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ABSTRACT

Current theories of curriculum development emphasise the need for clearly defined objectives. The teaching of Primary French was shown to have been largely lacking in such objectives. Yet the importance of favourable attitudes emerged in relation to both the teaching of French and to the specific goals of British Primary Education. Against such a background the study set out to evaluate the extent to which such favourable attitudes towards French were being fostered in primary schools.

Two areas - County Durham and the London Borough of Havering were selected to be studied in depth and the development and the nature of the provision of Primary French in these areas were explored. A Likert-type attitude scale was constructed as part of a questionnaire administered to over 8,700 first year pupils in the two areas, immediately upon entry into their secondary schools. The aim was to assess the reactions of the children towards the learning of languages and Primary French in particular, as well as towards France and the French people. The responses of children with past experience of Primary French were compared with those of children without French, as well as the responses of boys with girls. An attempt was made to link the attitude scale scores with features of the primary school experience of the children and also with their school subject preferences. A 'cluster analysis' technique was used to identify six 'types' of reaction in Durham and five in Havering.

It was found, within the limitations of the samples involved, that Primary French did not improve the children's attitudes as expressed on the questionnaire in the areas studied and that girls displayed more favourable attitudes

than boys. In addition to other, associated conclusions, certain organisational proposals were put forward concerning primary-secondary liaison in French.

M.Ed. THESIS DURHAM UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

"The Reaction of Young Secondary Pupils to their
Primary French"

David Cracknell

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1. INTRODUCTION

The introduction of French into the primary school is an important aspect of curriculum innovation. The whole question of curriculum development is perhaps one of the most important for education at the present day. Before going on to consider the particular problems connected with Primary French, it might therefore be appropriate to consider in general the question of curriculum development.

Curriculum Objectives

"The school curriculum teaches a pupil the kind of person he is... The price of any curriculum is the other curriculum that might have been, the other person the pupil might have known as himself". (Musgrove 1968, p. 102)¹

One of the most acute difficulties which face the modern teacher is the problem of choice. With the growth of knowledge and the changes in the structures of society, there has been a corresponding and bewildering increase in the number of options open to the teacher in the curriculum. Techniques, theories, materials, courses, aids - all these proliferate and give the teacher wider opportunities on the one hand and increased responsibilities on the other. Razzell (1968, p.10) considered that the education of junior children would more and more depend upon the teacher's ability to select wisely.

In the United Kingdom it has long been a widely accepted principle, and one which is now most evidently at work in the

¹ References are to the Bibliography

Schools Council, that the staff of the school should be given the greatest possible freedom in developing curricula and teaching methods which are best suited to local conditions. In other words, in a system which is currently undergoing considerable change, the teacher holds a key position.

Not unnaturally this growing recognition of the teacher as a key decision-maker has led to his rôle being examined in the light of Management and other allied techniques. Skinner's view of teaching was as the "management of contingencies to expedite learning" (1968) but Taylor (1970), from a different starting point, states a more specific comparison with the manager:- "The idea in education corresponding to efficiency is the effectiveness for the individual child of the teaching-learning process to which he is exposed; the idea corresponding to productivity is an honest analysis of the most effective way of promoting the process in terms not only of results but of cost... The teacher has become a manager because there is now at his command a wide variety of resources, a variety which, with his help, could be even more extensive than it is". (p. 7) He goes on to suggest that to achieve effective learning (which is after all, in its broadest sense, a primary aim of the teacher), three aspects of management must be discussed. Firstly a teacher will need to define the objectives for individual children; secondly to examine the deployment of resources to achieve these objectives; and lastly to assess the results in terms of realization of objectives and of cost-effectiveness. The 'management' model is one of several currently used to clarify curriculum development.

The current state of curriculum theory well illustrates the dilemma which Piaget (1929) encountered in a different context-

"... it is so hard to find the middle course between systemization due to preconceived ideas and incoherence due to the absence of any directing hypothesis". The formulation of new models for curriculum development is associated with Tyler, Bloom and Taba. All three writers follow a broadly similar approach to curriculum design - a sequence incorporating some or all of the following steps: diagnosis of needs, formulation of objectives, selection of content, organization of content, selection of learning experiences, organization of learning experiences and a determination of what to evaluate and of the ways and means of doing it (Taba, 1962, ch. 1). Fundamental to this 'model' for curriculum change is the preeminence afforded to objectives. Objectives not only serve as a guide for the evaluation of achievement but also a clear statement of objectives helps one to select from vast areas of knowledge, in a wide variety of disciplines, that which is realistically necessary for some valid outcome. The formulation of objectives is thought of in rigorous terms and is distinct from stating general 'aims' which in practice tend to be nebulous and platitudinous (Plowden, 1967, Para. 501). Taba stipulates that a statement of objectives should describe both the kind of behaviour expected and the content or context to which that behaviour applies; that complex objectives need to be stated analytically and specifically enough so that there is no doubt as to the kind of behaviour expected; that objectives should also be so formulated that there are clear distinctions among learning experiences required to attain different behaviours; that objectives are developmental, representing roads to travel rather than terminal points; that objectives should be realistic and should include only what can be translated into curriculum

and classroom experience; and lastly that the scope of objectives should be broad enough to encompass all types of outcomes for which the school is responsible. Bassett (1970) distinguishes objectives at three levels - the levels of the society, the system (strategic level) and the institution (tactical level) - and emphasises the need for the statement of objectives at all three levels "... so that there will be clear and consistent direction given to action and equally clear and consistent criteria for judging the success of action taken".

Not all educational objectives appear to be of immediate relevance to the practising teacher but they provide the background against which individual decisions need to be made. The teacher will be concerned to translate general objectives into specific ones. These objectives are largely expressed in behavioural terms but they ought to relate to the whole sphere of educational endeavour and not be simply those objectives which are easiest to measure. They will include knowledge (facts, ideas, concepts), reflective thinking (interpretation of data, application of facts and principles, logical reasoning) values and attitudes and much else beside. In an attempt to classify and give an ordered and logical sequence to educational objectives Bloom (1956) and later Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia (1964) produced their 'Taxonomy of Educational Objectives'. Wiseman and Pidgeon (1970) described Bloom's approach as the most practical and profitable so far devised. Bloom and his co-workers made three initial classifications of objectives - cognitive, affective and psycho-motor. These wide classifications they referred to as 'domains' and within each domain they laid down a hierarchy of educational objectives. The influence of the taxonomies has been great but it must be remembered that they

do not concern themselves with the particular knowledge or values which might be included in a curriculum, they do not make any pronouncement about what the objectives of instruction ought to be in a prescriptive sense and they do not give a rationale for methodology - they are a classification of expectations and intended outcomes in the existing educational system. The work of Lewis (1965) in science and Wood (1968) in mathematics show how valuable is Bloom's scheme in the cognitive domain as a guide to defining objectives in specific subject areas. Vagueness and inconsistency between objectives and practice are more likely to be corrected if objectives are fully and clearly stated. Kerr (1968) summarises the discussion so far:-

"Commonly, curriculum discussion in schools, colleges and universities is about the content of syllabuses and methods of teaching. The really important questions are about objectives and this component of the curriculum is the logical starting point.. For the purposes of curriculum planning, it is imperative that the objectives should be identified first, as we cannot, or should not, decide 'what' or 'how' to teach in any situation until we know 'why' we are doing it. The task of identifying objectives calls for precise thinking and is a difficult exercise".(pp. 20-21).

There is then a growing insistence on systems of curriculum planning in which objectives determine the contents and method of a curriculum which is in turn, subjected to a programme of evaluation to ensure that those objectives are being fulfilled, However, the classic model of curriculum design based on behavioural objectives as has been so far described, is far from being universally accepted. Stenhouse (1970) argues the advantages of disciplines of knowledge which allow us to specify content and rejects the emphasis upon objectives as too vague

and unrealistic for curriculum practice. Yet even Stenhouse does not deny the relevance of objectives and certainly lays just as much stress upon the evaluation of curricular outcomes which is related to objectives in some respects. Another fear expressed about the 'curriculum-by-objectives' approach (Haigh, 1970) was that there was a danger of the primacy of the child in education being ousted by the primacy of curriculum theory considerations. The pupil's individual needs and personality should not be sacrificed in pursuit of greater objectivity, systematized evaluation of achievements against objectives and quality control. Bloom went some way towards alleviating these fears (Bloom, 19~~63~~⁷¹) when he adopted and developed an earlier learning model of Carroll (1962) which is commonly referred to as 'mastery learning' where the emphasis is on success. He insists that we must change our instructional system so that we lead each student through a sequence of successful learning experiences; we must vary the types of presentations and the time allowed for learning so as to permit all students to attain some degree of 'mastery'. The selection of objectives and the evaluation of outcomes does not automatically infer a serious infringement of the pupil's individuality. In practice this 'mastery' approach is associated with the 'core concept' described by Valette (1971) in relation to the teaching of modern languages. As with any effective curriculum approach it provides not only for the acquisition of significant new knowledge but also for the development of increasingly more effective ways of thinking, desirable attitudes and interests, and appropriate habits and skills.

The second general criticism levelled against the 'Bloom bias' in curriculum planning by objectives is that the autonomy of the teacher is severely threatened. It has already been

argued that the teacher is the most important single factor in the curriculum. It seems evident that, for example, the teacher constitutes the vital variable in the learning process no matter which psychological learning theory is chosen. Recent research suggests that there is a close link between teacher expectations and pupil performance (Pidgeon, 1970; Burstall, 1970; Barker Lunn 1970). So any realistic approach to the curriculum and curriculum change would be impossible without due consideration for the rôle of the teacher - any attempt to undermine the teacher's professional confidence and competence would be counter-productive. A discussion of teacher autonomy must, however, take account of the influences which already exert a powerful limitation on such freedom of action. A teacher is constrained to a greater or lesser extent by other members of his profession, parents, inspectors, governors, the provision of resources, the policies of his school, external exams, staff supply, mass media and many other factors largely beyond his control. It can be argued that the autonomy of the teacher is no longer properly conceived and as such ought to be re-defined. In the report from the Third International Curriculum Conference at Oxford in 1967 (Maclure, 1968), reference was made to a remark made by Mr. Meade (Ford Foundation of the United States) that "an effective strategy of curriculum reform demands an 'understanding of the comprehensive nature of change'. By implication he was questioning the assumption that the renewal of the curriculum begins and ends with the school and within a single professional group. In the English context this remains heresy. But whether it can remain so indefinitely as innovation increasingly involves changes which extend beyond single schools to school systems, and beyond school systems to

the articulated relationships of primary, secondary and higher education as a whole, is another matter". (p. 23) Increasingly the population of the United Kingdom is geographically mobile and this new factor of growing importance imposes on teachers a responsibility to devise curricula which will not present insoluble problems of assimilation when children move from one school to another. The proliferation of courses, methods and school systems in recent years poses a number of problems in the path of continuity in content and teaching methods, particularly in subject areas where this is considered to be of importance (mathematics, languages and science for example). A solution might be found in setting up or developing existing centralised agencies at national or local levels, to advise, promote and encourage curriculum development. Such bodies might agree on overall aims and objectives but leave decisions on methods of achieving these to the individual teacher. Arguably the Schools Council goes some way towards the pattern described but in such a way that even more variety has been introduced into the system. Halls (1968) regards the independent authority of the teacher in England as a block to curriculum change:- "This derogation of power at the top has advantages but as a system for effecting curriculum change is often ineffective, and always slow". (p.157).

Wiseman and Pidgeon (1970) develop a similar point which is worth quoting at length:- "It is probably true to say that nowhere else in the world does a teacher have so much freedom in the choice of what to teach as he does in Britain... Teachers and head-teachers value the freedom of choice of what to teach, it is a freedom that we cherish, and we tend to regard other systems with some degree of compassion, surveying them with no little element

of self-esteem and national pride. And yet perhaps we sometimes forget that the price of freedom is a heavy increase in responsibility, and a concomitant duty to demonstrate and defend the efficiency of our actions". (p.9). They point out that curriculum change usually does go on regardless of any overall planning, but in a haphazard fashion guided by irrelevant considerations like fashion, enthusiasm and the influence of pressure groups. Furthermore an unsystematic approach to curriculum change and development can have unforeseen effects since the school and the educational system are indeed 'systems' and change in one area cannot be divorced from change elsewhere (see D'Arcy, 1970 on the contribution of the systems analyst's model to an understanding of this functioning). In such a situation it is difficult to say whether the child gains more from being taught in the context of free teacher 'autonomy', where the emphasis is perhaps on a rich variety of learning experiences and fitting the curriculum to the child, or in the context of a more limited autonomy where variety is to some extent checked in the longer term interests of his overall school career.

More planning may not be any more of a threat to the autonomy of the teacher than the uncontrolled and random constraints in an unplanned system which threaten to undermine the durable effects of learning experiences. Nevertheless, more planning means, in the context of recent British experience at least, more materials. Here the teacher must be involved if the dangers of over-centralization are to be avoided. The results of curriculum development are not to be seen as 'teacher-proof packages' but as materials to be used and exploited as the teacher sees best. If this is to be meaningful the teacher must be involved

in the planning, development and testing of materials, as well as at the level of the definition, clarification and development of curricular objectives.

In the preceding discussion of the contemporary 'curriculum-by-objectives' approach it has been the intention to show that the case for a more rigorous clarification of 'aims' in the curriculum has much to commend itself. Without embracing any one particular theoretical bias it is still possible to accept that for curriculum change to be effective, our intentions or objectives need to be made more explicit. Unless such a starting point is clear, we have no real basis for the evaluation of the curriculum to which we now turn.

Curriculum Evaluation

The preceding description of the now classical approach to curriculum development demonstrated the three main stages involved - definition of aims in behavioural terms; selection and invention of learning situations designed to achieve these aims; design and development of assessment methods to measure the degree of success in achieving these aims - but emphasised the first concern with objectives. Kerr (1968) sees the weakness of much curriculum development in a combination of a lack of clearly defined and realistic objectives, a lack of direction in planning and as a result poor evaluative techniques (p.11). In many ways all good teaching is diagnostic - a teacher will modify an approach in response to a diagnosis of the needs of the pupils and will base further teaching on an assessment of the effectiveness of previous teaching. Diagnosis or evaluation is basically a process of determining the facts which need to be taken into account in

making curriculum decisions and as such is essential for curriculum development and revision. Evaluation is not merely concerned with a final or summative assessment of a whole curriculum - it will be involved in the on-going development of the curriculum at each stage. In the absence of a clear set of objectives and of principles of evaluation, the curriculum can only be examined on the basis of opposing value-judgments and opinions based on little or no evidence. "In such a contest, the existing, entrenched syllabus-elements have an enormous advantage, drawing to their defence the majority of the uncommitted, who tend to react with a commendable conservatism to a proposal to exclude familiar, well-tried and well-known elements and to substitute new, unfamiliar and untried material... What is required is a clearer idea of the bases of curriculum construction and - above all - the use of techniques of curriculum evaluation, so that factual evidence can be produced on which decisions may be based". (Wiseman and Pidgeon, 1970, p.11).

Evaluation is often thought of in terms of school or external examinations but this is too narrow a view of the term. These examinations are familiar examples of norm-referenced evaluation but we need to be aware also of the technique of criterion-referenced evaluation. This technique is of considerable interest and warrants closer attention in concrete examples.

From the 1965-1966 school year, the California State legislature made instruction in a foreign language mandatory for all students in the sixth, seventh and eighth grades. The shortage of qualified foreign language teachers presented a serious obstacle to the satisfactory implementation of the law. The various school districts needed help in selecting language courses, improving instructional materials, modifying learning

conditions and revising course objectives. An approach to curriculum development was used which was very similar to the classical one discussed already. As a feature of the programme, tests were developed in the four main language skills in order to assess three approaches to teaching Spanish in the Elementary School (Newmark, 1966). These tests were not designed to assess pupils nor were they to compare one course with another in a 'relative merit' sense. The three methods were: (i) instruction by a qualified teacher, (ii) instruction by television, (iii) programmed self-instruction. The tests were designed to measure the extent to which each method or course achieved its own objectives under specified conditions. These tests are referred to as criterion-referenced tests and are to be contrasted with the normal standardised examination or, more strictly, norm-referenced tests. Norm-referenced tests indicate that one student was less proficient than another and they yield a relative rating of overall student performance. Criterion-referenced tests on the other hand indicate: (i) how much of the total content of a course was achieved by students, (ii) which specific objectives were achieved by each student, (iii) how realistic the course objectives were for the particular conditions under which the instruction took place (Glaser, 1963). As such the criterion-referenced test is a tool for improving courses and for providing more extensive and precise data on which to base revision of old materials and the preparation of new materials. The curriculum evaluator lays down a particular clearly-defined aim and then tries to discover how many pupils have achieved it. "The aim is the criterion: his questions or items will be designed to sample various aspects of this criterion, and his measurement objective is to discover

the level of mastery of the pupils".^(p.8) The basic similarity in concept between these criterion-referenced tests and the 'mastery' of learning model which was discussed in relation to Bloom (p.5) is obvious.

A second example of the use of criterion-referenced tests, drawn from experience in England, is reported in Butcher and Pont (1970) by Rudd. The North West Curriculum Development Project started with units of work which were tested in the classroom along principles and guidelines laid down by Tyler (1967) and much the same as described in the first example. Once again the emphasis was on discovering the proportion of pupils who had mastered certain knowledge or skills. This project took place in preparation for the Raising of the school leaving age (ROSLA) and it is not coincidental that this active area of curriculum development in connection with ROSLA is one in which curricular decisions were imperative because there was no existing curriculum to influence the direction of change - or at least any existing curriculum was felt to be inappropriate for a unique situation.

Criterion-referenced tests serve as an illustration of the breadth of the term 'evaluation'. Evaluation is also and, in some cases primarily, concerned with many other factors besides performance itself but which nevertheless influence that performance-classroom conditions, material provision, the attitudes of both pupil and teacher, and so on. The evaluator "... will inevitably be involved in the construction and use of measures of attitude and interest, since many of the most important objectives of the teacher fall within this area". (Wiseman and Pidgeon, 1970, p.83) There is a growing involvement of the teacher in curriculum development in general but there also

needs to be a commensurate involvement in curriculum evaluation if the contribution of the teacher is to be effective and relevant. In spite of 'Mode 3' C.S.E. there remain wide areas still unexplored in this field of evaluation. Unless this involvement in curriculum renewal with its essential evaluation element is given priority "... the new syllabuses and programmes will become chains around our teachers just as heavy and frustrating as the old ones they replace. Only by the evaluation of aim-achievement can we ensure that curricula remain flexible, and responsive to new demands and changing circumstances". (p.91)

In this review of some current trends in curriculum theory and practice we have sought to isolate certain issues which will serve as a background to the case of French in the Primary School - the particular area of curriculum innovation which is the subject of this thesis. The relevance of curricular objectives and evaluation will be made clear as both are related to recent developments in the Primary School.

French in the Primary School

Preparatory schools in the private sector in the United Kingdom have long taught foreign languages (generally French) to pupils in a situation which is in some ways similar to that of the 'middle school' in more recent reorganisations of state education along comprehensive lines. It became accepted practice to teach French to boys of eight or nine years old in the preparatory schools. When local education authorities reorganised their schools in such a way that, for example, one school covered the age range nine to thirteen, there seemed to be little justification in restricting the teaching of French to

the children aged eleven to thirteen and it is now commonly taught to all ages in the 'middle school' following, historically at least, the example of the preparatory schools.

The main impetus for change, however, did not come from 'middle school' reorganisation but from the existing Primary Schools teaching the traditional age range up to eleven. Spasmodic and inadequate attempts had been made for some time to teach French in lunch hours or more commonly for a few weeks after the eleven-plus examination, but it was not until 1961 that Mrs. Kellermann in Leeds embarked on a course which was viewed at the time as a significant departure (Kellermann, 1964). Mrs. Kellermann, a bilingual French teacher, gave intensive instruction in French for one term to twenty eleven-year-old children in 1961 and then again to another group in 1962. The results were most encouraging which was perhaps to be expected given the conditions under which this 'experiment' was conducted: "In the space of one term the children achieved remarkable results in fluency and precision of speech". (SCHOOLS COUNCIL, 1966, p.1) Similar though less widely publicised experiments were being conducted at the same time elsewhere.

In March 1963 the Nuffield Foundation launched a Pilot Scheme in partnership with the then Ministry of Education. The history and development of this Pilot Scheme is of key significance to the introduction of French into the curriculum of the Primary School. This is summarised elsewhere (SCHOOLS COUNCIL, 1966) and there seems little point in repeating the facts. Suffice to say that the Scheme aimed to prepare an integrated audio-visual course suitable for children beginning to learn French from eight years of age, to make adequate provision for the training of the teachers involved and to evaluate

the effectiveness of the scheme, focussing attention on the following main issues:-

"1. Is any substantial gain in mastery of a foreign language achieved by beginning to teach it at 8 instead of 11?

2. Do other aspects of educational and general intellectual development gain or suffer from the introduction of a foreign language in the primary school?

3. What are the organisational, teaching and other problems posed by such an experiment?

4. Are there levels of ability below which the teaching of a foreign language is of dubious value?

5. What methods, incentives and motivations are most effective in fostering learning of a foreign language? (p.3)"

The pressure for the extension of language teaching to the primary sector which has increased through the last ten years or so, can be seen partly as a result of the growing awareness of the need for closer links with our European neighbours. Speaking at the Second International Congress of Applied Linguistics at Cambridge in 1969, Mr. Short, the then Secretary of State for Education, called for "a redoubling of effort to ensure that the mono-lingual Englishman gradually disappears". This reaction against British insularity is a far cry from the negative tone expressed, for example, in the Government Report 'Modern Studies' (1918):- "Languages are learnt for necessity or profit or intellectual satisfaction. Our necessity was not apparent, our profit was sufficient. The most part of us found in other ways such modest intellectual satisfaction as we craved". International pressure has played an important part in encouraging this new urgency towards extending modern language teaching. Resolution No. 6 on the expansion and improvement of modern language teaching.

at the Second Conference of European Ministers of Education (Hamburg, April 10-13, 1961) read as follows:- "The Ministers of Education express the conviction that greater importance than ever before must be attributed to increasing the knowledge of modern languages..." (in Haigh, 1970). The Conference went on to approve the extension of language teaching to younger pupils. The Third Conference in Rome the following year, 1962, considered that "ways and means should be devised of extending the teaching of modern languages to the greatest extent possible to children and adults to whom it is not yet given."

Pressure for change came from the example set by other European countries who had taught foreign languages at an elementary level for some time before the Pilot Scheme in England. Sweden had experimented in teaching primary English since 1945 and from the 1956-1957 school year English was compulsory both in primary and in nine-year comprehensive schools (which effectively meant all forms of compulsory schooling) (Orring, 1967). Equally influential has been the experience in America especially since it usually involved a second language for English-speaking pupils.

The growth of FLES (Foreign Language in the Elementary School) in the United States has a long history. Cleveland (Ohio) introduced foreign language teaching into some of its elementary schools in 1922; in 1930 Brooklyn and Niagara Falls; in 1940 San Francisco; in 1942 Los Angeles; in 1945 San Diego; in 1949 El Paso and Somerville, New Jersey. Gradisnik (1968) listed cities in the USA with populations of over 300,000 and gave an analysis of the FLES instruction currently available. 31 out of a possible 42 had FLES instruction programmes and in 11 of these cities every elementary school was involved. Donoghue(1969)

gave the results of a survey in which FLES was offered by approximately:-

95% of LARGE public school systems (100,000 students +)	
75% of AVERAGE " "	(50-100,000)
60% of LOW AVERAGE " "	(25 - 50,000)
50% of SMALL " "	(12 - 25,000)

She concluded optimistically - "The effects of such elementary school instruction continue to be favorable. More than a half-dozen research studies published since 1965 testify that the addition of a second language to the curriculum for the young child has helped his general school achievement, linguistic progress, high-school language work, and mental maturity". (p.12). Earlier (1968) she had stated that by 1959-1960 every State offered at least some FLES. The largest registration was in California, Colorado, Illinois, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania and Texas - all of which offered instruction in Spanish, French and German. In 1967 an estimated 6 million children were involved in FLES - there being, of course, no suggestion that every child in the above States was involved. The 'Bibliography of State Curriculum Guides for Science, Mathematics and Modern Foreign Languages' (Putnam and Frazier, 1960) listed seven State guides for FLES instruction, the earliest dated 1952 (Hansen, 1952).

The FLES 'explosion', as it is sometimes referred to in the literature, seems to have been triggered off in 1952 by Earl J. MacGrath, then US Commissioner of Education, at the thirty-fifth Annual Meeting of the Central States Modern Language Teacher's Association in St. Louis, and subsequently at a national conference on "The rôle of Foreign Languages in American Schools". He emphasised the importance of a knowledge of modern foreign languages in a 'shrinking world':- "I am not proposing that

every child in every elementary school in every American community be given the opportunity to (learn a second language) ... I believe that with a little ingenuity and determination this opportunity can be extended to hundreds of thousands". (In Levenson and Kendrick, 1967). The Modern Language Association issued two policy statements (1956, 1961), adding weight to FLES and giving a much needed outline of the conditions necessary for programmes to operate effectively and efficiently.

There is a tendency in the United Kingdom to regard with suspicion evidence of curriculum innovation in America - and not entirely without justification. "The United States is hospitable to the idea of change in education. There is no great psychological battle to be won on that front, It has many of the techniques needed to deal with new forms of education, paper plans that have never really been brought to life in the schools. What is needed most at present is a full-scale, ruthlessly honest review of what it is that needs to be changed, right from the level of social philosophy down to classroom practice". (Bassett, 1970, ch.3) There are obvious contrasts with the United Kingdom - Spanish, not French is the commonest FLES language for example. In 1963 in California, the educational pioneer in many fields, 96% of the FLES was Spanish although since then attempts have been made to break this monopoly. In spite of this and other differences the comparison with the American experience is instructive and will be drawn upon where relevant.

Against this international background Foreign Language Teaching has spread into Primary Schools in the United Kingdom at a fast and, for some, alarming rate. "The great increase in

foreign travel which occurred in the 1950s and the growing support for a closer union with other European countries produced a climate of opinion favourable to the learning of a foreign language...by children of primary school age". (Blackie, 1967). In 1964 the Schools Council discovered (through a NFER field report) that in 119 local education authorities, there were nearly 5,000 primary teachers teaching French and 21% of the 14,000 schools in these areas were providing Primary French of some kind (Schools Council, 1966). Blackie compares this with the situation in 1959 where very few schools were involved in Primary French and concludes:- "This represented a speed of innovation unprecedented in England and Wales". (Blackie, 1967, p.106). In Scotland the position was much the same. Primary French was first introduced in 1962 and was present in 25 schools by the end of that year. After an unplanned and uncoordinated spread into other schools French was being taught in about 500 Primary Schools by 1967 (Scottish Education Department, 1968). By 1969 the spread in England and Wales was still in progress but with some of the initial impetus lost:- "The exact number of schools in which French is now being taught is not known, but it has been estimated that somewhere between 20 and 25 per cent of pupils at present in the age range 8 to 11 are learning French. The number of Primary Schools taking French continues to increase and it is reckoned that, if this rate of increase continues, almost half of the Primary Schools in England and Wales will include French in their curriculum by the early 1970s". (Howson, 1969, p.39).

The Goals of Primary French

The rationale for the teaching of a foreign language in the Primary School is a complex and broad issue and whilst the salient

points need to be outlined here, they cannot be explored in any detail. The historical, political and economic aspects of the argument for second language learning at the primary level have already been referred to and Stern (1967, pp. 1-27) develops these points. Educationally, an ethnocentric school curriculum with the emphasis on our language, our history etc., is a weakening influence. A second language is necessary to provide the child with a means of communication which at the same time reduces his parochial outlook and is necessary for the formation of his total personality in the modern world: "The political, economic and cultural interdependence of the world today demands a crossing of language and national barriers in the earliest phases of schooling. Primary education must become more international-minded. Our basic concept of literacy may have to be modified so as to include - besides the learning of reading and writing the vernacular - the acquisition of another language". (p.3)

He claims that a society with more than one language is more viable and stresses the integrating function of language acquisition - language is the 'social institution par excellence' and in an international context this has tremendous significance.

There are, in addition, quite forceful psychological reasons for introducing the young child to foreign language learning. Dodson (1967, p.33) reported the following experimental finding with regard to fluency, which is just one of many to be seen as supporting the early introduction of the child to foreign languages:- "The young primary child can imitate almost immediately the individual sounds in a phrase, even though he might not be able to say the whole sentence as one unit. Certainly an eight-year-old child will not on average require more than four contacts

to be able to say a strange sound correctly, though some basic pronunciation difficulties were already encountered with this age group. This ability to mimic sounds is, however, lost rapidly the older the child becomes. A twelve-year-old child requires the same number of contacts (approximately seven to eight stimuli and responses) for both fluent sentence imitation and correct sound reproduction^{which} increases sharply up to the age of sixteen. Beyond this age it is highly unlikely that the individual can ever learn to pronounce a foreign language so accurately as to be mistaken for a native". Carroll (1960a) confirms that the evidence seems to point to the fact that the earlier the child is introduced to a foreign language, the better is his pronunciation and that this facility decreases with age. However he can find no good evidence that children learn other aspects of language any better or faster when account is taken of the amount of time they spend on learning - in short he qualifies the assumption that is sometimes made that learning languages at an early age is miraculously easy.

