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**LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
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The influence of knowledge about the language process
on the proficiency and attitudes
of adult learners
of French as a second language

Gyslaine Hunter-Perreault

A thesis

in

The Department

of

Education

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Arts at
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The Influence of Knowledge about the language
learning process on the proficiency and attitudes of
adult Learners of French as a Second Language

Gyslaine Hunter-Perreault

Adult students enrolled in elementary and intermediate levels of French as a second language classes participated in a study on the effects of their attitudes on second language proficiency. They were divided into three groups: an experimental group which received four treatment sessions, and two control groups which did not receive any treatment.

A pretest-posttest research design was adopted, and a test battery administered to measure students' oral proficiency, their attitudes towards the language learning process and towards the French-speaking community. Independent variables were treatment group, level of instruction, age, numbers of years in Quebec, and education level; and dependent variables were proficiency results and attitude variables results.

One-way analysis of variance and the Student-Neuman-Keuls test revealed significant differences between variables.

After treatment results showed that the proficiency of students in the experimental group was significantly better than that of students in the control groups. However, there was little discernible change in any of the students' attitudes. Given the significant differences in proficiency scores, the reason for the lack of change in attitudes may lie in the instruments used or the short period of time which elapsed during the research.

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Introduction

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When I graduated as a teacher I first taught at the High School level as a French specialist. Two years later I was teaching adults. It happened by accident, as was the case then for most adult educators in the mid-seventies, because of the rapid growth of registration in the various adult education departments. However, the following year I decided that this was what I was meant to be: an adult educator. During the next four years, both as French as a second language teacher and as second language pedagogical counsellor I met many adult learners and it seemed obvious to me that I had to think more and more of ways to help them learn better and faster. We had numerous informal discussions on how one learns a second language and I often had to deal with their beliefs on that topic, some true ones and some misconceived ones.

The present research has its origins in these conversations, to help the adult students of French as a second language in the bilingual community that is Montreal.

Second language research has been in constant evolution over the past twenty years. Much research has attempted to throw some light on the learning process

and on the various psychological and social factors involved in the learning experience.

Within the second language research, the factor of attitude has received ample attention. Attitudes have been mainly considered with regard to how they affect motivation to learn, and consequently the language acquisition process. The key definition of attitude is from Lambert and Lambert

An attitude is an organized and consistent manner of thinking, feeling and reacting to people, groups, social issues or, more generally, to any event in the environment. The essential components of attitudes are thoughts and beliefs, feelings or emotions, and tendencies to react. We can say that an attitude is formed when these components are so inter-related that specific feelings and reaction tendencies become consistently associated with the attitude object. Our attitudes develop in the course of coping with and adjusting to our social environments. Once attitudes are developed, they lend regularity to our modes of reacting and facilitate social adjustment. In the early stages of attitude development, the components can be modified by new experiences. Later, however, their organization may become inflexible and stereotyped, usually because we have been encouraged over long periods of time to react in standard ways to particular events or groups. As an attitude becomes firmly set, we become too ready to categorize people or events according to emotionally toned patterns of thoughts so that we fail to recognize individuality or uniqueness. Fixed/stereotyped attitudes reduce the potential richness of our environments and constrict our reactions. (Lambert and Lambert, 1973, from Lambert 1982:8-9)

Simply from common sense one would suppose that more positive attitudes would lead to better learning and vice versa. However, the experimental data were not all conclusive with this common wisdom. Gardner and Lambert (1972), Lambert and Klinenberg (1967), and

Lambert and Tucker (1972) found that positive attitudes were predictors of better proficiency, whereas Genesee and Hamayan (1980), and Savignon (1972) could not find a link between attitudes and proficiency.

The present experiment will look at the topic from a slightly different perspective. The first key difference is that this research will deal with an adult population as opposed to children or adolescents. More important, we will not only correlate second language competence with attitudes towards the other community, but also competence in the target language with attitudes and beliefs towards the second language learning experience itself.

