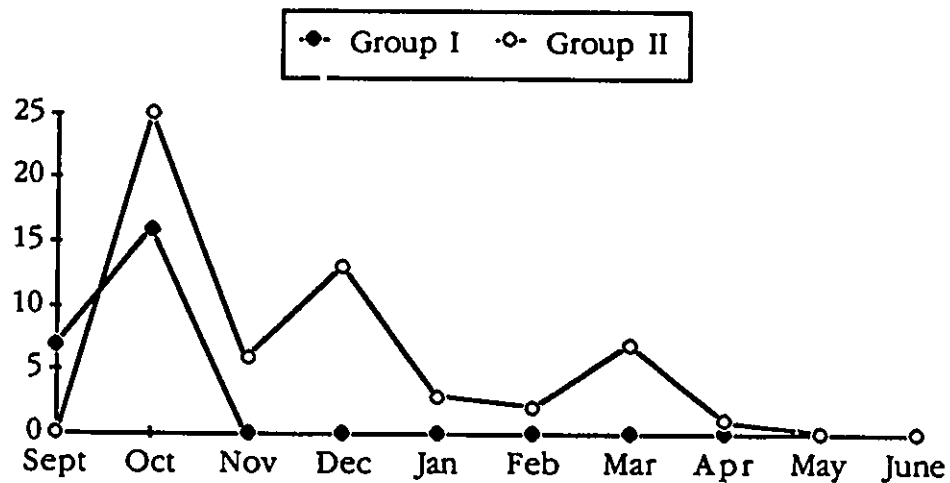
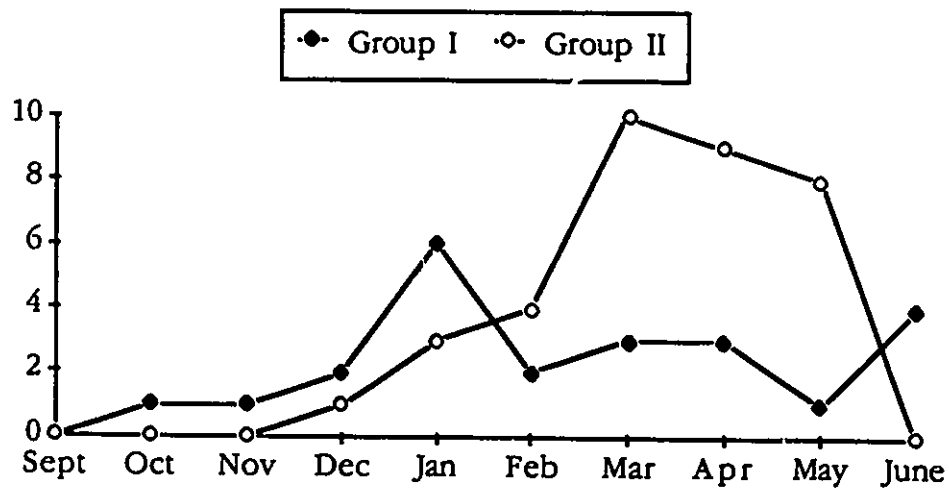


Figure 4

Reversing Letters and Numbers



The most typical feature of the Group 2 writers was that they started to write later than their Group 1 counterparts. Harste, Woodward & Burke (1984: 130) point out that writing requires risk-taking and experimentation. Experimenting with writing in a language one barely knows can be a frightening enterprise though. In spite of the fact that Group 2 children knew that functional spelling was accepted and encouraged by the teacher, they chose to draw for a longer period of time before attempting to produce text. By staying with a familiar activity they knew well, they seemed to indicate that they were not yet willing to take risks with language. Vygotsky (1978e) as well as Harste, Woodward & Burke (1984) provide another possible explanation for the late start, as they argue that drawing is an important step on the way to writing. They view drawing as a necessary transition towards understanding the sign concept when writing stands for a message rather than a drawing.

HIGH FREQUENCY SPELLING STRATEGIES

Spelling as it sounds, Spelling as it looks and Spelling as it articulates were strategies most used by both groups (Table 11).

Table 11 High Frequency Spelling Strategies				
	<u>Group 1</u>		<u>Group 2</u>	
		<u>%/total</u>		<u>%/total</u>
<u>Total number of spelling codings:</u>	1373		749	
<u>Spelling strategies:</u>				
Spelling as it sounds	201	14.6	136	18.1
Spelling as it looks	131	9.5	77	10.2
Spelling as it articulates	74	5.3	59	7.8

As we present the results of the use of the various strategies, we will provide examples of each strategy to illustrate them and in Appendix C-1 we

have presented additional examples for further detail. It must be kept in mind though that most instances of spelling involved a complex interplay of a number of strategies, some of which could not always be known. The examples given have been chosen to clearly illustrate one specific feature. Functional spellings are presented in capital letters and letters which are in focus are underlined.

Spelling as it Sounds

Explanation: This strategy deals with phonetic spelling and is based on a direct sound/symbol relationship. The subjects in this study spelled by representing the letter sound by a related symbol. The strategy is sub-divided into three sub-strategies.

a. Representation of certain French sounds by letters which provided the closest fit:

WI (oui) IENTILLE (gentille) OQI (aussi)

b. Failure to represent letters with zero phonological representation in word endings:

DAN (dans) PLU (plus) BON (bonne)

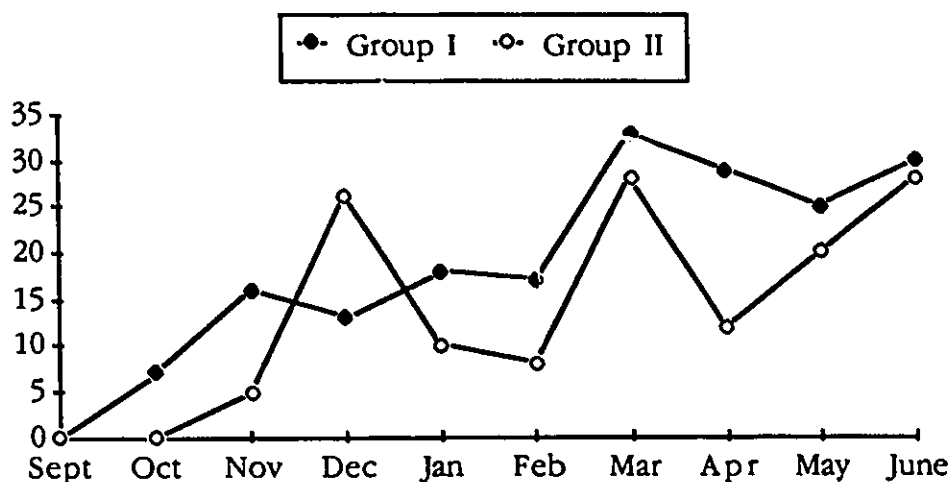
c. Use of letters which represented their own names in English or in French:

<u>English Letter Names</u>	<u>French Letter names</u>
DEGEN <u>A</u> (déjeuner)	CHAN <u>T</u> (chanter)

Figure 5 shows the use by both groups of the total of all sub-strategies of this high frequency spelling strategy.

Figure 5

Spelling As It Sounds



A closer look at the strategy Spelling as it sounds (a) revealed that for 15% of the total number of words produced by this sub-strategy, Group 2 writers used only the initial consonant for words of more than five letters. Group 1 subjects never produced single letter spellings. In addition, Group 1 subjects used Spelling as it sounds (b) three times more often than Group 2 writers. This strategy resulted in the whole word being spelled correctly, except for the omission of the last letter which was not sounded.

Conclusion: Table 11 lists the three high frequency spelling strategies for both groups. It also shows that Group 2 writers used them slightly more often. Read (1971; 1975) found that preschool writers created most of their own spellings by representing the sounds with letter names they knew. Spelling as it sounds (c) showed that the children in this study applied their knowledge of both languages when using letter names. It is therefore an interesting indication of L2 writing paralleling L1 writing, even though only a small amount (Gr. 1: 8 %; Gr.2: 7%) of this kind of spellings was recorded

within the Spelling as it sounds strategy.

Spelling as it Looks

Explanation: This is a visual spelling strategy using graphic patterning. We have already discussed reversals, which is one aspect of the Spelling as it looks strategy. Another one is where, in the same text, the child tries various versions of the same word, as S did in a June journal entry which dealt with his marble collection: "bielle/biell/biell/bille/biell/bille" for billes. In this section we concentrate on the third aspect of the Spelling as it looks strategy. It has two sub-strategies, one dealing with the sequence of letters in a word which the writer remembers, the second dealing with accents on words and the apostrophe indicating elision or liaison. Accents not only change the pronunciation of certain letters, they are at the same time a visual feature of a word.

Results:

a. Errors in order of letters, although all or most of the letters of the correct spelling are used.

PUOR (pour)

TIO (toi)

b. Errors with accent or apostrophe. Students omitted the accent or apostrophe, misplaced them or placed the accent over the correct letter but in the wrong direction.

NOEL (noël)

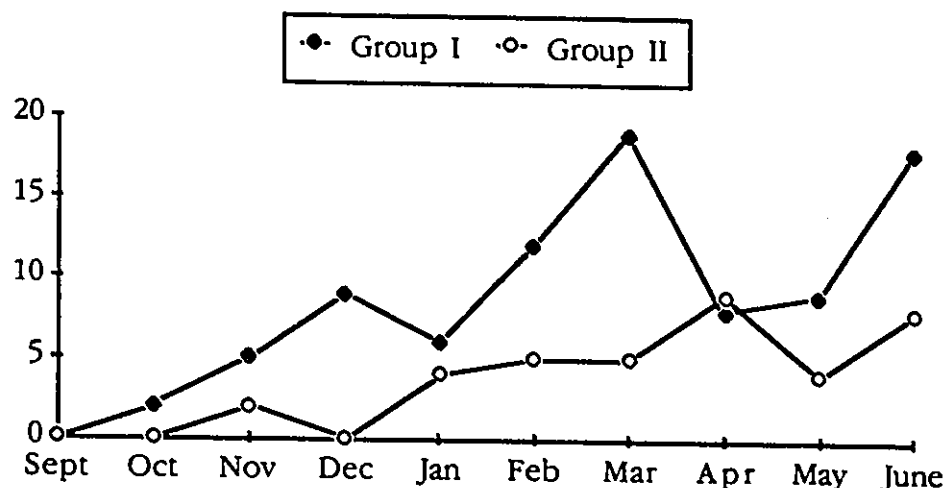
ALLÈZ (aller)

LÁ (là)

Spelling as it looks a) is used equally by both Groups as is shown in Figure 6.

Spelling as it looks b) will be discussed in the section on low frequency spelling strategies.

Figure 6 Spelling Facilitated by the Total Visual Pattern of the Word



Spelling as it Articulates

Explanation: This spelling strategy uses the articulatory aspects of sound and is subdivided into two sub-strategies.

a. Representation of [ø] by the letters < e > or < o >; the [ɛ] by the letters < a >, < e >, < i > and confusion of [u] with [y]

PE (peux) SA (c'est) PUR (pour)

b. Omission of three types of articulatory features:

the vowel before [l] and [r]

DR (dort) PLUCH (peluche)

the preconsonantal nasals as well as the letters < gn > representing [ɲ].