These psychological arguments are supported (Stern, 1967) by reference to research in language development, bilingualism and neurological studies which confirm certain advantages in making an early start with a second language.

Such arguments are important in the sense that they are typical of the reasoning adopted by the language teaching expert. A slightly different but complementary view is evident in the arguments advanced by those whose main concern is with primary school education in general and not just with one particular aspect of language studies. One reason which Primary School heads often give for including French in their curriculum is

that children can learn it with enjoyment and profit and if they can it is an experience which they should not be denied. It is part of a larger educational aim of encouraging children to enquire into various aspects of the world around them (Harding, 1967, p.153). "I asked one headteacher to justify the teaching of French in his school and he replied: 'The children can do it, and they enjoy doing it". (Rowlands, 1969, p.46). Such a statement is indicative of the attitude of those primary school teachers who view all subjects, not in terms of their utilitarian value, but in terms of the opportunities they provide for more general progress in terms of such things as self-discovery and self-enhancement of the individual pupil. As such the teaching of Primary French has become firmly established in a large number of schools.

The reasoning behind the introduction of a second language at the primary stage as outlined, merely provides an initial basis for defining its objectives, but no more. In fact, there has been little attention paid to the task of framing the kind of clear objectives that the classical model of curriculum development requires. As a point of departure consider the 'Purposes for providing FLES' (Michaelis, Grossman and Scott, 1967, p.135):-

"To begin the early development of the ability to use a target language proficiently in understanding, speaking, reading, and writing; to develop the ability to understand the speech, writings, and literary works of native users of the language in terms of the target language and culture.

To provide for continuity of language study beginning in the elementary and continuing through the secondary school.

To develop an insight into, and an appreciation of, other languages, cultures, and people, and to understand the rôle of language in a culture.

To develop children's ability to communicate with others in a bilingual area.

To develop skill in reading and writing the target language on the basis of more direct comprehension without use of conscious translation.

To provide opportunities for comparative language study and to stimulate interest in the origin of words and the similarities between a target language and the child's native language.

To extend interests for leisure-time activities and to develop a background for educational and career activities.

To enrich the curriculum and to provide learning opportunities for gifted children".

To many primary school teachers some of these points would seem irrelevant and, certainly within the context of the United Kingdom, they would wish to completely disagree with others. The Modern Language Association in America are less specific when answering the question 'What value does foreign language study have for elementary school pupils?'. They refer in general to the language as (i) a means of communication (ii) a vehicle of culture (Modern Language Association, 1961). These goals are echoed elsewhere:- "Children should learn to understand and to speak the foreign language with reasonable accuracy and fluency in the situations within which and about which children of their age group normally speak", they are to read and write in a similar way and also," the foreign language program can help sensitize children to the values of other cultures. It can lead them to

accept differences among peoples with respect and understanding. It can foster attitudes which will prevent their outright rejection of another way of life because it does not parallel their own". (Finocchiaro, 1964). Many other writers insist that the objectives of foreign language teaching at the primary stage cannot be considered without reference to those of the secondary stage: "Basic objectives of the FLES program should be twofold but the first is the most important: to begin to provide a long sequence of foreign language experience in listening, speaking, reading and writing at an age level when the language is best assimilated", linked in with later learning, "and to develop in children a wholesome attitude and appreciation for other peoples and other lands".(Levenson, 1963).

Looking at the question of objectives from the point of view of what is to be expected as terminal achievement, Mr. J.S. Jones, H.M.I. proposed the following:-

"What, in general, can the secondary teacher expect and hope for in pupils who have had three year*s of instruction in a foreign language at primary level? He can, we suggest, expect:

- (i) an oral competence developed from accurate listening and understanding;
- (ii) a lack of inhibition and a readiness to talk in simple situations;
- (iii) a limited recognition of the printed word, and a power of reading the familiar, and the beginnings of skill in the handling of books;
- (iv) a more rational attitude to language in general;
- (v) some knowledge of a foreign country and its way of life;
- (vi) a readiness, certainly on the part of the more able,

to begin a second foreign language". (Schools Council, 1966, p.44).

This statement is helpful but was written against the background of the Pilot Scheme. This scheme has to some extent answered the need for a statement of clearer objectives. "The Pilot Scheme was not set up to determine whether French can be introduced into the primary curriculum, but to find out the profit and loss of doing so". (Schools Council, 1966, p.16). The Schools Council Organiser explained (in Rogers, 1970, p.236) that "The Pilot Scheme was designed to ascertain on what conditions it would be feasible to contemplate the general introduction of a modern language into the primary-school curriculum in terms of the consequences for the pupil, the school, and the teacher". Under such circumstances the scheme defined for itself three general objectives which are outlined in the preface to the teacher's book of the Nuffield 'En Avant' Course (produced within the context of the scheme: Nuffield's Foundation, 1965) Stage 1A: "(a) to teach the pupils to speak French rather than to teach them about French; (b) to provide a simple introduction to French customs and institutions; (c) to contribute to the general educational experience of the child in the junior school and in the first forms of the secondary school". The objectives are further defined by reference to the linguistic content of the course material - "... the overall objective is to secure fluent control of a comparatively small number of grammatical structures, and of a limited but adequate vocabulary". From the beginning, 'En Avant' treated the following points as of prime importance:-

- (i) the pupil's interest must be stimulated and maintained;
- (ii) his inherent ability to acquire the mechanisms of a second language must be exploited and
- (iii) his self-confidence,

particularly in oral performance, must be encouraged and strengthened. So in 'En Avant' and indeed in 'Bonjour Line' (CREDIF, 1963), another very popular Primary French course, the emphasis is on making French as accessible as possible to the children with a variety of approach, to keep their interest, being an important characteristic of both courses.

The fact remains that the aims of Primary French are generally too confused and varied to be referred to as 'objectives'. There is a widespread concern for (a) the acquisition of language as a communication skill and (b) an improvement in attitudes towards languages and foreign peoples and cultures. These aims must of necessity form the background to the work in this thesis since it sets out to examine an existing situation, yet there is obviously a need for a greater clarification of objectives, along the lines suggested by the Pilot Scheme, if Primary French is to develop in an effective and positive manner. The logical sequel to the definition of objectives is a scheme of evaluation and it is to this aspect of Primary French that we now turn.

Evaluation of Primary French

The introduction of French into the Primary School has not met with universal approval. Objections have been many and varied and some are too detailed to be adequately represented in the present discussion. A cursory examination, however, is sufficient to reinforce the impression that there is a need for a critical assessment of French in the Primary School.

The Plowden Report (Plowden, 1967) did little to encourage the current spread of Primary French. It was not that the writers objected to the principle but they attacked and, with ample justification, rejected the 'free enterprise' approach outside

the Pilot Scheme:- "...far too many schools have introduced French without having a teacher who possesses even minimum qualifications, without consideration of what constitutes a satisfactory scheme and timetable and without any consultation with receiving secondary schools. This can only be deplored. No good purpose can possibly be served by it. Without a teacher who is well qualified linguistically and in methods suitable for primary schools, it is better to have nothing to do with French".

(para. 617)

A similarly serious warning came in 'Primary Education in Scotland' (Scottish Education Department, 1965):- "But the question still remains whether it is advisable to introduce the teaching of modern languages into the primary cycle of education in view of the problems which such an undertaking must bring in its train and the burden it may place on the resources of the primary school... The desultory teaching of a few French songs and of some odd words and phrases is rarely worthwhile and may have the effect of robbing the study of the language in the secondary school of its freshness and interest". (pp. 202,205).

Views expressed in the educational press are predictably less guarded. Speaking of primary children, "... the thing that makes them especially vulnerable to educational cranks, is that they are interested in everything until someone teaches it so badly that they lose interest... I want to know why English children in primary schools should learn French - and I still await a satisfactory reply". (Hill, 1962). Or more recently "I do not believe that any child has suffered serious harm by not learning French; but I do believe that he may have been harmed by failing to learn a subject for which he is unfitted and which has been imposed on him for false reasons".

(MacGowan, 1971)

An article entitled 'French without Pilot' (Williams, 1970) draws on the experience of HMIs in different parts of the country. It examined the Primary French outside the Pilot area and had some serious criticisms to make - "...the organisation of the subject in many areas under review verges on the haphazard and inside the schools the picture is no clearer". The continuity between primary and secondary levels is particularly weak, according to the article which pressed for closer links: "At present the lack of contact is disturbing and leads to a substantial amount of wasted effort at both levels".

One last criticism which should be mentioned is the suggestion that French ought never to be considered as suitable for a modern primary curriculum, given the nature of primary education. Bassett (1970) welcomes the Pilot Scheme as such but expresses this reservation:- "The 'step by step' presentation of these courses, with controlled vocabulary and sentence structure, represents a formalism from which the primary school in other aspects of the curriculum has been freeing itself. The recent change in mathematics teaching was a major step in this direction in a subject which has been noted for its fixed sequential treatment. It would be something of a regression if foreign-language teaching, transferred from the secondary school, brought back with it a formal approach to its teaching".(ch.4). It may be that the fear of excessive formalism so alien to modern primary practice has been unfounded but the sequential characteristics of language teaching may inevitably create difficulties when it is integrated into the primary curriculum, no matter what modifications are made.

The call for an evaluation of Primary French comes then

as much from teachers, administrators and other educationalists as it does from any theory of curriculum-by-objectives. Examples of such evaluations are rare. One interesting and careful study with a very practical purpose was the 'Evaluation of Foreign Language in the Elementary School' (Wantagh Public Schools, 1968) in New York State. Assessments were made of the performance of students, but the major part of the evaluation summarises the responses to various opinion surveys completed by students, parents, teachers and administrators. The study was small (166 students), not longitudinal and relatively confined (four elementary schools 'feeding' one junior ~~school~~ and one senior high school) but the results are interesting because they compare matched FLES and non-FLES groups of pupils. In each of the sub-tests (listening, reading, writing and speaking) the FLES girls scored significantly higher (at 0.01 or 0.001 level) than the non-FLES girls. There were similar trends evident from the data of the FLES and non-FLES boys but not nearly as strong (0.01 to no significance). In general the large majority of the respondents surveyed supported the FLES program in Wantagh and thought it reasonably successful. It is all the more surprising therefore that the conclusion of Superintendent Charles T. St. Clair was to completely abandon the grades four to twelve (ages nine to seventeen years) programme, including the FLES stage and to phase in a six year sequence commencing in grade seven (age twelve years) and ending at grade twelve. He rejected a recommendation for a District Director of Foreign Languages whose job would have been to coordinate a flexible and efficient grade four to twelve programme. He stated that his proposals were far from unanimously accepted by staff and administrators (particularly one imagines in the elementary schools) but concluded

"This proposal is not a criticism of our FLES program, which is superior. Rather, it is based on investigation here and elsewhere on the relative achievement of students with varying lengths of exposure to foreign language instruction".

A more recent evaluation in Scotland was conducted by Nisbet (1972) on the 1969 intake into Aberdeen secondary schools which provided a last chance of comparing those children who had and those who had not studied French in the Primary School. Two matched groups with 388 boys and 347 girls in each group represented those who had studied French (F group) and those who had not (NF group) and they were tested using the NFER listening comprehension test (LCA) and internal school exams. After one term in the secondary school the F group was higher on the LCA test with the mean of the girls being significantly superior to boys in both F and NF groups. At the end of the first year this advantage of the F group had diminished or even disappeared but the performance of the girls was still significantly superior to that of the boys. By the end of the second year the slight superiority of group F was completely lost. "The results from this follow-up to the beginning of the third year of secondary suggests that primary school French confers some initial advantage but this advantage diminishes and disappears during the first two secondary years". The value of this study in terms of its evaluation of performance is severely limited by the fact that no provision was made for continuity of teaching from primary to secondary school. This does not invalidate the whole study, however, since it includes a consideration of the attitudes of the children which will be referred to below (p.48).

From the outset it was acknowledged that there was a need in

the Nuffield/Schools Council Pilot Scheme for a built-in system of evaluation. A clear delineation of aims was essential. "The new programme is then devised so as to achieve such aims, the design being guided by the wisdom of the experienced teacher, the knowledge of past successes and failures, and the results of relevant experiments and researches". (Wiseman in Preface to Burstall, 1968). The development of an effective and sensitive evaluation programme was the task of the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) under the direction of Mrs. Burstall. She described the construction of language achievement tests in Perren and Trim (1971, pp. 155-160). These were constructed with reference to specific course or programme objectives which had already been established by means of a detailed analysis of French courses in use in the Pilot Scheme schools which yielded a 'common core' of lexical elements and structures. This was then used as a basis for item construction. These tests were the traditional norm-referenced tests and there is clearly a place in any future programme of evaluation of performance for the development of criterion-referenced tests with the characteristics already described (p. 12). Both types of test yield useful information and it is a pity that the need for selecting certain key problems for evaluation within the scope of available resources excluded the opportunity of using such tests.

The interim report of the NFER survey (Burstall, 1968) dealt with the following areas of evaluation:- (i) the effect of the introduction of French on the level of general attainment; (ii) the assessment of the level of achievement in French, with particular reference to the performance of low-ability children; (iii) the influence of attitudinal factors on success or failure in learning French; (iv) the organizational and teaching problems

posed by the introduction of French in the primary school.

In 1970 (Burstall, 1970) the 'half-way' report appeared. This was concerned with "the achievement in French of the pupils in the experimental sample, at both the primary and the secondary level, and with the relationship between level of achievement in French and attitudes towards teaching and learning the language".(p.5). This project, which is unlikely to produce its final report until 1975 and is now the responsibility of Mrs. Jamieson, is a longitudinal study of three groups or cohorts of children moving up through primary and secondary schools. It has great value both for the breadth of the study and for the size of its sample. To a great extent it supplies the desperately needed evaluation of Primary French.

It would be a little presumptuous to suggest that the evaluation provided by the NFER were in any way inadequate. However, without detracting from its significance it is worth making two points. Firstly the NFER evaluation programme deals exclusively with the schools and pupils in the Pilot Scheme areas and to some extent in the Associate Areas. The necessary step of setting up an experimental situation in which teachers were trained, materials developed and continuity largely preserved has created what might be referred to as 'optimum' conditions. In areas outside the Pilot Scheme, Primary French continues to be taught under much less favourable circumstances. An evaluation of Primary French in these other areas, or even of schools in a fairly representative sample might yield very different evidence. Studies in non-Pilot areas would be a useful comparison with the NFER survey conducted under such careful control.

Secondly the study of attitudinal factors reported in chapter 3 of the second report (Burstall, 1970) makes no comparison between

Primary French and non-Primary French groups. The reasons for this will be discussed in chapter IV below and spring from the form of the questionnaire used. The contention of this thesis is that an evaluation of the effects of learning French in primary schools (inside or outside the Pilot Scheme), upon the attitudes of children moving into the secondary school, is a necessary but as yet inadequately examined area of investigation .

Attitudes and Primary Education

The importance of motivation in educational practice has long been recognized and a growing feature of primary education, as it becomes increasingly pupil-orientated, is a cultivation of positive attitudes and socially, morally or culturally acceptable values. In addition attitudes have an important bearing on the learning experiences of a child - he can be led to information, skills or concepts but there is a limit to what he can be forced to learn. He will learn far more easily if his attitudes are aligned in a certain direction. Callender stresses the motivational aspects of learning in relation to programmed learning techniques and concludes, "The greatest problem in education and training is still how to teach those who do not wish to learn". (1969, p.6). Plowden (1967) stressed that the school was not a teaching shop but had a responsibility to transmit values and attitudes (para. 505). Schools are concerned with cognitive growth but also with the affective development of their pupils - none more so than the primary school: "An attitude is an habitual tendency to react in a characteristic manner in a given situation. The refinement of interpersonal attitudes accordingly constitutes one of the major tasks of elementary education. We know that adolescence is the period when all social attitudes, racial and

otherwise, come to their final stages of development. This is the optimal period for educational control; but the basic groundwork should be prepared in the first decade of life". (Gesell and Ilg, 1946, p.339). Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives treats the 'affective' component as one of the three major domains. Anastasi (1961) regarded the strength and direction of the individual's attitudes and related variables as an important part of his personality - variables which materially affect his educational and vocational adjustment, his interpersonal relations, the enjoyment he derives from his leisure pursuits and other major phases of his daily living. The important work of Adorno et al. (1950), 'The Authoritarian Personality', highlighted the whole complex of interrelationships between attitudes and behaviour and their importance in the organization of personality.

The relationship between expressed or measured attitudes and behaviour has been a source of considerable debate. Studies have almost consistently resulted in the conclusion that attitudes are a poor predictor of behaviour. Since the majority of these studies have been concerned with ethnic attitudes, this issue is of interest to the language teacher. The usual conclusion is that prejudice is a poor predictor of discrimination. In a paper of considerable importance in 'The American Sociologist' (Ehrlich, 1969), the evidence for inconsistency is rejected on both methodological and conceptual grounds. The argument cannot be easily summarized but it is pointed out that attitude measurements are in essence relatively imprecise and that the measurement and interpretation of behaviour are even less reliable in terms of precision and objectivity. Previous studies usually measured attitudes towards a class of people then made predictions about

behaviour towards a specific member of that class - a strategy which has an obvious weakness. "In almost all current theories, attitudes are construed as having componential structure. Not all the components of an attitude imply behaviour. It follows from this that without a direct assessment of the 'action potential' of an attitude component, the researcher's inference about the subject's behaviour or intentions may be phenomenologically naive".^(p.30) The behaviour that is linked to a specific attitude is not always clear and important factors to be considered here are the judgement of the evaluator, the lapse of time between measurement of attitude and behaviour (attitudes being dynamic and on-going in character), the influence of the measuring instrument, the extent to which the person involved knows how to act and has the opportunity to act, and lastly the fact that the person may be constrained in his actions by external factors or by other conflicting attitudes within his personality. Ehrlich develops what he sees as the real point at issue:- "Under what conditions, and to what degree, are attitudes of a given type related to behaviour of a given type?". (p. 31)

It would not be surprising therefore if the correlation between attitude and achievement were not as high as experience in the classroom would lead one to believe. In fact there is evidence for quite a strong link. Shakespeare (1936) observed a noticeable relationship between attitude and attainment and Jordan (1941) reported that "The correlation between attitude and attainment was about 0.25, the highest correlation being in mathematics. The figures give some evidence that a positive relation exists between attitude and attainment but in few cases is it of outstanding significance". Correlation coefficients of between 0.21 and 0.33 are low but show some association. Other

findings (Arvidson, 1956; Baraheni, 1962; Biggs 1959; Sharples, 1969; Wisenthal, 1965) indicate that the link between the two is closer in mathematics than in English, for example; that the relationship stems from factors such as effective teaching, favourable background and high ability which act together to foster high attainment and positive attitudes towards school activities; that sex and age are significant variables - girls and younger children holding more favourable attitudes than boys and older children respectively; that in most curriculum activities at the primary stage (with the notable exception of literary activities) special emphasis by the school was related to significantly more favourable attitudes in that activity. Other related research findings are reviewed in Evans (1965, ch.X). Space prevents a review of the equally influential part played in the education of the child by parental attitudes but these are dealt with by Douglas (1964) and Sharrock (1971). The relationship between teacher attitudes and expectations and pupil performance is examined by Barker Lunn (1970) and Pidgeon (1970) who concludes that "the level of performance that children produce in school is governed to no small extent by factors which motivate them to work... one of the major motivating factors is the expectations that teachers have of the level of performance their pupils are capable of achieving". In this case it is wise to ask what extraneous factors are at work and the most probable cause of difficulty is likely to be in this area of pupil-teacher relations.

Attitudes then occupy an important place in the school curriculum. They can energise all or certain aspects of the learning experience and although they act 'catalytically and non-specifically' (Ausubel, 1968), they enhance effort, attention

and learning readiness. Further, since the child-centred curriculum is becoming more and more of a reality the relevance of attitudes to primary education in particular is growing.

Attitudes and Language Learning

In turning to the specific example of second language learning, a similar situation emerges with regard to attitudes. Attitude is one of a number of factors which influence attainment in language learning. Davies (1969), in his study of aptitude for and proficiency in French in the first year of the United Kingdom Secondary school, reported that verbal intelligence was by far the most important factor at work but that the motivational factor was also of some importance. Thouless, reviewing work on the teaching of modern languages (1969), concludes that the ability to learn languages does not appear to be closely related to intelligence, and there is some evidence for a general factor of linguistic ability. This factor, which suggests that the child who finds it easy to learn one language ought to find it easy to learn others, is probably made up of a number of components which include such things as auditory discrimination, ability to perceive auditory patterns and a certain kind of memory, associated with a mildly compulsive personality (p.222). Carroll found (1962) that whether a person likes foreign language study is not related significantly either to aptitude or to achievement. From these results he inferred that as long as learners remain cooperative and actively engaged in learning, whether they want to or not, motivational differences will probably not make much difference to achievement. Motivation will be related to achievement, however, when it affects how well students will persevere in active learning efforts in a situation

in which they are relatively free to lag in attention.

In spite of these findings which to some extent qualify the rôle of attitudes in language learning, there is a good deal of evidence to suggest that attitudes play a vital part in the process. Jordan (1941) included French in his analysis of attitudes and achievement and found a mean correlation of 0.26. Gardner and Lambert (1959) found that motivation equalled linguistic aptitude in its effect on achievement ratings. Maximum prediction of success was obtained from tests of verbal intelligence, intensity of motivation, students' purpose in studying the language and one index of linguistic aptitude. Nida (1969), in discussing sociopsychological problems in language mastery and retention refers to certain motivations which act as blocks to language assimilation and use although these factors may not be significantly different from those which influence a student to conclude that he simply cannot learn a foreign language, largely because he does not want to. Pimsleur (1968), using a wider definition of 'aptitude' than Gardner and Lambert, developed the Language Aptitude Battery, which is based on an empirical theory, arrived at by analysing experimental data. It treats language aptitude as consisting of three factors. One of these is 'motivation for learning a foreign language' and the other two are Verbal Intelligence and Auditory Ability. A three year study conducted in Salt Lake City, Utah, (Gordon, Engar and Shupe, 1963) with the learning of Russian by television concluded that performance could be predicted in advance by using (i) two scores from the Metropolitan Achievement Test (spelling and language) plus (ii) a score compounded of a variety of tests representing the pupil's foreign language course. Together these scores correlated well (0.63)

with the pupils' actual scores obtained in the Russian course. At a higher level Bashiera(1970) reviewed the situation in Secondary Vocational and Commercial Schools in Europe: low initial motivation was to be expected from a student whose previous language instruction had given poor results or who failed to see how linguistic knowledge could benefit him in a technical or agricultural job.

"One of the most consistent findings to emerge from the mass of data accumulated to date on language development seems to be a slight difference in favour of girls in nearly all aspects of language that have been studied". (McCarthy, 1946, p.551); "It is in the area of verbal skills that women come into their own. Girls learn to talk earlier than boys, they articulate better and acquire a more extensive vocabulary than boys of a comparable age. In all aspects of language usage their performance is considerably superior: they write and spell better, their grammar is more competent and they are able to construct sentences more adequately". (Hutt, 1972, p.94). This linguistic advantage of girls may well help to explain the higher scores of girls on measured attitudes towards foreign language learning (Burstall, 1970, ch.3 and 7; Terman, 1946, p.965). It is probably influenced by the earlier maturation of girls and perhaps also by the 'feminine image factor' postulated by Hallworth and Waite(1963) and developed by Slee(1968). Thomas (1973) rejects this suggestion of a special 'factor' which is important for curriculum planning, on the grounds that curriculum choices themselves help to produce rather than reflect a feminine self-concept, and that the feminine image is not necessarily a uniform one. His case can hardly said to be proven and the

issue remains open. It is a feature of attitudes towards language learning that girls usually score higher with more positive attitudes and a number of elements evidently contribute to this situation not least of which is that they tend to achieve better results in terms of performance. The differences may also be partially explained (Barker Lunn, 1972) by the fact that girls tend to have better or more favourable school-related attitudes in general, than boys in junior schools.

A number of investigations have examined the attitudes of pupils towards particular languages. Jordan (1941) found that the attitude towards French was most favourable during the first year and declined in succeeding years. He also found that the attitude towards French tended to vary in accordance with general standards of academic attainment (the brightest being most positive) - in none of the other subjects examined was this relationship so clearly marked. Pritchard (1935) quotes at length from the reasons given by 8,273 pupils for interest in and dislike of French and from his figures French was the sixth most popular subject (out of eleven) with the girls. There were considerable variations at specific age levels however - at the age of 12½ years for example, French was eighth with the boys and third most popular with the girls (see p. 126 below).

A preliminary investigation into attitudes towards Welsh as a second language concluded that (i) the overall attitude was neutral, (ii) attitudes were most favourable during the first year and afterwards declined, (iii) there were slight but insignificant differences between brighter and less academic forms, (iv) there was a statistically significant sex difference in the results in favour of the girls, (v) home conditions were of great importance, (vi) the majority felt that Welsh would be

useful after they left school, and they also preferred the conversational aspects of Welsh to the grammatical, probably for this reason. (Jones, 1949). In a Research and Development Project for the Schools Council (Sharp, 1970) on attitudes and motivation for the learning of Welsh and English in Wales, a similar but more extensive study than that of Jones is in progress - the final report has yet to be published.

In an examination of the importance of student attitudes in foreign language learning, Nida (1956), focussing on the motivational factor suggested that it is not an undifferentiated global wish but rather a desire to communicate and a sensitivity to the specific language group. These two aspects were involved in the degree of proficiency attained by students. Lambert(1963) reported significant positive correlations between certain kinds of motivation in adolescents and attainment. He describes two kinds of orientation for language learning. One is an 'instrumental orientation' - a conviction that the learning has practical or utilitarian significance - and the other is an 'integrative orientation' - the desire to be like members of the cultural group speaking the particular language involved. Pimsleur (1963) was able to distinguish normal and under-achieving students by using several motivation-interest-attitude scales or items, later modified for his LAB test (1968). He suggested, however, that student motivation may be either cause or effect. In his study, under-achievers tended not to perceive any reference of foreign language skills to their lives. Fiks and Brown (1969) in a research report connected with work in the United States Army Defence Language Institutes, concluded that the attitudes of students were measurable in the form of four different components of overall attitude. These were Interest (in subject matter and

willingness to expend effort in studying it), Utilitarian Orientation (extent to which proficiency in the foreign language was seen as capable of advancing pragmatic career goals - cf. Lambert's 'instrumental orientation'), Xenophilic orientation (desire to know, associate and identify with other cultures, implying world mindedness and non-ethnocentrism - cf. Lambert's 'integrative orientation') and Course Satisfaction. They added that 'glamour' and 'status' were seen as the greatest source of student satisfaction with the course, that motivation declined as the courses progressed and that two of the attitude components studied in the project (Interest and Xenophilic Orientation) correlated significantly, though quite modestly (at 0.5 level) with achievement indices.

The other area of concern for attitudes in second language learning is the contribution that they make in the growth of inter-racial understanding and the break-down of ethnocentric attitudes (cf. the 'Xenophilic Orientation' referred to above by Fiks and Brown). In the statement by McGrath in 1952 (in Levenson and Kendrick, 1967), which has already been referred to for the powerful influence which it had on the growth of FLES in the United States, he emphasised the rôle of FLES in promoting international understanding - its principal objective was to be "the preparation of our people for life in a world civilization which can be saved by only one means, understanding among peoples". The emphasis in these high ideals did not have an entirely beneficial effect on FLES. Courses sprang up under the name of FLES with a minimum of linguistic content and much more aptly described as social studies or civilization classes. However, this growth in 'cross-cultural understanding' (Lado, 1961) is still seen as an important feature of second language teaching.

"Other important attitudes relate to the acceptance or rejection of members of other groups. These may be of people from outside the child's family or school, from another town or village or strangers from other countries or of other races. The future peace and happiness may depend on the attitudes to outsiders of many types developed by children now at school". (Evans, 1965). The extent to which second language learning can improve international understanding is potentially quite large. Both by providing information and experiences relating to another culture and by giving the child the skill to communicate with real examples of foreigners it can destroy or modify the naive and inadequate stereotypes which usually prevail. The research to date suggest that long-term processes are involved in the growth of understanding and the change of attitudes about other peoples and countries and that they are extensively influenced by conceptual limitations and cultural experiences. By the time the pupil enters the secondary school, quite complex, if conventional, structures of evaluation and belief often exist (Kerr, 1943; Tajfel, 1966; Cooper, 1965; Jahoda, 1963; Morrison, 1967). In an assessment of the effects of FLES in the reduction of monocultural orientation, Riestra and Johnston (1964) used two matched groups of 63 pupils. They found that FLES pupils had significantly more positive attitudes towards the Spanish-speaking peoples which they had studied than did the non-FLES group, that they had more positive attitudes towards the Spanish-speaking peoples which they had not studied than the non-FLES group, though to a lesser extent than in the case of the country they had studied, and that FLES pupils did not generalize their positive attitudes so as to embrace other foreigners - indeed, non-FLES pupils were more positive than FLES pupils in this

respect. Having returned to the specific case of language learning in the elementary school we now turn our attention to Primary French.

Attitudes and Primary French

The findings concerning attitudes and second language learning in general apply for the most part to Primary French. There are a number of additional points which need to be made.