We will speak of attitudes toward the community, and of attitudes toward the language learning process. With respect to attitudes toward the community, we will speak about the attitudes of our students toward the French community and of the attitudes of the French community toward the second language learner, as perceived by our students. We will also speak about desire for interactions with native speakers. With respect to the attitudes toward the language learning process, we will speak about self-perception of their knowledge of French, self-value, attitudes toward learning new items, and diversity of learning strategies. We will consider attitudes to be defined

according to the definition provided by Lambert and 4
Lambert (1973).

The topic of attitudes and second language learning is certainly an issue to consider within the Quebec socio-economic environment. In fact, research by Genesee (1982) has shown some shifts in the attitude pattern of French-speaking Quebecers towards their own linguistic community. These results suggest that there can be changes, major or minor, which are occurring in the way the linguistic communities of Quebec perceive themselves and each other.

In fact, the accession of the Parti Quebecois to political power in 1976, was perceived as major by a significant number of Quebecers. In addition, Bill 101, making French the only official language of Quebec, i.e., the language to be posted and the language of work in all areas, has imposed pressure on many adults who see themselves in the situation of having to learn French in order to get work or to keep it.

In our research, we will try to see if attitudes towards the French community will change, if attitudes towards the second language learning process will change, and if proficiency will improve as a consequence of four meetings with the students.

In those meetings, the learning process will be discussed, students will be given an opportunity to discuss their beliefs on this topic, and they will be given strategies to improve their mastery of French gender and of the French verbal system, two items so frequently pointed out by adult learners as being the most troublesome.

Like Gardner & Lambert (1972), and Genesee (1983), we expect to improve language proficiency as a result of our meetings. Common sense, adult education theory from Knowles (1984), and our own experience with adults learning French as a second language lead us to expect changes in the field of attitudes towards the learning process. However, given the short time-span of our research and the fact that we are dealing with adults, we know that chances are slimmer of finding changes in attitudes towards the community. Nevertheless we think that it is worth incorporating this component into the present research.

Literature Review

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The present research is concerned with the field of second language teaching and learning. It is a field that became increasingly active in the province of Quebec in the late '70s as a result of Bill 101. More learners, especially adult learners, were put in a situation where they had to learn French to find or keep their jobs. Here in Quebec, more than elsewhere but like other dual communities, for instance Belgium, language learning can become an emotional and passionate issue.

The reality of the fact is that this province is composed of 80% francophones and 20% anglophones. The incapacity to speak a second language may be a barrier, and was very strongly felt such by the English-speaking community particularly after the Parti Quebecois' access to political power in 1976.

The reciprocal can also be true. One would tend to think that unilingualism would also be a barrier to the French-speaking community by impeding their full participation in the life and culture of North America, of which Quebec is a geographical part. While this is another story, and is not addressed in the present research, it is another argument for a "rapprochement" between the two main linguistic groups of Quebec, however, this "rapprochement" is latent in our

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research. Trying to help adults be more proficient in French, and be more knowledgeable about the second language learning process, could help them feel more favourably about the French community.

We will try to focus on the evolution of the teaching of French as a second language as applied to Quebec, which follows more or less the evolution of the teaching of French as a second language elsewhere in the world. We will distinguish 3 major focuses in second language theories, i.e.: 1) before 1960: focus on grammar-translation; 2) 1960-1968: focus on teaching tools; 3) 1968 to present: focus on the learner.

Although much research has been done since 1950 in the field of second language teaching/learning, we perceive a need for the present research for various reasons.

First of all, it is a field in constant evolution and renewal. Therefore, what was written in 1950 is partially if not totally out-dated.

Secondly, many of the active teachers at various levels of our institutions feel a need for being in closer contact with the research and are looking for research that will answer their needs. They have experienced some disenchantment with the tools they have been using. The methods that were so promising in the sixties did not enable them to reach the goals that were set up. Being too busy with their teaching

occupations; many teachers lost the threads of new developments and were suddenly faced with situations they could not handle because they were not trained to face that kind of situation. Many teachers left University many years ago and being preoccupied with their work, were unaware of new research. The high degree of attendance and registration at various seminars and workshops recently offered for modern language teachers, especially in French as a Second Language, should convince us of the need for new developments from the teacher's perspective.