MTRE (montre) SAE (signé)

the palatal glides [j] and [ɥ]

PIE (puis) RVIE (réveille)

Figure 7 Representation of a Sound by a Related Symbol

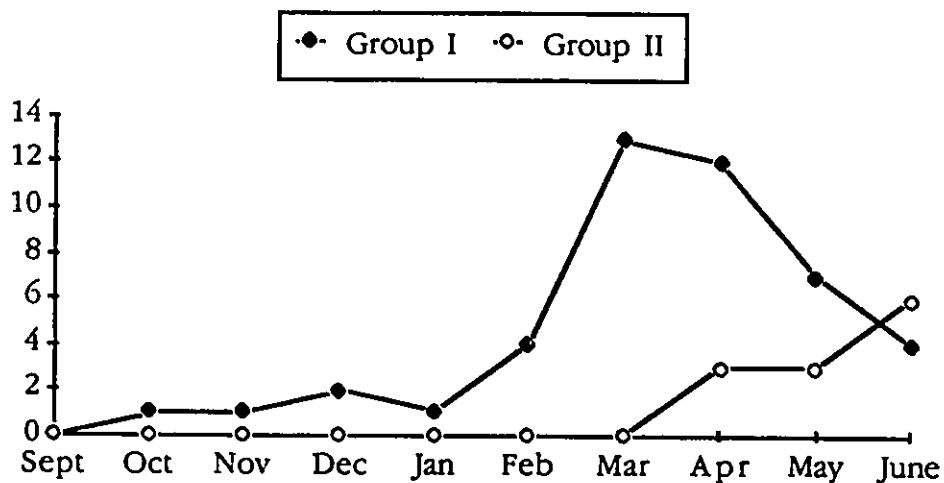
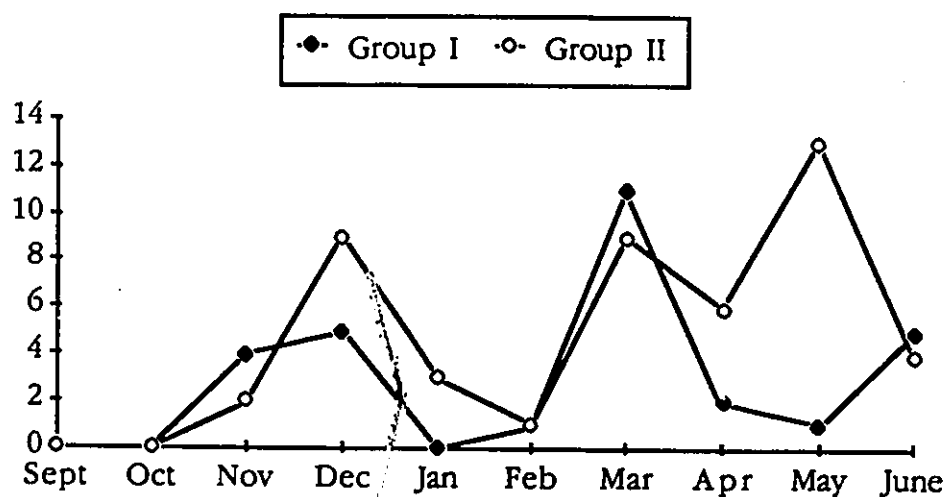


Figure 7 indicates that Group 1 writers used Spelling as it articulates (a) more frequently. Group 2 writers did not start using it until late in the year. Figure 8 shows that Spelling as it articulates (b), concerning omission of letters, is used more by Group 2 writers.

Figure 8 Omission of Letters



Conclusion: Spelling as it articulates encompasses many of the features of children's early spelling which Read (1971; 1975) identified. He found that children distinguish liquids [l], [r] and nasals [m], [n] and [ŋ] from other consonants. The fact that whole words were represented without vowels seemed to violate the rule of one vowel per syllable, Read states that by the children's rule however, the apparent vocalic quality of these consonants [l] [r] made the vowel before such consonants redundant. Like Read's first language writers the subjects in this study omitted the vowel before these liquids as well as the preconsonantal nasals. In addition to these omissions they left out the palatal glides: [j] and [ɥ].

Both aspects of the Spelling as it articulates strategy are complex. In this study we were not able to determine, whether young second language writers correctly articulated the sounds of the words as they were writing them, because we used written texts for our analysis. The possible confusion of sounds by children as well as their mispronunciation of others are reasons why the use of the Spelling as it articulates strategy needs to be studied further.

Most instances of spelling involved a complex orchestration of a number of spelling strategies as the word DEGENA (déjeuner) illustrates. Sometimes one could not know how the speller arrived at a specific orthography as P's spelling of AAPLE (lapin) shows. However, the analysis of 1549 words has made it clear to us that most spellings are not random but achieved through logical decision making on the part of the writer.

LOW FREQUENCY SPELLING STRATEGIES

The listed spelling strategies were used sparingly by both groups, as can be seen in Table 12. Our sample of eight grade one writers was too small to

yield large frequencies and therefore we were unable to make any conclusions.

Table 12 Low Frequency Spelling Strategies

	<u>Group 1</u>		<u>Group 2</u>	
		<u>%/total</u>		<u>%/total</u>
<u>Total number of spelling codings:</u>	1373		749	
<u>Spelling strategies:</u>				
Opting for alternate surface structure	58	4.2	45	6.0
Use of native language	58	4.2	42	5.6
Uncertainty about French accents	68	4.9	28	3.7
Spelling by analogy	33	2.4	18	2.4
Spelling as it sounds out	15	1.0	10	1.3
Spelling as it means	26	1.8	5	0.6

WRITING VOCABULARY AND CORRECT SPELLING

Explanation: With the use of the existing database on Spelling Strategies, we established each subject's writing vocabulary by counting identical words only once. This same database provided us with the total number of correctly spelled words for each of the eight subjects in all of their ten journal entries. The data from both sources enabled us to list all correctly spelled words in each child's writing vocabulary for both Groups.

Results: Figures 9 and 10 illustrate the fact that writing vocabulary and correct spellings for both groups increased in parallel fashion during the period of time studied. With the use of the numerical data of Table 9 we found that Group 1 had a writing vocabulary which amounted to 46.8 % of the total text; Group 2 had a writing vocabulary of 50.9 % of the total text. Group 1 spelled 51% of the words in their writing vocabulary correctly; Group 2 spelled 44.7% of their vocabulary correctly.

Figure 9

Writing Vocabulary

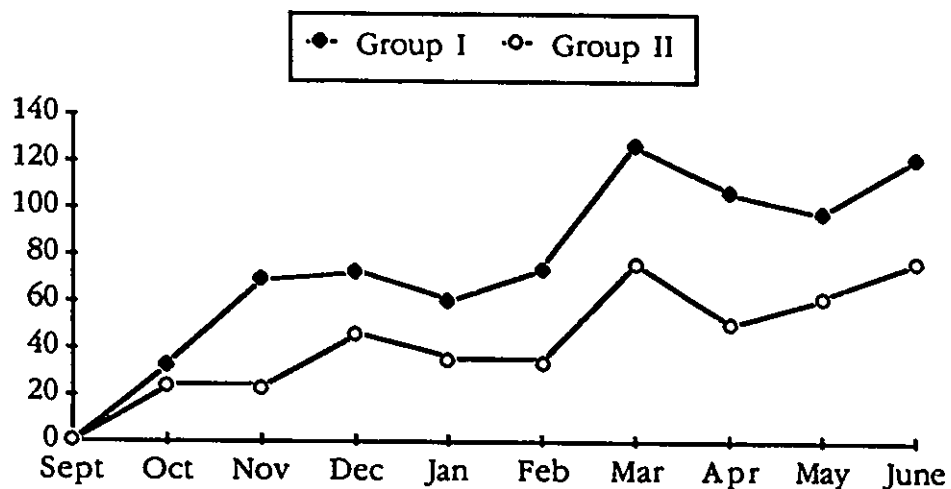


Figure 10

Correct Second Language Spelling

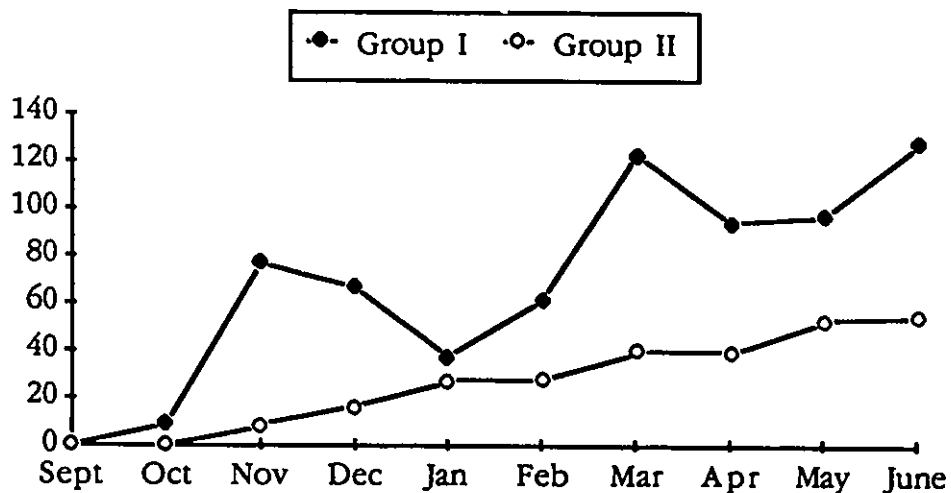


Table 13 provides the same information for the individual writers within the two groups.

Table 13 Writing Vocabulary and Correct Spelling by Individual Writers

	<u>Group 1</u>				<u>Group 2</u>			
<u>Children in 2 Groups:</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>G</u>	<u>S</u>	<u>P</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>I</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>Q</u>
Words in 10 Journal Entries	228	281	264	253	151	143	114	115
Writing vocabulary	108	129	102	141	74	67	68	57
Writing voc. as % of total	47.4	45.9	38.6	55.7	49	46.9	59.6	49.6
Correct spellings in writing vocabulary	57	48	72	68	44	31	15	29
Correct spellings (%)	52.8	37.2	70.6	48.2	59.5	46.3	22.1	50.9
Correct spelling/special consideration	7	14	17	19	2	5	3	3
Total % of correct spellings	59.3	48.1	87.3	61.7	62.2	53.7	26.5	56.1

Conclusion: Delayed use of spelling strategies, letter reversals and copying text were writing strategies generally more typical of Group 2 writers. For most of the first term, these writers presented their stories in pictorial form before taking risks with text production.

The answer to our first research question provided us with the information that all writers significantly increased their amount of writing over the entire school year. With the information obtained from the analysis of Spelling Strategies, we can add that at least eight writers in this class also increased the variety of words in their writing vocabulary and the number of words they spelled correctly. Table 13 shows that to spell correctly is very individual, since strong and weak spellers could be found in both groups. The words which were spelled correctly were those which were used frequently: articles, pronouns, conjunctions, ten high frequency verbs, adverbs, adjectives, two dozen nouns and the names of the days and the months.

Since the focus of the last research question was on spelling rather than syntax, we divided correct spelling arbitrarily into two categories: Correct

Second Language Spelling and Correct Spelling/Special Consideration. In the second category we included all correctly spelled words with only a missing or misplaced apostrophe or accent as well as correctly spelled verbs even though their use in the sentence was incorrect. Table 13 indicates that both groups succeeded in spelling a good percentage of words correctly: Group 1, 52.2%; Group 2, 44.7%. When the second category of correct spellings was included, the percentage for Group 1 rose to 64.1% and for Group 2 to 49.6%.

In conclusion we can say that, although there are differences in use of Spelling Strategies and commencement of writing meaningful text, as outlined in previous sections, both groups, proportionally to amount written, similarly increased the number of correct spellings and the variety of words in their writing vocabulary.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Discussion and Summary of the Findings

A summary of the findings of each research question is presented in chronological order for the five questions which guided this inquiry. The first three questions were based on all the journal and story writing produced by twenty-three children. Question four was researched on the writing of six children and Question five was based on the production of eight children.

1. **How much will grade one children, without previous instruction, actually write in the second language in a biliterate E.F.L. classroom, when they are given the opportunity to write daily?**

The findings are as follows:

- a. Amount of writing indicated a sex difference: considering total written production, girls wrote significantly more than boys.
- b. The mean increase in Journal writing over terms for boys, girls and all children was significant at the .001 level.
- c. There was no significant increase in quantity of Story writing for either sex.
- d. Age was not a deciding factor in how much children wrote.

Three main factors might explain the increase in amount written:

- 1) maturation, 2) general language acquisition and 3) writing environment.

In the first case, acquisition of better motor skills resulting from the natural

maturation process might help explain why all children increased significantly in Journal writing. In the second case, time served to increase the general language acquisition process through large doses of Comprehensible Input. In the third case, it is probable that the writing environment which permitted functional spelling provided flexible writing time, encouraged self-generated language and made use of interactive dialogue journals. Of the two modes of writing (story writing and journal writing) the second one proved to be the most productive kind of writing in terms of quantity. It is our opinion that the integrated and interactive features of the dialogue journal were important factors which promoted the continuous increase in this kind of writing.

The significant increase in amount of writing by these E.F.I. grade one students reflects the results of a study conducted by Erasmus (1960).The adult E.S.L. writers in his study also increased their written production when allowed to engage in free composition. Brière (1966) replicating Erasmuz' work found that length of texts by E.S.L. university students increased significantly over a period of an academic year. Having the opportunity to write about self selected topics, increases written production and fluency in L2 writing for adults as well as children. Comparing this study to Milz' (1983) research, we found that amount of writing indicates a sex difference in first as well as second language writing. In both studies the girls wrote significantly more than the boys.