Firstly we need to remind ourselves of the nature of the Primary School and of the kind of education it aims to provide. The Plowden Report (Plowden, 1967, para. 501) avoided the problem of definition:- "It is difficult to reach agreement on the aims of primary education if anything but the broadest terms are used but formulations of that kind are little worse than platitudes". Blackie (in Howson, 1969, ch.1) proposes the aim of British primary education as "To allow, and actively encourage, each child to develop his full powers of body and mind (understanding, discrimination, imagination, creation) and to grow up as a balanced individual, able to take his place in society and to live 'in love and charity with all men'". One is tempted to see such an aim as applicable to all kinds of education and not specifically primary education. Hayling (1970) gave a broad outline of 'good primary practice', listing the characteristic teacher skills, organisation, methods, curricular activities and pupil attitudes. The latter are of particular relevance:- "Good primary practice brings into being... eager, lively, enthusiastic, outgoing junior children who are active participants in learning. They have strong drives to be creative, and are strongly motivated to be successful. They appreciate opportunities for making of choices in learning tasks, as well as the responsibilities which

self-direction brings". This no doubt contains a considerable element of idealism and wishful thinking but it sheds light on the kind of direction in which the aims are pointing in terms of the attitudes which are expected to develop.

The child-centred, rather than subject-centred approach of the contemporary Primary School raises difficulties for Primary French. For language teaching to produce worthwhile results the teaching methods and materials employed must be the most appropriate and efficient possible, with respect to both the stated aims of second language teaching and the contemporary Primary School ethos. The disparity between these two considerations is instanced in a report by Peter Doyé of the Berlin Primary School Pilot Project (Stern, 1969, p.121). He records that the "need for flexibility and variety had its counterpart in the need for systematic procedures. The teachers found out very soon that in this situation a strictly systematic approach was indispensable for two reasons:- (i) Although the children learnt the language rapidly through 'natural' or playful devices, they also forgot it rapidly. (ii) The children had very little opportunity to practise outside the classroom what they had learnt at school". Others, whilst appreciating the difficulties would feel that a strictly systematic and alien approach was not the only solution. The practical implications of integrating Primary French into the primary curriculum are discussed in relation to mixed ability teaching and group-work methods in Penty (1972) and Rowlands (1972) respectively. It would certainly appear that the consensus of opinion is moving to a less severely regulated sequence in Primary French as courses such as 'En Avant', specifically designed for the Primary School

become established and usefully exploited by primary teachers.

It was under the heading of attitudes that a significant contribution of Primary French was noted by Burstall (1970) in the NFER evaluation of the Pilot Scheme to which we have already referred. Chapter³ summarised the findings relating to pupil's attitudes towards the learning of French in the Primary School. In the first cohort, 47% of the pupils stated that they liked learning French, 53% stated that they did not whereas in the second cohort 54% of the pupils liked learning French compared with 46% who did not. Girls, as we would expect, had a more favourable attitude towards the learning of French than did the boys: 65% of the girls in the second cohort (sex was not differentiated in the first cohort) liked learning French, but only 44% of the boys did. A favourable attitude towards French implied a favourable attitude towards learning other foreign languages and over 60% of those with a hostile attitude towards French still wished to learn a different language given the opportunity. Over 80% of the total sample wanted to go to France and meet French people, although less than 9% of each cohort had actually been to France. Children had fixed and definite views about France and the French comparing well with the usual 'stereotypes'. The attitudes of the children seemed to be influenced by those (real or perceived) of their parents - significantly more girls than boys were represented in the 75% of the sample who believed that their parents were pleased that they were learning French at school. The pupils assessed the value of learning French partly in terms of employment prospects - 50% of the first and 60% of the second cohorts felt that everyone should learn French in school, though French was not considered a high priority subject by 80%. For pupils of both sexes, level of achievement

(especially in speaking tests) in French appeared to be closely associated with attitudes towards learning French. Table 1.1 shows the main features of this association, which, as Pimsleur (1963) suggested, may be as much a question of attitude being an effect of achievement as a cause.

•	Speaking Test			Listening Test			Reading Test			Writing Test		
	N	\bar{x}	SD	N	\bar{x}	SD	N	\bar{x}	SD	N	\bar{x}	SD
LF	445	31.44	11.10	1904	24.10	7.76	1877	30.42	11.70	1271	21.37	10.51
DF	305	23.66	9.29	1641	20.66	7.21	1623	25.69	10.17	1140	17.25	9.70

Table 1.1: Battery 1 French Tests.

Mean scores by pupil attitudes towards French.
 LF = Pupils who like French; DF = Pupils who dislike French. (adapted from Burstall, 1970, p.50)

The research completed so far by the NFER is of cardinal importance but the questions of the attitudes of children outside the Pilot and Associate Areas and the comparison between the attitudes of children with Primary French and those without are still open. Nisbet (1972) included these aspects, to some extent, in his evaluation in the Aberdeen area. He measured the attitudes of 162 pupils (76 from group F and 86 from group NF - see p.31 above) in one school only, simply by asking for a ranking of six school subjects (English, French, History, Geography, Mathematics and Science in order of liking at the end of the first and second years in the secondary school. Under circumstances where all pupils started French again regardless of any previous learning ...

experience, and from this limited data, it was found that at the end of the first year only 30% of Group F pupils rated French among the three most liked subjects, against 42% of Group NF. Since the Group F pupils were covering ground which they had already been over, this result is not surprising, as Nisbet admits. At the end of the second year, however, the position had changed so that 50% of Group F pupils rated French in the top three best liked subjects: first year, 48% of girls, 25% of boys; second year, 57% of girls, 26% of boys. Nisbet concludes:- "An evaluative follow-up of the kind described here is of value if it highlights problems such as the fluctuations in pupils' attitudes and the need for continuity in teaching".

It is clear that practical difficulties make the task of creating and keeping positive attitudes towards French more of a problem than the early enthusiasts would have led us to believe. An example of the early euphoria is found in MacRae(1957):- "The young student's interest in the spoken language is so keen that the only stimulation needed is the opportunity to hear and imitate the new sounds ...". Contrast this with the general conclusions of the H.M.I. report in Scotland between January and September 1968 (Scottish Education Department, 1968. p.18):- "The lifeless presentation of lessons, the almost complete dependence on mechanical aids, and the excessive repetition and drilling which were frequently encountered are alien to the spirit of the modern primary school. Indeed they were arousing in many pupils feelings of boredom, uncertainty, and hostility to the language which may persist into the secondary school..." They stressed that although French has initially some novelty value for the pupils, this tends to be short-lived and the teacher has to put something more concrete

in its place if interest is not to die. Interest was evident where progress was being made but where the work was executed mechanically and without imagination and variety no such interest or pleasure was evident.

If by introducing French to primary children the teacher is not just teaching the language but introducing them to a new educational experience then, apart from any general educational considerations, the child ought to be motivated for further language learning experiences. If our aim is to help the child to 'feel at home' in the language and make real linguistic progress at the same time, then the material used, our methods and our own attitudes as teachers should make the experience of learning Primary French sufficiently interesting to the child that he or she is clearly keen to go on. J.C. Carpenter, a Modern Language Adviser writing in 'Teachers World' (June 12th 1970, p.25) admits that motivation is difficult to achieve in the classroom and proposes visits abroad (in 'colonie de vacances' for example) as one solution - "unless these early starters are well motivated in this way, then the consequences later on could be fatal, the novelty will be over and the thunder will indeed have been stolen with nothing to show for it but premature boredom and hostility". H.M.I. reports in England contain similar remarks to those made by their Scottish colleagues:- "A most important but possible underconsidered element in the teaching of French in the primary school is the attitude of the children towards the subject. It is clear from the surveys that though in many schools the children enjoyed their French lessons, there was also a good deal of boredom and incomprehension, which may also, of course, be true of other subjects. It would be naive to assume that all children are anxious to learn French or to believe

that many who are enthusiastic at first retain their enthusiasm when the going gets a little harder". (Williams, 1970)

In this review of pupil attitudes towards French in the Primary School it has become apparent that the situation is not entirely satisfactory. It has been shown that the attitudinal aspects of language teaching are crucial to the rôle that French can play in the Primary School where such emphasis is placed on developing values and attitudes as well as skill and knowledge. It is within the context of this situation that the present study is conducted.

Objectives of This Study

In the preceding review and discussion the writer has sought to emphasise the need for curriculum evaluation, with special reference to Primary French. From among a number of varied and far from explicit statements of the aims of various programmes of development in Primary French, the importance which is attached to the creation and maintenance of favourable attitudes in primary children towards France, French people and the future learning of the French language has become clear. If the development of these positive attitudes is important in language teaching at all levels, it is even more so in the British Primary School which characteristically seeks to establish favourable values and attitudes together with the behaviour that should attend them.

We have seen that a curriculum cannot be changed in a vacuum as any change has repercussions in other parts of the 'system'. Looking beyond the primary into the secondary school, what are the typical effects of Primary French on young secondary pupils? Has Primary French affected the attitudes of the children adversely

by decreasing their receptivity to French or by reducing their 'readiness to learn' level when confronted with secondary French or another language? How are the secondary schools dealing with their intake of children with experience of French? What immediate effects will their organisational arrangements have upon the attitudes developed in the Primary School?

The main purpose of this study is therefore to answer in some measure questions of this kind and to assess the extent to which the goal of fostering favourable attitudes towards French has been achieved, by reference to two contrasting areas in England.

II - THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS

The specific geographical area chosen in pursuing the objectives outlined for this study at the end of the last chapter, is County Durham. Subsequently, for purposes of comparison and in an attempt to clarify certain issues, an area in the South of England was chosen - the London Borough of Havering. The reasons for these choices were largely dictated by convenience as they were readily accessible to the author who also had personal knowledge and experience of the general educational situation in the two areas.

The aim of this chapter is to sketch the background to the study by outlining the provision made for Primary French in the North East and Havering and the local education authority policy which governs such provision. It is not possible or useful to duplicate the work of others by, for example, analyzing or comparing particular Primary French courses or methods (see Nuffield, 1965b; Leng, 1970; and various bibliographies produced by the Centre for Information on Language Teaching e.g., CILT, 1968) although reference will be made to the courses used.

The Situation in the North East

In order to give as fair a summary as possible of the state of the teaching of French in primary schools, the advisors in modern languages of particular local authorities in the North East were asked in the summer of 1971 to provide details of Primary French in their area. The authorities except for County Durham and Havering, which are treated separately, are not named since some information was given in confidence. The information

provided is summarised below.

Authority A

This area was not involved in the Pilot Scheme except as an Associate area at the beginning. All junior schools include French in the curriculum and local in-service training courses (often involving one-term secondment) help to prepare teachers as well as extended training abroad. A team of H.M.I.s has recently visited the area at the invitation of the Authority to make recommendations on the future development of Primary School French.

Authority B

This Authority did begin a Nuffield Pilot Scheme in one area, hoping to feed all junior children who had learned French into the same junior high school at the age of eleven. However, owing to movement of population in the area, the linkage became difficult to maintain and for the time being the scheme is in abeyance. When it is revived the linkage is expected to be by direct contact between those schools using the 'built-in' liaison implicit in following the "En Avant" course.

Authority C

Six primary schools in this Authority are the ones chiefly involved in the Nuffield French Project. Pupils are now moving into secondary schools, having done the three year course which they started in Junior 2. Provision is made in the estimates for help with materials for "En Avant", "Dans le Vent" and "Avant Garde" (Nuffield French Project, primary-middle school, C.S.E. and G.C.E. 'O' level courses respectively). Special examinations suitable for pupils who have followed this approach are being prepared by G.C.E. and C.S.E. Boards. The approach is now

spreading to some schools outside the group of six schools first designated - which is seen as an aim of the scheme in this area.

Authority D

51 out of 54 secondary schools and 21 out of 118 primary schools teach French. 12 of the primary schools are 'E.P.A.' schools. Four primary schools have been in an Associate area of the Nuffield Scheme since 1963. They use 'Bonjour Line' and there are four teachers in the schools, described as part-time specialists, who teach with this course. In another area, by 1968, five primary schools were involved in the teaching of Primary French (using the Durham Course - Durham, 1966) so the area was extended to include these schools. In the rest of the local education authority area there are other schools which teach Primary French on a 'go-it-alone' basis which is not encouraged, largely because of the inadequate supply of French teachers at the secondary level. The Associate area has had a number of meetings and courses to discuss and disseminate appropriate methods and objectives. 'En Avant' was adopted en bloc after much discussion (there is a strong preference for 'Bonjour Line' with some teachers). There was some reluctance to use tapes because the problem of being over-repetitive was felt quite keenly, but tape-recorders, puppet films and other materials for 'En Avant' are all provided. Two schools outside the Associate area use 'En Avant', the rest use a mixture of 'En Avant', 'Bonjour Line' and 'Bon Voyage' and usually start in year J2. One school used it as a preparation for a visit to Lourdes and started in J4. Teachers attend French fluency courses in a local school. One of the problems is that teachers sometimes want to start Primary French for the wrong reasons - parental pressure may blind them

to the needs and difficulties of other primary and secondary schools. The biggest needs are in the secondary sector where, in this area, the staffing problem is as bad as it has ever been. Continuity is a problem especially if the secondary school draws on a wide catchment area where only, say, three out of nine primary schools take French. The problems of being in a depressed area can be overwhelming - one E.P.A. school abandoned Primary French, disillusioned, although there are encouraging signs elsewhere.

Authority E.

The main problem in the Authority is the recruitment of sufficient numbers of teachers of French in the junior schools. No scheme of curriculum continuity between secondary and primary school is followed. Discussions concerning continuity have largely been between secondary school staffs and their feeder primaries on an ad hoc basis. There is frequent contact and opportunity for discussion at the Authority's refresher courses in French.

Authority F

The groups of schools incorporated into the Pilot Scheme as Associate areas used 'Bonjour Line' and 'En Avant'. In these nine schools there are fifty classes where French is taught by thirty-nine teachers. Part-time preparatory courses have been used and renewal courses are planned together with monthly method meetings. The Authority wants to be sure that French is not started in more schools until a sufficient number of teachers and a reserve group of about ten per cent have been trained. In the Associate areas it was stipulated from the start that both for the benefit of

of the pupils and to ensure that secondary schools took advantage of the earlier start in learning a language, the pupils entering secondary schools from the primary schools had to be taught separately from beginners in French. In the future 'En Avant' is thought to be likely to displace 'Bonjour Line' and there are recommendations to expand the scheme to other groups of schools.

The Situation in Durham and Havering

Before embarking on a more detailed examination of County Durham, which will involve a comparison with Havering, one or two points ought to be made about the London Borough of Havering. Hornchurch is now part of this London Borough and it was an Associate area for the Pilot Scheme right from the beginning. The course recommended by the authority in this area was 'Bonjour Line' and it has been the policy to suggest this course for other schools wishing to start French in order to keep some continuity.

'En Avant' is at present being considered as a possible replacement for this course. In-service courses are well developed and four or five short courses have been run in the past at the Teachers' Advisory Centre in Romford. These courses are smaller but similar to the North East Regional Method courses for French Teachers in Primary Schools held annually for the last few years in Newcastle.

Since the main survey involved in this study was carried out within County Durham it was of importance to obtain some overall impression of the extent and nature of Primary French in schools. This was achieved in three ways:- (i) informal talks with headteachers, teachers and the local authority Modern Languages Advisor, Mr. Davey; (ii) a summary of the results from

a D.E.S. questionnaire to all schools in the County, which were kindly supplied by the Advisor; (iii) an analysis of the returns from a questionnaire sent to Primary School Headteachers to investigate certain points not touched on by the D.E.S. questionnaire. For brevity the research questionnaire (iii) will be referred to as HDTOTAL (the code used for the computer programme written to analyse the returns).

(i) Informal contacts. When the Pilot Scheme was introduced in 1963, Durham was one of the original 13 Pilot Areas. These areas had to be compact with primary schools feeding a limited number of secondary schools and all were to be volunteers. The Durham area originally involved schools in the Newton Aycliffe-Bishop Auckland vicinity:- Primary Schools: Sugar Hill J.M., Vane Road J.M., Stephenson Way J.M., St. Mary's J.M.; Secondary Schools: Marlowe and Milton Secondary (both in Newton Aycliffe), Ferryhill Grammar Technical School and St. John's Roman Catholic Secondary School, Bishop Auckland. Primary teachers cooperated in the usual national schemes including a three months stay in Paris or Besançon. Some wastage of teachers from these courses has been easily made up by volunteers. The courses employed in the schools were mainly 'Bonjour Line' and 'En Avant'.

While this was going on, interest in the teaching of French in the Primary School spread rapidly throughout Durham. Unfortunately the audio-visual courses on the market, especially in the early years were in most cases too difficult for the ordinary non-specialist teacher who was seen as the best person to teach French. As a result of this dilemma an Introductory Audio-Visual French Course for eight-year old children was produced by the local authority with the dual purpose of acting as a guide for teachers in method, and to present the minimum of material to the children

so as to make the approach to other courses on the market considerably easier. The course, 'Children Speak French', was not therefore designed to replace any of the other courses but merely to familiarise teachers and pupils with audio-visual techniques (Durham, 1966). One of the features of the course is a 'Teacher's Tape' which contains all the material of the course with extra oral material. By 1969 over one hundred schools had bought the course and reports suggest that, while bearing in mind its undoubted limitations, it has helped to give pupils confidence and experience to enable them to make more rapid progress with follow-on courses - no formal evaluation of the course has been undertaken.

The Authority has emphasised the need to resist the pressure to 'jump on the band-wagon' in Primary French and to restrict the introduction of it to schools where optimum conditions exist. In practice, in common with the experience of the rest of the country, this ideal has not been attained.

The linguistic targets for French in the Primary School and the more general goals are seen by the Advisor as follows:-

"... it is suggested that at the end of primary school French, all pupils should have developed a real liking for the subject, they should have learned how to look and how to listen (not so easy as they sound!), they should be able to comprehend simple French when spoken at normal speed by native speakers and finally they should be able to respond instantly and instinctively to simple stimuli, their own remarks being at normal speed, with good intonation, and fairly good accent".

Continuity between primary and secondary (which receives fuller treatment in ch. III below), is difficult to maintain

and the County's system of multilateral units provides the only real opportunity for easy transfer, meetings and exchange of staff and perhaps agreement on courses. It was suggested that the general situation was improving as French 'settled in' to its Primary context.

(ii) The D.E.S. questionnaire. This administrative questionnaire (Schools Council Modern Languages Project) gave an up to date, factual picture of the situation. Each primary and secondary school was sent a questionnaire and most returned by May, 1971. In 420 Primary Schools with Junior departments, 121 schools taught French to approximately half of the total on their roll. This situation is described as 'static' and no great increase in the proportion of schools teaching Primary French was expected. Approximately half of the schools taught French for three years, and most of the remainder for two years. Materials used are summarised in Table 2.1 (two or more courses sometimes used). To give some kind of comparison the courses in use in Scotland at the time of the H.M.I. survey (Scottish Education Department, 1968) are also given - regrettably no similar figures for England were obtainable, which would have been more appropriate.

The most striking factor emerging from these figures in Table 2.1 is the strength of local education authority initiative - Glasgow's closed circuit television scheme (similar in conception but not in content to the Inner London Education Authority's course) and Durham's 'Children Speak French' clearly occupy first choice in the areas from which they derive. 'Bon Voyage' (Mary Glasgow and Baker, 1963), long established, still holds an important place, especially in Durham, reinforced by the

I.T.A. adaptation of the course for their Primary French television series. As this I.T.A. course has now finished, it is

	DURHAM 1971		SCOTLAND 1968	
	N	Approx %	N	.Approx %
Bon Voyage	42	24	25	8
En Avant	30	17	85	26
ITV(cf. Bon Voyage)	24	13	17	5
Bonjour Line	5	3	14	4
Parlons Français (CCTV)	-	-	177	54
Children Speak French	64	36	-	-
Others(*)	12	7	9	3

* 'Others' include courses published by Collins, Linguaphone Courses, 'French through action', BBC course, Tavor and own material.

Table 2.1 Courses in use in Durham and Scotland.

likely that other material will be used more widely - particularly 'En Avant' which has the (largely unintentional) stamp of approval as a 'national initiative' course. The course 'Frère Jacques' (B.E.L.C., 1968-1971) was not widely used when the surveys were conducted and will no doubt gain ground - probably at the expense of 'Bon Voyage' where teachers are looking for a viable alternative to 'En Avant'. 'Bonjour Line' is particularly rare in Durham which is surprising bearing in mind the fact that it is used in the Pilot Area in conjunction with 'En Avant', and the widespread national popularity of the course.

The remainder of the results of the questionnaire suggest that there is little if any continuity between primary and secondary French except in the Pilot area where it is closely

controlled - meetings and record cards seem to have little real effect. As to the point reached by the end of the Primary School, the overall impression was that the oral standard of most of the children was high, oral comprehension 'good', accent and intonation 'fairly good'. Most of the oral achievement was still of the simple 'stimulus-response' kind with little extension of vocabulary. There was a widespread feeling among headteachers that it was difficult to say exactly what had been achieved in general terms.

Those headteachers who did not have French in their school were not asked to answer any questions. However, many made comments on their form about their reasons for not teaching French or for having abandoned it. Overwhelmingly the reason given was loss or sickness of teachers or complete lack of adequate staffing. One or two were against Primary French on principle (too much on time table already, for example). Illustrating the difficulties encountered by headteachers in the Primary School are the following comments:- "All four teachers taking French have now left this school. Their replacements are not linguists and are not keen to teach this subject". "French was taken with fair success by three teachers, two of whom have emigrated to New Zealand and Canada respectively and the third is now working in Darlington. At present none of the staff is able to take the subject".

(iii) Questionnaire to Primary Headteachers: HDTOTAL in an attempt to gain a clearer impression of the arrangements for teaching French in the Primary Schools of the County and in Havering, a questionnaire was sent to headteachers of Primary Schools with junior departments in both areas. In County Durham

the questionnaire was sent out after the administration of the main attitude questionnaire (see ch. IV) and consequently only those schools which were identified as 'feeders' to the secondary schools who cooperated in the first survey were included. All Primary Schools in Havering were approached. The aim was to establish as much as possible about the background of those children who had completed (or in the case of Havering, were to complete) the main attitude questionnaire. The HDTOTAL questionnaire was therefore sent to 299 Primary Schools of whom 244 replied in October 1970. The original questionnaire was of two distinct types - (a) for those who taught French (b) for those who did not teach French. This caused difficulties and the document was in single questionnaire type (APPENDIX I) for its administration in June 1971 (i.e. at the end of the same academic year as in Durham) to all 52 Primary Schools in Havering, of whom 48 replied.

In the following analysis 'Durham' and 'Havering' will refer to the Durham and Havering sample of those who replied to HDTOTAL. Small discrepancies in 'total' figures are the result of occasional non-response for specific questions. Percentage figures are approximate.

GENERAL AND DESCRIPTIVE. Table 2.2 gives the number of Junior and Junior and Infant schools in the two areas, classified by size - pupils on the roll being the criterion of size (overleaf).

	NUMBERS OF JUNIOR SCHOOLS BY SIZE									
	to 50	50-100	100-150	150-200	200-250	250-300	300-350	350-400	400-450	450+
Durham	1	1	4	15	19	25	19	3	6	4
Havering	1	0	1	2	1	7	2	3	7	5
	NUMBERS OF JUNIOR & INFANT SCHOOLS BY SIZE									
	13	27	33	27	25	9	3	5	2	1
Durham	13	27	33	27	25	9	3	5	2	1
Havering	0	2	0	1	0	4	1	4	1	5

Table 2.2 Number of schools per category by size

These figures show a tendency towards larger Primary Schools in Havering and bring out the number of small (often rural) Junior and Infant Schools in the Durham sample.

Of the 244 schools in Durham only 2 were single sex. All of the Havering schools were mixed. The denominational bases of the schools is given in Table 2.3.

	Non-denominational		Church of England		Roman Catholic	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Durham	172	71	35	14	37	15
Havering	40	82	2	4	6	14

Table 2.3 Denominational affiliation of schools.

The only major difference between the two areas in these figures is the lower percentage of Church of England Schools in Havering - probably another reflection of the rural/urban contrast.

Headteachers were asked to specify the kind of housing from which their school drew the majority of its pupils. The classification for Housing groups in Table 2.4 were adapted from the questionnaire used by Benn and Simon (1970) in their survey of comprehensive reorganisation.

Housing group	Durham		Havering	
	N	%	N	%
Mostly council estates	62	25	8	17
Mostly private housing & residential	25	10	15	32
Mixture of council & private	103	42	23	49
Mixture of council, private/residential and substandard	36	15	1	2
Mostly from substandard housing (with or without some council	11	5	-	-
From other	7	3	-	-

Table 2.4 Housing of school pupils.

Even on this fairly crude assessment of housing it would seem likely that the children represented in the Havering sample will, on average, be of a higher socio-economic status than those in Durham - the private and residential areas are a particular source of contrast. In Durham the 'Other' category

includes property owned by the National Coal Board and isolated farms.

Of the schools in the sample 118 schools in Durham taught French, 122 did not. If the County Hall returns on the D.E.S. questionnaire (p.58) are correct it would appear that practically every Primary School which taught French (121) is represented here. A number of those which did not teach French did not return the HDTOTAL questionnaire because they were under the impression that their responses would not be of use. This unexpected bias must be taken into account when drawing conclusions from the main attitude survey - children from schools where French was not taught are probably under-represented in the secondary schools which cooperated in the main survey. In Havering exactly half the schools (24) taught French - the other half did not. We now consider those where French was taught and those where French was not taught, separately.

	7 yrs.		8 yrs.		9 yrs.		10 yrs.	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Durham	13	11	48	41	36	31	20	17
Havering	1	4	7	30	8	33	8	33

Table 2.5 Age of beginning French

The emphasis in Durham would appear to be less on a start in the last year or so of the Junior School but more on a start at eight years of age, giving three years of Primary French.

In Havering there is the suggestion that the proportionately larger number of schools which teach French, sometimes do so at the end of the Junior School age range.

The remainder of the questionnaire related to the specific classes of the children who completed the main attitude questionnaire and who had been taught French.

	Under 20		20-25		25-30		30-35		35-40		Over 40	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Durham	16	14	7	6	11	10	37	32	33	29	10	9
Havering	-	-	1	4	3	12	3	12	10	42	7	30

Table 2.6 Approximate class sizes

Pupil/teacher ratios in Primary Schools in Durham in 1971 were 26.3 and in Havering in the same year were 28.7 (Secretary of State for Education in answer to Parliamentary Question - reported p.55, 'Education' vol. 140, no. 3, 21st. July, 1972). This more favourable average class size in Durham is reflected in these figures for Primary French classes.

In Durham 33 schools out of 115 where French was taught were streamed and 7 out of 24 were streamed in Havering - almost exactly the same proportion (29%).

	1		2		3		4		5	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Durham	9	8	50	45	27	23	13	11	15	13
Havering	-	-	3	12	5	21	6	25	10	42

Table 2.7 Number of lessons per week (average)

In Havering there is a tendency for lessons to be given more frequently than in Durham - perhaps balancing out to some extent the differences noted in Table 2.5 where Durham taught French for more years.

	Durham		Havering	
	N	%	N	%
Under 10 mins.	6	5	-	-
11 - 15 mins.	15	13	2	8
16 - 20 mins.	20	17	6	25
21 - 25 mins.	8	7	3	13
26 - 30 mins.	54	45	11	46
31 - 35 mins.	7	6	1	4
36 - 40 mins.	5	5	1	4
41 - 45 mins.	1	1	-	-
Over 45 mins.	1	1	-	-

Table 2.8 Length of each lesson (average)

Table 2.8 shows similar emphasis in both areas on the approximately 30 minute lesson - the 20 minute lesson is the next most common in both Havering and Durham.

	Class teacher		Specialist on staff		Visiting teacher	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Durham	62	54	48	41	6	5
Havering	12	50	12	50	-	-

Table 2.9 Category of teacher

The evidence in Table 2.9 suggests that the Primary Schools of both Havering and Durham find their Primary French teachers

mainly within their own school but not always the class teacher.

	Durham		Havering	
	N	%	N	%
En Avant	30	18	4	16
Bonjour Line	14	8	19	72
Bon Voyage	36	22	-	-
ITV	21	13	-	-
BBC	-	-	2	8
Other	50	31	-	-
Own material	14	8	1	4

Table 2.10 Courses followed

These figures (Table 2.10) are not really comparable with the County Hall (D.E.S.) statistics (p.60). The coding of this questionnaire, HDTOTAL, allowed two courses to be specified. This was to allow any 'combination courses' to reveal themselves. It was expected that the television courses and 'own material' would show gains under these circumstances but in fact the figures show several interesting features. In Durham the 'other' category obviously includes the course 'Children Speak French' but the higher proportion of users of 'Bonjour Line' suggests that it is used more frequently than the County Hall questionnaire revealed.

In Havering the immediately striking feature of the table is the predominance of the 'Bonjour Line' course - for the historical reasons already discussed. The influence of the local education authority advisors is once again recognisable.

Headteachers were asked to give a general impression of the attitudes and performance of the particular class(es) involved in the main attitude survey. A classification into five categories was made of comments on attitude and then on attainment. In relation to normal year groups the children involved were either:- (1) unsatisfactory, (2) below average, (3) about average, (4) above average (5) very satisfactory indeed.

ATTITUDE:-	1		2		3		4		5	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Durham	4	4	4	4	16	15	18	17	61	60
Havering	1	5	2	9	2	9	7	32	9	45

ATTAINMENT:-	1		2		3		4		5	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Durham	14	17	27	32	28	34	7	10	6	7
Havering	2	9	3	13	11	48	4	17	3	13

Table 2.11 Attitude and attainment: assessment by headteacher of year group.