Thirdly, although much research was done, only a few studies were designed to make a synthesis of the field and most of them considered only one or two aspects of the language learning/teaching situation. For instance the concept of attitude, aptitude, age, motivation, interference, error analysis, needs analysis, comparative analysis, were among the aspects looked at, to name a few. Therefore, research that would put together new concepts in language learning and teaching, attitudes and adult education theory of learning, would make a significant and relevant contribution to the new practitioner as well as the experienced adult educator.

From what was said before, the reader should realize that the goal of the present research is not to invent

or create a new way of teaching or a new way of learning, but is a necessary first step in the process of evolution. Our purpose is to describe the present situation to the best of our knowledge as a evolution from the first school of thoughts in second language teaching, and from these considerations, try to draw future possible line of thoughts to the researchers and practitioners. These perspectives are conceived as issues open to discussion and do not pretend to be "the be all and end all" but surely of interest and valuable.

Before we step into the description of evolution of teaching methods we want to clarify the terminology. Throughout this research we will talk of second language as opposed to foreign language. A second language is considered to be the language used in the learner's environment, eg. French or English in the province of Quebec. We will also frequently use the following terms: (1) "native speaker" to refer to any person speaking a language as a mother tongue (in our context, mainly francophones), (2) "target language" to refer to the language the learner is learning (here mainly French), (3) "competence" to the ability to use a language in an appropriate way. Other terms will be used in specific context and they will be defined as they occur.

The present chapter is presented in three sections: an historical perspective of the teaching/learning of French as a second language; a review of the literature on attitudes in relation to second language learning; a review of the adult education theory and practice. These three sections explain the foundation to our research situation.

The historical perspective is important because it explains the situation as it was and as it evolved in the last thirty years. The students that took part in our research had, through previous learning attempts, dealt directly with most of the approaches mentioned. The topic of attitudes is also important since it deals with the frame of mind, so to speak, of the learner. The adult education contribution is also crucial, since it has been demonstrated (Knowles, 1984; Tough 1979) that adults have their own way and reasons for engaging in and going through an education project.

Second Language Teaching Learning Approaches

From the Linguist to the Learner

Before we actually attack the heart of the problem, we should define another fundamental pair of concepts, i.e., method and approach. Traditionally up to 1970, the term "method" was used to describe either a set of books, or a combination of books, filmstrips,

flashcards, audio tapes, etc. arranged together to enable the learner to master the language. "Method" was used to indicate also the strategy used with the provided materials, i.e. the methodology. "Voix et Images de France" is a good example.

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At the 1970 Northeast Conference, Nelson Brooks introduced the term "approach" to replace "method" which was perceived to be too restrictive, too narrow and too limiting. This is why we have used "approach" in the present research. "Approach" refers more to how to teach rather than with what we should teach.

1. Before 1960: Focus on the grammar-translation.

For a long period of time, modern languages were taught in the same way as ancient languages, i.e., comparing and contrasting the two linguistic systems, and learning the grammar rules needed to read and write well. The emphasis was put on the written language and the goal was also to initiate the learner to the literature and to the culture of the target language. It was mainly designed to teach how to read and write through translation and analysis of both languages. In the Latin class, the student was translating "Julius Caesar" or declining "rosa, rosa, rosam,...". In the French class, to use clichés and to caricature a little bit, they were translating Victor Hugo, analysing "La

Chanson de Roland", conjugating the subjunctive and singing "La Plume de ma tante".

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The way the language was learnt had nothing to do with communication. The learner was faced with lists of vocabulary, an accumulation of grammatical rules and exceptions, and was left without the actual experience of trying out a language. The preferred kind of exercise was one involving many pitfalls. The student surely experienced many frustrations by not being able to perform well due to the nature of the task itself and in addition probably perceived these errors as a personal inability to learn.

As a reaction, the "direct method" was developed. It was essentially the teaching of the same literary language but without translation. The objective was to immerse the student in a second language without using the student's native language as a reference. It was hoped that under those conditions the learner would learn the target language in a natural environment, in the way that children learn their mother tongue. It was felt that without the use of the learner's native tongue, at least interference mistakes would be avoided, and with adequate training in the target language, language error would be almost in-existent.