2. What are the topics about which grade one children choose to write?

We found that the description of personal ideas, feelings and those about human relations predominated. This corroborated Emig's (1979b) statement that the writer has a need for freedom to be able to write. No topics were

suggested to these children and they were free to write about what concerned them most. They almost always wrote about things that were crucial to them; things they cared about. They found the motivation for writing in their own lives. Graves' (1983) research into young children's first language writing confirms this.

Therefore in first as well as second language writing, the choice of topics by beginning writers reflects their focus on themselves and shows a strong root of personal experience. When children write about topics which matter to them they have access to an abundance of information and as a result the language flows.

3. How much audience awareness do these children develop?

In this classroom the teacher was the children's immediate audience for more than half of the writing. Sense of audience occurred with the help of the teacher who allowed and actively encouraged the use of written language to pursue and nurture genuine relationships between writer and reader. Another quarter of the writing was addressed to a wider known audience (peers and parents) and six percent of the texts consisted of exploratory writing addressed to the self.

Milz' (1983) and Graves' (1985) data show also that young first language writers generally ignore audience at first when text production requires all their attention, and then address the bulk of their writing to teacher and classmates. Therefore with respect to sense of audience there are strong similarities in first and second language beginning writing.

4. How functional is the children's use of language?

Grade one children used writing for a number of functions. Eleven language functions were found in the 120 journal entries writing by six

children, five of these functions were high frequency. Half of the teacher-student written dialogue was occupied by children reporting personal and general facts (56.9%) and the teacher responding with opinions and information questions (54.6%). Four out of six children increased their use of language functions from January to June, another continued to use the five he had used up to that time and one child decreased his use of functions by one. Apart from the five high frequency functions, use of language functions reflected the individual use by each writer.

5. What learning strategies do young second language writers use to translate text into an orthographic form of language?

The spelling data was obtained from eighty journal entries produced by eight children. These eight children were divided into two groups according to the amount they wrote, the time they began using letters to sign meaning and the number of stories they read during the school year. Group 1 children produced more, began to spell earlier and read more than Group 2 children. The findings about the use of spelling strategies provided the following insights into the acquisition of the L2 written system.

- a. The analysis of 1549 words for spelling strategies revealed that, like L1 spelling, L2 spelling is achieved through logical decision making on the part of the writer.
- b. Most spellings studied were not random but reflected sensible linguistic decision making as was the case in L1 spelling.
- c. L2 writers, like L1 writers, use a wide range of spelling strategies to produce a written text.
- d. In addition to the strategies which are common to L1 writers, L2 writers use strategies which reflect their interlanguage. Interlanguage spelling was characterized by the representation of certain French sounds by letters

which provided the closest fit; the use of English and French letter names; omission of letters with zero phonological representation; omission of the palatal nasal and the palatal glides.

- e. L2 writers have two languages to draw on which increases their options for spelling. The use of both English and French letter names in the data seems an indication of L2 spelling paralleling L1 spelling.
- f. Despite differences in use of spelling strategies and commencement of writing meaningful text, Group 1 and Group 2 writers, proportionally to amount written, similarly increased the number of correct spellings and the variety of words in their writing vocabulary.
- g. Strong and weak spellers were found in both groups of writers.

The above results reveal strong similarities in the L1 and L2 spelling process. The Interlanguage phenomenon found in the spelling produced by the E.F.I. grade one students in this study indicate that similar to spelling in the first language the L2 non-standard spelling system is not ideosyncratic but is the result of spontaneous linguistic performance.

The twenty-two E.F.I. students used many of the spelling strategies described by Read (1971, 1975), Harste, Woodward and Burke (1984), Milz (1983), Bouffler (1983), Boeffler and Bean (1987). Hudelson (1980, 1981, 1984) reports similar findings for her subjects writing in a first and a second language in a bilingual classroom. Similar to this study, Jilbert and Maguire (1986) found that learning to write in a second language involves, to various degrees the use of the native and second language.

Brière (1966) and Jilbert and Maguire (1986) found that with increase in number of words of each subsequent text came an increase of correctly

spelled words. The children in this study similarly increased their correct spelling. The above discussion indicates that despite the small number of subjects studied, there are several indications which suggest that various similarities between the L1 and L2 writing process exist.

This study also shows that, given opportunities, parents can play an active role in supporting second language development in the classroom. When cooperation between parents and teacher exists, the learner is encouraged to continue writing activities at home. The findings from the Home Literacy Survey revealed that a focus on writing in school motivated the children to write at home. Starting during the second school term, sixteen out of twenty-three children wrote in both languages at home. Three children wrote only in English at home and four continued to write in French at home. Considering the high number of children writing in both languages at home, one would suspect that learning to write in both languages simultaneously in a school environment would also be possible. Flores, Garcia and Gonzalez (1985), and Edelsky (1982, 1986) reported that this was true for children in bilingual classes; once the children had a good grasp of writing in one language, they applied this knowledge to writing in the second language.

Implications for Further Research

Our findings on Story writing are limited due to the infrequency and short time span of writing in this mode. They, therefore, do not provide enough insights into this kind of second language writing. Future research into this mode of writing could provide valuable information about the children's capacity to increase their writing ability through extended work on single pieces of writing. Such a study could also demonstrate whether very young

writers are able to revise their writing and how this revision manifests itself.

Additional research on young children's audience awareness is also recommended. A study of second language writers of the same age, writing for a variety of audiences, would most likely yield different results in topic choice.

Our findings have shown that with increase in number of words written, the variety of words in writing vocabulary and number of correct spellings also increased. The analysis of eighty journal entries written by eight subjects revealed this information. In order to provide proof for these findings, it would be beneficial to analyse the Journal writing of the remaining fifteen children in this classroom. A larger sample of subjects would permit the use of descriptive statistics which would enable the researcher to discover whether these increases are truly significant.

The same small sample yielded the data on use of spelling strategies. This aspect of the present inquiry could be similarly augmented to extend our knowledge of the L2 spelling acquisition process.

The spelling strategies involving the substitutions or omissions of certain articulatory aspects of sound in functional spelling also require further study. Read's (1971; 1975) study of preschool children's knowledge of English phonology showed that they possessed an unconscious knowledge of aspects of their first language sound system. Our data demonstrated that beginning writers used English and French letter names interchangeably in their spellings. These findings suggest that a wider study into these features would be worthwhile to find out whether children extend their knowledge of the first language sound system to L2 writing or whether they develop two separate systems.

Duplication of the present study at the grade two and three levels would also be profitable in order to learn whether present trends continue in higher

grades.

Implications for Teaching

The subjects in this study were engaged in whole, authentic written discourse and by the sheer amount of their writing and reading they demonstrated that five and six year olds can acquire L2 literacy by having to manipulate and draw on all four language arts simultaneously from the first day of school. Our findings therefore argue against common practices in E.F.I. classes, such as the separation of the language arts into reading as distinct from writing, as distinct from speaking, as distinct from listening; the establishment of uniform sequences of teaching objectives; the practice of teaching skills in isolation; the assessment of literacy on the basis of an isolated piece of writing or the reading of the same text for all members of a class.

The findings concerning the use of spelling strategies, based on the writing of eight children, indicate that spelling as a language process seems to be best learned in language situations where it occurs naturally i.e. through encounters with language particularly written language. Our data have also suggested that, in an environment where children write daily and they read a great number of stories, writing vocabulary and correct spelling increase concomitantly with increase in quantity of writing. These trends in spelling and vocabulary development therefore put in question the teaching of spelling through lists, exercises and memorization.

In Chapter Two we stated that L2 instruction should be based on knowledge of the nature of language and language processes and the nature of the learning process. We emphasized that language is learned rather than taught and that the teacher's main responsibility exists in promoting L2

language development by providing an environment which fosters L2 learning. Learning is an active process, unless the learner is actively engaged in, and assumes responsibility for his own learning no effective learning can take place. It is therefore the teacher's role to get the child involved in his own learning by letting him make his own decisions in reading and writing. We have already described how learners can be stimulated to take control of their own literacy learning. In addition however it is necessary to say that for a teacher to be a good facilitator of L2 literacy learning, one who will be able to give appropriate support and feedback to the learner, it is also essential that she/he have firsthand experience with reading and writing.

In conclusion we recommend that for effective L2 literacy learning, E.F.I. students be allowed to explore the parameters of the language, to take risks with language, and to control, and be responsible for their own learning. With regard to writing, this means that children should have opportunities for engagement and re-engagement in the process. They should be able to write for a variety of purposes and for a variety of audiences. When this happens they will be able to demonstrate that acquiring second language literacy can be as natural a process as it is in their first language.

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APPENDIX A**BACKGROUND MATERIAL****Appendix**

- A-1 Most Frequently Read Children's Books
- A-2 Reading Record
- A-3 Letter from Parent to Teacher
- A-4 Timetable: Grade One Class
- A-5 Letter from Parent to Child
- A-6 Home Literacy Survey

Appendix A-1: **FIFTY MOST FREQUENTLY READ CHILDREN'S BOOKS.**

- Assathiany, Syvie. **Mon bébé-soeur**. Québec: Editions Ovale, 1982.
- Assathiany, Sylvie. **Quand ça va mal**. Québec Editions Ovale, 1983.
- Booth, David. * **La maison vide**. Holt, Rinehart and Winston of Canada. 1984.
- Bruna, Dick. **Ma chemise de corps est blanche**. Paris: Nathan. 1984.
- Connat, Martine. **La petite poule rousse**. Toronto: Scholastic, 1986.
- Ginsberg, Mira. **Le caneton et le poussin**. Paris: L'école des loisirs, 1982.
- Hill, Eric. **Le premier Noël de Spot**. Paris: Nathan, 1983.
- Hill, Eric. **Spot va à la plage**. Paris: Nathan, 1982.
- Hill, Eric. **Les contraires**. Paris: Nathan, 1984.
- Hill, Eric. **Spot va à l'école**. Paris: Nathan, 1982.
- Hill, Eric. **Où est mon petit chien?** Paris: Nathan, 1983.
- Hill, Eric. **La première promenade de Spot**. Paris: Nathan, 1983.
- Hill, Eric. **Spot au cirque**. Paris: Nathan, 1983.
- Hill, Eric. **L'anniversaire de Spot**. Paris: Nathan, 1983.
- Hill, Eric. **Petit câlin**. Paris: Nathan. 1983.
- Hill, Eric. **Bonjour, petit ourson!** Paris: Nathan, 1984.
- Hill, Eric. **Qui fait quoi?** Paris: Nathan, 1984.
- Hill, Eric. **Les animaux**. Paris: Nathan, 1984.
- Hill, Eric. **Spot à la ferme**. Paris: Nathan. 1985.
- Hill, Eric. **Spot à la fête**. Paris: Nathan. 1985.
- Hill, Eric. **Spot s'amuse**. Paris: Nathan, 1985.
- Hunia, Fran. **Le renard et la poule rousse**. Toronto: Scholastic, 1985.
- Joffe Numeroff, Laura. **Souris, tu veux un biscuit?** Toronto: TAB, 1986.
- Kessler, Ethel. **Les ourson s'assoient-ils?** HRW of Canada, 1984.
- Lobel, Arnold. * **La très grande souris**. HRW of Canada, 1984.

- Marin, Lise. **Ploum et les crayons de couleur**. Paris: Nathan, 1984.
- Mayer, Mercer. **Moi tout seul**. Paris: Deux coqs d'or, 1987.
- Mayer, Mercer. **Ma petite soeur et moi**. Paris: Deux coqs d'or, 1987.
- Mayer, Mercer. **Ma maman et moi**. Paris: Deux coqs d'or, 1987.
- Mayer, Mercer. **Mon pyjama et moi**. Paris: Deux coqs d'or, 1987.
- Mayer, Mercer. **Mes caprices et moi**. Paris: Deux coqs d'or, 1987.
- Mayer, Mercer. **Grand-maman et moi**. Paris: Deux coqs d'or, 1987.
- No author. **Un chasseur**. Paris: Flammarion, 1986.
- No author. **Mes petits amis**. Québec: Les Editions Héritage, 1982.
- No author. **Nounours et le chien**. Québec: Les Editions Héritage, 1985.
- Reid, Barbara. **Quel beau petit!** Toronto: Scholastic, 1986.
- Stinson, Kathy. **Le rouge, c'est bien mieux**. Toronto: Annick Press, 1986.
- Student-authored. **J'aime, mais je n'aime pas**.
- Tarsky, Sue. **Pomme et poire**. Paris: Hachette, 1983.
- Tarsky, Sue. **Tambour et poupée**. Paris: Hachette, 1983.
- Tarsky, Sue. **Table et chaise**. Paris: Hachette, 1983.
- Wabbes, Marie. **Ma maman**. Montréal: Hurtebise, 1986.
- Wabbes, Marie. **Petit Jean**. Montréal: Hurtebise, 1986.
- Wabbes, Marie. **A chacun son ours**. Montréal: Hurtebise, 1986.
- Wabbes, Marie. **Dans le noir**. Montréal: Hurtebise, 1986.
- Wabbes, Marie. **Il pleut**. Montréal: Hurtebise, 1986.
- Wabbes, Marie. **Alexandre**. Montréal: Hurtebise, 1986.
- Watanabe, Shigeo. **Je joue avec le sable**. Paris: Du Sorbier, 1984.
- Watanabe, Shigeo. **Mes habits préférés**. Paris: Du Sorbier, 1984.
- Wells, Rosemary. **Le premier mot de Max**. Paris: Nathan, 1983.
- *Books translated into French by the author of this study.