These figures are limited not only by the subjective judgment of the headteacher but also by the broad classification involved - they must therefore be treated with caution. Even so it would seem that, according to the headteachers, the Durham sample might represent a poorer than average year group in terms of attainment. The Havering assessments seem to be fairly evenly distributed. More striking, however, is the high

proportion of favourable attitudes credited to children in both areas - 77% of the sample in both areas was judged to have satisfactory attitudes. That so many of the schools should see the children as enthusiastic about French is some indication of the value put on this aspect of the teaching of French. Even where attainment was slightly down, the work was justified if it created enthusiasm for French. The reality of these impressions will be checked in the main attitude survey.

Schools Where French is not Taught(B) Two categories of schools without Primary French were distinguished:- (i) where French had been taught but not any longer, (ii) where French had never been taught.

(i) Schools where French had been taught but not any longer.
In Durham 39 schools and in Havering 2 schools fell into this category. The reasons for dropping French are given below, with Durham and Havering combined.

- (a) Loss or lack of qualified staff (25)
- (b) Pressure of other work on timetable (2)
- (c) Lack of accommodation(2)
- (d) Movement of children made population mobile(1)
- (e) Results did not warrant the effort (5)
- (f) Rebuilding (3)
- (g) No interest (3)

(ii) Schools where French had never been taught.

In Durham 61 schools and in Havering 10 schools were involved. The reasons given for this situation were as follows:-

- (a) School new, too small or reorganising (7)
- (b) No staff to teach French (32)
- (c) Pressure of other work on timetable (10)
- (d) No interest among staff (7)
- (e) Against the specialisation French implies (3)

- (f) Accommodation problems (1)
- (g) Shortage of money and/or equipment (3)
- (h) Children not penalised at secondary so not worth it (1)
- (i) Teach German (2)
- (j) Influenced by local education authority not to teach French (2)
- (k) Waiting to see (2)
- (l) French causes problems with integrated day (1)

The following quotations from the answers given by the headteachers in both categories highlights some of the more common difficulties encountered.

"Would favour inclusion of French in the curriculum if prevailing circumstances were conducive to reasonable success i.e. (a) qualified staff (not a member of staff who had formerly learned French and was prepared to 'give it a try'), (b) once introduced there was the expectation of continuity over a period of years - i.e. responsibility accepted by settled members of staff, (c) several teachers prepared to further their personal knowledge and professional expertise through further study, (d) cash available to requisition adequate materials and apparatus - would not favour French on a shoe string".

"The contribution French would make to the curriculum was balanced against the contribution of those activities it would replace, in the light of the following guide lines:- (i) staff able to speak with good accent, (ii) continuity of staff, (iii) equipment and facilities needed. (i) and (ii) are deciding factors - until circumstances here improve the balance is in favour of not introducing French. Most of my staff are married with children and the only suitable course which would improve factors (i) and (ii) is held at a rather inaccessible college of education".

"The difficulties of organisation in this type of small school where classes hold more than one year group and we can have half class promotions. This would lead to further problems in group teaching in a subject that involves much oral teaching at this stage; these problems could be solved but we are already very involved with problems associated with this technique in other aspects of the school curriculum. Secondly lack of qualified staff. Thirdly the difficulties experienced at the secondary stage in coping with the teaching of new entrants who have reached different levels of proficiency in a foreign language. The primary child with some proficiency can be at a disadvantage at the secondary stage if he is taken back to the beginning - he loses the impetus, the interest, the excitement and the challenge of something 'new' which makes learning easier".

With this last comment we are brought to the important question of continuity between primary and secondary schools. This issue was felt to be of wider implication and to warrant a more detailed examination. This is to be found in the following chapter.

III -PRIMARY-SECONDARY LIAISON

One important factor which influences the continuing attitudes of children towards French is the extent to which there is liaison between primary and secondary curricula - in their content and techniques as well as objectives. Nelson Brooks (1960) approves of the extension of modern language teaching to the younger child but with an important reservation:- "...the value of his learning is predicated upon a guarantee of its continuity". In the preceding chapters passing reference has been made to two forms of continuity. Continuity can refer to a proper sequence and progression within the primary or secondary courses but it can also refer to sequence and progression between the two. It is with the latter (often referred to as 'articulation' in the literature) that we shall be concerned. Since the inquiry which constitutes the main basis for this research is concerned with children at the point of transfer from primary to secondary schools, it would seem appropriate to look more closely at the question of continuity between the two levels.

Transfer and Continuity

The question of the transfer of children from primary to secondary schools has been a concern of educationists for a long time, especially where this involved transfer with an element of selection. With the spread of comprehensive education in the United Kingdom this aspect of the question has gradually lost its significance and has given way to a closer consideration of the age of transfer, the hiatus which exists between the two stages at the primary-secondary transfer and its effect

on children.

Nisbet and Entwistle(1966) were primarily concerned with the age of transfer and concluded that no 'ideal' age, from a psychological standpoint, existed although there were other good administrative reasons for introducing an element of uniformity into the differing ages of transfer. In the course of their report they refer to the opinions of headteachers on the issue and quote two contradictory judgments on the effects of primary-secondary transfer:-

"The sharp division between primary and secondary which exists at present imposes a severe strain on some pupils - probably more than we realise - and provides for not a few a traumatic experience from which they hardly recover".

"I found that, while the sudden switch upset one or two, the vast majority of youngsters, irrespective of ability, liked it. It was a stimulant. Youngsters who came up with rather unflattering reports about their attitude to school work... became revitalised". (p.81)

Blyth (1965) looked at some of the adjustments which eleven year olds have to make on entering secondary schools. From being the senior members of a small school they find themselves the youngest in a large, mainly adolescent school, where teaching methods tend to be subject-centred and the class teacher gives way to the subject specialist. Plowden(1967, para.427) stated the need to avoid strain at this time of transfer:-

"Children, like adults, enjoy and are stimulated by novelty and change... But if change is to stimulate and not to dishearten it must be carefully prepared and not too sudden. The new school must know enough of the old school's ways to carry on where it left off and neither to repeat what is already known

nor to jump unthinkingly ahead". This emphasis would seem justified if we accept the evidence of Murdoch(1966). In a sample of 552 essays by Aberdeen school children (giving, it must be admitted, only a subjective and retrospective impression of the children's reactions to transfer it was estimated that as many as 57% of the boys and 64% of the girls had experienced problems in adjustment. However, after six weeks or more in the secondary school 8% of the sample said they preferred their secondary school to the primary school.

Nisbet and Entwistle (1969) went on to attempt to identify the areas of greatest difficulty and found that transfer under existing conditions may adversely affect the attainment of the working-class child, especially one in the younger half of the age group. Lack of ambition and poor attitude towards work in the primary school will be paralleled by low academic motivation after transfer as well as lower social maturity and a higher level of neuroticism.

The Summer 1971 edition of the magazine 'Forum' was entirely devoted to the subject of continuity in education. In the face of new attitudes and curriculum development writers urged the abandonment of the traditional independent and 'water-tight units' view of English education - even at the cost of some seeming loss of autonomy. In some ways this is already happening in response to the spread into the secondary school of some of the characteristics of good primary practice - theory, methods and techniques. This theme was developed in the Autumn 1970 issue of 'Forum' ('Primary into Secondary').

The broad practical problems involved can be briefly illustrated by reference to the sciences and to mathematics.

This will have the advantage of correcting any impression that experiencing difficulties of continuity is the sole prerogative of French. Recent, though hesitant, trends towards the introduction of more science into the Primary School have brought new methodological and organisational problems into the transfer of children from primary to secondary schools. There has been very little attempt to agree on a common pattern or approach in junior schools and as a result there is a wide diversity of experience in the children coming into secondary schools.

"Secondary science teachers complain, with some justification, that the children have done all the attractive experiments, but leaving the secondary teachers to develop the themes nevertheless". (Prosser, 1971, p.87). Traditionally the answer to this difficulty in the secondary school has been to assume no knowledge and to 'start from scratch' (Brady, 1968) but other unstreamed diagnostic approaches are sometimes used which attempt to establish and incorporate earlier work.

The development of mathematics at the primary and secondary levels has been dominated by the 'new-maths/traditional-maths' controversy. In an article in the Times Educational Supplement (5.11.71., p.34), B.T. Bellis, a headmaster and President of the Mathematical Association urged for a national directive as a solution:- "It is surely time that a concerted effort was made to coordinate and consolidate the work of the last ten years. This is quite beyond the reach of the individual and local initiative which has proved so effective in the revolutionary phase... Particular concern is felt that the foundations are so often laid (or not) by primary teachers whose own ability in mathematics was insufficient to take them even to 'O'level.

This disillusionment with Primary Mathematics is not shared by E. Williams (p.42 of the same T.E.S.) who credits the new changes with giving the child a new understanding of how things and events are related. "The growth of this understanding in the minds of young children is now fostered by a wealth of experience and experiment of a realistic kind that our primary schools provide", although she admits to a "minor epidemic of an excess of abstraction in recent years" as a reaction against the traditional, more formal methods.

In many, if not most, areas there is little or no continuity between Primary and Secondary Mathematics but there are examples of the kind of approach which can ease the transition from one to the other. One such example is reported in the Times Educational Supplement (15.1.71, Scottish edition, p.16) by F.S.A. Gillespie in Grangemouth, Stirlingshire. He began in 1966-1967 by running 10-week courses for parents to explain the new maths. Secondary pupils' parents and later the parents of the pupils in the top classes of the primary schools were involved. The 'feeder' primary schools were visited regularly, lessons were observed and a relationship built up. "The teachers were very anxious to gain information about early secondary work, to align their work to some extent thus avoiding the awkward jump between June and September. They also felt very much at sea at times with mathematics and sought guidance on several points. In group methods the children seemed very happy in their work, offering each other a helping hand when the need arose". The effects of this approach, as it developed, were felt in the secondary school where group methods were successfully introduced into the first two secondary years.

The kind of liaison illustrated here brings positive

results where interest and enthusiasm is maintained. Unfortunately this is not always guaranteed, and problems of continuity are frequently seen as factors which have to be accepted as regrettable but inevitable. Liaison-continuity problems are not confined to the primary-secondary link. Caroline Benn(1973) sees them as difficulties inherent in the increasingly common break between middle and upper comprehensive schools - particularly in the sciences, mathematics and foreign languages.

"If you talk about this problem with schools, many appear to be waiting for the local authority to 'do something'; if you talk to local authorities, their view is that it is something the schools should be tackling themselves". The difficulties are general, the solutions are not easy or self-evident and this applies particularly to the continuity between Primary and Secondary French.

Primary-Secondary Continuity in French

An early curriculum guide for the State of Kansas (Burns, 1959) criticised two main weaknesses of the State's modern languages programme - lack of suitable materials and lack of continuity. "The fact that there are schools which permit a break in the continuity of language learning reveals that there are some administrators who are not thinking in terms of the articulation of the elementary school with the junior high program". (p.4) There is in fact ample American literature which raises the question of 'articulation' in the foreign language programmes. Finocchiaro (1964) showed that it is desirable that information be passed on to the secondary schools to smooth the transition and maintain the continuity which is one of the major principles

of FLES instruction. If the skills developed in the FLES programme are ignored or neglected the time and effort put into FLES are wasted insofar that unused knowledge and unpracticed skills deteriorate rapidly. At the same time the secondary school programme itself is less efficient and extensive than it could be if it were built upon the foundation already laid by FLES. Finocchiaro regarded the desirability of continuity between elementary school and high school language instruction as "universally acknowledged" and referred to a series of articles in support of this claim (pp. 136-137). Donoghue (1968) defined the term 'articulation' as meaning "coordination of all aspects of a program of instruction from one educational level to the next". Uneconomic and frustrating duplication of effort is to be shunned especially where cumulative skills, such as foreign languages, are involved but the task is just as difficult in languages as it is in other cumulative subjects where similar problems exist. She quotes two apparently optimistic reports (American Teachers of French, 1964; California, 1961). The 1964 survey in 43 States reported well-articulated programmes in 98 out of 160 schools. The State survey in California of 404 school districts in 1961 showed that 90% of these districts offering FLES provided opportunities for the pupils to continue their studies in the secondary school. However the mean number of years that foreign language was offered was only three, whether in elementary or secondary school and 37% of the districts indicated that they had plans to extend this instruction. From this Finocchiaro concluded that "the need for organising well-articulated language programs is apparent. A foreign language program that is not continuous cannot be viewed as a genuine program but rather as a mere community pacifier".

As far back as 1954 the Modern Language Association of America (M.L.A., 1954) issued some 'Considerations for initiating a program of modern languages in an elementary school' which examined the various patterns of articulation possible within the American school system. Walsh (1963) however found the practice far removed from the ideal:- "The situation is alarming. In most school systems there are not sequences but mere fragments of foreign language learning, in which the student is the victim of interrupted study and conflicting methods that dull all but the keenest enthusiasm for language learning". Recent FLES developments (e.g. Wantagh, 1968) have certainly taken more account of the question of articulation.

In the United Kingdom the general situation has been similarly unsatisfactory and the ideals have been set just as high. The Schools Council Working Paper No. 8 (1966) deplored the indiscriminate spread of uncoordinated Primary French outside the Pilot Scheme - "Such haphazard teaching of French adds to the difficulties of the secondary teachers who take the responsibility for the pupils' French later on, without materially adding to the pupils' knowledge of the language". With a mixture of children with French of various kinds and of children without any French there was a clear need for direct consultation between the secondary and primary teachers.

The Plowden Report (1967) condemned the uneven record of Primary French in terms which are hardly encouraging (para. 614):- "All too frequently the weekly time allowance was too short and badly distributed and if as often seemed to happen, the key teacher left, French dropped out of the curriculum without trace. The plain fact was that the majority of primary school teachers

were not qualified to teach a modern language. Furthermore, the secondary schools to which the children concerned went, showed, often with some justification, a bland indifference to their claims to have 'done some French already'. The whole proceedings were an example of the least admirable side of the English traditional independence". Obviously all was not well. A similar plea for continuity came in two Scottish publications to which reference has already been made. In the 1968 survey of 106 schools by H.M.I.s, only three had established a useful link with the secondary school to provide for a smooth transition (Scottish Education Department, 1968). One of five main recommendations was that "Every effort should be made to establish close and effective liaison between feeder primary schools and receiving secondary schools". (p.18) A report in 1965 (Scottish Education Department, 1965) laid down strict guidelines for continuity (p.206) and recommended that for a successful introduction of Primary French secondary teachers should be drawn into the formulation and execution of an integrated plan. "This does not mean that the secondary school teachers should dictate content and method, but that there should be full co-operation between receiving and sending schools".

The ideal in Primary French development, with a built-in system of continuity would appear to be the Pilot Scheme. This continuity has not, in fact, been as effective as was hoped. An H.M.I. evaluation of the secondary stage of the Pilot Scheme (reported in Burstall, 1970, ch.9) found that the variations in the pupils' level of achievement at the secondary stage were attributable to the following factors - the quality and continuity (that is within the primary school as well as between primary and secondary) of the teaching received, the wide range of ability

present in the sample, differences in the length of time during which French had been studied in the primary school, and the extent to which the primary course material had been covered before the pupils transferred to secondary school. Differences of primary courses used was far less of a problem as a source of under-achievement than were variations in rates of progress in the Primary School i.e. the problems in secondary school classes were not so much that pupils had followed 'En Avant' or 'Bonjour Line' and had to be taught together, but that some children had completed Stage III of 'En Avant' while others had not even started Stage II. Continuity in the sense of liaison between primary and secondary levels is much improved through the Pilot Scheme but as this evaluation shows there are still problems to be overcome.

In any attempt at liaison there is inevitably a need for action on both sides. The secondary subject-specialist teacher has, very often, the advantage of expert or 'sapiential' authority which can sometimes deter less well qualified but equally competent primary teachers. He will therefore need tact and "a sympathetic understanding of what the primary school has been seeking to achieve". (Taylor, 1966). The Primary School may need to face a period of rationalization of the arrangements for Primary French and perhaps a reduction in the number of courses used (Rowlands, 1969, p.46) but it will have the satisfaction of seeing much of its methodology being incorporated increasingly into the secondary school curriculum - especially at more junior levels. The extent to which the process of developing a proper 'continuum in language learning' is being advanced can be judged from the following examples of three local education authorities - two of them geographically

associated with Durham and Havering (Newcastle upon Tyne and Inner London) and, in addition East Sussex which represents a special but interesting case.

Newcastle upon Tyne The copious information which was kindly made available in 1971 by the Teacher/Advisor concerned with Primary French had to be regarded as confidential and therefore cannot be quoted in its original form. Newcastle has the advantage, in the present context, of being a fairly small and compact area without the same managerial problems as a large county such as Durham. Primary French in the city began on a regular basis in 1965 and has been officially limited to the nine feeder Primary Schools of two secondary schools (Kenton and Heaton). In line with the Pilot Scheme, in which these schools were an Associate area, it was intended to ensure continuity between three years of Primary French and the minimum of two years in the secondary school. It was therefore stipulated from the beginning that, for the benefit of the pupils as well as to ensure that secondary schools took proper advantage of the early start, the pupils entering secondary schools from Primary Schools in the scheme should be taught separately from beginners in French. The authority wished to avoid the dispersal of these children to a large number of secondary schools where numbers would not permit separate teaching. (This logical arrangement is not unlike the "unified school district" described by O'Rourke, 1966, and is a feature of the development of the Pilot Scheme in most local authorities). All Kenton feeder schools used 'Bonjour Line' which is a more difficult course to follow on in the secondary school than 'En Avant' which has the advantage of spanning the gap between the two stages.

Those pupils who go to Kenton without French are in fact offered German as their first language. Heaton receives pupils who have followed the 'En Avant' course so that their organisational task is, in principle, a little easier. Here however there has been quite a lot of difficulty in segregating beginners from children with three years of French because it is said to inhibit a smooth transfer in all nine of the first year classes. An increase in the regular visits between primary and secondary staff is recommended and the city is trying to convince Primary Schools to adopt some common but realistic goal in terms of the work to be covered in three years, so facilitating arrangements in the secondary schools. Outside these areas nine more Primary Schools are keen to teach French and where they can be integrated properly this expansion is likely to be encouraged.

Inner London The following information concerning continuity and cooperation was obtained from the warden of the Modern Language Centre of the I.L.E.A. and relates to three meetings of 71 primary and secondary teachers at the Centre up to July 1970. There was an almost unanimous feeling that it would be very satisfactory if continuity in French from the primary to the secondary school could be achieved. Teachers from divisions 3,4 and 5 (where French had been taught by television in Primary Schools for a year longer than elsewhere) had been so daunted by the difficulties of achieving continuity that they soon dismissed it as impossible and from there passed to regarding it as not essential and turned their attention to considering ways of fostering co-operation between primary and secondary teachers of French. A Working Party was set up which was not satisfied with the assumption that the obstacles were insurmountable.

In Division 1 and 2 they found 64 schools which taught French, 71 which did not and 10 schools which had suspended the teaching of French because of staffing difficulties. On considering the situation the Working Party decided that no one secondary school would receive enough children knowing some French to make up a class to be taught separately, and that even if one did, the variables within the class (attainment, courses etc.) would mean that it would not be a viable teaching group. Furthermore the establishment of continuity would involve agreement between the primary and secondary teachers concerned on a 'common core' of vocabulary and structure, whatever the methods the primary teachers used. The Working Party felt that this would have little chance of success and would impose a rigidity upon the Primary Schools which is foreign to their nature and would be detrimental, probably leading in many schools to the abandonment of French altogether. They recognised nevertheless the desirability of firstly continuity in the kind of approach to language learning at both stages, secondly of fostering liaison through definite and regular exchanges of staff and thirdly the more detailed use of the profiles and records which were passed on to the secondary teachers. The Working Party therefore concluded that "in the conditions prevailing in London, continuity in French is not possible between primary and secondary schools. Primary French in London is therefore only justified insofar as it is of value in the education of the eight to ten year old child. This value in really good conditions which included direct personal contact with French children, was thought to be great".

East Sussex It has been sometimes suggested that there is a need for greater control over the wide variety of localised

schemes in curriculum or school organisation and for a greater degree of uniformity. Taylor(1970) asks whether central government has "abdicated its management function" in its permissive attitude to a bewildering influx of a variety of innovations (p.155). The opposite view was expressed by Mr. Stan Hewett, Secretary of the Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education at their Conference in July 1972, when he attacked the excessive control by some authorities over the curriculum (Times Educational Supplement, 7.7.72, p.7) - and cited Primary French as a good example. East Sussex would undoubtedly fall under Mr. Hewett's condemnation for 'excessive control' and can be hardly accused of abdication its management responsibilities. This local education authority is in an unusually favoured position. Close to Europe with considerable incentives and need for modern language learners, East Sussex has adopted a policy of positive encouragement which has resulted in a pace of development in modern language teaching which is more rapid than most other authorities' in the country. Two reports (1970; 1971) and an article (Times Educational Supplement, 23.10.70, p.36) by the Advisor for Modern Languages form the basis for the following account. The organisational problems of introducing Primary French are "many, varied, often unique, sometimes insoluble and apparently inherent in the subject" and to cope with them East Sussex adopted the solution of aiming for 100% coverage of all pupils. A piecemeal scheme posed too many problems and especially that of continuation at the secondary level. "For the primary experience to be of value and a continuation at secondary level to be a feasible proposition it is necessary for all the pupils in any one class to have done a comparable amount of French in

the primary school". As a further measure to ensure an acceptable approach and a common grounding in structures and vocabulary for all pupils and thus ease transition between primary and secondary levels, 'En Avant' was adopted in 1965 as the basic course for all primary schools. In principle therefore, secondary teachers know what their new intake has encountered - although the competence of individual pupils will naturally show considerable variety. The organisers of the scheme went further in their pursuit of continuity by setting all primary schools the target of completing Stages IA, IB and II of 'En Avant' in the three years, although Stage III is envisaged as the target of the future. Each school is encouraged to treat each Stage of 'En Avant' as an area of work for a set period of time - not to follow slavishly and rigidly each individual unit. The County has problems in accommodat^ming some of the small rural primary schools into the scheme where two, three or even four age groups are found in one class. East Sussex is favoured financially, geographically and in many other respects and yet it would appear that here at least the continuity of Primary French is being assured into the secondary school.

These three descriptive views of local education authority policy in three areas are useful examples of the kind of problems encountered in the practical setting. It is easy enough to approve the principle of primary-secondary liaison and continuity, it is quite another thing to put it into practice. The rôle of the local education authority in curriculum innovation is often crucial and it is discussed more fully in Bell(1972) where different 'profiles' of innovation are discussed. In relation to Primary French and by implication with special

reference to primary-secondary liaison Wigram (1973) writes "There seems to be little doubt that given the willingness to pay a fair price, foreign language teaching can make an effective contribution to primary education; and there are many who would undoubtedly hope that those areas which are reluctant to pay this price might refrain from half-hearted primary French teaching, with all the frustrations and discouragement that this entails, and leave the task to those in the secondary school who are equipped to tackle it efficiently". The 'price' is undoubtedly high and in the long run will probably involve Primary French for all pupils - as East Sussex has shown and Hertfordshire has acknowledged (Hertfordshire County Council Education Committee Report, 1972, p.3-4) together with some reduction or re-definition of the autonomy of the teacher and the individual school.

Continuity in Durham and Havering

Part of the survey (HDTOTAL) referred to in Chapter II was concerned with the extent of continuity between primary and secondary schools in the two areas. The preceding account of continuity in its wider context enables the following information to be viewed more informatively. Durham and Havering are not alone in having very little organisational continuity - the situation described in Inner London is not very different. Durham faces a problem of a widely distributed school population with a mixture of rural and urban areas in much the same way as East Sussex but without all the financial and geographical advantages of that authority.¹ Havering is much more urban in character and displays many of the features of the Newcastle situation without perhaps such a clear plan as in

the City.

Question 15 in the HDTOTAL questionnaire read as follows:-
 "If there are any arrangements between your school and a secondary school (or schools) to ensure some continuity of French teaching after the children leave your school, would you please describe them". The responses to this question were classified according to seven categories:-

(i) No continuity. In Durham 90 out of 122 schools said there was no continuity of this kind. In Havering 9 out of 24 fall under this heading.

(ii) None, with a statement of the difficulties met. These difficulties varied - problems of feeding different secondary schools, the negative attitude of the secondary school, comprehensive reorganisation, different methods used in the secondary schools, and the wide dispersal of children by parental choice.

(iii) Personal contacts and discussion. Visits from and to secondary schools were noted - more examples of this came from Havering than from Durham, although they were not always successful:- "Originally there was coordination between some primary and secondary schools whereby secondary schools continued visual/aural schemes for one year at least and reports have been issued and visits of teachers made between schools as with the Nuffield Scheme. As more primary schools began French teaching and changes of heads of schools took place, there is much less direct contact between schools".

(iv) Written reports and record cards. This was particularly clear in the Pilot Scheme areas where "A list was given to the secondary school showing which Unit in 'En Avant' the children had reached. Also an idea of their ability and number of terms

each child had been taught French".

(v) Personal contacts and written reports. Both categories (iii) and (iv) - unusual but one or two examples in Havering.

(vi) Planned scheme of liaison: proposed. A scheme of liaison in the Seaham area of County Durham was developing within a 'multilateral unit' - 'En Avant' had been adopted by schools teaching French. A similar scheme was beginning less auspiciously in the north of Durham

(vii) Planned scheme of liaison: in operation. The Pilot Scheme schools had a highly operational system. Other examples of cooperation included agreement on courses ('En avant' usually but also 'Children Speak French' in Durham) and the teaching of the primary children by the secondary specialist. A situation described in two instances was where children in a Junior section remained within the same school or moved on to a 'main' school on the same site. These schools were denominational.

This concludes the description of the background to the Primary French in Durham and Havering and it is now possible to turn to the main investigation of this research project.

IV - METHOD

The two preceding chapters have outlined the background to the main survey. In this chapter the pilot study, construction, administration and validation of the main attitude questionnaire will be described.

The Pilot Study

One of the useful features of pilot work is that it helps to clarify the use of loosely employed terms. The word 'attitude' is one such term, used in a wide variety of ways in different contexts. Halloran (1967) devotes chapter two of his book to the 'Nature of Attitudes' and proposes a number of definitions. The working definition of attitudes which is used in the present context is drawn from Oppenheim (1966, p.105) whose main concern is with the measurement of attitudes and not so much with their structure, origins or nature. "An attitude is a state of readiness, a tendency to act or react in a certain manner when confronted with certain stimuli... For ease of understanding, social psychologists make a rough distinction among different levels, calling the most superficial one beliefs, the next one attitudes, a deeper level, values or basic attitudes, and a still deeper level, personality". This definition, linking a function of personality with behaviour (with the limitations imposed on such a link by Ehrlich, 1969 - see p.35 above) is not exhaustive but is a sufficient basis for the issues considered here. The pilot study was exploratory and initially involved discussion with teachers and the use of small scale surveys. Beyond this a second stage involved the collection of a large pool of expressed attitudes about French and the checking of these by a limited number of interviews.

(i) Preliminary contacts with teachers.

Two heads of French departments in (a) a selective school and (b) a comprehensive school, both in Sunderland, kindly arranged two small but useful surveys among their pupils and teachers.

The questionnaire in school (a) was given to four forms in the second year and questions dealt with the courses used in the Primary School, how interesting these were, what were the particular likes and dislikes of the children and whether they preferred Primary French or Secondary French. Only one child out of 115 said he had done no French before. 19 preferred their Primary French and 86 their Secondary. Reasons given for liking French were that it was 'enjoyable', interesting, easy or stimulating (55 children in all); helpful when you travel (10); generally useful (6); good for job prospects (3); good for contact with foreign countries (2); better than another or other school subject(s) (7). This kind of evidence was useful in giving indications as to how the children were expressing themselves and the general spheres of attitude involved.

The results from the questionnaire in school (b) were different and useful for the views of teachers which it recorded. The amount of Primary French and the courses used were established - this time using first year pupils. In addition teachers were asked (A) 'What do you think are the attitudes of first year secondary pupils to learning French if they have experienced Primary French?', (B) 'Do you think that there is any value in Primary French teaching and does it contribute to secondary French?' The answers to (B) were that teachers thought that Primary French was valuable in general

so long as it was taught under certain specified conditions. The answers to (A) were most helpful and have been quoted at length in APPENDIX III. In addition some other impressions have been recorded - this time by staff in Ferryhill Grammar-Technical School in County Durham, which, as has already been pointed out, was one of the secondary schools involved in the Pilot Scheme area in Durham. This kind of comment provided a useful foundation on which to build and a vital insight into the varied attitudes of first year pupils towards French.

(ii) Essays and interviews

"One of the chief uses of pilot work is to enable us to turn free-answer questions into multiple-choice ones".

(Oppenheim, 1966, p.29). This stage of the pilot study created a large pool of statements which were the expressed feelings of first year pupils towards French. To do this a common procedure - the free essay - was adopted.

The preparatory survey had to contribute the following:-
 (A) it had to show the extent and nature of the Primary French taught to young children (HDTOTAL was a source for this information only subsequently), (B) it had to give representative pupils of the age group to be studied an opportunity to express themselves freely about French in a way which would give as true a reflection as possible of their feelings, (C) it needed also to include an element of comparison between Primary and Secondary French in order to encourage the pupils to make some assessment of the effects, value or interest of their Primary French. This would indicate the areas of main concern to the pupils themselves and possibly pick out other areas which would not be referred to in a 'free-response' situation but which were nevertheless relevant. The free essay has the advantage

of allowing more expressiveness than the method adopted by Sharp (1970) in pilot work for an assessment of attitudes towards Welsh and English in Wales. In his project, pupils (of different ages) were asked to write about six statements expressing their views about Welsh and English. It is a convenient in terms of the construction of an attitude scale to adopt this method but if the children could formulate no specific reaction to French, the free essay approach would not force them to produce an artificial statement which might have given a false impression later in the study. It was important to elicit as true and as expressive a picture as possible.