The direct method used a picture to teach vocabulary, since translation was forbidden. Given that the actual

language taught was still literary, two main problems 13
arose: (1) what was given to the students was not
necessarily what they needed to be able to communicate;
and (2) the translation which was forbidden in the
classroom was nevertheless occurring in the learner's
mind when identifying the pictures and hearing the
sound of the new word. Furthermore, the pictures were
rather self-explanatory at the lower levels, but at
higher levels; it became increasingly hard, even
impossible, to illustrate abstract concepts.

Therefore we may say that the model was neither
established solidly in theory, nor worked efficiently
in practice, and disenchantment with this method soon
followed.

2. 1960-1968: Focus on the teaching tools.

In order to find new ways of teaching a language,
language teaching/learning specialists turned to
psychologists and to linguists, and adapted the
theories of Skinner and Bloomfield to the second
language field.

It was agreed that the focus was no longer literature
and that spoken language was necessary as a
communication tool. Going from one extreme to the
other (almost) written language was not used in the
classroom for beginners, and the sequence of learning

was: listening, speaking, reading and writing. The generic name for such methods was "structural method", which included audio-lingual and audio-visual methods.

The linguists stressed the importance of the structure of the whole sentence, condemning the learning of isolated words and lists of words, as well as isolated sound. This is the reason for the introduction of dialogues and structural exercises.

With the input of Skinner and his behaviorism added to the preceding objectives, structural exercises were perceived as ideal means to create habits in the learner's mind in associating the stimulus, the answer and the reinforcement. Language teaching/learning therefore became a mechanistic game initiated by an audio or a visual stimulus to which the learner gave either a good answer and was rewarded, or a wrong answer and was punished. The learner was not allowed to make mistakes nor to communicate because even if the language used was in fact spoken language, it was withered and amputated from its life and vitality. For instance, the method did not encourage short or rather incomplete answers, eg. "yes" or "no", the learner always had to respond with a complete sentence. This may have seemed to be good training in the mind of the behaviorists, but it does not correspond at all to real life situations where we often use short and expeditive

types of answers. For example, to the question "Est-ce 15
qu'il pleut aujourd'hui?" the answer by a native
speaker is never "Oui, il pleut aujourd'hui." In a real
life situation there are many possible answers, from
"non" or "oui" to "pas encore" ou "Eh! oui quel
dommage!" and many other variables.

The structural exercise was not aimed at communication,
as the following example of a
substitution/transformation exercise shows:

Example to start: M. Sicotte est français.

il	il est français.
canadien	il est canadien.
je	je suis canadien.
grand	je suis grand. ...etc.

Literally the learner was asked to perform perfectly,
and was embarrassed when making mistakes; but mistakes
were inevitable because even native speakers can make
mistakes with this kind of stressful and inappropriate
exercise.

As Roulet (1976) pointed out, four main conditions had
to be met to ensure learning according to these
methods. The first condition was that the language
laboratory was developed to enable the students to
speak ten times as much as in the classroom. Secondly,
the student had to produce a high percentage of right

answers, and consequently the progression was rigorously measured and very minimal from one lesson to the next. Each new pattern-sentence was introduced and each new structure was practiced until it was overlearned. An example of minimal progression can be found in "Le Français international". The content of the first lesson is: "Bonjour! Je m'appelle N..." and "Comment ça va? ça va bien merci." The content of the second lesson is: "Qui est-ce? c'est N...", "Qu'est-ce que c'est? c'est un(e)..." and the verb "être" in the present tense. Each of these lessons would be given six hours of teaching time.

Thirdly, reinforcement should always accompany a right answer. For instance, the teacher should approve the answer, or in the laboratory, the students may hear the tape giving the right answer, and therefore compare this answer with their own. The consequence is that an absence of reinforcement rapidly creates a negative feeling. Furthermore, the student generates the habit of always waiting for a nodding head or an OK in any other situation when using the target language. These are unlikely to happen in real life situations and do not enable the student to develop a strong self-confidence necessary to progress in a second language learning experience.

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Fourthly, to make sure that structures are mastered, the students have to go through drills at the language laboratory as long as necessary to overlearn the structure. That means hours and hours of stress and nightmares.