1.	Le premier mot de max	le 8 déc. '86	Pp.
2.	Tambour et poupée	le 5 jan. '86	Pp.
3.	machemise de corps est blanche.	le 8	
4.	la première promenade de despot	le 8	
5.	Le caneton et le poussin	le 9 jan. '87	SR
6.	Spot d'adige	le 13 jan. '87	Pp.
7.	dors petit ours	le 20 janvier '87	
8.	J'aime claire	le 21 janvier '87	AB
9.	mes cheveux	le 22 janvier '87	Pp.
10.	quand ça va mal	le 22 janvier	
11.	pipi dans le pot	le 22 janvier '87	Pp.
12.	Spot au cirque	le 23 janvier '87	SR
13.	le premier Noël de despot	le 24 janvier '87	
14.	les contraires	le 3 fév '87	UHV
15.	PANDI et les couleurs	le 3 fév '87	
16.	TIGRO	le 10 fév '87	UHV
17.	quel beau petit!	le 17 fév '87	

Appendix A-2: **Reading Record:** K's record card of books she had read.

Each child kept his own record of books read, as the choice of books varied from one child to another.

Appendix A-3: LETTER FROM PARENT TO TEACHER



De la part de HELLE GRUTER

la date: 1986 10 23

Dear Parents,

We have completed our language experience unit on "Apples". Our visit to the Orchard has sparked much discussion and has been the source of much language development. Every page in this book is the result of a previous activity i.e. singing, cooking, drama, poetry and many discussions. Together we have composed these pages. The language is the language of the children and this helps the children to read.

Please take some time to listen to your child read. Give your child your undivided attention and give lavish praise as it builds up confidence. When your child gets stuck on a word do not make an issue of it, simply let your child have a go at it guessing from the context and the sound of the first letter. If this does not work supply the word or suggest to your child to skip the word and keep reading.

Sincerely yours,

Hella M. Gruter

Thank you for taking some time to write down your observations about your child as a reader.

The actual trip to the Orchard was indeed a focal point in encouraging interest and ongoing discussions about apples. We are pleased to see Nicholas so interested and confident in his reading - if a mistake is pointed out to him he usually makes a good second attempt!

Please return the booklet to school by November 6 or earlier.

Appendix A-4: **Timetable: Gr. 1, Room B 1, School B. 1986 - 1987.**

	<u>Monday</u>	<u>Tuesday</u>	<u>Wednesday</u>	<u>Thursday</u>	<u>Friday</u>
8:50- 9:15	Opening - Attendance-Announcements_____				
9:15-10:15	_____ Literacy Learning _____				
10:15-10:30	_____ Recess _____				
10:30-11:00	_____ Music _____				
10:30-11:40	_____ Literacy Learning _____				
11:40-12:40	_____ Lunch - Recess _____				
12:40-1:10	Library	_____ Physical Education_____			
1:10-1:40		Music	Computer		
			Studies		
1:40-1:50		Story	Story		
		Telling	Telling		
1:10-1:50	Math	_____ Environmental Studies _____			
1:50-2:05		_____ Recess _____			
2:05-3:20	Environm.				
	Studies				
2:05-3:20		_____ Mathematics _____			
3:20	Dismissal				

The timetable was flexible and could be changed whenever necessary to suit children as they became more independent and were able to manage their time more productively. The timetable was adhered to with regards to subjects taught by specialist teachers for: Physical Education; Music; Comp. Studies and Library.

Appendix A-5: LETTER PLACED IN CHILD'S LUNCHBOX

May 14 1987

Good Morning Erin

Hope you have a good day
at school. I am already at
work.

Ask Daddy if he can fix
your hair in a ponytail.
Julia will probably come
home with you because
Nanny will be at our house
with Lisa.

Bye

Love Mom
xo

You have gym today so don't
wear a good dress

Appendix A-6: **HOME LITERACY SURVEY****A. FAMILY BACKGROUND**

Student	Parent
<u>Siblings:</u>	
<u>Brothers:</u>	<u>Sisters:</u>
Name: 1. _____ Age ____	Name: 1. _____ Age ____
2. _____ Age ____	2. _____ Age ____
3. _____ Age ____	3. _____ Age ____

Which one (s) of these siblings is (are) in the Early French Immersion Program?

1. _____ grade level _____
2. _____ grade level _____
3. _____ grade level _____

B. LANGUAGE USAGE IN THE HOME

Languages spoken in the home:

1. What is the language most often used in the home?
 - a. with the children: _____
 - b. by the children: _____
 - c. between the parents: _____
2. Are any other languages regularly used within the family? Yes ____ No ____
 - a. which language (s): 1. _____ 2. _____
 - b. by whom: 1. _____ 2. _____

Comments:

C. LANGUAGE USAGE OUTSIDE THE HOME

1. Are there any people (e.g. grandparents, aunts, uncles, neighbours, babysitters or playmates) who speak any language other than English to your child?

Comments: _____

2. If you care to make other observations about your child's use of language or anyone's use of language to your child, please elaborate. _____
- _____
- _____

D. READING AND WRITING IN THE HOME

1. Which of the following are in your home?

<u>Please check:</u>	<u>English</u>	<u>French</u>
newspapers	_____	_____
books	_____	_____
records	_____	_____
cassettes	_____	_____
television programs	_____	_____
other: _____	_____	_____

2. To what extent does your child use them?

often _____	rarely _____
sometimes _____	never _____

3. Mother:

At home I read:

often _____	rarely _____
sometimes _____	never _____

Which of the following do you read?

newspapers _____	notes _____
professional journals _____	manuals _____
novels _____	recipes _____
children's stories _____	junk mail _____
letters _____	other _____

At home I write:

often _____	rarely _____
sometimes _____	never _____

Which of the following do you write?

letters _____	telephone messages _____
notes _____	writing related to my profession _____
shopping lists _____	copying of recipes _____
other: _____	_____

4. Father:At home I read:

often	_____	rarely	_____
sometimes	_____	never	_____

Which of the following do you read?

newspapers	_____	notes	_____
professional journals	_____	manuals	_____
novels	_____	recipes	_____
children's stories	_____	junk mail	_____
letters	_____	other	_____

At home I write:

often	_____	rarely	_____
sometimes	_____	never	_____

Which of the following do you write?

letters	_____	telephone messages	_____
notes	_____	writing related to my profession	_____
shopping lists	_____	other:	_____
copying of recipes	_____		

5. Child:At home my child reads:

often	_____	rarely	_____
sometimes	_____	never	_____

My child reads:

newspapers/comics	_____	notes	_____
stories	_____	junk mail	_____
birthday cards	_____	letters	_____
other:	_____		

At home my child writes:

often	_____	rarely	_____
sometimes	_____	never	_____

My child writes:

letters	_____	telephone messages	_____
notes	_____	stories	_____
shopping lists	_____	other:	_____

E. LITERACY DEVELOPMENT OF YOUR CHILD IN MY CLASS

1. At what age did _____ begin to talk? At _____ year(s) _____ month(s).
What do you remember about his/her early talking?

2. Did your child go to nursery school? Yes _____ No _____

If so, where? _____

For how long? _____

Were classes conducted in English _____ or in French? _____

3. Did your child attend French Immersion Kindergarten? Yes _____ No _____

If so, where? _____

What kinds of reading/writing experiences did your child have in kindergarten?

story telling _____ printing isolated numbers _____

learning to recognize _____ printing isolated letters _____

initial consonants of words _____ completing worksheets _____

other: _____

4. Does your child read in English? Yes _____ No _____

Does your child read: Yes No If so, since when?

environmental print, such as store names, road signs and names of foodstuff? _____

isolated words in stories? _____

children's stories? _____

other: _____

Does your child write in English? Yes _____ No _____

Does your child write: Yes No If so, since when?

isolated words? _____

complete sentences? _____

short stories? _____

other: _____

5. Does your child understand, speak, read, or write any language other than English or French? Yes ____ No ____

If so, please check.

Language:	Understand	Speak	Read	Write
1. _____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. _____	_____	_____	_____	_____

6. Did you read stories to your child regularly? Yes ____ No ____
 If so, starting at what age? ____ year(s) ____ month(s)
 Do you read to your child now? Yes ____ No ____

7. At what age did your child show interest in reading? ____ year(s)
 ____ month(s)

How was this interest shown?

Child asked what street signs said. _____

Child asked what store names said. _____

Child started to recognize words in stories you read aloud. _____

Comments: _____

8. At what age did your child show interest in writing? ____ year(s)
 ____ month(s)

How was this interest shown?

Child used pencils or crayons to scribble. _____

Child copied letters, numbers or words. _____

Child started to write his or her name. _____

Comments: _____

9. Did your child write before entering grade one? Yes ____ No ____

What did your child write?

scribbling _____

copying words _____

isolated letters _____

writing words _____

his or her name _____

one or two line stories _____

How frequently did your child write?

often _____ rarely _____
sometimes _____ never _____

10. Before your child started school, which of the following were done in your home?

Reading:

Provided books for your child. _____

Read stories to your child. _____

Took your child to the library. _____

Writing:

Provided your child with writing and drawing materials. _____

Accepted the early written products with praise. _____

Displayed your child's writing in the home. _____

11. Has a focus on writing in this French Immersion grade one class motivated your child to write at home?

Yes _____ No _____ Don't know _____

If your child writes at home, has he/she done so:

1. since the beginning of the school year _____

2. since the beginning of January _____

3. since the beginning of the March Break _____

4. other: _____

Does your child write in:

French _____

English _____

both languages _____

Comments:

Date: _____ Signature: _____

APPENDIX B**DATA****Appendix**

- B-1 Total Written Production by All Subjects
- B-2 Descriptive Statistics: Summary of T-tests
- B-3 Total Production: Journal and Story Writing
- B-4 Total Number of Words in Journal Writing by All Subject

Appendix B-1 *: TOTAL WRITTEN PRODUCTION BY ALL SUBJECTS

Girls	J+St. Totals	Journ.T.1 Words	Journ.T.1 Av.	Journ.T.2 Words	Journ.T.2 Av.	Journ.T.3 Words	Journ.T.3 Av.	Journ. Totals	Stor. #	Term 2 Words	Term 2 Av.	Stor. #	Term 3 Words	Term 3 Av.	Word Totals	Stor. Writ.	Stor. Publ.
H	10706	1233	21	1826	48	5866	30	8925	3	325	108	16	1456	91	1781	19	7
F	6231	422	6	1573	40	3027	68	5022	4	347	86	17	862	50	1209	21	6
G	5943	993	15	1609	40	2326	57	4928	4	308	77	13	707	54	1015	17	7
A	5389	781	11	1383	32	2758	64	4922	2	173	86	4	294	73	467	6	6
I	5334	615	8	1007	24	3054	67	4676	5	160	32	8	498	62	658	13	3
B	5210	830	11	1305	32	2675	58	4810	1	106	106	1	294	294	400	2	2
L	4996	1158	16	1068	26	1958	54	4184	4	234	58	9	578	64	812	13	6
E	4732	644	9	816	19	2637	61	4097	2	163	81	5	472	94	635	7	4
K	4341	852	12	937	23	1901	41	3690	1	135	135	5	516	103	651	6	3
C	3949	678	10	1140	29	1622	36	3440	2	180	90	4	329	82	509	6	3
D	3141	505	7	582	14	1539	36	2626	2	157	78	5	358	71	515	7	5
J	2724	374	5	538	13	1354	32	2266	2	127	63	4	331	82	458	6	4
Totals	62696	9085		13784		30717		53586	32	2415		91	6695		9110	123	56
Aver.	5225	757		1149		2560		4466	3	201		8	558		759	10	5

Boys	J+St. Totals	Journ.T.1 Words	Journ.T.1 Av.	Journ.T.2 Words	Journ.T.2 Av.	Journ.T.3 Words	Journ.T.3 Av.	Journ. Totals	Stor. #	Term 2 Words	Term 2 Av.	Stor. #	Term 3 Words	Term 3 Av.	Word Totals	Stor. Writ.	Stor. Publ.
S	4816	1190	16	910	23	1914	47	4014	3	218	72	7	584	83	802	10	7
P	4218	1058	17	1206	29	1404	32	3668	6	404	67	2	146	73	550	8	3
Q	4116	634	9	1039	21	1754	41	3427	2	209	104	8	480	60	689	10	3
N	3387	589	8	792	21	1510	32	2891	1	95	95	4	401	100	496	5	4
W	3228	450	6	774	19	1520	35	2744	2	100	50	5	384	76	484	7	5
R	3204	427	6	825	19	1553	33	2805	2	182	91	4	217	54	399	6	3
U	3182	590	8	854	23	1382	30	2826	2	142	71	4	214	53	356	6	3
M	2444	211	3	478	12	1494	33	2183	1	53	53	2	208	104	261	3	2
V	2289	405	5	514	12	1097	23	2016	2	121	60	3	152	50	273	5	4
T	2088	179	2	678	19	1176	26	2033	1	55	55	0	0	0	55	1	1
O	2030	267	3	444	10	1004	21	1715	1	63	63	4	252	63	315	5	4
Totals	35002	6000		8514		15808		30322	23	1642		43	3038		4680	66	39
Aver.	3182	545		774		1437		2757	2	149		4	276		425	6	4

* The quantitative data served to calculate the descriptive statistics.