Student teachers from Durham University Department of Education kindly cooperated and arranged for the essays to be set to a total of 21 first year classes, 1 second year and 1 third year class in the Easter term of 1970. The children were asked to write briefly about any differences they had noticed between French in the Primary School and French in the Secondary School if they had learnt the subject. All children were asked to write about "The things I like and the things I don't like about French". Essays were anonymous and it was emphasised that the personal opinion of the child was what counted.

The essays were collected and returned together with a brief account by the student teacher of the school and the class(es) of children who had written the essays. The 650 essays were read and analysed. An attempt was made to place each essay in a 'favourable' 'neutral' (including a balance of favourable and unfavourable) and 'unfavourable' category. The classes were then grouped according to whether the highest proportion were favourable, neutral or unfavourable towards

French. Each school is referred to by a letter (A to K) and where there were more than one class, individual classes were specified as A.1, A.2, A.3 etc. The results of this broad classification are summarised in APPENDIX IV and they show the extent to which attitudes can vary even from class to class in the same school. Schools A, C and E (one class) would appear to have generally more favourable attitudes than the other schools. D.3 was a Nuffield second form and K was a third form which had only just started French, without much success.

33% of the essays suggested that French in the Secondary school was better than in the Primary, 18% that it was worse - the rest did not mention the contrast or found it about the same. The pattern of attitudes between Primary French pupils and non-Primary French pupils was as follows:-

	Favourable	Neutral	Unfavourable
With Primary French	42%	36%	22%
Without Primary French	37%	35%	28%

Table 4.1 Attitudes of pilot groups towards French.

A small number of interviews (ten in all) were conducted with pupils in classes D.1 and D.2 to attempt to check and supplement the impressions gained from the essays which the volunteer pupils identified for purposes of comparison. This was the least successful part of the pilot study. Limitations of time, place and other school activities frustrated any real chance of creating the atmosphere so necessary to a fruitful interview:- "The physical setting of the interview may determine its entire potentiality. Some degree of privacy and a

comfortable relaxed atmosphere are important". (Garrett, 1942). These conditions did not exist and the interviews were generally lifeless and rushed.

Essays and to a small extent interviews clarified the issues involved and more importantly acted as a pool from which items were drawn for the construction of the questionnaire.

Questionnaire Construction

"A questionnaire is not just a list of questions or a form to be filled out. It is essentially a scientific instrument for measurement and for collection of particular kinds of data". (Oppenheim, 1966, p.2)

The aim was to measure the attitudes towards French of eleven year old pupils who had completed their primary schooling with or without having encountered Primary French. It might seem that the easiest way of discovering an individual's attitude towards French would be to simply ask him. A wide array of data, gathered chiefly in the 1920s, contradicts this conclusion by showing that answers to direct questions about interests and attitudes are often unreliable, superficial and unrealistic (Fryer, 1931, ch.5). This is particularly true of children and young people. The method most commonly used to overcome this problem is a questionnaire containing an attitude scale. An attitude scale is constructed according to well-defined principles and is designed to provide a "quantitative measure of the individual's relative position along a unidimensional attitude continuum". (Anastasi, 1954). Attitude scales differ in method of construction, response and the basis on which scores are interpreted. The relevant types

of attitude scales fall into five main groups:-

(i) Equal-appearing intervals (Thurstone) - used by Jordan (1941) and by Halsall (1968) in her international study of second language learning - but with pupils older than eleven years.

(ii) Summated ratings (Likert)- used in a variety of contexts, a very popular type e.g. Adorno et al. (1950).

(iii) Semantic differential (Osgood)- not very widely used but Hallworth and Waite used it in their analysis of the 'feminine image factor'.

(iv) Scalogram analysis (Guttman) - used by Pidgeon (1967) in his study of achievement and attitudes in mathematics and by Sharples (1969) in measuring the attitudes of junior school children towards different aspects of school.

(v) Scale of social distance (Bogardus) - used by Morrison (1967) as one of several techniques to measure attitudes of eleven year old children towards East-West relations.

Methods (iii) and (v) are valuable but would have been too limited in scope for measuring an attitude towards a school 'subject' which involves more than an attitude towards particular groups. The questionnaire was to be administered to a large sample and so it had to be as concise as possible. Were these limitations not so pressing both (iii) and (v) would have provided useful additional information, however this was not possible.

In his study of 'Children's Attitudes towards Junior School Activities', Sharples (1969) used the Guttman scalogram technique and gave the following reasons for his choice of scale:- "The measurement of attitudes among junior school children presents a number of problems. Established techniques

require comparative judgments or scaling of a number of statements, or the selection of a limited number of responses from an array of finely graded items. Evidence suggests that young children are not able to respond effectively to such procedures (Sharples, 1966), the precision and nicety of judgments involved being too fine for younger children. Whilst this problem is avoided by using 'teachers' estimates (Wisenthal, 1965), these have questionable reliability, particularly where a number of specific measures of individuals are required rather than group trends. Guttman's (1941) Scalogram technique is more promising as it produces instruments requiring simple direct responses to fewer than ten brief statements and requires no comparative or scaling judgments". (p.73)

Sharples was working with children aged nine to eleven years and his purpose was to compare attitude towards five 'subjects' (Art, P.E., Reading, Writing and Mathematics) - for this the Guttman scale was quite suitable. However, the present study is solely concerned with French and with several motivational variables within that general attitude domain and the Guttman scale seemed inappropriate for this situation. Whichever scale was to be used, some kind of judgment would be required of the children and the aim was to find the scale most appropriate to eleven year old children and to the particular needs of this study. Two scales - the Thurstone and Likert types, (i) and (ii) above - appeared to have advantages in the context of this investigation.

The Thurstone scale. The procedure for constructing a Thurstone scale is outlined in Jahoda and Warren (1966, pp.306-312), in Oppenheim (1966, pp. 125-133) and in Thurstone (1959, pp. 215-233). This scaling approach sets out to produce intervals

which are equal or (more correctly) which appear equal, along the attitude continuum. This method has the advantage of simplicity of response in the final questionnaire form. In Sharp (1970; Appendix 1A), the only response required of the children was a tick for the items with which they agreed. The first disadvantage of this scaling method is that the construction procedure is cumbersome even with the use of punch cards. A second criticism, which applies equally to the Likert scale is that essentially different attitudinal patterns may be expressed in the same total score. With the Likert scale, it would prove easier to study different combinations of attitude factors as something of a corrective to this weakness - a far more difficult task with the Thurstone scale. The major criticism has to do with the extent to which scale values assigned to each item are influenced by the attitudes of the judges themselves (Houland and Sherif, 1952). The construction of the scale requires that "A large number of judges - usually from 50 to 300 - working independently, classify the statements into eleven groups. In the first pile the judge places the statement he considers most unfavourable to the object; in the second, those he considers next most favourable ..." (Jahoda and Warren, 1966, p.307).

The difficulty in a study of eleven year old children is to know the extent to which they are capable of 'judging' in the manner prescribed above. A solution would be to allow the judging to be performed by older children or adults but this involves the danger of producing an instrument which would measure the attitude of adults and not young secondary pupils. An attempt was made in one class to see how effective the judgment of eleven

year olds was likely to be in such a situation. A class in the first year of Barking Abbey Grammar School, Barking, Essex was asked to judge 47 statements drawn from the 'pool' established earlier in the pilot study and to place them in five categories. The eleven piles of the Thurstone method seemed to demand excessively fine judgment and so they were reduced to five. The results were not encouraging as they showed considerable variations in judgments. Some children tended to judge at random or in blocks, regardless of the statement and possibly to show tiredness at certain points. Girls had a certain tendency to credit the statements with less extreme attitudes than did the boys. These results demonstrated the difficulty involved in asking eleven year old children to judge in the construction of a Thurstone scale and the impression given was that such a scale was not entirely suitable for this particular survey.

The Likert scale. It became clear that a Likert scale was likely to be the most suitable - "The construction of a Thurstone scale always means a lot of work, and it is often difficult to obtain an adequate group of judges. The Likert procedure may have its disadvantages but it is certainly less laborious, and this - together with the discovery that Likert scales correlate well with Thurstone scales (Edwards and Kenney, 1946) - has helped to make it more popular." (Oppenheim, 1966, p.133). The Likert scale has the advantage over the more arbitrary 'True' or 'False', 'Yes' or 'No', type in that it allows for a gradation of opinion or attitude. The results can therefore be looked at in terms of degree as well as direction. Adorno et al. (1950) used the Likert scale because it was easier to apply and required fewer items than the Thurstone method whilst at the same time yielding equally high

reliabilities and generally comparable results. Edwards (1957) suggested that the Likert scale is more reliable but this is not necessarily true of all surveys - however, it does correlate well with Thurstone scales and is certainly less laborious.

The number of possible responses may of course vary from two to six or more. Research (Ghiselli, 1939) revealed that (a) more people were willing to respond when a four-step response was permitted, (b) the requirement of absolute choice between two mutually exclusive statements made the expressed opinions distinctly less favourable in the issue tested (belief in the sincerity of advertising) and (c) that the 'yes-no' type of response is unreliable as a measure of average opinion. Day (1940) reported that in literature on the subject, seventy seven per cent of the scales were of the five response type. This would not necessarily imply that the five response type of scale would be the most suitable for this present study but the advantages of giving two gradations of both favourable and unfavourable responses together with an expression of neutrality or indifference are well worth noting.

The construction of a Likert scale proceeds initially along the same lines as that of a Thurstone scale - they both draw from a pool of statements. This pool was readily assembled from the statements noted in the analysis of the free-essays written for the pilot study - a total of 346 statements were available. Many of these were unsuitable because they related to minor aspects of 'French' ranging from complaints about classroom temperature to praise for the fact that French had Latin roots. There remained a wide choice, however, even when these were discarded. In a Likert scale construction the next step is to test the items in the pool on a sample of about

100 respondents (sometimes 250 or 300 are used). They are asked to indicate their response in just the same way that all future respondents would do by checking one of several categories of agreement or disagreement. The responses are scored and analysed to determine the items which discriminate most clearly between the high scorers and the low scorers, the items having been previously judged to be generally favourable or unfavourable. This produces a questionnaire which is 'internally consistent' and in which all the items carry the same weight, unlike the items on a Thurstone scale.

This part of the construction of the questionnaire was completed in May and June 1970. The pre-testing was arranged in classes of fourth year junior pupils in four different schools. The four classes contained a total of 120 children and to maintain a correct balance it was felt desirable to choose two classes where Primary French had not been taught and two other classes where there had been no such previous experience. A total of 75 statements had been chosen from the pool. These statements covered various 'areas' within the attitude field under study. Fiks and Brown (see p.42) showed the need for a number of 'components' to be recognised in attitudes to modern language learning and although the statements used in the present study were not strictly sub-scales, they did attempt to cover attitudes towards 'languages' in general, French in particular, French by comparison with other subjects, French by comparison with other languages, the novelty value of French, its utilitarian value, France and French people. Also two aspects were devoted to assessing what the child considered his or her parents thought of their learning French and how far they

thought French should be taught in the Primary School. All of these 'components' have been shown to be relevant to the general field under consideration and the final questionnaire needed to contain a representative selection of the best items under each heading.

The main criterion for selection of items for the final questionnaire was the 'Discriminatory Power' of each of the 75 statements. This technique used by Likert correlated well (0.91) with item-total scale correlations on the Anti-Semitic Scale used by Adorno et al. (1950) in establishing internal consistency. The method broadly speaking is to firstly exclude any incomplete questionnaires and then to total each questionnaire (every item scored on a 1 to 5 scale where 1 is a poor attitude and 5 a very favourable attitude). The top and bottom 25% of the respondents are then extracted for comparison. The mean score for each statement is then calculated for candidates in the top 25% and that for the candidates in the bottom 25% is then deducted. This gives, for each statement, a figure of 'Discriminatory Power' i.e. the extent to which each statement differentiates between high and low scorers. The larger the figure the more discriminatory will be the statement. This approach has already been described as an 'internal consistency' method of item analysis, since no external criterion, such as an index of behaviour in French lessons (which would have been difficult to collect and imprecise, as well only measuring one aspect of the factors involved) , was available against which a comparison could be made.

Finally 20 statements were selected on the basis of the above technique. The 'best' items, in a technical sense, were not always retained since it was equally important to keep a

balance in terms of the attitude 'components' described above. The pre-test had brought out certain ambiguities in some of the statements and with the advice of practising teachers it was possible to eradicate as far as one is able, badly worded statements or ones with particular difficulties for eleven year old children. Payne (1951) gives useful suggestions as regards the wording of questions and instructions and the order in which statements should appear. The 20 attitude statements were grouped according to the 'component' they related to and proceeded from the general to the more specific. One problem with the present approach to attitude scaling is that it can under certain circumstances produce a 'set' or mechanical tendency to consistently agree or disagree regardless of statement. This was largely avoided in practice by alternating statements so that one expressed a positive attitude, while another expressed a negative attitude towards French - which was, of course, taken into account when the questionnaires were scored. In addition to the 20 item attitude scale the questionnaire (APPENDIX II) in its final form gave children an opportunity to express their preference for two school subjects. This was later used alongside the scale to establish any connection between subject preferences and attitudes. The fact that this choice was being made in the context of a French attitude questionnaire and usually in a French lesson introduced undoubtedly a bias which needed to be taken into account in the drawing of any conclusions from these responses.

To place the individual child in a Primary French or non-Primary French category he or she was asked to say if they had learned some French before going to their secondary school and

if so how long they had learned it. A last open-ended question gave them an opportunity to express what they liked and disliked about the French they had had in the Primary School. There were limitations on the size of the questionnaire which prevented any more questions being included, for example it would have been useful to include a question to determine whether the child had been to France or not (this was one of the questions on the NFER questionnaire and the fact of having visited France correlated well with more positive attitudes towards French - Burstall, 1970, pp. 104-106). The importance of this last question was not appreciated at the time of the construction of the questionnaire as the NFER work was not then available.

Administration and Scoring

The questionnaire in the form shown in APPENDIX II was sent to schools who had agreed previously to cooperate in the survey by replying to a general letter to all secondary schools. In County Durham (excluding Easington Excepted District) 68 out of 100 secondary schools returned the completed questionnaires in September 1970. The Havering questionnaires were returned in September 1971 by 14 out of 26 secondary schools. Within these schools the questionnaire was generally set to all first year pupils regardless of whether or not they had experienced Primary French or were about to learn French in the secondary school.

The teacher administering the questionnaire was asked to read out the following:- "This is not an examination. You will see that you do not have to put your name on the page. There are no right or wrong answers in what you are about to do. You will simply be asked to say what your own personal opinion

is about French. You may have learnt French at your primary school and got some impression of what French is like. If you have not done French this does not matter because you can use what you know and say what you think French is like when you answer the questions". School and sex were filled in and the teacher was asked to read the first 20 statements through before anything was written down. The children were asked to put one tick per statement and were told not to be afraid of ticking the 'Not Sure' box if they had no particular opinion. If they made a mistake they were to simply cross it out and put the tick in the correct box. With any children who could not read or experienced great difficulty in answering the questionnaire it was left to the discretion of the teacher to either withhold the questionnaire or to read each question to them and help in the answering. Post and packaging were provided for the return of the questionnaires to the Department of Education at Durham University.

This group-administered questionnaire produced over 8,700 individual questionnaires which had to be analysed. The initial scoring had to be completed by hand - any 'self-scoring' technique was ruled out by the age of the children or the existence of the free-response question. Once scored the questionnaires were punched onto 80-column cards ready for computer analysis. A description of the facilities and programmes used to check and analyse the data is to be found in APPENDIX V. The attitude scale was totalled for each pupil, individual school (secondary and primary); mean scores were extracted; an analysis of variance was carried out to determine any significant differences on the attitude scale with regard to the sex of the pupil and to previous experience of French; and a 'cluster analysis' technique

was used to examine the data more closely. The scale was also examined in relation to the subject preferences expressed and an index of 'views expressed' was built up. The results of this analysis will be discussed in the following chapter.

Validation and Assessment of Reliability

An attitude scale is always open to error on two counts. First of all the scale may not in fact be measuring what it is supposed to measure. This concerns the validity of the questionnaire. "For instance, a clock is supposed to measure 'true' time and to do so continuously. If it were to show the wrong time we would say that it was invalid". (Oppenheim, 1966, p.70) Secondly the scale might yield very different results if administered to the same respondents under the same circumstances - it might be inconsistent. This concerns the reliability of the questionnaire. If we return to the analogy with the clock - if it were sometimes slow and sometimes fast it would be referred to as unreliable.

Generally speaking if an attitude scale has excellent validity then it tends to be reliable also. "Sets of questions are more reliable than single opinion items; they give more consistent results, mainly because vagaries of question wording will probably apply only to particular items (and thus any bias may cancel out) whereas the underlying attitude will be common to all the items in a set or scale". (Oppenheim, 1966, p.73). The reliability of a scale can be assessed by a split-half correlation coefficient without having to ask the same questions, or in this case present the same statements more than once in supposedly identical conditions. Using this method (see Cronbach, 1949, p.67) with a small sample, a high reliability coefficient (over 0.9)

was obtained. As Oppenheim writes (1966, p.140) the reliability of Likert scales tends to be good and, partly because of the greater range of answers permitted to respondents, they are often more reliable than corresponding Thurstone scales.

Just as important, if not more so in the context of this study, as the technical reliability of the scale, is its validity. Validation can involve checking against a known scale, but usually if a scale of satisfactory validity exists, there seems little point in preparing another. "The difficulty of course is likely to be to find one existing well-validated scale". (Evans, 1965, p.29). The NFER evaluation of the Pilot Scheme included the administration of a questionnaire to the first and second cohorts in the summer terms of 1967 and 1968 (Burstall, 1970, ch.3). This was not published when the present attitude scale was developed but was available in time to provide a basis for validation.

The NFER questionnaire had certain disadvantages which prevented its use for validation as it stood. Instead of a five category Likert response pattern it simply asked for a Yes/No response from the children. This in itself was not a major problem although it meant that the NFER questionnaire was not strictly comparable but the main difficulty was that the 38 items in the NFER questionnaire included a number of items which could not have been answered by pupils who had no experience of Primary French and in some cases by any pupils who had not followed the specific courses usually associated with the Pilot Scheme. Three examples of inappropriate statements were:- "Speaking French is easier than reading and writing French"; "I get bored repeating words over and over again in the French lesson"; "I am better at French than at

other subjects". It was possible, however, to extract 20 questions from the NFER questionnaire which did refer to a general attitude and which did not require previous experience of Primary French. These statements were incorporated with another question on the original NFER questionnaire which asked the children to say how they felt about French and provided four possible answers by which to express their feelings (1. I like French; 2. I like French most of the time; 3. I only like French some of the time; 4. I don't like French) - the final 20 questions of this questionnaire are given in APPENDIX VI. The NFER used the additional question to classify the subsequent answers but in the context of the present validation procedure it furnished a second, independent assessment of the children's attitudes.

The two questionnaires (referred to below as DURHAM and NFER) were completed by a total of 139 pupils in four classes in three junior schools according to the following pattern:-

Class 1 (with experience of Primary French)

NFER followed by DURHAM

Class 2 (with experience of Primary French)

DURHAM followed by NFER

Class 3 (without experience of Primary French)

NFER followed by DURHAM

Class 4 (without experience of Primary French)

DURHAM followed by NFER

The results were scored and punched (NFER on the basis of 2 for a favourable attitude towards French, 1 for a negative attitude; DURHAM on the same 1 to 5 basis with 5 the most favourable; the NFER additional question was scored 1 to 4 with 4 as the most favourable). A standard correlation

programme was used in the computer analysis which yielded the following correlation matrix.

	1	2	3
1	1.0000		
2	0.6080	1.0000	
3	0.6585	0.6045	1.0000

Key 1 = DURHAM attitude scale; 2 = 1 to 4 classification of attitude on NFER questionnaire; 3 = 20 questions extracted from the 38 items on NFER questionnaire.

Table 4.1 Correlation matrix between three measures of attitude

The correlation between 1 and 3 is quite highly significant for attitude questionnaires. The correlation between the 4-category response and the other two questionnaires is not so high but still significant. A rough but fairly acceptable assessment of attitude could probably have been found by simply asking for a response along the lines of the 4-category multiple-choice question (2 in Table 4.1), but greater validity would seem to be found in a larger number of questions.

The attitude scale, constructed along the lines laid down by Likert, would thus seem to be a sufficiently reliable and valid instrument for measuring the attitude towards French in school of ten and eleven year old pupils. The results can thus be approached with the required degree of confidence.

V - RESULTS

Strictly speaking the inferences drawn from the Durham and Havering samples are applicable only to the population actually tested. However, the population may be seen as representative within certain limitations, even though it was not the result of systematic random selection. Reference will again be made to the limitations of this sample in the concluding chapter but at this stage it would not be unreasonable to assume that the data collected is a fair representation of the expressed attitudes towards French in school of ten and eleven year old pupils in County Durham and the London Borough of Havering.

Non-Response

"... non-response is not a random process; it has its own determinants which vary from survey to survey. We cannot overcome this problem entirely, but we can partly prevent it by sending out several suitably worded reminders and partly allow for it by ascertaining the nature of the bias".

(Oppenheim, 1966, p.34)

In the present survey the influence of non-response was regarded as an important factor in the correct interpretation of the results. Non-response fell into three categories:-

(i) by heads of schools in the two areas who chose not to cooperate in the survey; (ii) within schools which did cooperate, by classes who were not given the chance to complete the questionnaire; (iii) by specific questions on the questionnaires which were missed out for a variety of reasons.

(i) In Durham 68 out of 101 secondary schools cooperated

and in Havering 14 out of 26. This situation seemed to involve factors beyond the writer's control. Heads were not asked to specify why they did not wish to participate and most did not state any reason. A few simply stated 'French not taught' - perhaps assuming that French had to be taught in the school for the questionnaire to be completed, and this in spite of an introductory letter stressing that this would not have excluded them. Bearing in mind that in a number of 'modern schools' French was not taught in Durham (reported in D.E.S. questionnaire, see p. 60) it is not surprising therefore that 'grammar schools' were much better represented than 'modern' and 'comprehensive schools' (in County Durham most schools are referred to simply as 'secondary' but at the time of the survey this still veiled a traditional and selective distinction). 17 out of 19 grammar schools are included in the survey as opposed to 51 out of 81 'modern' or 'comprehensive' schools. 25% of the schools in the sample were grammar as opposed to just under 19% in the County as a whole. In Havering a much better balance was achieved where approximately 25% of the schools were grammar or grammar-technical in both the sample and in the whole of the Borough.

(ii) It would appear from the numbers of questionnaires returned that in most schools all first year pupils filled in the questionnaires as suggested. In one case a headteacher only gave the questionnaires to those in the first year who were to take French since he felt that the other children might feel that they were being discriminated against. A number of classes were possibly left out through pressure of time or other activities but this does not seem to have occurred frequently, as far as can be judged.

(iii) The computer programme NTOTALS was used to calculate the proportion of questions in each school which were not completed. This proportion ranged from 0% to 36.215% in schools in Durham and from 0% to 19.788% in schools in Havering. The overall mean non-response rate in Durham was 8.835% of all questions and slightly lower in Havering at 7.922%. The complete list of non-response rates in the schools is reproduced in APPENDIX VII but if the 'grammar' were separated from 'modern and 'comprehensive' (referred to as 'other' in Table 5.1) and the groups combined, the following results emerged:-

	Grammar	Other	Overall Mean
Durham	4.355%	10.546%	8.835%
Havering	3.388%	8.747%	7.922%

Table 5.1 Non-response rates in grammar, other and all schools.

Non-response often appeared to be due to carelessness or perhaps confusion and it may be that this would have been partially avoided by using heavier black lines to separate the response 'boxes' of each question. The other factor which seemed to emerge was that a number of classes had a markedly higher rate than other classes in the same school. This could have been due to a difference in ability or to the fact that one class had been given less, and insufficient, time to complete the questionnaire than another class. More noticeable than these two points was the clearly marked ability of the grammar

school pupils to work more efficiently and probably more quickly through the attitude statements than the pupils of the other schools. When the questionnaires were scored a mean score was computed which was based on the statements actually responded to, in an effort to avoid penalizing the slower or less able children and not to weight the sample in favour of responses from grammar school pupils. There has therefore been an effort to minimise the biases introduced by non-response but this factor must be allowed for as conclusions are drawn from these results.

Mean Attitude Scores by School

APPENDIX VIII gives the mean scores on the attitude scale for each school as a whole and for four different groups within each school (Primary French and non-Primary French boys and girls) together with the numbers involved in each category. Each scale was scored out of a possible total of 100 (5 x 20) but this cannot be regarded as a percentage since the lowest possible score on the scale was 20 (1 x 20). A 'neutral' attitude would thus be represented by a score of approximately 60 (3 x 20). The overall mean for pupils in the two areas was 69.915 - Havering (70.086) was slightly but not significantly higher than Durham (69.867). The total mean scores for the four categories in both areas are as follows:-

	Durham		Havering	
	MS	N	MS	N
BF (Boys with French)	65.215	2226	65.999	693
B (Boys without French)	68.296	1156	67.169	249
GF (Girls with French)	72.988	2258	73.545	678
G (Girls without French)	74.236	1172	74.294	288

Table 5.2 Mean scores and numbers of four groups in two areas.

From Table 5.2 it is evident that Boys have scored lower than girls; that pupils, within their respective sex, tended to score lower with Primary French than without it; and that pupils in Havering scored higher than Durham pupils in three out of four of the groups. A simple tabulation of this nature does not, however, prove that there is any statistical significance in these differences. To do this a further analysis was required.

Mean Attitude Scores: Analysis of Variance

The technique known as 'analysis of variance' is widely used in experimental work to compare means and to establish the significance of one or more factors presumed to be acting upon those mean scores:- "Multiple-factor analysis of variance is a statistical model for testing the consequences of manipulating two or more independent variables in a single research design. Each independent variable (factor) will have two or more levels. The F-ratio is the statistic used to conduct the appropriate hypothesis tests in multiple factor designs. Significance tests among different levels of each factor are known as main effects. Whatever effects are due solely to the combination of factors are known as interaction effects". (Williams, 1968, p.111)

In this present investigation a two factor analysis of variance was required since two main variables were being investigated - the sex of the respondent and previous experience of Primary French. The mean scores and numbers involved in each of the four groups was set out above. It now remains to be seen how far the differences in mean scores can be regarded as statistically significant.

ANOVA: DURHAM

	df	ss	F
Sex	1	72036.820	317.896
Experience	1	7178.855	31.680
Interaction	1	1287.165	5.680
Residual	6808	1542726,238	

ANOVA: HAVERING

	df	ss	F
Sex	1	20682.435	93.707
Experience	1	353.707	1.603
Interaction	1	17.095	0.077
Residual	1904	420238.727	

Table 5.3 Analyses of variance for Durham and Havering with two factors

DURHAM:- comparing F-ratios with the upper tail of F-distribution, with 1 and infinite degrees of freedom (Table 18 in Biometrika), we find that 'sex' and 'experience' of French are highly significant (much better than 0.1% for which $F = 10.83$). The whole interaction is significant at somewhere between 2.5% and 1% which is not very much with this quantity of data. Since interaction is effectively zero, it can be concluded that boys and girls are affected in a similar way by previous experience of French such that with Primary French they scored lower on the attitude scale than without any such experience. In addition calculations were made to establish 99% confidence intervals. The differences due to sex were 5.965 and 6.875, while the differences due to previous experience of French were 1.18 and 2.652. The difference between the scores of boys and girls were therefore highly significant - boys scoring lower

than girls. The difference between the scores of Primary French and non-Primary French pupils was highly significant statistically but small in real score terms by comparison with the sex difference.

HAVERING: comparing F-ratios with the F-distribution as in the Durham analysis above, we find that critical values of F are 10.828 at 0.1% and 3.84 at 5%. So in the Havering sample only sex is really important and that is very significantly so. The 99% confidence intervals are:- sex = 7.34 ± 3.90 ; experience = 0.96 ± 3.90 . So in Havering the girls scored higher than the boys but, unlike the Durham sample, the difference between the means for Primary French and non-Primary French pupils was not statistically significant.

Length of Primary French Experience

Each child who had done French before was asked to say for how many years he or she had learnt French. The following Table 5.4 gives the mean scores on the attitude scale for pupils according to the number of years of Primary French they had experienced. The slight differences in the numbers of pupils involved as compared with the preceding analysis stems from the fact that non-response to this question did not imply non-response to the general question asked about Primary French - some children said they had had Primary French but did not then go on to specify the number of years involved.