The method is not only structured in its linguistic content and its progression but also in its time distribution, and in the way to teach each and every structure. Consequently, in many cases the role of the teacher was reduced to one of facilitator. The teachers did not need any theoretical background, they only needed to be of French-speaking origin (if possible) and to know how to operate a slide viewer, a tape recorder, and be able to develop the art of asking questions within the linguistic limits imposed by the method used without using any other language than the target language.

The new methods of the sixties created some turmoil in negating what was done before and there were also many arguments among various theories of change. One trend was towards audio-visual methods, another trend was audio-lingual methods, both claimed to produce better results than did traditional methods. However, comparative analyses conducted in Pennsylvania by P.D. Smith (1970) and in Sweden by Mats Oskarsson (1972), proved that even in oral ability, students trained by

the audio-lingual methods were not performing better than those who were taught traditionally.

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For the purpose of the present research we will not separate audio-visual and audio-lingual methods since we consider that the basic characteristics are similar, i.e., a progression of structures and a heavy use of teaching tools e.g. film strips, flash cards, pre-registered dialogues, pictures.

Furthermore, in audio-visual methods like "Voix et Images de France", the dialogues and situations have been neutralized, and in losing their own value, they tend to create more prejudices and perpetuate clichés rather than making the culture of the target language accessible. That critique was made by Roulet (1981) pointing out how remote from a real conversation these dialogues can be. It is like creating a world that is similar in some aspects but mainly very different from the real world, in which the students would eventually have to use their knowledge of the newly learned language.

For example, in discussing culture, the "Voix et images de France" teacher's manual declares:

"VIF presents language structures in the form of dialogue within a cultural matrix. This cultural matrix reflects the sum total of patterned behavior, manners, customs, norms and values of the speech community. Language occupies a central position in any culture, and it has been stated that language and culture are interdependent and inseparable." (p.28)

Using Lambert's definition of acculturation, the book continues "the students progressively assume the verbal and non-verbal patterns of behavior appropriate to the cultural-linguistic group". This particular aspect of the method was more obviously problematic in the province of Quebec given the cultural differences between France and Quebec, in spite of a similar linguistic code. Some teachers totally ignored that fact, claiming that the students would start using the method's language and culture, and that at the intermediate level, more considerations would be given to the local phonetic differences and cultural elements. The problem was therefore only deferred and it is still to be seen how it was dealt with at a later stage.

Roulet (1976) outlined several weaknesses of these methods. He found out that these methods did not enable the students to freely express themselves nor to communicate effectively in day-to-day life situations.

Jakobovits also said:

The irony of the matter lies in the fact that the "new Key" approach, unlike traditional methods in which reading classical literature was considered a worthwhile activity in itself, does not attach an intrinsic value to grammatical knowledge per se, but views habit drills as means towards achieving communicative skills, yet it seems that these very activities are chief roadblocks to attaining meaningful skills (liberated expression, as it has been called). (Jakobovits (1970:445)

In other words, the basic objective set up when developing the method was not reached. In our opinion, this very argument would suffice to stimulate the creativity of the researcher in looking at other avenues. However, there were other significant weak points such as the lack of interest or motivation generated among the students by these methods. Hester (1970:63) says "Everywhere we see a tendency to abandon foreign languages, among various other disciplines, because they are a hindrance to the young learner's freedom, self-discovery, and natural creativity".

We can say that audio-visual and audio-lingual methods, as opposed to the traditional ones, were attempting to stimulate expression from the student, which was in itself a great step forward, but in such a dry and mechanical way that the boredom created was much higher than the motivation. Students were learning to become mere replicas of the method model, for instance "Monsieur et Madame Thibault" of "Voix et Images de France". These latter considerations are even more crucial for adult students who are placed in a situation of having to learn a second language, as opposed to students who have some choice in the matter.

The comments we made on the cultural aspects of the method may not apply fully to the Canadian methods: "Le

Francais international" and "Dialogue Canada", but other comments certainly apply.

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Allen and Widdowson (1974) pointed out that although there were many methods using the audio-visual method principles to teach beginners, there was a lack of material designed for intermediate and advanced students, which could create a problematic situation for the students going through that phase. This is also probably why Cembalo and Holec (1973) were interested in studying the avenue of autonomy of the learner as the best way to help the learner, which in fact, would be true regardless of the method used.