Appendix B-2: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: SUMMARY OF T-TESTS

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS		SEX			SUMMARY OF "t" TESTS
		Girls	Boys	ALL	
Mean total words, stories, term 2	N	12.00	11.00	23.00	HO: U boys - U girls = 0 "t" = -1.31
	MEAN	83.63	71.18	77.68	
	STD	26.26	18.19	23.14	
Mean total words, stories, term 3	N	12.00	10.00	22.00	HO: U boys - U girls = 0 "t" = -1.10
	MEAN	93.69	71.89	83.78	
	STD	65.10	19.19	50.01	
Difference for stories: Term 3 Term 2	N	12.00	10.00	22.00	HO: U _d (term3-term2) = 0 Girls Boys All "t": 0.58 -0.10 0.50
	MEAN	10.06	-0.91	5.07	
	STD	59.55	28.32	47.25	
Mean total words, stories, both terms	N	12.00	10.00	22.00	HO: U boys - U girls = 0 "t" = -1.35
	MEAN	177.32	144.69	162.49	
	STD	79.43	24.61	61.97	
Mean-total words, journal, term 1	N	12.00	11.00	23.00	HO: U boys - U girls = 0 "t" = -1.70
	MEAN	11.36	7.97	9.74	
	STD	4.52	5.05	4.98	
Mean-total words, journal, term 2	N	12.00	11.00	23.00	HO: U boys - U girls = 0 "t" = -2.66*
	MEAN	28.86	19.39	24.33	
	STD	10.55	5.52	9.64	
Mean-total words, journal, term 3	N	12.00	11.00	23.00	HO: U boys - U girls = 0 "t" = -3.68**
	MEAN	57.19	32.68	45.46	
	STD	21.65	7.58	20.42	
Difference for journal: Term 2 term 1	N	12.00	11.00	23.00	HO: U _d (term2-term1) = 0 Girls: "t" = 7.18*** Boys: "t" = 10.81*** All: "t" = 9.81***
	MEAN	17.50	11.43	14.60	
	STD	8.45	3.50	7.13	
Difference for journal: Term 3 term 2	N	12.00	11.00	23.00	HO: U _d (term3-term2) = 0 Girls: "t" = 8.24*** Boys: "t" = 13.80*** All: "t" = 7.13***
	MEAN	28.33	13.29	21.13	
	STD	15.66	6.67	14.21	
Difference for journal: Term 3 term 1	N	12.00	11.00	23.00	HO: U _d (term3-term1) = 0 Girls: "t" = 6.27*** Boys: "t" = 6.60*** All: "t" = 9.61***
	MEAN	45.83	24.71	35.73	
	STD	19.28	5.94	17.84	
Mean-total words, journal 3 terms	N	12.00	11.00	23.00	HO: U boys - U girls = 0 "t" = -3.46**
	MEAN	97.41	60.04	79.53	
	STD	33.37	15.75	32.15	
Mean-total of 3 terms for stories and journal	N	12.00	11.00	23.00	HO: U boys - U girls = 0 "t" = -2.47*
	MEAN	274.73	205.86	243.42	
	STD	88.86	34.42	76.65	

* : p < .05

** : p < .01

*** : p < .001

Appendix B-3: TOTAL PRODUCTION: JOURNAL AND STORY WRITING

Girls	Age:	mos:	Total:	Boys	Age:	mos:	Total:
1. H	6:7*	79*	10706	1. S	6:3*	75*	4816
2. F	6:0	72	6231	2. P	6:1	73	4218
3. G	6:10	82	5942	3. Q	6:1	73	4116
4. A	5:11	71	5389	4. N	6:4	76	3387
5. I	5:10	70	5334	5. W	6:4	76	3228
6. B	6:2	74	5210	6. R	6:0	72	3204
7. L	6:8	80	4996	7. U	6:7	79	3182
8. E	6:7	79	4732	8. M	6:6	78	2444
9. K	6:4	76	4341	9. V	6:1	73	2289
10. C	6:5	77	3949	10. T	6:7	79	2088
11. D	6:2	74	3141	11. O	5:10	70	2030
12. J	6:5	77	<u>2724</u>				<u> </u>
<u>Totals:</u>			62696				35002
<u>Averages:</u>			5224				3182

1. Girls with # 1, 6, 12 and boys with # 1, 5, 11 selected for analysis of language functions.

2. Girl # 3, 4, 11, 12 and boy # 1, 2, 9, 11 selected for analysis of spelling strategies.

*The age of the child (yrs:mos) on entry to grade one.

*The age of the child in months on entry to grade one.

Appendix B-4:

TOTAL NUMBER OF WORDS IN JOURNAL WRITING BY ALL SUBJECTS

Girls		Boys	
1. H	8925	1. S	4014
2. F	5022	2. P	3668
3. G	4928	3. Q	3427
4. A	4922	4. N	2891
5. B	4810	5. U	2826
6. I	4676	6. R	2805
7. L	4184	7. W	2744
8. E	4097	8. M	2163
9. K	3690	9. T	2033
10. C	3440	10. V	2016
11. D	2626	11. O	1715
12. J	2266		

TOTAL NUMBER OF WORDS IN STORY WRITING BY ALL SUBJECTS

Girls		Boys	
1. H	1781	1. S	802
2. F	1209	2. Q	689
3. G	1015	3. P	550
4. L	812	4. N	496
5. I	658	5. W	484
6. K	651	6. R	399
7. E	635	7. U	356
8. D	515	8. O	315
9. C	509	9. V	273
10. A	467	10. M	261
11. J	458	11. T	55
12. B	400		

APPENDIX C**SPELLING STRATEGIES****Appendix**

C-1 Spelling Strategies

Appendix C-1: SPELLING STRATEGIES

Spelling as it Sounds

Explanation: This strategy deals with phonetic spelling and is based on a direct sound/symbol relationship. The strategy is sub-divided into three sub-strategies.

a. Representation of certain French sounds by letters which provided the closest fit:

<u>W</u> I (oui)	<u>J</u> ENTILLE (gentille)	O <u>Ç</u> I (aussi)
S <u>W</u> IS (suis)	RECREA <u>Ş</u> UON (récréation)	<u>Q</u> SI (aussi)
O <u>A</u> ZO (oiseau)	CHOC <u>A</u> U <u>L</u> A (chocolat)	CHO <u>Z</u> E (chose)
F <u>A</u> X (fois)	<u>Q</u> TRE (autre)	<u>Ç</u> I (qui)
V <u>A</u> LA (voilà)	<u>Q</u> (au)	<u>Ş</u> A (ça)

b. Failure to represent letters with zero phonological representation in word endings:

DAN (dans)	PLU (plus)	BON (bonne)
ASI (assis)	PETI (petit)	ONCL (oncle)
ANFAN (enfants)	DI (dit)	VAI (vais)
LUN (lune)	TOU (tout)	JUST (juste)

c. Use of letters which represented their own names in English or in French:

English Letter Names

FAI <u>G</u> A	(fatiguée)
AME <u>E</u>	(amie)
DEGE <u>N</u> A	(déjeuner)
DE <u>E</u>	(dis)

French Letter names

CHAN <u>T</u>	(chanter)
DJ <u>E</u> NEZ	(déjeuner)
SOUP <u>E</u>	(souper)
NOUV <u>L</u>	(nouvel)

Spelling as it Looks

Explanation: This is a visual spelling strategy using graphic patterning. It includes letter reversals, repeated attempts to write the same word in the same text and the following two categories.

a.Errors in order of letters although all or most of the letters of the correct spelling are used.

PUOR	(pour)	TIO	(toi)
LIERE	(lire)	QEU	(que)
BALLNO	(Ballon)	HIER	(hire)
PEITT	(petit)	FIAR	(faire)
CADEUAX	(cadeaux)	SABEL	(sable)

b.Errors with accent or apostrophe. Students omitted the accent or apostrophe, misplaced them or placed the accent over the correct letter but in the wrong direction.

NOEL	(noël)	ALLÈZ	(aller)	LÁ	(là)
OU	(où)	AUJOUIRD'HUI		FÈVRIER	(février)
AUJOURD HUI		(aujourd'hui)			
(aujourd'hui)					

Spelling as it Articulates

Explanation: This spelling strategy uses the articulatory aspects of sound and is subdivided into two sub-strategies.

a. Representation the [ø] by the letters < e > or < o >; the [ɛ] by the letters < a >, < e >, < i > and they confused the [u] with [y]

PE	(peux)	SA	(c'est)	PU	(pour)
VE	(veux)	FA	(fait)	SOU	(sur)
DJENEZ	(déjeuner)	EME	(aimé)		
SOLE	(seule)	AVIC	(avec)		

b. Omission of three types of articulatory features:

the vowel before [l] and [r]

DR	(dort)	PLUCH	(peluche)
SLE	(seul)	TLLFN	(téléphoné)

the preconsonantal nasals as well as the letters < gn > representing [ɲ].

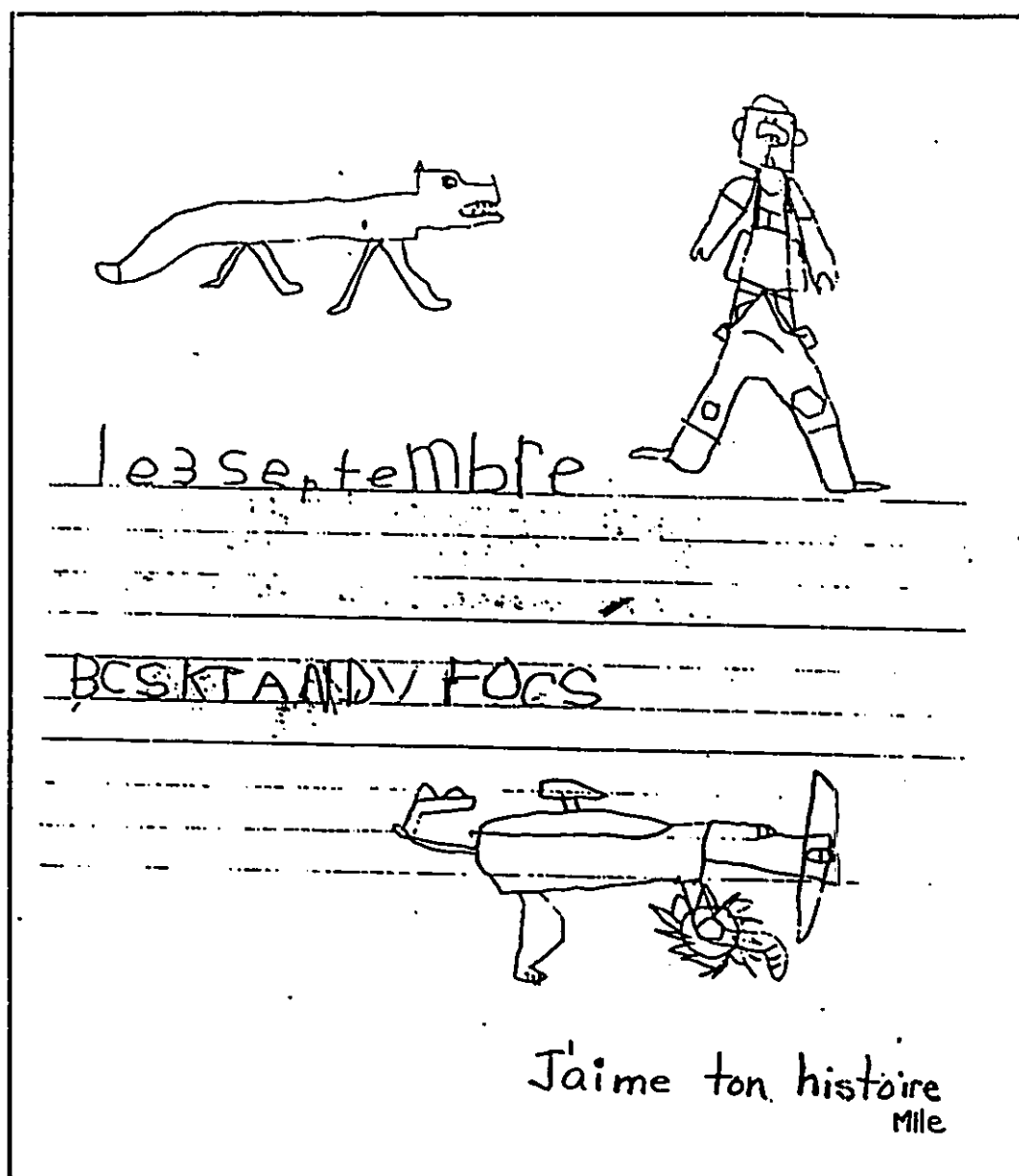
MTRE	(montre)	SAE	(signé)
RCTRE	(rencontre)	LIN	(ligne)

the palatal glides [j] and [ɥ]