DURHAM	BOYS		GIRLS		ALL PUPILS	
	N	MS	N	MS	N	MS
Less than 1 yr.	485	65.870	524	72.671	1009	69.402
About 1 yr.	505	65.472	540	73.069	1045	69.398
About 2 yrs.	602	65.504	554	73.695	1156	69.430
About 3 yrs.	359	63.453	390	73.727	749	68.803
4 yrs. or more	102	63.119	114	73.287	216	68.486

HAVERING	BOYS		GIRLS		ALL PUPILS	
	N	MS	N	MS	N	MS
Less than 1 yr.	146	65.463	140	72.946	286	69.126
About 1 yr.	178	66.345	191	75.000	369	70.825
About 2 yrs.	273	65.364	265	72.783	538	69.018
About 3 yrs.	74	67.893	69	73.733	143	70.711
4 yrs. or more	19	66.474	13	72.438	32	68.897

Table 5.4 Mean scores for pupils grouped according to years of Primary French

These measures of length of experience were treated as five groups and then a straightforward analysis of variance was performed on the figures in Table 5.4 - the results for Durham only are reproduced below.

ANOVA YEARS OF PRIMARY FRENCH: DURHAM

	df	ss	F
Between groups	4	362	0.382
Residual	4470	1118862	
Total	4474	1119224	

Table 5.5 Analysis of variance of the length of Primary French in Durham.

The F-value in Table 5.5 is very insignificant, it does not even exceed 1 so that there is no evidence that scores on the attitude scale vary according to different lengths of time spent in Primary French - which is fairly evident from the mean scores as they stand. Looking at the figures for Havering it was obvious, without further analysis, that there was even less evidence to suggest that length of experience made any difference to the attitude score. It is worth remembering that an added imprecision in these figures would possibly be generated by the difficulty that some children might find in recalling the exact length of time they had studied French.

Mean Attitude Scores and Primary School Factors

The questionnaire to headteachers (HDTOTAL in APPENDIX I) was designed to provide a background to this study but it was thought to be useful to attempt some linking up of HDTOTAL with this main questionnaire and in a simple way attempt to distinguish any factors in the Primary School background which might have influenced the mean attitude scores of the children. This process was necessarily fairly crude since not all of the children had stated the name of their Primary School and not all of the Primary School headteachers had returned their questionnaire. Therefore even if any association were to be discovered, it could not be seen as significant unless further investigation were carried out - but at least it would give a clue as to some of the areas where further investigation might be fruitful. Four factors were chosen as the most suitable - the religious affiliation of the Primary School, the type of housing from which the pupils came, the courses used and the

category of teacher who taught the Primary French. These factors are compared with the mean attitude scores of the pupils involved in Tables 5.6 to 5.9 and then all the Tables are discussed below.

	Durham		Havering		All Pupils	
	N	MS	N	MS	N	MS
Non-denominational	2637	69.173	831	71.162	3468	69.621
Church of England	232	67.524	48	73.723	280	68.590
Roman Catholic	202	73.035	77	67.841	279	71.602

Table 5.6 Mean scores on attitude by denominational basis of schools

	Durham		Havering		All Pupils	
	N	MS	N	MS	N	MS
Mostly council estates	609	70.413	120	71.630	729	70.655
Private and residential	397	70.423	474	70.219	871	70.315
Council and private	1434	68.585	379	68.681	1813	68.598
Council, private and substandard	517	65.865	-	-	517	65.865
Substandard (& council	62	76.374	-	-	62	76.374
Other	72	65.368	-	-	72	65.368

Table 5.7 Mean scores on attitude by housing groups of pupils.

	Durham		Havering		All Pupils	
	N	MS	N	MS	N	MS
Class teacher	1729	67.187	403	71.523	2132	68.005
Specialist on staff	1187	67.103	570	68.552	1757	67.629
Visiting teacher	117	70.979	-	-	117	70.979

Table 5.8 Mean scores on attitude by category of Primary French teacher.

	Durham		Havering		All Pupils	
	N	MS	N	MS	N	MS
En Avant	921	68.360	55	69.494	976	68.414
Bonjour Line	354	69.499	874	69.987	1228	69.735
Bon Voyage	1003	68.454	-	-	1003	68.454
ITV	550	69.325	-	-	550	69.325
BBC	30	69.269	83	71.032	113	70.591
Other	1004	69.079	442	68.885	1446	69.020
Own material	331	66.932	44	67.916	375	67.046

Table 5.9 Mean scores on attitude by Primary French courses used

Table 5.6 showing the religious affiliations of schools does not give any clear information except it confirms an impression that Roman Catholic schools in Durham produced a

good number of children with favourable attitudes. Table 5.7 showing the housing groups of the children (a very rough kind of socio-economic index) would not appear to suggest that children from private and residential housing areas have markedly more favourable attitudes - rather that the more favourable attitudes are associated with uniform types of housing - 'mixtures' tending to score lower. The figures for substandard housing areas are very small but the score is very high - which may simply be a function of the limited size of the sample. Table 5.8 showing the category of teacher of Primary French can only show a distinction between class teacher and specialist on the staff (in some cases the same teacher could be classed as either) as the 'visiting teacher' figures are again too small for valid conclusions to be drawn. It would appear though that the class teacher produces very slightly better attitudes than the specialist on the staff. Table 5.9 showing the courses used in Primary French would merely suggest, and no more, that the television course tended to produce favourable attitudes and that Bonjour Line also tended to produce more favourable attitudes than 'En Avant' or 'Bon Voyage'. Own material came off worst although the figures are very small. The general conclusions from these figures are predictably disappointing and, as has already been stressed, suffer from fundamental weaknesses in the sample employed. The operation will have been justified if they suggest further lines of investigation.

Mean Attitude Scores and Subject Preferences

The children were asked to choose two out of thirteen school 'subjects' which they most liked and the following

Table 5.10 gives the overall rank order of each subject with the number of 'votes' cast for each one. In addition the mean score on the attitude scale for the pupils in each category is given. Table 5.11 gives the same information but four groups are involved - Boys with French (BF), Boys without French (B), Girls with French (GF) and finally Girls without Primary French (G).

DURHAM:	ALL PUPILS			BOYS			GIRLS		
	R	N	MS	R	N	MS	R	N	MS
Art	4	1230	66.987	3	623	63.801	5	607	70.257
D.S.	5	1192	70.674	12	56	68.731	2	1136	70.770
English	6	1041	72.283	8	291	67.731	4	750	74.049
French	3	1233	81.277	7	400	81.127	3	833	81.348
Games	1	3530	67.193	1	2033	64.681	1	1497	70.606
Geography	11	314	68.673	9	184	66.343	10	130	71.971
German	13	110	68.352	11	68	65.528	12	42	72.926
History	8	781	70.240	6	425	67.677	8	356	73.300
Maths	7	995	72.191	4	449	69.528	7	546	74.380
Music	9	751	71.447	10	177	66.547	6	574	72.957
Science	10	626	67.587	5	442	65.668	9	184	72.197
R.K.	12	139	69.863	13	48	66.262	11	91	71.763
Crafts	2	1387	62.554	2	1361	62.468	13	26	67.084

Table 5.10 (a) mean scores on attitude by subject preferences with rank order - Durham

HAVERING	ALL PUPILS			BOYS			GIRLS		
	R	N	MS	R	N	MS	R	N	MS
Art	3	382	66.480	4	153	61.255	4	229	69.971
D.S.	6	274	71.231	12	19	62.444	2	255	71.886
English	5	308	72.010	9	72	67.563	3	236	73.367
French	4	311	82.365	7	100	81.781	5	211	82.641
Games	1	967	67.675	1	523	64.146	1	444	71.831
Geography	11	117	70.232	8	77	69.352	10	40	71.927
German	12	46	67.743	11	35	65.959	13	11	73.420
History	9	195	72.690	6	104	70.327	8	91	75.392
Maths	8	252	70.603	5	142	69.052	7	110	72.606
Music	10	187	72.752	10	44	72.520	6	143	72.824
Science	7	259	69.009	3	190	67.282	9	69	73.766
R.K.	13	39	74.311	13	10	63.400	12	29	78.073
Crafts	2	383	63.846	2	352	63.125	11	31	72.042

Table 5.10 (b) Mean scores on attitude by subject preference with rank order - Havering

DURHAM	BOYS: BF		BOYS: B		GIRLS: GF		GIRLS: G	
	R(N)	MS	R(N)	MS	R(N)	MS	R(N)	MS
Art	3(429)	62.791	3(194)	66.035	6(389)	69.844	5(218)	70.995
D.S.	12(35)	63.846	11(21)	76.872	2(772)	70.154	2(364)	72.076
English	8(213)	66.846	8(78)	70.146	3(519)	73.564	4(231)	75.139
French	7(214)	81.812	4(186)	80.339	4(497)	81.528	3(336)	81.082
Games	1(1316)	63.416	1(717)	67.003	1(965)	70.627	1(532)	70.566
Geography	9(123)	67.242	10(61)	64.530	10(87)	71.402	10(43)	73.122
German	11(47)	63.795	11(21)	69.405	12(27)	74.720	12(15)	69.696
History	6(288)	66.822	6(137)	69.476	8(255)	72.595	8(101)	75.082
Maths	4(320)	69.536	7(129)	69.508	7(352)	74.162	6(194)	74.776
Music	10(111)	66.462	9(66)	66.690	5(396)	73.301	7(178)	72.192
Science	5(303)	64.244	5(139)	68.774	9(124)	70.980	9(60)	74.713
R.K.	13(31)	63.056	13(17)	72.107	11(57)	70.871	11(34)	73.259
Crafts	2(900)	61.144	2(461)	64.053	13(16)	65.449	13(10)	69.700

Table 5.11(a) Mean scores on attitude by subject preference in four groups - Durham

HAVERING	BOYS: BF		BOYS: B		GIRLS: GF		GIRLS: G	
	R(N)	MS	R(N)	MS	R(N)	MS	R(N)	MS
Art	5(104)	61.676	3(49)	60.360	4(169)	69.526	5(60)	71.223
P.S.	12(12)	58.536	11(7)	69.143	2(191)	71.880	4(64)	71.903
English	9(56)	66.867	8(16)	70.000	3(171)	73.441	3(65)	73.172
French	7(66)	81.140	5(34)	83.026	5(137)	83.627	2(74)	80.817
Games	1(395)	64.124	1(128)	64.213	1(304)	71.924	1(140)	71.631
Geography	8(62)	68.018	9(15)	74.867	10(34)	72.825	12(6)	66.833
German	11(28)	64.984	11(7)	69.857	13(5)	74.400	12(6)	72.604
History	6(74)	70.108	6(30)	70.867	7(75)	75.793	8(16)	73.508
Maths	4(116)	69.045	7(26)	69.082	8(72)	71.928	7(38)	73.890
Music	10(34)	71.349	10(10)	76.500	6(89)	72.333	6(54)	73.633
Science	3(148)	66.596	4(42)	69.699	9(60)	74.281	11(9)	70.333
P.K.	13(8)	65.625	13(2)	54.500	12(14)	77.308	9(14)	78.893
Drafts	2(240)	62.250	2(112)	64.999	11(21)	68.033	10(10)	80.462

Table 5.11(b) Mean scores on attitude by subject preference in four groups - Havering

In a simple study of the relative popularity of secondary school subjects at various ages, Pritchard (1935) was able to rank subjects then taught according to the expressed preferences of children aged $12\frac{1}{2}$ years. The rank order (p.162) of the subjects examined was:- Chemistry (1st.), History (2nd.), English (3rd), Geography (4th.), Arithmetic (5th.), Latin (6th.), Physics (7th.), French (8th.), Algebra (9th.), Geometry (10th.). These results bear little resemblance to Tables 5.10 and 5.11 but if the whole of his sample was taken (up to 16 years old) then French was 6th. for the boys, 3rd. for the girls and 5th. for all pupils (p.161). The latter result compares fairly well with the views expressed here - French was 7th. for the boys, 3rd. for the girls and 3rd. overall for Durham and 7th. for the boys, 5th. for the girls and

4th. overall for the pupils in Havering. Obviously Pritchard's range of subjects was different but bearing in mind that most pupils would not be able to learn German (which accounts for its low rank, to a large extent), the majority of the boys would not want to learn D.S. (although it is untrue to say that no boys in the sample had the opportunity to take Domestic Science) nor the girls 'Woodwork, metalwork or Technical Drawing' (Crafts) his work does give an element of comparison - perhaps even to suggest that the influence of completing a French questionnaire would not necessarily favour the French preference. Against this it must be admitted that French in a secondary school in 1935 was a far cry from Primary French in 1970.

In Havering French appears lower down the list than in Durham (Table 5.10) but the differences involved are small and centre largely on the closeness of the choices of the girls. The greater preference for French of those pupils with no previous experience of the subject is brought out in Table 5.11 and serves as something of a confirmation of the conclusions drawn thus far and an additional means of validation of the attitude scale. The rest of the rank orders of the subjects involved are of wider interest but beyond the scope of this thesis. The contrast between the patterns of choice of boys and girls should perhaps be seen in the light of research already referred to (Slee, 1968) where the influence of the so-called 'feminine image factor' is examined.

Turning to the mean scores on the attitude scale in relation to the subjects preferred, it was to be expected that children who elected for French as one of their two favourite subjects would have a high score on the scale. This is confirmed in the tables and is another useful check on the scale itself. Children choosing (in order of importance) English, Maths and Music in Durham and

R.K. (religious knowledge), History, Music, English and D.S. in Havering had mean scores over 71. Children who chose Crafts and Art in both Durham and Havering had mean scores below 67. This pattern differed somewhat between the sexes. In Durham boys who did not choose French had means which never exceeded 71 but in Havering boys choosing French or Music had means in excess of 71. As for the girls only those who chose Art, D.S., Games or Crafts in Durham and those who chose Art in Havering had mean scores below 71. Traditional assumptions about the arts-science split are not brought out by this data which is only to be expected at this age. Generally however a preference for non-academic subjects did seem to be associated with a lower score on the attitude scale. The small numbers involved in some of the categories help to explain some of the more surprising results - for example, 10 girls in Havering with no previous experience of Primary French scored a mean of 80.462 on the scale and selected 'crafts' while the same number in the same group in ^{Durham}~~Havering~~ had a mean of 69.700 (Table 5.11).

Open-ended Question: Additional Opinions

The questionnaire gave the children an opportunity to express their own particular likes and dislikes about French in answering an open-ended question at the end. These opinions were classified into certain convenient categories and an 'index' of these views on French was built up for both Durham and Havering. Whilst it is difficult to give a clear picture of the opinions expressed by the children it seemed in line with the purpose of this thesis to devote some space to giving as useful an impression as possible of many individual statements. An approximate impression of the numbers and proportion of questions within each category can be

found by referring to APPENDIX IX. The following limiting factors need to be remembered - firstly by no means all of the children expressed any view, children who did express an opinion were often allowed two classifications for their statements and the classifications are broad and essentially subjective. Within these limitations there are a number of things which emerge and these will be discussed under the appropriate category (codings in brackets). Within the space of this study it is obviously not possible to follow up the pedagogical implications of the statements made by the children.

Intrinsic novelty (02/27) The novelty value of French certainly figured in the children's assessment. French was a 'change' from English - with which some got a little 'fed-up'. French had a new 'feel' to it - some felt it was more 'polite' or 'well spoken' than English, others simply liked the sounds. The other main factor here was the pleasure at having a 'different lesson' or a 'change from other subjects'. Very few comments could be construed as being in any way against this novelty aspect of French but a few children did react against a new subject, found it 'childish' or just as uninteresting as other school subjects.

Utilitarian value (03/28) This emerged as an important basis for judging the value of French. It would 'come in handy', provide a 'strong basis and good start for the secondary school' or be used to impress parents. It was 'nice to know that if I met a French person I may be able to communicate with him or her to a small extent'. It was important to promote friendliness with our neighbouring country and pupils wanted jobs involving the use of French - working on board ship or as a music teacher for example. Travel abroad and visits to France emphasised the

usefulness of French to the children - one girl wanted to learn French because she had a French uncle. For some the utilitarian basis of French was the only reason left for persevering with the subject. Britain's entry into the Common Market was mentioned to back up the argument and it had the more general value of making it easier to learn other languages (Latin for example). On the other hand a number saw Primary French as irrelevant in terms of preparing you for secondary French as the approach was seen to be totally different. Not all of the French learnt was regarded as useful in a practical sense - one boy found he could not use words like 'house' when he was in France. Others commented that it was not really necessary to learn French as most French children learnt English and more particularly why learn French if you never go to France? Many of these comments, especially the more favourable ones display the direct influence of adults (perhaps teachers or parents) in their phraseology but also a characteristic logic which is familiar to teachers of this age group.

Rôle of the teacher (04/05, 29/30) This category embraced general (04/29) and more specific (05/30) reactions to the teacher of Primary French who quite clearly played a key part in establishing the attitudes of the children. Most noticeable were the adverse comments which heavily outweighed the favourable. It is perhaps to be expected that children readily see the teacher as an identifiable 'scapegoat' for their disillusionment and some element of personality clash was also evident:- 'I was very interested in French before we had a new French teacher and I could not get on with it with her'. There were children with experience of three or more different teachers who sometimes 'spoke differently' - other teachers 'kept on making mistakes'

it was alleged. The primary teacher was not 'professional' or a 'real teacher' as in the case of the secondary teacher and there was some reaction against the teacher 'spending too much time with the slow ones'. Staffing difficulties were touched upon - teachers absent for long periods, French 'missed out' for a time, and frequent changes of teacher. Some teachers were 'very hard' others 'too soft' in their approach, 'couldn't cope with the majority of the boys', weren't patient, 'shouted', 'lost their temper' or 'had favourites'. A change of teacher sometimes meant starting 'from the beginning again'. Native speakers came in for criticism, 'the teacher was a French woman who could not speak English and had no idea of where to start teaching us'. Even English speaking teachers were not free from this difficulty according to the children - 'the teacher was Welsh and I couldn't understand her'; 'my old teacher was Irish and she pronounced everything the wrong way'.

One girl crystallized what a large number had undoubtedly experienced when she wrote, 'I liked it because my teacher liked it' and some children simply stated 'I liked the teacher'. Helpful, considerate, capable or enthusiastic teachers were particularly praised: 'the teacher had learnt a lot of French herself and helped you if you were stuck', was just one favourable comment. It is clear that the teacher does have a central rôle in the development of attitudes towards French especially since the content and method categories which follow are largely manipulated by the teacher as well.

Oral work - listening and speaking (06/31) The most common feeling expressed in this category was a sense of frustration where the children could not 'understand' the spoken word. Persistent lack of comprehension in listening and, or speaking

was frequently noted - 'I could say French but cannot understand what it means'; 'I liked French at first but then what I did not like was that I did not know what I was talking about'. Sometimes this was due to factors such as moving to a new school or the pace being too fast ('they rushed it into me') but for one pupil other factors were to blame - 'I did not understand because I was not interested'. Confessions of lack of comprehension cannot always be taken at their face value - it is necessarily built into the early stages of the audio-lingual approach and this was made clearer from comments such as '... for instance our French teacher would say 'how are you?' and we would answer. But we did not know the meanings of the separate words in the answer '. This kind of comprehension was, of course, never intended by the teacher. Other reactions against oral work included the rejection of 'perfectionist' efforts to improve pronunciation: 'I did not like being pushed into getting the accent correct. You'll have to learn French for years to get it perfect.' Favourable comments pointed to the undoubted 'enjoyment' and sense of achievement that oral work gave and to a marked preference some children had for 'speaking' rather than 'writing'.

Reading (10/32) and writing (08/33) Some children had not reached the stage in their Primary French of reading or writing and those who commented were sorry that they had not. In one primary school lessons were arranged for those who wanted to learn to read and write and this was much appreciated. Writing received more attention than reading, both favourably and unfavourably. Writing was a help to some - 'I found French was easier when we wrote French down' or 'I would have preferred to write a little in French instead of just saying it because I remember

things better if I write them down'. Some children used their own spellings in their answers e.g. 'esy Ruth'. Orthography was a stumbling-block - 'French is an interesting language to learn but I don't like writing it down because all the silent letters get me confused'. Sometimes written and spoken French did not seem to link up so that 'I didn't know what I was writing' or 'it was very hard to associate the noises with the written words.'

Structural and grammatical elements (09/32) The favourable attitudes in this category usually arose where the classical 'grammatical approach' wasn't used and the children felt they would have preferred it but also where the progression seemed to be carefully planned - 'I liked the French I had before because we started learning the easy words and went on to the harder'. Unfavourable statements were a little more specific. There were children who felt that they were learning isolated words and not complete phrases - 'The French was not phrases but objects. I think this is very bad'; 'The teacher just taught us a few words which were useless without knowing how to speak the sentences'. Others reacted against the limited and simple structures learnt - 'In my previous French lessons all we learnt was Hello, Goodbye and our names. This is all we were taught in French everyday for three months. We could have done something more enjoyable. I hated every minute of French'. Finally, genders and to a lesser extent 'verbs' were sometimes seen as a problem - 'the thing I don't like is the masculine and feminine in French'. Comments in this category as a whole were surprisingly few from Havering by comparison with Durham - a point which is not easy to explain except perhaps in terms of the different distribution of courses used (see p. 69).

Memorising, pattern practice and repetition (10/35) The majority of the answers in this category were unfavourable - both towards the 'hard work' of learning, the repetition of pattern practice and towards the feats of memory involved. Typical of the distaste for repetitive practice are the following - 'The teacher did the same thing day after day saying that that was the way to remember it instead she made me sick of it. Too much routine altogether!'; '... it was boring and we had to repeat **everything** about ten times before the teacher was satisfied'.; 'I did not like going over the same thing time and time again because some people did not grasp it. Therefore it was very boring and I wanted to do something fresh and different'. The problems of memorising the material appeared quite regularly in the answers - parrot-fashion learning was felt to be inadequate because you didn't always understand what you were saying. The 'hard work' of language learning was understandably the least popular and it remains a challenge for the teacher to use pattern practice or drills in such a way that they are as 'enjoyable' as possible without there being a weakening of resolve in maintaining this vital element in language learning.

Exclusive use of French (11/36) The 'ban' on English which is often imposed in the Primary French classroom can be disconcerting - 'I didn't like the way the French teacher walked into the classroom and started to talk in French but soon I knew it was for the best'. Yet the opposite extreme is not welcome either - 'The teacher was always talking in English all the time and she never got round to say a word of French'. The oral approach with its questions in French and refusal to 'translate' was not always popular - 'I hated being asked questions that I didn't understand';

'I did not like the way the teacher did not believe in translating French into English'.; '...she did not explain what the words meant so it made it very boring'.

Visuals: filmstrips, films, pictures and illustrations(12/37,
13/36)

The comments showed considerable awareness of the range of visual aids available - one girl was not impressed with flannelgraph - 'At our junior school we did not learn much at all but that was because the teacher didn't have much equipment all she had was a big book with stick on articles'. Filmstrips provoked a large number of comments which tended to be more favourable than unfavourable. Children, some of whom did not like the teacher were keen on the filmstrip and felt it helped them a lot. One girl was impressed with the way the filmstrip held one's attention ('... it makes even rather foolish boys watch and get interested'.) and another with the speed of progression being carefully controlled ('I liked the film-strips because you had time to learn things'). The situational or cultural contribution of the filmstrip was much appreciated - 'I liked watching this filmstrip of some French children, it gives more idea how they live'). However the attraction sometimes waned - 'I think the idea of learning French from a projector was good because it was a novelty when you first had it but after a while it got a bit monotonous'. The impersonal nature of filmstrips was mentioned ('I'd like to have had a person teaching us French instead of French films') as well as some of the more practical issues e.g., 'we couldn't see them very well because we had no blinds'; 'we had films you couldn't see because we had no alternative to see it in the daylight', or 'you read off slides and you could not read them well'. Quite a common

criticism (often applied to 'Bonjour Line' when this course was adversely criticised) was that the content or illustrations were below the level which the children expected - 'the films we had, they were films for babies'. There were those whose comments were really about the speed of progression being too great - 'we had so many films shown to us by the time we had been shown one film we had forgotten the one before'. A remark which similarly contrasts with an earlier view is that the filmstrip 'distracts you' - although it wasn't made clear how it did this. Seemingly minor weaknesses were noticed such as the 'dark colour' of the filmstrip (weak projector bulb?). Some preferred a book - 'I think books are easier because with a film you have to keep it all in your head'. Failure of the projector was mentioned - by some as a pleasant relief in a lesson. It will be noticed that the children used the terms 'filmstrip' and 'film' interchangeably - this made it a little difficult to decide whether they were referring to filmstrips or to films (on the television for example) but it generally seemed to mean the former.

Tapes and tape-recorders (14/39) Often associated with comments on filmstrips the opinions in the statements of this category were evenly divided. For one girl the tape recorder was a bright spot in a dismal picture - 'The French I had in my other school was very boring. The French only sounded good and interesting on a tape', for another 'it made the lesson more lively'. For one boy the teacher had almost been eclipsed by the machine - 'I learnt French in my junior school through tape recorder and a filmstrip. There was a teacher to help us along'. One or two children had special reasons for not liking the audio-visual approach - 'The bit I did not like was a tape and film,

they both gave me a headache'. More often the tapes were criticised for being too 'fast', 'indistinct' or 'muffled' - '... on the tape the talking was quite fast and you couldn't hear what was being said'.

Television (15/40) Here again there was a fairly even division of opinion. 'At my last school we had French from the television. It was very good as it showed us not only the way French people talk but also how they live'. But the programmes needed careful preparation by the teacher - '... we had television programmes which didn't explain what it was about before the actual programme'. The inflexibility of television lays considerable responsibility on the teacher to follow programmes up - '... each week it was something different so we never had time to practise the words we learnt the previous week'; 'A man came on the television and said a word and we repeated it and we never had a chance to have that same lesson again'. The passive rôle of the child before the television screen (or before the projected image) did not appeal to all children - 'I did not like to watch French on television because you sat all the time'.

Projects, games, songs, 'playlets' and reading material (16-20/
41-45)

The most frequent references in these categories were to games and songs and playlets - and they were generally favourable. Games or songs were frequently the one redeeming feature of Primary French. For some however (boys in particular) singing was not to their taste - 'I did not really like it because we spent nearly all the time singing'. Acting in playlets or 'situations' provided enjoyment for some - 'I liked it when we had to command other people to do things' - but made others self-conscious. Drawing and reading together with project work were not referred to as

much as might have been expected - games, songs and playlets then dominated the stated interests.

Lessons: length (21/46) and frequency (22/47) Naturally enough some children felt happy with 'lessons' or 'periods' of French in terms of their length and frequency but a lot more did not. 'The lessons were little and often which meant that you did not forget what you had learnt previously'. One girl thought that five minutes per day was enough as it began to get boring after that. For others however the arrangement was more flexible - 'When we had spare time we learnt French'. One day a week was not enough for one child - 'from one week to the other people forgot the previous week's work and we had to go over it' or another 'we did not have lessons very often so we often forgot the French we had learnt the time before. When it came to the lesson we went straight on, which made it very difficult'. A number of others disliked the 'irregularity' of the lesson - 'one week we had it one week we never'. Sometimes this infrequency was seen as a reflection of the importance of French - 'At my old school it was not considered a very important subject. We had about one lesson every week and hardly learnt anything'. 'I didn't like it because we got it at odd times and it was rushed'. Others felt that more French might have made them interested. The place of French on the timetable was not always well received - 'The thing I did not like about French was that the teacher always decided to come in while I was doing my best subject'; 'I didn't like French because we had French every day before dinner'.

France (23/48) and the French (24/49) School trips were recalled to France and Belgium - usually favourably - 'I learnt a lot of French because we had a Paris trip'. There was not very much individual reaction to France as a country. There was more

towards the French people - either those who had been encountered in this country or abroad or else imagined - 'The French I had before was nice because every week or two weeks our French teacher used to bring a French friend of hers and asked us some questions': 'What I like about French is the way they talk and act politely'; One boy approached the issue in the following way - 'I have not had any chance to hate the French because I have not seen many French'. 'Last time we had French it was on a film and it was a bit babyish. I did not like it very much but now I have met some French friends and they have learnt me some French'. There was very little evidence in the answers of the 'stereotype' Frenchman but probably the limited time and space prevented this from emerging on this question.

It is hoped that these examples have given a clearer impression of some of the specific comments made in the questionnaires. Many of these comments raise important issues but cannot be pursued without deviating from the central purpose of the thesis.

Cluster Analysis: The Technique

At this stage the most important results of the survey have been set down already but the difficulty with the preceding summary is that it is not easy, with so much data and so many variables, to gain a clear but broad impression of the way in which the questionnaires were answered. In an attempt to look at the data in a different and more informative way a technique known as 'Cluster analysis' was used.

"The simplest way of conceptualising this approach is to contrast it with factor analysis. The basic aim in factor

analysis is to condense many variables into a few factors which summarise the inter-relationships between the variables in a parsimonious manner. Variables which have elements in common are replaced by a factor. In cluster analysis people whose profiles of scores are similar are grouped into clusters to describe types of individuals. Thus, a cluster of people is analogous to a factor derived from a series of similar tests". (Entwistle and Brennan, 1971, p.268). Clustering procedures usually start by comparing the profile of scores from a single individual with every other individual. Individuals with similar profiles are put together and by an iterative process the size of the clusters is increased while the number of individuals decreases. Cluster analysis has not been widely used in educational research until recently because computers have not been large enough or fast enough to cope with the task of comparing each individual with every other individual - particularly with large samples. Even now the majority of clustering procedures could not cope with samples of more than 500. However the 'K-means' procedure allows a matrix of data comprised of 875 individuals and 23 variables to be dealt with.