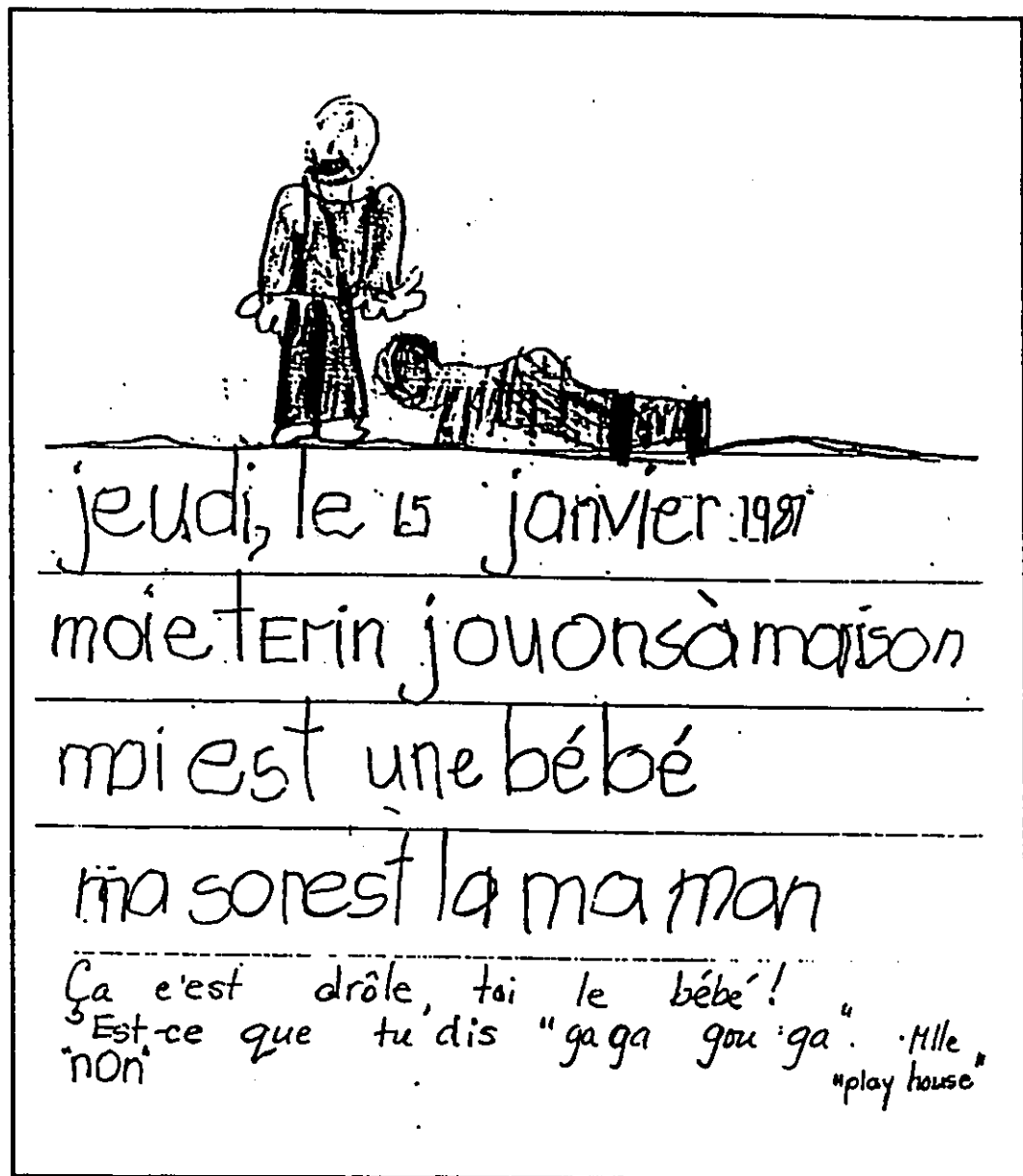
PIE	(puis)	RVIE	(réveille)
VIN	(vient)	OREE	(oreille)

APPENDIX D**EXAMPLES OF CHILDREN'S WRITING****Appendix**

D-1	Drawing and Writing in Both Spaces
D-2	Getting to Know the Child
D-3	Lack of Liaison
D-4	Number Included in Word Count
D-5	English Words in Text
D-6	Topic: Me
D-7	Topic: Family and Relatives
D-8	Topic: Pets
D-9	Topic: Seasonal Activities
D-10	Topic: School Activities
D-11	Topic: Festivities
D-12	Topic: Other
D-13	Topic: Audience: Self
D-14	Topic: Audience: Teacher Trusted Adult

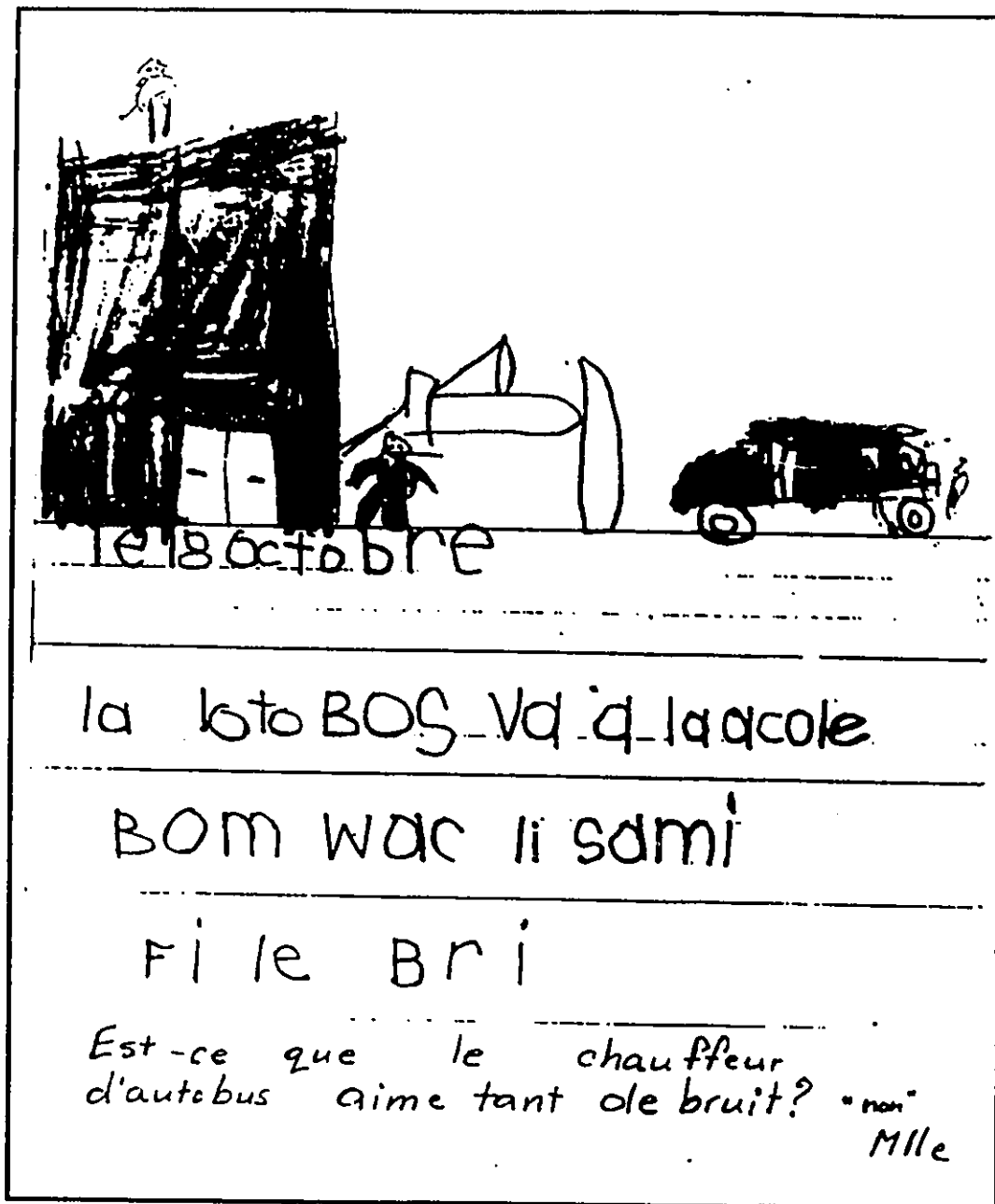


Appendix D-1: **Drawing and Writing in Both Spaces:** Journal, September 3
(Q, 6:1), photo-reduced. (Biker Scout and Fox)



Appendix D-2: **Getting to Know the Child:** Journal, January 15 (A, 6:4),
photo-reduced. (*Moi et Erin, nous jouons à la madame. Moi
je suis le bébé et ma soeur est la maman.)

- The interpretation of a child's writing example is presented in a grammatically correct text.



Appendix D-3: **Lack of Liaison:** Journal, October 18 (U, 6:9), photo-reduced. (L'autobus va à l'école. Boom Wack. Les amis font du bruit.)



lundie 30 mars 1987
 Cahe j'ai té malad
 j'ai a moca ~~4~~ joure
 de l'écol j'ai té dore
 avec ma maman mas
 j'ai té Dans mas pi jama
 ma ventre été pas tré
 Bin j'ai té tré fatiga.

Ça c'est dommage que tu étais si
 malade. Tu nous as manqué.
 Nous sommes contents que tu es
 de retour. Mlle.

Appendix D-4: **Number Included in Word Count:** Journal, March 30 (A,

6:6), photo-reduced. (Quand j'étais malade, j'ai manqué 4 jours d'école. J'étais dehors avec ma maman mais j'étais dans mes pyjamas. Mon ventre était pas très bien. J'étais très, très fatiguée.)

le 11 mars hier j'ai perdu
 ma dent papa l'a arraché
 et juts avant le souper
 est-ce que tu peux me
 dire ce que la rouge
 peinture est c'est blood
 en anglais la fin

Ça s'appelle "le sang" en français.

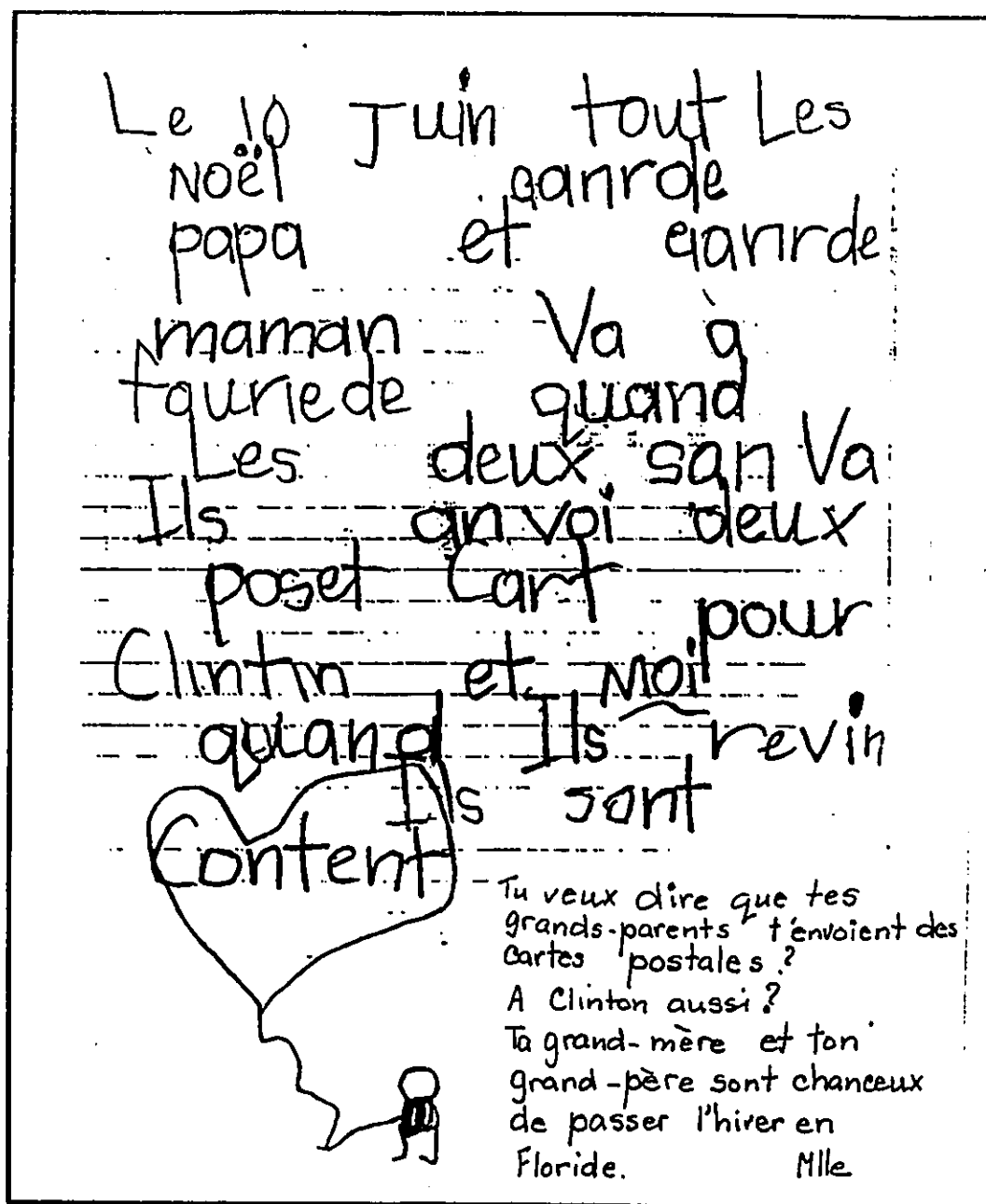
Mlle.

Appendix D-5: **English Words in Text:** Journal, March 11 (P, 6:8), photo-
 reduced. (Hier j'ai perdu ma dent. Papa l'a arrachée juste
 avant le souper. Est-ce-que tu peux me dire ce que la peinture
 rouge est? C'est "blood" en anglais. La fin.)



Appendix D-6: **Topic: Me** Journal, November 5 (G, 7:0), photo-reduced.

(J'aime Erin. J'aime Susan, mais je n'aime pas Maureen quand elle joue dans la boue.)



Appendix D-7: **Topic: Family and Relatives** Journal, June 10 (P. 6:10),
 photo-reduced. (Tous les Noëls, grand-papa et grand-maman
 vont en Floride. Quand les deux s'en vont, ils envoient deux
 "postcards" pour Clinton et moi. Quand ils reviennent ils
 sont contents.)

mercredi, le 22 avril 97
 moi et Max nous jouons
 avec le ballon. Max
 attrape le ballon. O
 Max a attrapé le
 ballon. Bravo Max
 Ruf Ruf. Save dire
 que. Merci de rien.
 Max. Case que tu
 fais.

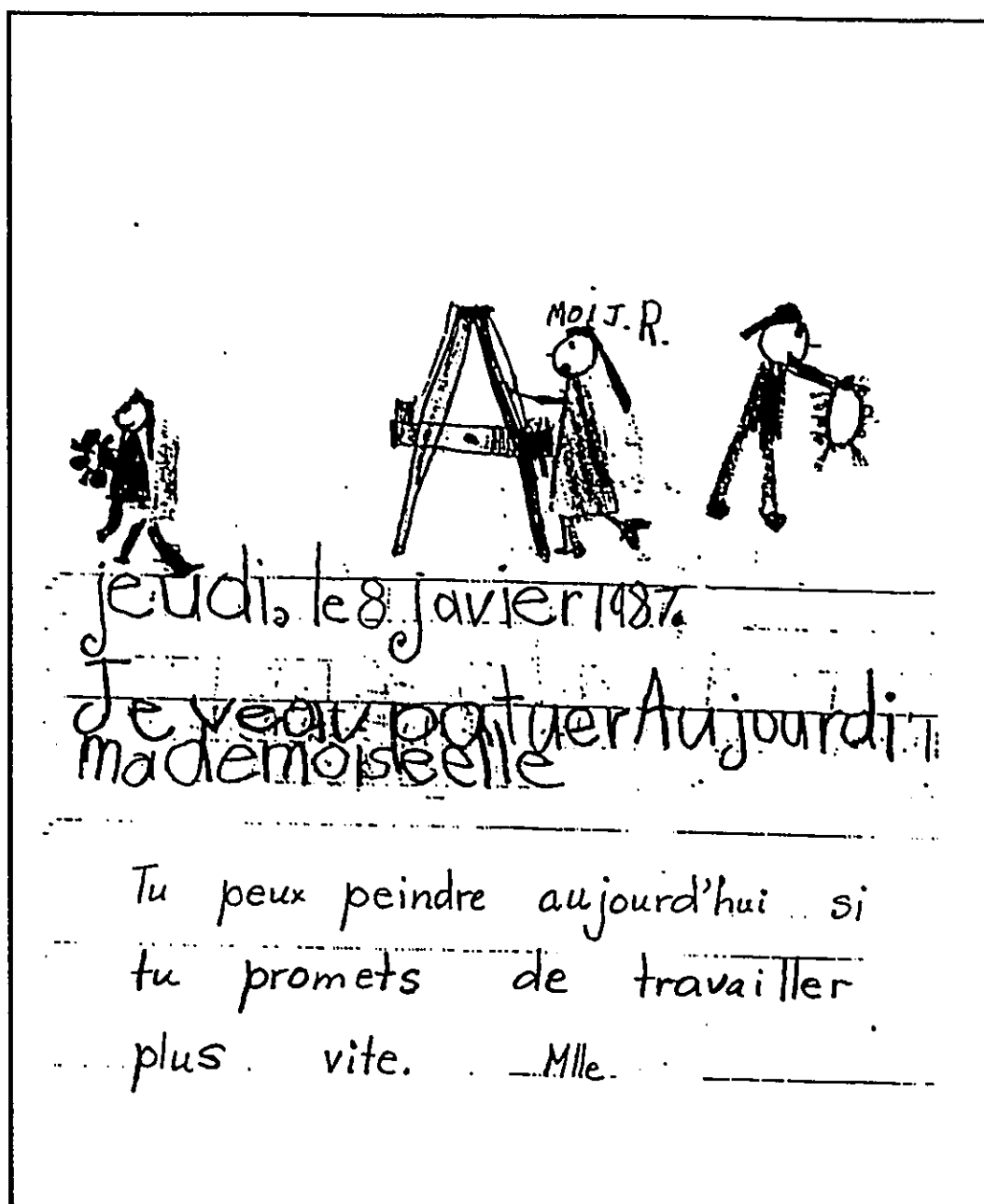
Toi et ton chien! Vous êtes vraiment
 de bons amis! A la fin de l'école
 tu pourrais peut-être amener ton chien
 à l'école pour un bout de temps. ^{Hlle} "non!"
 Pourquoi pas? Ça sera amusant. ^{Hlle}

Appendix D-8: Topic: Pets Journal, April 22 (A, 6:6), photo-reduced.

(Moi et Max, nous jouons avec le ballon. "Max, attrape le
 ballon"! Max a attrapé le ballon. "Bravo Max"! "Ruf Ruf", ça
 veut dire: "Merci". "De rien". "Max qu'est-ce que tu fais"?

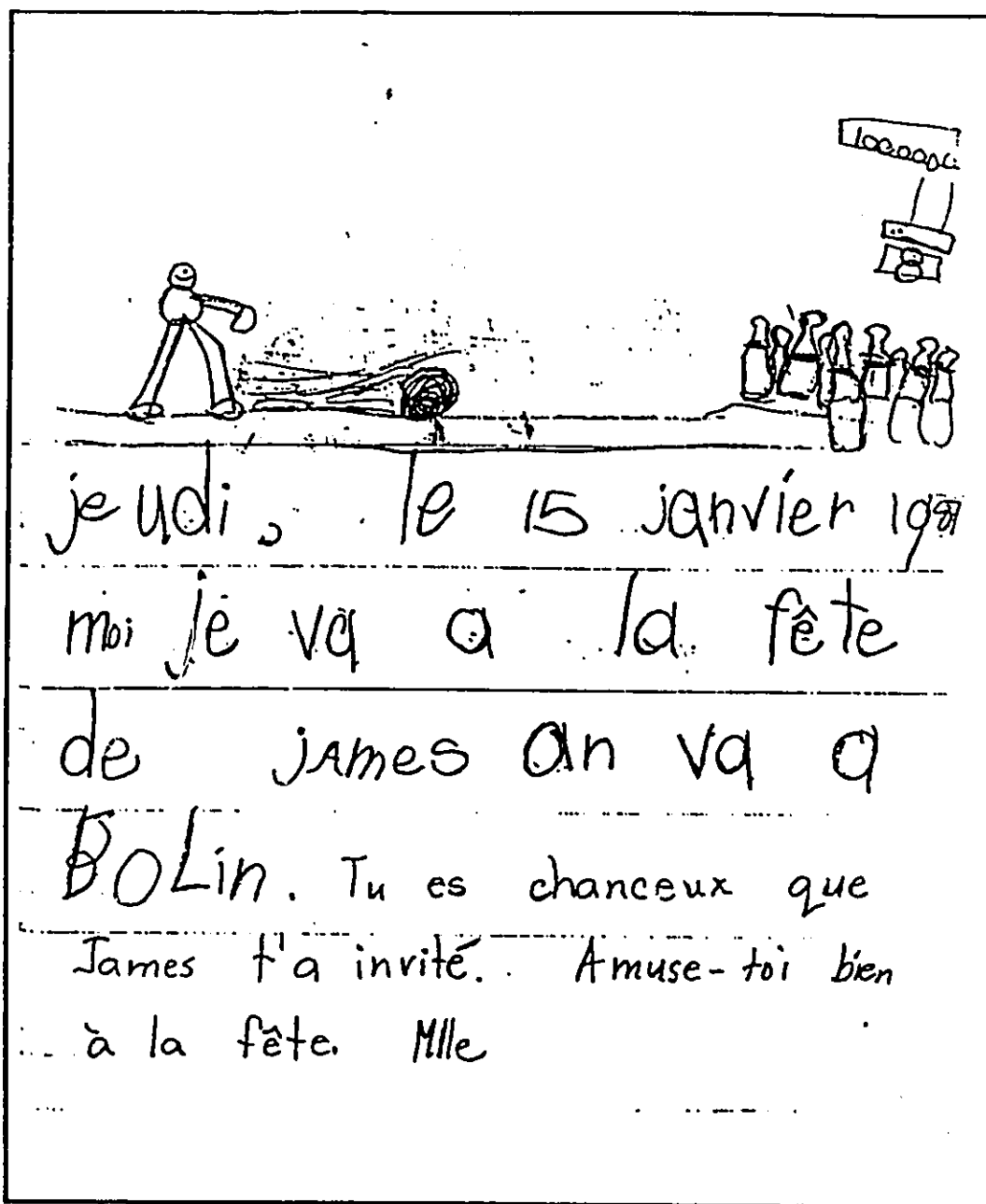


Appendix D-9: **Topic: Seasonal Activities Journal, January 7 (Q, 6:5),**
photo-reduced. (Je fais du ski. Papa dit: "Très bien" "Merci
Papa")