The 'cluster analysis' or 'numerical taxonomy' as it is sometimes referred to follows a similar sequence of steps to those used when we typify and classify intuitively. In the clustering procedure the decision rules are consciously separated and made explicit. Each fusion represents a further move away from the uniqueness of the individual so that unique and extraneous data are the first to be lost. As the level of abstraction increases the cumulative suppression of individual differences brings with it an 'error content' or 'loss of information'. As a result the wish for order and simplicity of the higher levels of abstraction

is balanced against the loss of information and error content. So an important question is 'How many clusters?' - and the answer is by no means clear. As with any classification or categorising process the purpose in mind has a vital bearing but this can be supplemented by statistical criteria. If one aims to keep the variation within each cluster down to a minimum (Ward's method) it is possible to see the point(s) at which relatively dissimilar groups are being forced together and accept the cluster classification before such action is taken. Of course the 'relative dissimilarity' is still a matter of judgment but in practice certain groupings do seem to make a marked difference in the cohesion of the clusters. (see Youngman, 1971, p.ii-iii).

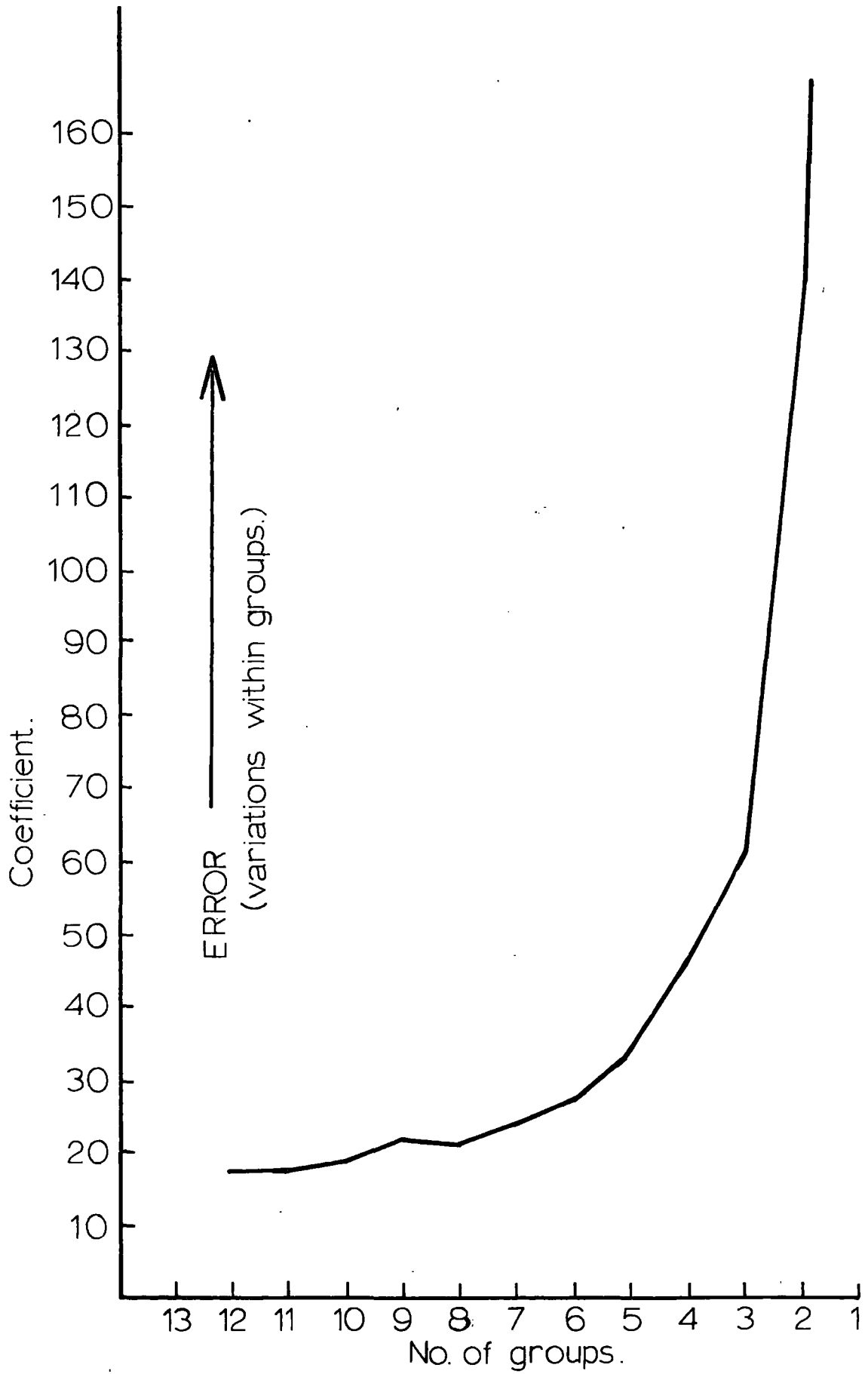
Cluster Analysis: Havering Data

The first stage in applying this technique to the data derived from the questionnaires, was to establish the most suitable number of clusters. The Havering data was used and 966 cases were sorted at random for the standard CLUSTAN programme (see APPENDIX V) An initial random grouping of 13 clusters was systematically reduced to one terminal cluster. At each stage a measure or 'coefficient' of the cohesion of the individual clusters at the point of fusion was provided (the lower the figure the greater the cohesion) and are set out over the page.

The stage of excessive 'loss of information' was chosen at the point where 5 clusters were reduced to 4. This 'break away point' is seen a little more clearly in Diagram 5.1. Having selected these 5 clusters as useful 'types' of the data as a whole, it remained to examine the individual characteristics of each cluster. The cluster diagnosis of means, standard deviations

<u>CLUSTERS</u>	at	<u>COEFFICIENT</u>
13		-
12		17.062
11		17.542
10		18.340
9		21.758
8		21.320
7		23.281
6		27.048
5		32.903
4		44.934
3		62.249
2		139.021
1		533.352

and F-ratios enabled a comparison to be made between the clusters. Most distinction was evident on the basis of the questions in the attitude which were used as 20 of the variables in the analysis but sometimes other variables were involved. The 'distribution' and size of the 5 clusters is best appreciated diagrammatically (Diagram 5.2). The cluster analysis programme gave the variables in descending order of significance of F-ratios and as an approximate guide for the simple bar graph the T-values of the first ten variables within each cluster were compared to give the measure used on the horizontal axis. The vertical axis shows the number of individuals within each cluster. The most striking feature illustrated by Diagram 5.2, is the existence of a small but extreme and negative (or 'anti-French') cluster. This cluster (E) survived the next clustering process (when clusters ^C~~A~~ and ~~B~~ were fused) and was only finally absorbed into cluster ^D~~E~~ when

DIAGRAM 51Variations within clusters.

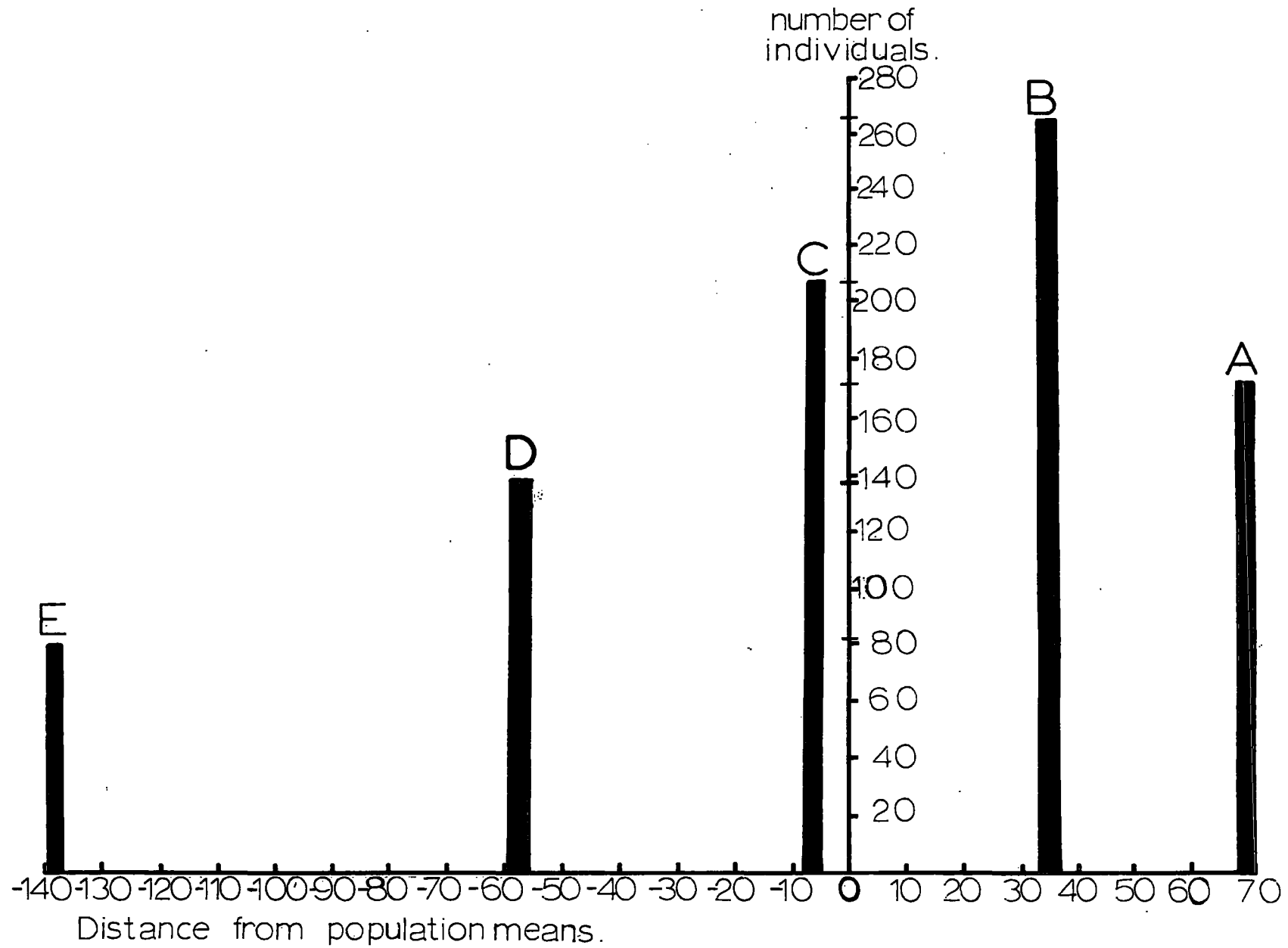


DIAGRAM 5.2

Distribution of clusters in HAVERING data.

3 clusters were formed. It is unusual that a small group such as this should be as stable for so long.

CLUSTER CHARACTERISTICS

(i) Clusters Above the Means (A, B)

Cluster A - 172 children This medium size group displayed the most favourable attitudes on the attitude scale - all T-values exceeded 0.5 for each of the 20 items. 17 variables gave F-ratios of less than 0.5 which emphasised the homogeneity of this cluster. In particular all felt that learning French was not a waste of time, that they would like to go on to speak French fluently and well. Most thought that French was a good language to learn and disagreed with the statement "Everyone in the world should learn English then I wouldn't have to learn French". Almost all were very interested in foreign languages and thought their families wanted them to learn French. This cluster showed the highest cohesion of all clusters on this last question about the family and it did appear that this variable was more clearly associated with strongly positive attitudes. On each of the 20 items their answers were favourable towards French. This cluster was significantly homogeneous over the question of previous experience - in fact 121 had had French before (a higher than average proportion) and 51 had not. It is significant that at the most favourable extreme previous experience of French was linked with pro-French attitudes. This was a group with a bias towards girls - 104 girls and 68 boys.

Cluster B - 263 children This cluster was the largest and yet was still fairly homogeneous, having 15 variables with F-ratios of under 0.5. All these variables were from the attitude scale

but it is important to note that not one T-value exceeded 0.5. That is to say that the means of the cluster were higher than those of the population but not much higher - certainly not nearly as positive as cluster A. Individuals tended to score '4' rather than '5' on the attitude items which indicated a marked but not strong pro-French feeling. They thought that French is a good language to learn, that they would like to go on to speak French fluently and well but disagreed with statements like "I think learning French is a waste of time", "I don't really see why we should learn French", "It seems daft really to learn French as you probably will never have to use it" or "If you get a job which does not involve French, all your lessons will have been wasted". In fact one characteristic of this cluster which was not as evident in cluster A, was that individuals tended to disagree with anti-French statements (e.g. items 4,6, 14, 13, 2, 7,9) rather than to agree with pro-French statements. It also appeared that they tended to be united on their attitude towards items which were linked with the more utilitarian value of French. There appeared to be no special influence from previous French in this cluster and the sexes were distributed in much the same way as cluster A - 111 boys and 152 girls.

(ii) Clusters Below The Means (C,D,E)

Cluster C - 208 children This large group was fairly amorphous - only 2 variables had F-ratios of under 0.5. In this cluster all the T-values were below 0.33 and hovered about the population means - a mixture of positive and negative values but tending towards the negative when viewed overall. This group was largely the product of the fusion of two out of six clusters when the 5 cluster pattern was being established. The two variables with

lowest F-ratios were items 4 and 5. They did not agree that French is a waste of time and they did think that French is a good language to learn - but they weren't very strong in this opinion. Generally speaking the cluster accounted for the largest number of 'Not Sure' responses as well as mildly positive ones. This cluster is not really negative in its attitudes although just below the population means, and is best seen as somewhat neutral. It consisted almost equally of boys (103) and girls(105) and there was no 'previous French' factor significantly involved.

Cluster D - 138 children An 'anti-French' cluster but the most amorphous and broad-based group of all five clusters. There were no F-values below 0.6 but on the other hand there were 17 variables with T-values larger than 0.5 (but negative) which showed a considerable tendency to be lower than population means. Scores on the attitude scale tended to be widely distributed but more often than not were '3' ('Not Sure') or '2' (mildly negative). They seemed prone to disagree with pro-French statements (items 8, 11, 16, 3, 20, 5 for example) - cf. the reverse phenomenon in cluster B - but it was not easy to 'characterise' this cluster with any accuracy. More boys (89) were in this cluster than girls(49) a tendency which previous results have associated with negative attitudes towards French.

Cluster E - 81 children The resilience, stability and extreme anti-French position of this cluster has already been commented upon. It is characterised by very high (and negative) T-values - every one of the items on the attitude scale were variables with T-values in excess of -1.0. However the cluster was not as homogeneous as clusters A or B - only 5 variables gave F-ratios of less than 0.5. The children typically did not want to go on

to speak French fluently and well, they did not like French as something new to learn, nor did they think French is a good language to learn. Given the choice they would not have French lessons and they agreed that French should not be taught to young children because they do not understand it well. The sex variable was important - 60 boys and only 24 girls were in this cluster, but the previous experience of French had little or no bearing on the structure of this group. Once again more boys than girls were associated with negative attitudes towards French.

Cluster Analysis: Durham Data

A less extensive clustering process on the larger Durham sample with 999 cases randomly selected produced the following coefficients along the same lines as the procedure for the Havering data:-

<u>CLUSTERS</u>	at	<u>COEFFICIENT</u>
9		-
8		18.907
7		22.421
6		34.367
5		42.185

In the Durham sample considerably more 'loss of information' was involved when 6 clusters were reduced to 5 than in the equivalent cycle in the Havering data. It was therefore decided to analyse the Durham data on the basis of 6 clusters which had the additional advantage of enabling similar data to the Havering data to be viewed from a slightly different angle. The distribution and size of the 6 Durham clusters is shown diagrammatically as clusters U to Z in Diagram 5.3 - in order to distinguish these clusters from those in Havering, A to E. U and V were in fact

the two clusters with the greatest affinity and were largely fused in the next cycle which produced a 5 cluster pattern. Bearing this in mind the picture is very much the same in both sets of data clusters with one negative cluster well below the population means. But the 6 cluster arrangement shows that a positive and almost equally extreme cluster exists in this data (Durham) at an earlier stage in the process.

CLUSTER CHARACTERISTICS

(i) Clusters Above the Mean (U,V,W,X)

Cluster U - 131 children This fairly small but very pro-French cluster occupies the most favourable extreme of all six clusters. All 20 items on the attitude scale gave T-values in excess of 0.5 (15 in excess of 0.8). The group was distinctly homogeneous as 15 variables gave F-ratios of less than 0.5. Most typically the individuals in this cluster agreed that they would like to go on speaking French fluently and well, thought that French was a good language to learn but disagreed with the statements "I think learning French is a waste of time" and "Everyone in the world should learn English then I wouldn't have to learn French". They agreed that they would like to learn all they could about France and were "very interested in foreign languages" - and so on. Previous experience of French appeared to have no influence on the formation of this cluster but, just as with cluster A, agreement with the question "I think that my family want me to learn French" was a factor uniting this group. There were considerably more girls in this group (85) than there were boys (46) - again not unlike cluster A.

Cluster V - 274 children This, the largest cluster corresponds

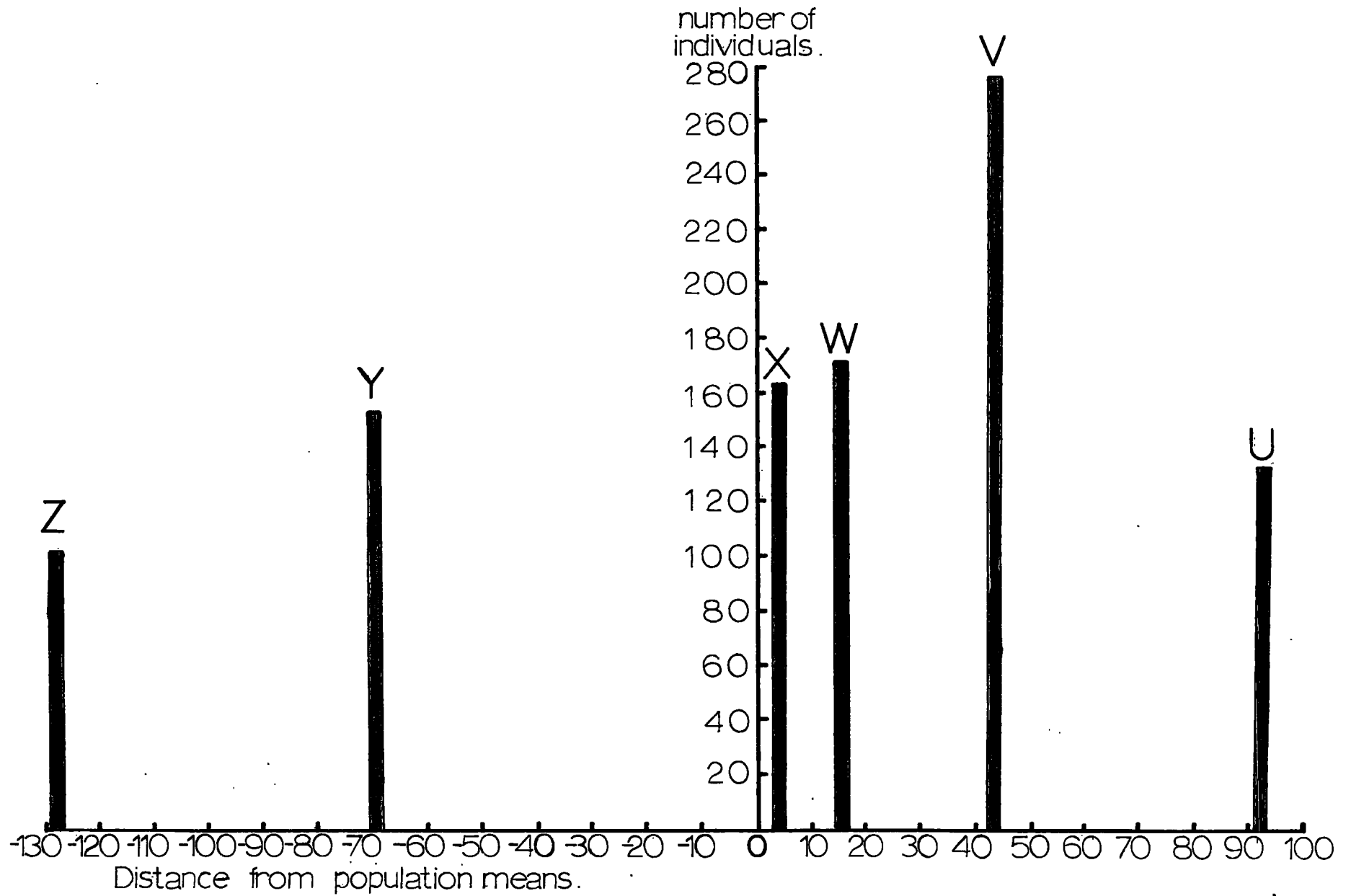


DIAGRAM 5.3 Distribution of clusters in DURHAM data.

quite closely to cluster U in structure but not in extremes of attitude. It was, if anything, a little more 'closely-knit' than cluster U (16 variables with F-ratios below 0.5) and all the variables which united it most were from the attitude scale. There were only 4 variables with T-values just in excess of 0.5 i.e. positive but not so much as cluster U. There appeared to be no marked tendency to disagree with anti-French statements rather than to agree with pro-French statements. They agreed that French is a good language to learn but disagreed with the view that learning French is a waste of time. They also rejected the statement "We have a language of our own and I don't know why we don't just use that" but agreed with "I would like to meet a French person and listen to him or her talking" and "I like French because it is something new to learn". They disagreed with "It seems daft to learn French as you will probably never have to use it" and with "I don't really see why we should learn French". In many respects therefore this cluster was a less extreme reflection of group U. The sex balance was a little more even but still weighted in favour of the girls (167 - boys, 107). The fusion of clusters U and V would have produced a very large cluster (about 400 - some would be taken out in the re-allocation process) which would have been about mid-way between clusters A and B on the Havering sample. Evidently the 'loss of information' would be involved in sacrificing for the fusion of two very similarly structured groups the 'truer' picture of a wider distribution of attitude types above the mean. It is becoming apparent that positive attitudes tend to be more uniform than the negative.

Cluster W - 172 children This fair sized cluster had a mixture of low T-values which were positive and negative, but the variables

which were the most distinctive (F-ratios over 0.5) all had positive T-values except for one (-0.043: item 5). Respondents in this cluster tended to score higher than average in rejecting the statements "We have a language of our own and I don't know why we don't just use that", "I don't really see why we should learn French", "It seems daft really to learn French as you probably will never have to use it", "I think learning French is a waste of time" and "If you get a job which does not involve French, all your French lessons will have been wasted" as well as "Everyone in the world should learn English then I wouldn't have to learn French". Additionally they were slightly below average but still generally accepted the statement "French is an important subject". This cluster, then, was united in a marked tendency to disagree with the anti-French statements rather than to agree with the pro-French statements on the scale. It is interesting to find a group orientated so clearly in this direction and in this they parallel the cluster B of the Havering data. The distribution of the sexes in this cluster is fairly heavily weighted in favour of the boys - 104 boys and 68 girls (coincidentally the exact reverse of the distribution in cluster A).

Cluster X - 162 children It is possible and instructive to make a comparison between this cluster and cluster W since although this cluster is slightly smaller the distribution of the sexes is reversed - 94 girls and 68 boys - and weighted in favour of the girls. Cluster X is firstly a lot more diffuse than cluster W - only 2 variables gave F-ratios below 0.5. It is even closer to the population means with positive and negative T-values rarely exceeding 0.3 (Item 13 "If you get a job which does not

involve French all your lessons will have been wasted" had a T-value of -0.6337). The two variables which stood out as most distinctively answered by this group were items 11 and 5 on the attitude scale. The pattern of scoring (1 - anti-French; 5 - strongly pro-French) for these items and items 2 and 6 (the most distinctive of cluster W are reproduced below showing how many individuals scored in each 'box'.

Item 11: "I like French because it is something new to learn

	1	2	3	4	5
X	0	2	31	106	23
W	5	40	50	71	6

Item 5: "I think French is a good language to learn"

	1	2	3	4	5
X	0	2	16	112	32
W	2	10	44	107	9

Item 2: "We have a language of our own and I don't know why we don't just use that"

	1	2	3	4	5
X	17	43	40	58	4
W	1	7	18	125	21

Item 6: "I don't really see why we should learn French".

	1	2	3	4	5
X	5	18	65	67	7
W	0	4	26	120	22

Table 5.12 Distribution of scores on four variables for clusters X and W

The distribution of scores on the four variables in Table 5.12 illustrate the points made in describing each cluster. A careful examination of the figures will show the contrasting nature of the two cluster types X and W on the variables which characteristically unite them best. Both are quite close to population means and only slightly pro-French in their attitudes. It may be that the domination of cluster W by boys and of cluster X by girls is a significant factor in this pattern but the data is a little too limited to be conclusive.

(ii) Clusters Below the Mean (Y, Z)

Cluster Y - 158 children This cluster compares closely in size with cluster D in the Havering data. Cluster Y is also the most amorphous cluster of the Durham data - only one F-ratio is less than 0.5 (0.4945). There is once again a dominance of boys (98) over girls (60). Of the first 10 variables which typify this cluster 9 were identical to those of cluster D although the order was somewhat different which is to be expected bearing in mind the lack of homogeneity of these clusters. The variable means were similarly below those of the population - 16 variables had

T-values in excess of 0.5. Precisely the same tendency to disagree with pro-French statements (items 8, 20, 18, 5, 11, 16, 3) rather than to agree with anti-French statements was noticed.

Cluster Z - 102 children Once again there is a similarity between a Durham cluster and its Havering counterpart - this time cluster E. Clusters Z and E are of comparable size and sex distribution (79 boys: 23 girls) is close to that of E (60 boys: 21 girls) with perhaps a tendency for there to be more boys in the Durham group. It is also just as extreme and stable as cluster E. Cluster Z like cluster E is homogeneous but not so much as the most positive clusters (U and V in Durham; A and B in Havering) - again only 5 variables gave F-ratios of less than 0.5. The basic similarities are reflected in the list of these 5 unifying characteristics - except for one important exception. The 5 variables with F-ratios of less than 0.5 are given below for both clusters (item numbers refer to the questionnaire APPENDIX II)

CLUSTER E (Havering)

Item 20

Item 11

Item 5

Item 8

Item 7

CLUSTER Z (Durham)

*Previous experience

Item 11

Item 20

Item 8

Item 2

Table 5.13 Distinctive variables of clusters E and Z

The sex variable is equally important in each case but Table 5.13 shows the unmistakable influence of previous French on the scores of this cluster. The exact numbers show that 75 pupils had already learnt some French in cluster Z while only 27 had not - the comparable figures for cluster E were 59

with French and 21 without - i.e. indicative but not as striking as in cluster Z.

The anti-French attitude types may not have been as homogeneous or uniform as the pro-French types but Durham and Havering data produced two groups which were similarly constituted.

Summary

This further analysis of the data, following a broader, more 'typological' approach, has sought to isolate certain features of the response patterns in the questionnaire. The distributional characteristics of the clusters in each set of data can be most easily perceived by reference to Diagrams 5.2 and 5.3. They are of interest for their similarity. The subsequent cluster analysis has shown much more 'uniformity' of opinion in pro-French attitude clusters than in the anti-French clusters. The analysis went some way to confirm and clarify the results of the analysis of variance. Girls predominated in the pro-French clusters, boys in the anti-French. The influence of past experience of Primary French was not marked except in the case of the extreme pro-French cluster A in Havering where the large majority had had Primary French and in the cases of the extreme anti-French clusters E and Z (particularly in the Durham Z cluster where it was the most important single unifying feature) they again had above average exposure to Primary French. In addition to these results there appeared to be a more noticeable tendency in the middle range clusters (both fairly pro-French and fairly anti-French) for respondents to disagree with statements which were contrary to their attitude rather than to agree with statements which agreed with their generally pro- or anti-French attitude. The unique cluster W

in the Durham data with more boys than girls demonstrated this trend particularly vividly in association with an attraction towards the more 'utilitarian' kind of items. Further conclusions from the data would seem to be unjustified but the cluster analysis technique has shown itself to be a most helpful method of clarifying results derived from large blocks of data with many variables involved.

VI - SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

It has been the purpose of this thesis firstly to show that the freedom which the teacher and individual school in this country currently enjoy in the area of curriculum innovation brings with it a responsibility for the outcomes of such innovation. There is a strong case for a more careful and systematic evaluation of the curriculum based on the clearer definition of objectives - and to involve the teacher and the local school in both of these activities to a greater degree than at present. It has been suggested that the intuitive judgments commonly made about the curriculum should, as far as possible, be given an objective and verifiable form. The evaluation of classroom practice against a set of objectives can help to show what is being achieved but it can also lead to an economy of effort and a realistic pursuit of attainable goals.

Within the context of Primary French the definitions of objectives lack the required clarity and precision and it has not been within the scope of this investigation to provide such objectives. Rather it has attempted to evaluate the success or failure of Primary French to achieve some of the general 'aims' which have been assigned to it in the particular field of attitudes. The rôle of attitudes has been shown to be important not only in effective language learning but also within the context of the wider purposes of British primary education. Calvert (1965, p.85) summarises most of the main attitudinal objectives which are seen as relevant to Primary French:- "We should expect them to have an interest in France and the French ... and we should hope that this 'apprentissage' would leave them with a wish to learn more French and more about the French, and at a later stage,

other languages and something about other countries".