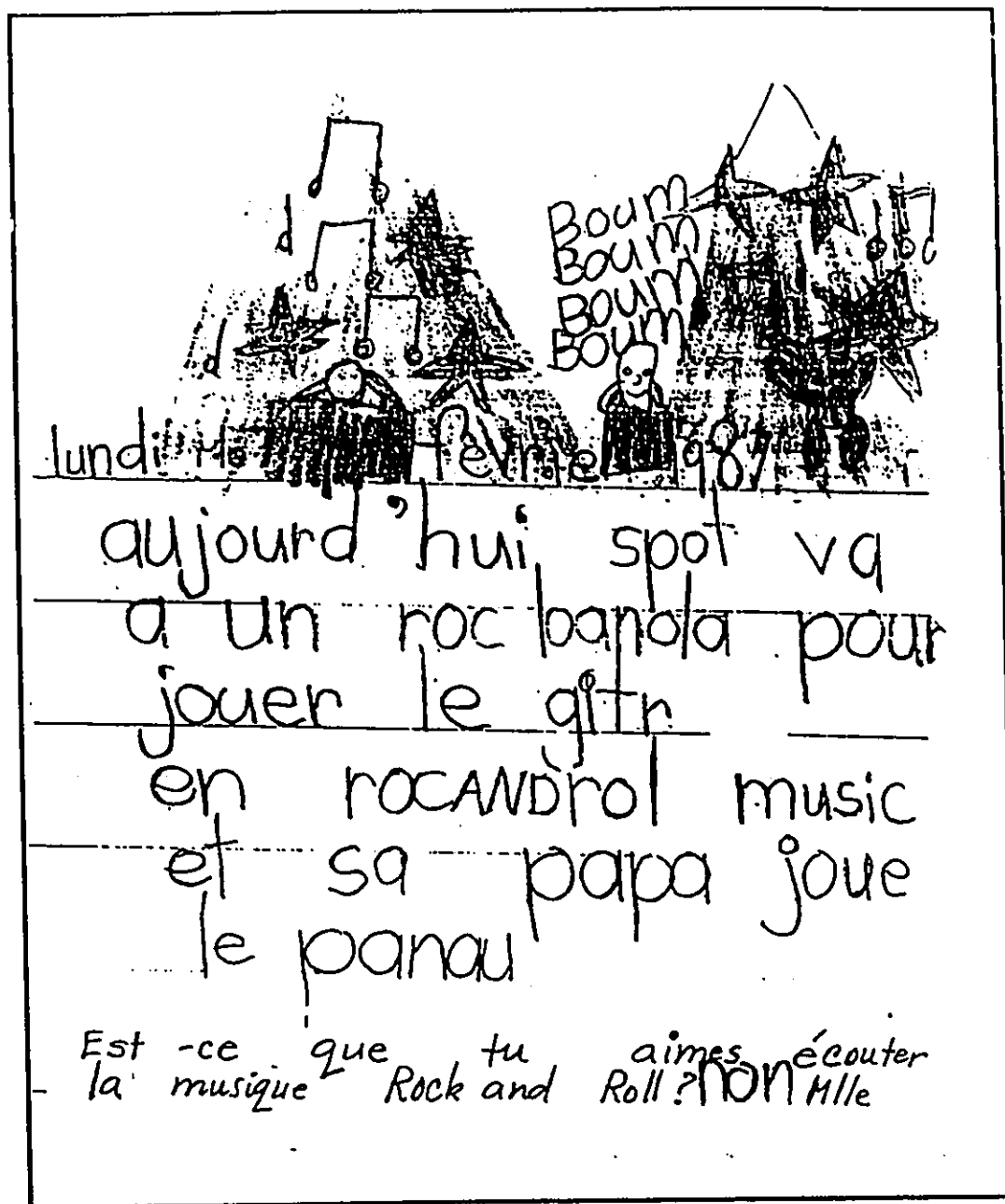
Appendix D-10: Topic: School Activities Journal, January 8 (K, 6:8),

photo-reduced. (Je veux peindre aujourd'hui, Mademoiselle)



Appendix D-11: **Topic:** Festivities Journal, January 15 (R, 6:4),

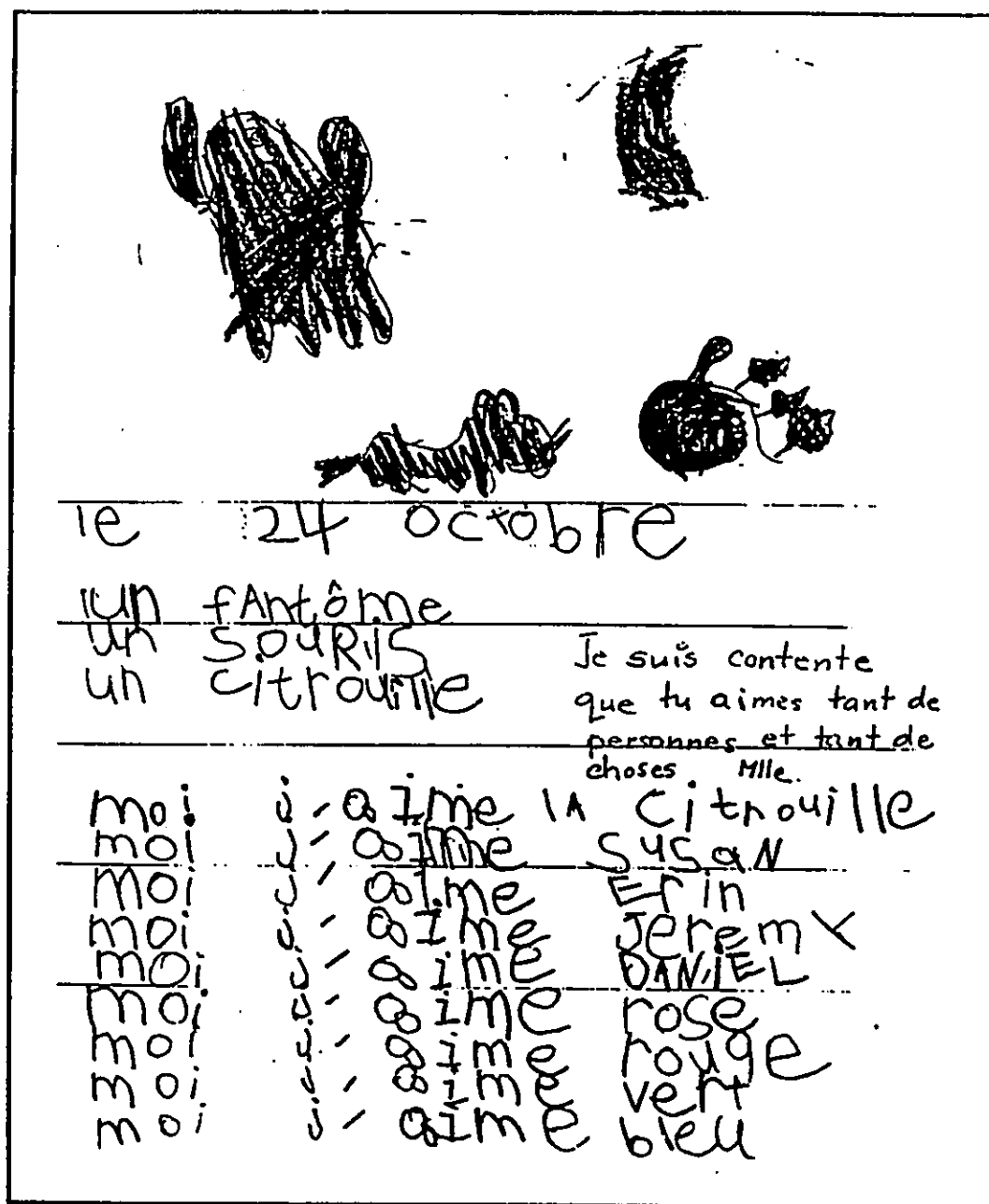
photo-reduced. (Moi je vais à la fête de James. On va
 "bowling".)



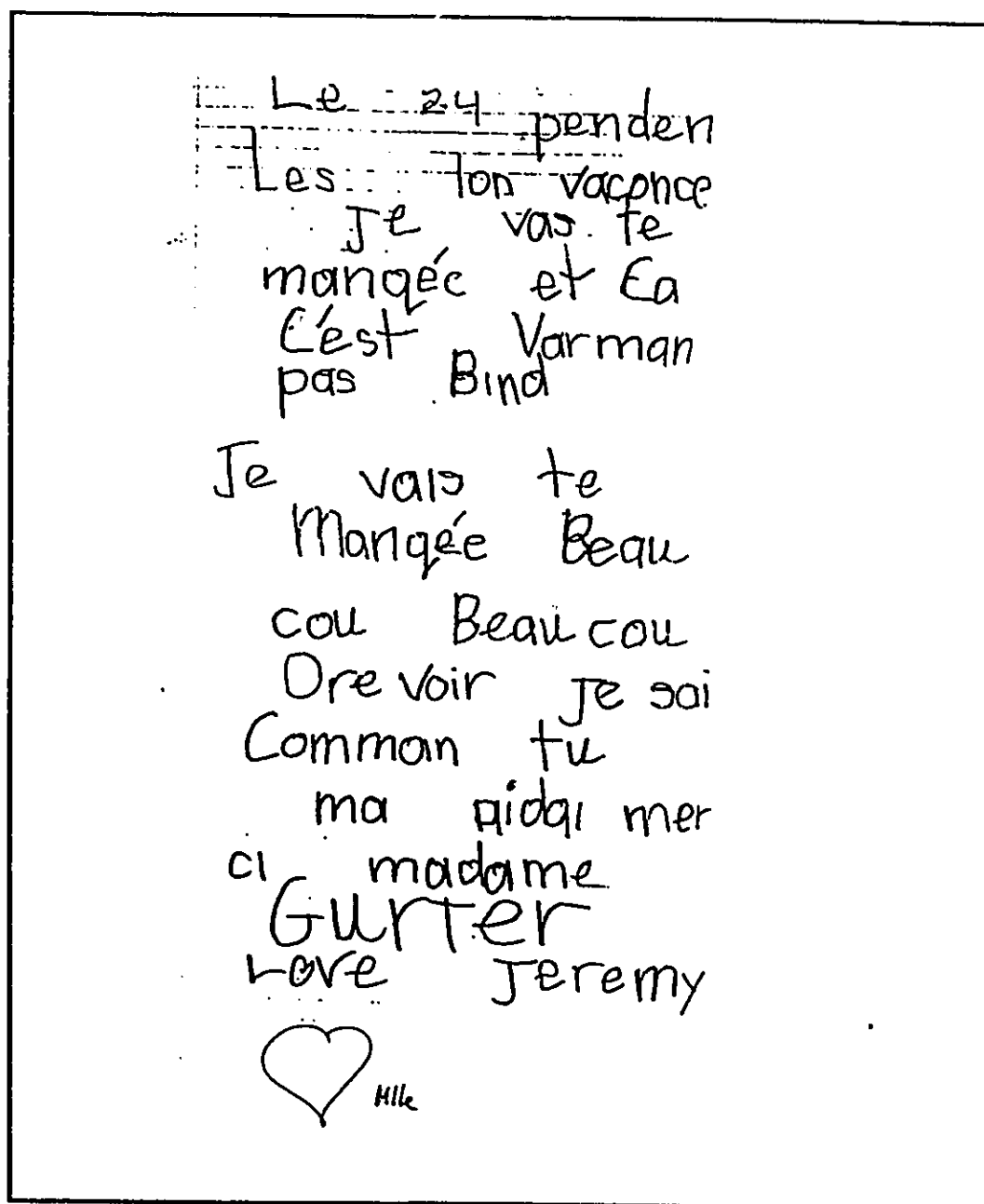
Appendix D-12: Topic: Other Journal, February 9 (S, 6:8), photo-reduced.

(Aujourd'hui Spot va jouer de la guitare dans un "Rock Band"

Il joue de la musique "Rock and Roll". Son papa joue au piano.)



Appendix D-13: Audience: Self Journal, October 24 (E, 6:9), photo-reduced.



Appendix D-14: Audience: Teacher Trusted Adult Journal, June 24 (P,

6:11), photo-reduced. (Pendant les longues vacances je vais te manquer (meaning: tu vas me manquer) et ça c'est vraiment pas bien. Je vais te manquer beaucoup beaucoup. Au revoir. Je sais comment tu m'as aidé. Merci Madame Gruter. Love P.)