The evaluation of the Pilot Scheme for Primary French has gone a long way towards supplying the necessary assessment which has long been lacking and although it is still, at the time of writing, incomplete, there has been a thorough investigation of the attitudes of the children in the Pilot sample. There remained, however, a number of questions unanswered. The Pilot Scheme was conceived in such a way that it dealt only with Primary French carried out under comparatively 'ideal' circumstances. Outside the Pilot Scheme many primary schools teach French and the variations in the nature and quality of the teaching are enormous. In addition the Pilot Scheme evaluation has not concerned itself with a comparison between the attitudes of children with experience of Primary French and those without. It was towards an investigation of these two aspects of the problem that the present study was directed.

By use of a number of different means, which included the survey HDTOTAL (see APPENDIX I), the background to the Primary French in two local education authority areas was established. This background was essential to the interpretation of the results from the main attitude questionnaire (see APPENDIX II) which contained a twenty item attitude scale. The two areas in which these questionnaires were administered were County Durham and the London Borough of Havering. Ideally a properly constituted, random sample from both authorities would have been used but in order to give the investigation as wide a basis as possible, an attempt was made to involve the whole year group of pupils moving from the primary into the secondary schools in Durham in 1970 and in Havering in 1971. In practice this was far from achieved and it is therefore important that the limitations of

the samples used be appreciated. The question of non-response is discussed above (pp.112-115) as well as the measures taken to minimise its effects. Additionally it was found that in Durham the children from primary schools which did teach French were over-represented by comparison with children from schools which did not (p.66) and it may well have been that the children in the Durham year group were, in general, poorer than average in their attainment (if we are to accept the assessment by their headteachers, p.70) although the headteachers thought that the children did not seem to be any worse than usual in their attitudes towards French. Havering did not show either of these characteristics but differed geographically (urban and not an urban-rural mixture) and probably in its socio-economic structure (see pp. 64-65) These limitations of the samples used, do detract from the conclusions which can be drawn from the results of this research but they do not invalidate them and as long as they are borne in mind it would not be unreasonable to proceed with a reasonable degree of confidence. To these sample errors must be added the conceptual difficulties inherent in the term 'attitude'. This term has been defined already for the present purpose (p.92) but it has been defined for the purpose of measurement and there is a danger of giving a spurious impression of exactitude merely through the use of a measuring instrument. Attitudes are customarily (though not invariably) measured as a point on a continuum but this is not to suggest that this constitutes the sum total of the 'attitudes' involved nor that the results are 'exact' representations of the true situation. Rather the approach adopted has been just one of a number of alternatives - all of which could have thrown different light on the subject and modified or explained the results obtained here.

The main conclusion from the results (ch. V) is that Primary French in the two areas under consideration does not appear to improve the attitudes of children towards French. In Durham the difference between the Primary French and the non-Primary French children was statistically significant - the Primary French group scored lower, demonstrating a worse attitude towards French than the non-Primary French group. This picture was repeated in Havering but the difference did not reach statistically significant levels. However, it did not follow that the longer a child studied Primary French, the worse his attitude became - no significant trends could be detected at this point in the analysis. It should also be emphasised that the differences displayed in all these cases were, even when statistically significant, not particularly large in 'real' terms.

The second, and far more evident, trend in the results was for the girls to score consistently better than the boys and thus demonstrating considerably better attitudes - this was regardless of their previous experience of Primary French so that girls in the Primary French group scored higher than the boys and similarly with the non-Primary French group. These findings which are in accord with other research (p.40) are most convincingly accounted for by the better performance of girls on attainment tests. Attitudes appear to be closely related to attainment in Primary French (see p.48) and the girls probably benefit from greater maturity and an advantage in verbal skills. Hutt (1972, pp.121, 124) qualifies this advantage as being more noticeable in the executive aspects of language - reading, writing, spelling and so on - rather than in terms of verbal reasoning where they no longer have the advantage over boys. If we accept the evidence that girls possess a greater facility for rote memory which Hutt gives then the girl would seem well placed

to do well in Primary French since at this early stage in language learning these are the very qualities which are of most benefit - with the consequential effects on attitudes. Other factors would also need to be taken into account if the findings were to be examined further.

Apart from the observation that a preference for non-academic subjects is associated with poor attitudes towards French, and similar, less statistically reliable results, the main conclusions from a closer look at the patterns of attitudes displayed came from the 'cluster analysis'. A number of 'types' of response to French have been suggested - five in the case of Havering, six in the case of Durham. The detailed characteristics of each 'type' need not be re-stated (see pp. 145-148) but in general it was found that the pro-French 'types' are likely to be more uniform in their attitudes and show similar recognisable features. The anti-French 'types' are much more mixed in their reactions to French but can be, if anything, even more extreme than the pro-French. The middle range of reactions to French where attitudes are much less clearly defined tend to adopt a pro-French or an anti-French pose but often do so more by disagreeing with statements which run counter to their general attitude rather than agreeing with statements which express an attitude in line with their own. In other respects the 'cluster analysis' confirmed the main conclusions of the study - girls predominated in the pro-French clusters or 'types' and boys in the anti-French. Whilst it is true that the majority (and in one case the significant majority) within the extreme anti-French 'types' had previous experience of Primary French the fact that the significant majority of the most positively pro-French 'type' in Havering had also had Primary French goes some way to explain the nature of the difference

between Durham and Havering and to qualify the conclusions to be drawn. It suggests that in some cases at least, Primary French can create or maintain extremely positive attitudes towards French - as well, of course, as extremely anti-French attitudes.

How can these attitudes be improved? This study has not sought to identify the factors within the Primary French teaching situation which are apparently creating the discrepancies in attitudes towards French. A number have been suggested but an intensive experiment would be needed to produce any conclusive evidence and it is certain that a whole range of factors in complex interrelationship are at work. In principle, however, all the techniques relevant to learning anything are relevant to learning and changing attitudes:- "Attitude change depends not just on knowledge, but on many other factors, including the person who is presenting the knowledge, how this person is perceived, the form in which the knowledge is given, the circumstances of delivery, the manner of presentation, the conditions and affiliations of those receiving the knowledge and the function that knowledge might perform in serving the needs of the recipients". (Halloran, 1967, p.61). The inference from this is obvious - the influence of the teacher will be paramount. If the teacher is informed of the effects of his teaching on the attitudes of the children he is one step nearer to modifying the situation. It may be that the main attitude questionnaire used in this research could equally well be used in a more limited classroom context as an instrument of evaluation to provide some of the information required.

Yet the teacher cannot control the wider organisational problems which became evident in the course of this thesis (ch. III) and which concern continuity, in all senses of that term, between

the primary and secondary school. Such continuity may well be only possible within a system where French is taught in every primary school. Under such circumstances, which admittedly are at present far from being widespread, it would seem advantageous to set certain realistic goals or targets for all primary schools, so enabling secondary French courses to build properly on the Primary French foundation. The example of East Sussex demonstrates that, at a price, such an arrangement is a practical possibility. For most local education authorities with many other spheres of concern as well as Primary French, such an ideal will be viewed as simply a long-term possibility. Early decisions by local authorities can often influence the future direction and quality of Primary French as has been shown by the historical perspective on its development afforded in chapters II and III above. If we are to exploit Primary French to its full potential, in respect of attitudes as well as of attainment, it would seem to be imperative that its development, no matter how long-term, be approached in a much more systematic way than at present. Unless this is appreciated we risk prolonging the present unsatisfactory situation with its attendant waste and frustration. Primary French, just as any other aspect of the curriculum, needs to be introduced as the result of gradual and planned change - change that involves more than 'jumping on bandwagons', change that is grounded on systematic thought and realistic evaluation.

APPENDIX I

- 2 -

5. From what kind of housing does your school draw the majority of its pupils?

Mostly from council estates _____

Mostly from private housing and residential area _____

From a mixture of council housing and private housing _____

From a mixture of council housing, private/residential housing and substandard housing _____

Mostly from an area of substandard housing (with or without some council housing) _____

From other (please describe below) _____

6. Is French taught in your school? Yes _____

No _____

SECTION B

7. At what age is French begun in your school?

5 _____ 6 _____ 7 _____ 8 _____ 9 _____

10 _____ 11 _____

N.B. The remainder of the questionnaire relates in particular to the children who will leave your school in July 1971, i.e., this year's 'top class(es)'.

8. What is the approximate size of the top class(es) this year?

Under 20 _____ 20 - 25 _____ 25 - 30 _____

30 - 35 _____ 35 - 40 _____ Over 40 _____

9. Is the year group 'streamed' by ability? Yes _____

No _____

10. Are all the children taught French? Yes _____

No _____

11. How many lessons of French do the children usually have each week? _____

12. What is the approximate length of each French lesson? _____
(mins)

13. Who teaches the children French?

Class teacher _____

French specialist on school staff _____

Visiting teacher _____

14. Which course is mainly used with the class(es)?

(1) En Avant (Nuffield) _____

(2) Bonjour Line _____

(3) Bon Voyage (Mary Glasgow & Baker) _____

(4) ITV _____

(5) Tavor _____

(6) BBC _____

(7) Other (please specify) _____

(8) Own material _____

15. If there are any arrangements between your school and a secondary school (or schools) to ensure some continuity of French teaching after the children leave your school, would you please describe them.

APPENDIX II

SCHOOL _____

BOY

GIRL

UNIVERSITY OF DURHAM

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Questionnaire on attitudes to French

Please read the following sentences.

When you have read them all, say what you think of the sentences one by one.

Do this by putting a tick in ONE of the boxes by the side of each sentence.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I am very interested in foreign languages.					
2. We have a language of our own and I don't know why we don't just use that.					
3. French is an important subject.					
4. I think learning French is a waste of time.					
5. I think that French is a good language to learn					
6. I don't really see why we should learn French.					
7. Everyone in the world should learn English then I wouldn't have to learn French.					
8. If I had a choice I would have French lessons.					
9. I would rather have any other lesson than French.					
10. I would prefer to learn a different foreign language to French.					
11. I like French because it is something new to learn.					
12. I like the way French people talk.					
13. If you get a job which does not involve French, all your French lessons will have been wasted.					

APPENDIX III

Pilot Surveys: Sunderland Comprehensive School

The following are the answers to the question "What do you think are the attitudes of First Year Secondary pupils to learning French if they have experienced Primary French?". Six teachers of nine classes gave answers for each class they taught.

"50% of the pupils found junior French boring, but enjoy lessons at Secondary School. Others enjoy both, only two preferred the audio-visual approach to the text book* used at secondary school. Pupils with some knowledge of French were more confident at the beginning of the term, but with this class there is now no significant difference in attitude or ability. One child made the comment that sometimes she gets bored because she has heard it all before, but most seem to take pleasure in being able to answer so easily, and being able to work quickly".

* the school used Mark Gilbert: 'Cours illustré de français'.
(University of London Press, 1968)

"A small amount of French is of value in giving the children a taste of the new subject. However, a long period spent learning French is liable to induce boredom. People in their 'fifth year' of the subject, whilst being very self-confident, have lost interest. They also have a superior attitude to their peers who have not previously studied the subject."

"Improved attitude - bolsters self-confidence due to facility and speed of progress. Some 'novelty value' has worn off in four or so cases."

"Difficult to generalise. Many of them did not enjoy French

at all in Junior School but do enjoy it now. Those who have done Primary French certainly have more confidence than the others and therefore enjoy it more. But there are quite a number who, having done Primary French, come to us with a 'dislike' of the subject".

"Many feel that they are revising something that has already been learnt. This with the poorer ones may help to increase their confidence. But the ones who haven't done any French before are by no means lacking in confidence and are as good as the others".

"Depends upon the course they have followed and how well they have been taught. Generally speaking, enthusiasm tends to be diminished; most of them did not enjoy Primary French and have developed a dislike of it before they come to us. But those who have been taught well are keen and enthusiastic, and have clearly learned a lot at the Primary level".

"Those who have studied it are certainly brighter, especially from one primary school, but they are so small a minority in this group that they have not influenced the class a great deal".

"Amongst these less intelligent children, having done French before seemed to improve attitudes. Of 15 who hadn't done it before, only 1 likes it now. Of 10 who had, 3 liked it in junior school, but 9 enjoyed it now".

"15 pupils in all. 4 have 'done' French - all 'like' French (1 preferred French at Primary School). Remainder:- 9 are happy with French, 2 don't like the subject - 1 finds it difficult to 'say', the other finds it just too 'hard'".

Pilot Surveys: Ferryhill

The following are more general comments from four teachers

in the French Department of Ferryhill Grammar-Technical School.

"If Primary French can have the continuity into the secondary school that Nuffield has, then it is fine but if the children just learn about the weather and other odds and ends it does more harm than good. In one form of mine it had a bad effect as they tend to be less careful. Even with Nuffield the change to written work is difficult... If the Primary French is not carefully planned and coordinated with secondary French, you reduce the novelty of learning the language without gaining any benefits. With other subjects like Maths you lose the novelty but substantial benefits have been gained".

"The attitude is not so markedly different here at Ferryhill but at Farrington Secondary School in Sunderland I found that the pupils without French were keener... Two of the primary schools that sent pupils to Farrington, did not do French and two others did - but not properly. They had learnt numbers, objects etc. - all out of context. So the children were under the impression that they had done a lot of French and didn't take kindly to starting again. They couldn't express themselves, even in short sentences".

"Personally I have not found that the interest of the pupils is lost when they come to the secondary school. They have the compensation of a new school and a new teacher to arouse their interest. This interest seems to tail off in the third year but sometimes in the second".

"In Perth High School, Scotland, I found that during the first term of the first year, the children with Primary French (not audio-visual in this case - just the class teacher) thought they knew it all but by the beginning of the second term they were indistinguishable from the rest. We used the Longman's Course.

In the particular form I taught the children with Primary French tended to be even keener than the rest because they had a taste in the Junior School and liked what they had".

APPENDIX IV

SUMMARY OF RESULTS OF MAIN PILOT SURVEY: THREE GROUPS(i) Favourable Group

<u>FORM</u>	<u>% Favourable</u>	<u>% Neutral</u>	<u>% Unfavourable</u>
A.2	56	37	7
A.3	57	32	11
B.1	59	31	10
C.1	60	23	17
C.3	51	15	34
D.3 (*2)	45	39	16
E	68	18	14
J.2	50	44	6

(ii) Neutral Group

<u>FORM</u>	<u>% Favourable</u>	<u>% Neutral</u>	<u>% Unfavourable</u>
A.1	28	55	15
B.3	31	31	28
C.2	19	42	39
D.1	21	54	25
D.2	37	47	16
F.2	41	41	18
G	37	42	21
H.1	36	54	10
H.2	21	45	34
J.3	45	45	10

(iii) Unfavourable Group

<u>FORM</u>	<u>% Favourable</u>	<u>% Neutral</u>	<u>% Unfavourable</u>
B.2	20	32	48
F.1	26	22	52
I	18	32	50
J.1	15	30	55
K (*3)	8	38	54

*2 - second year class; *3 - third year class; the rest are first year.

APPENDIX V

X

Computing Facilities and Main Programmes

The Northumbrian Universities' Multiple Access Computer (NUMAC) is an IBM 360/67 machine with access facilities on the Durham University Science Site at the Computer Unit. Two software systems are used: the Michigan Terminal System (MTS) and the IBM Operating system (OS) and both systems were used in this research. Two kinds of programmes were used:- standard statistical programmes (of which CLUSTAN is a good example) and, more commonly, programmes written by the author specifically for the analysis required in this study. The main programmes involved are described briefly below.

DATA Before the data could be run in conjunction with any of the programmes it had to be stored. Initially this was done on disc storage which provides fast and ready access, but it created problems because of the MTS limitations on user file space. The data had to be stored under three separate numbers - three files of 45 pages each simply for the Durham data. As a result of this unsatisfactory situation it was decided to transfer the data onto magnetic tape which is slower in terms of access but allows much greater volume of storage.

CHECK This programme performed a simple check on all the data by printing an error message for any data which fell beyond certain prescribed limits. For example children who had said they did not have Primary French and yet said they had, say, two years of it at school were extracted and inconsistencies examined and corrected as far as possible.

VINDEX This programme gave simple listings for both sets of data of the numbers of the questionnaires containing the various categories of comments that the children made about French, so

that these comments could easily be located for comparison. In effect a dictionary of each category giving the school and pupil numbers was built up.

NTOTALS This was used to calculate the ~~means~~^{totals} (corrected where necessary for non-response to questions) for each pupil and to print out the ~~totals and mean~~^{corrected} on the attitude scale as a whole as well as the number and percentage of non-response for each of the schools in the two data sets and for each whole set.

MGPRINT Was primarily used to convert the data so that it was easily stored on magnetic tape but in addition it calculated the mean score for each pupil on the attitude scale, added this to the data and printed the data with the appropriate mean appended to the pupil's data.

VARMEAN Analysed the mean scores of the pupils according to the junior school which they had attended. The junior schools were placed in a rank order and then the means were calculated for the different lengths of time spent in Primary French.

ANOVA The analysis of variance procedure is a common statistical technique but the existing standard programmes did not appear to be suitable - they were usually too complex. A programme was therefore written which accomplished the calculations required printing out essential information as well as the final Anova Table so that the calculations could be verified.

TABULATIONS Various tabulations were made of the Durham data using the standard statistical programme 'DCL 14005' but these results were not used in the final analysis.

CLUSTAN The procedure of cluster analysis has been described in chapter V. The programme employed was IA version in Fortran (all other programmes except for the Tabulations were written in PL1) first issued in November 1969 by David Wishart at :

St. Andrews University Computing Laboratory. Mr. Youngman, then on the staff of the Durham Computer Unit, modified the programme slightly and supervised its runs. Cluster diagnosis and tabulations of the cluster characteristics were carried out by separate, fairly straightforward standard programmes.

APPENDIX VI

NFER QUESTIONNAIRE: VALIDATION

The NFER kindly allowed their Primary School attitude questionnaire (Burstall, 1970) to be used in the validation of the main attitude scale. The following 20 questions were used - the children were simply asked to signify agreement (by circling 'Yes') or disagreement (by circling 'No') to each statement.

1. I would like to speak many languages.
2. I am not interested in learning foreign languages.
3. I would like to go to France.
4. Learning French is a waste of time.
5. There are many languages which are more important to learn than French
6. Every year French gets more interesting.
7. I think everyone should learn French at school.
8. French is too difficult for me to learn.
9. I would like to meet some French people.
10. I think English is the best language.
11. I would like to make friends with some French children.
12. French will be useful to me after I leave school.
13. I would rather have learned another language instead of French.
14. There are many more important things to learn in school than French.
15. French is my favourite lesson.
16. French people should learn English instead of us learning French.
17. I think my parents are pleased that I am learning French.
18. I don't think I will ever speak French after I leave school.
19. I would like to go on learning French.
20. I think it is silly to learn French.

APPENDIX VII

NON-RESPONSE RATES FOR DURHAM AND HAVERING
(expressed as a percentage of all items)

DURHAM

<u>School number</u>	<u>% Non-response</u>	<u>School number</u>	<u>% Non-response</u>
1*	3.300	35	9.296
2*	3.427	36	15.057
3*	0.921	37	4.104
4*	3.056	38	2.708
5*	6.121	39	7.157
6*	3.158	40	7.330
7*	4.331	41	8.088
8*	3.633	42	5.000
9*	4.292	43	1.019
10*	1.667	44	8.902
11*	4.263	45	18.913
12*	3.740	46	10.000
13*	2.154	47	2.353
14*	8.953	48	2.143
15*	5.897	49	4.955
16	1.705	50	7.437
17	3.750	51	2.321
18	6.367	52	7.168
19	15.098	53	3.519
20	10.302	54	8.708
21	0.000	55	20.273
22	6.309	56	7.787
23*	1.021	57	16.648
24	0.000	58	10.784
25	10.588	59	14.167
26	20.278	60	34.074
27	14.094	61	26.989
28	13.058	62	9.821
29	13.293	63	29.949
30	27.556	64	17.701
31	36.215	65	14.787
32	5.000	66	5.300
33	3.934	67	9.375
34	3.346	68	7.209

* = grammar-type schools

<u>HAVING</u>	
<u>School number</u>	<u>% Non-response</u>
1*	0.000
2	3.158
3	7.171
4	8.000
5	9.975
6	10.047
7*	1.972
8	6.573
9*	4.891
10	19.788
11	11.192
12	6.386
13	9.559
14	4.368

* = grammar-type schools

APPENDIX VIII

MEAN SCORES FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN DURHAM

School	Total	BF	B	GF	G
	MS	MS(N)	MS(N)	MS(N)	MS(N)
1	70.081	67.196(44)	67.602(30)	73.939(39)	71.495(36)
2	70.668	70.688(42)	68.813(17)	71.392(41)	70.716(22)
3	69.365	65.666(44)	77.000(1)	71.194(63)	76.000(6)
4	69.500	63.013(44)	81.800(5)	72.560(74)	68.667(3)
5	72.747	67.248(39)	69.500(10)	75.206(40)	81.000(18)
6	78.169	76.223(32)	71.701(14)	81.481(54)	76.163(13)
7	69.684	66.561(47)	61.530(27)	73.001(47)	75.711(35)
8	67.988	61.527(35)	62.318(22)	72.861(44)	73.042(27)
9	68.534	66.155(55)	70.038(5)	72.140(50)	62.844(10)
10	75.302	70.287(49)	76.286(14)	79.201(62)	74.789(19)
11	68.309	58.033(36)	74.250(4)	73.630(46)	79.576(9)
12	73.322	69.908(44)	70.825(15)	74.592(51)	79.173(21)
13	78.160	76.990(12)	75.946(7)	79.385(13)	78.586(32)
14	70.013	63.929(30)	72.148(8)	72.590(38)	76.762(10)
15	79.353	71.448(23)	77.056(30)	83.354(24)	83.649(36)
16	77.864	74.063(16)	64.000(1)	81.667(24)	72.333(3)
17	68.388	- (0)	59.836(24)	- (0)	78.650(20)
18	67.409	64.665(68)	58.167(6)	70.420(73)	78.500(2)
19	63.314	62.938(30)	58.875(1)	63.632(19)	73.000(1)
20	63.286	59.778(67)	- (0)	67.949(47)	71.188(2)
21	51.037	46.931(29)	- (0)	56.375(24)	42.000(1)
22	73.594	66.690(27)	70.105(62)	80.078(33)	76.330(69)
23	71.678	67.371(62)	69.000(2)	75.378(75)	70.000(3)
24	74.538	71.833(12)	- (0)	78.083(12)	69.500(2)
25	65.307	57.455(47)	84.000(1)	72.380(49)	66.250(4)
26	71.330	60.422(4)	76.586(21)	83.200(5)	66.076(24)
27	72.834	66.900(30)	71.931(56)	76.122(22)	78.620(27)
28	70.292	66.327(26)	66.413(15)	73.324(37)	75.200(10)
29	69.374	64.194(51)	77.163(13)	72.352(41)	71.642(18)
30	76.164	70.666(20)	73.028(18)	77.011(28)	82.109(24)
31	72.933	70.938(20)	72.144(30)	74.309(18)	74.010(36)
32	60.593	62.969(4)	66.167(12)	53.667(3)	55.031(10)
33	56.698	52.647(29)	48.250(3)	62.310(26)	55.667(3)
34	62.507	61.471(51)	55.574(22)	66.291(37)	65.947(19)

BF = Boys with Primary French B = boys without Primary French
GF = Girls with Primary French G = Girls without Primary French

MEAN SCORES FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN DURHAM(cont.)

School	Total	BF	B	GF	G
	MS	MS(N)	MS(N)	MS(N)	MS(N)
35	74.147	71.515(38)	71.235(68)	77.760(43)	76.375(64)
36	73.361	68.729(18)	71.513(28)	75.746(14)	77.127(27)
37	58.446	55.444(27)	55.612(29)	66.467(23)	57.657(27)
38	57.943	54.667(9)	51.156(4)	63.091(11)	- (0)
39	66.153	59.167(6)	63.176(11)	66.477(19)	71.423(13)
40	64.560	59.722(33)	69.781(28)	63.333(25)	67.434(19)
41	65.236	55.365(32)	64.119(21)	71.674(41)	74.656(8)
42	67.261	61.000(21)	60.805(8)	77.210(11)	82.000(5)
43	67.097	66.128(23)	53.667(3)	67.805(24)	78.500(4)
44	75.095	67.938(56)	76.550(24)	78.662(52)	80.915(31)
45	66.993	58.200(5)	65.106(22)	72.164(8)	71.000(11)
46	55.315	72.063(4)	51.790(19)	- (0)	- (0)
47	68.613	63.909(35)	70.175(5)	74.308(26)	73.000(2)
48	68.414	63.974(61)	72.083(9)	70.853(52)	74.576(18)
49	62.912	53.133(38)	67.173(11)	67.495(51)	65.823(12)
50	61.866	58.945(52)	64.000(11)	64.973(49)	58.455(7)
51	72.147	67.741(7)	80.000(3)	75.745(12)	66.167(6)
52	69.680	67.156(58)	65.192(42)	74.283(38)	74.527(33)
53	69.553	66.082(52)	66.029(15)	75.123(32)	77.429(7)
54	68.519	66.528(22)	68.429(15)	71.653(40)	61.833(12)
55	68.393	61.550(5)	66.997(21)	76.398(8)	68.365(18)
56	54.863	56.757(34)	69.000(2)	51.247(23)	50.094(2)
57	58.235	55.148(35)	63.844(14)	60.406(26)	56.442(15)
58	67.817	61.502(26)	72.750(4)	77.175(15)	68.500(6)
59	63.554	65.535(18)	62.068(24)	- (0)	- (0)
60	69.359	- (0)	- (0)	67.722(34)	72.286(19)
61	72.670	68.744(42)	85.000(4)	76.799(28)	72.664(8)
62	69.287	62.589(33)	76.278(9)	73.143(32)	73.625(8)
63	68.664	67.078(12)	66.137(36)	67.933(15)	73.703(24)
64	72.589	70.899(95)	70.643(75)	72.901(86)	76.703(68)
65	75.850	74.921(23)	88.500(2)	75.671(22)	- (0)
66	73.144	66.400(20)	72.261(41)	75.775(15)	74.923(38)
67	65.386	71.125(8)	59.790(41)	75.789(8)	68.026(11)
68	72.796	67.712(109)	71.615(13)	77.202(116)	78.108(11)

BFV = boys with Primary French

B = boys without Primary French

GF = girls with Primary French

G = girls without Primary French

School	Total	BF	B	GF	G
	MS	MS(N)	MS(N)	MS(N)	MS(N)
1	76.261	74.261(23)	77.643(14)	76.138(29)	77.636(22)
2	70.136	69.735(90)	77.363(5)	-	-
3	68.229	62.424(73)	64.543(51)	74.459(89)	69.868(35)
4	68.286	65.887(56)	69.250(11)	71.035(36)	70.534(11)
5	62.733	57.073(87)	65.617(15)	66.998(77)	75.050(20)
6	67.691	68.002(91)	52.571(7)	68.336(112)	70.282(2)
7	76.061	70.884(47)	71.100(10)	80.963(40)	84.135(12)
8	76.834	-	-	78.301(50)	74.956(39)
9	72.171	67.180(42)	71.667(3)	76.594(42)	77.250(5)
10	75.111	-	-	76.381(55)	73.984(62)
11	66.063	61.256(41)	62.274(26)	72.216(42)	69.162(12)
12	71.508	64.288(41)	71.249(51)	76.601(37)	75.169(33)
13	75.823	73.712(61)	72.359(23)	78.001(59)	79.003(25)
14	62.974	62.317(41)	60.686(33)	77.125(8)	61.900(10)

BF = Boys with Primary French

B = Boys without Primary French

GF = Girls with Primary French

G = Girls without Primary French

MEAN SCORES FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN HAVERING

APPENDIX IX

LIKE				DISLIKE					
Durham		Havering		Categories		Durham		Havering	
N	%	N	%			N	%	N	%
880	-	300	-	01	26	748	-	266	-
375	8.4	173	5.1	02	27	46	1.0	10	0.8
170	3.8	57	4.5	03	28	51	1.2	8	0.7
94	2.1	21	1.7	04	29	126	2.8	51	4.0
69	1.5	11	0.9	05	30	222	4.9	65	5.2
163	3.6	40	3.2	06	31	493	11.0	130	10.3
16	0.4	7	0.6	07	32	23	0.5	4	0.3
63	1.4	14	1.1	08	33	98	2.2	27	2.1
110	2.5	2	0.2	09	34	158	3.5	8	0.7
28	0.6	1	0.1	10	35	362	8.0	118	9.4
31	0.7	6	0.5	11	36	119	2.7	65	5.2
28	0.6	1	0.1	12	37	13	0.3	0	0.0
268	5.0	179	14.3	13	38	112	2.5	83	6.6
99	2.2	35	2.8	14	39	106	2.4	32	2.5
110	2.5	11	0.0	15	40	90	2.1	21	1.7
29	0.6	0	0.0	16	41	4	0.1	0	0.0
317	7.1	39	3.1	17	42	61	1.4	5	0.4
92	2.1	27	2.1	18	43	25	0.5	6	0.5
30	0.7	7	0.6	19	44	9	0.2	3	0.2
38	0.9	7	0.6	20	45	35	0.8	1	0.1
3	0.1	2	0.2	21	46	22	0.5	13	1.0
14	0.3	3	0.2	22	47	107	2.4	41	3.3
28	0.6	11	0.9	23	48	2	0.1	0	0.0
17	0.4	6	0.5	24	49	3	0.1	1	0.1
186	-	59	-	25	50	145	-	50	-

Note: Percentage figures exclude the general categories 01, 26, 25 and 50.
For key to categories see over.

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGES OF VIEWS EXPRESSED:

CLASSIFIED UNDER 50 HEADINGS

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