In 1969, almost a decade after the introduction of behaviorism and new theory in second language,

Jacobovits enumerated four unresolved issues: 1) how can we make the link between manipulation of structures and communication; 2) how can we teach meaning and the use of the learner's mother tongue in the classroom, 3) what is the role of grammatical explanations; and how should they be done 4) what about the acquisition of new vocabulary?

Daniel Coste (1970) in his review of the 1955-1970 period in French as a second language methodology, strongly pointed out that although the audio-lingual and audio-visual methods were born at the same time and were both opposed to the traditional method, they

should not be considered equal. His main argument is that the audio-visual method created in France, especially by the CREDIF (Centre de recherche et d'étude pour la diffusion du français) was better in 1) putting the student into real situations of communication; 2) the structural exercises were always done in a specific context and not "à vide" in a mechanical way, and finally, 3) the problem of a minimal progression was not the first objective.

We tend to disagree with Coste on that, and actually, he may himself now disagree with what he wrote more than 15 years ago. The perception he had at the time was probably shared by many researchers in Europe but we believe that experience has shown there was no significant difference in the ability to communicate of the students who had gone through these methods.

(Smith, 1970; Von Elek & Oskarsson 1972).

The structural way of teaching and learning a second language was probably a necessary step and a genuine attempt to improve second language teaching, and deserves credit for that. On the other hand, the need for more research and improvement was felt among specialists, and was the reason for the mandate given to the Council for Cultural Cooperation in 1970 (itself under the umbrella of the Council of Europe) to look at the field of second language and find ways of improving

the teaching/learning process of adults in a second language acquisition process. We will talk about their theory in the focus on the learner section. 23

Before closing this section we want to address the topic of suggestology and suggestopedia. Suggestology is a science originating in Bulgaria and combines the techniques of yoga, psychology of suggestion, psycho-drama and sub-vocalization, and the goal of which is to use the broader areas of the mind and brain. The application of suggestology as applied to pedagogy is called suggestopedia and the father of suggestology as applied to teaching is Dr. G. Lozanov, who did research on the role and the significance of suggestion in the process of teaching and learning.

According to his theory, the role of the teacher is crucial in a learning situation. Teacher's attitudes were considered important by many researchers, but Lozanov also give the same importance to teacher's gestures, smiles, clothes, voice and movements. Suggestology also put a lot of emphasis on memory, and experiments have revealed new laws and patterns of human memory. In the experiment conducted in 1965, Lozanov found that memorization in learning by the suggestopedic method was accelerated twenty-five times over that of learning by conventional methods (Lozanov, 1978).

Although this method of learning can be applied, according to Lozanov, to any learning situation, languages seemed to be an excellent place to apply these findings, and the Western world began to set up experiments in the Seventies. Another important characteristic of suggestopedia is that, as opposed to the structural methods discussed previously, translation is available in the learning process. However, it was not used in the same way as in traditional methods since instead of being an end, it was here a means to help comprehension. Furthermore, the translated sentence was not really said, but whispered in order to free the mind from looking for the message and enable it to concentrate on the melody of the foreign sentence. In addition, and this is an important factor, the student was given another personality. Therefore during the class, a student left his own personality aside and wore, for instance Dr. Martin's name and social role and kept that fictitious identity throughout the course.

On the whole, suggestopedia could be perceived as the miracle solution often dreamed of or, on the other hand, rejected because of its exoticism and lack of training facilities.

We cannot be sure whether the truth lies with Lozanov or with his opponents, but suggestopedia goes much

further than teaching a language: there is a whole philosophy of education behind it. 25

We discuss this method in the present section on the grounds that suggestopedia puts more emphasis on the process rather than the learner. In addition, suggestopedia is a highly structured method, and a highly regulated process. The success of such a course seems to depend greatly on the faith that the student has in the method and does not necessarily develop better strategies for learning. More diversified longitudinal studies are needed in that field to substantiate its many allegations.

3. 1968 to now: Focus on the Learner.

The title of this section refers to the publication of Oller and Richards (1973) which indicated the new focus of the research in a collection of articles of people from different parts of the world.

From the disenchantments after the great hopes of the last decade, the second language field had to reinvent the wheel. For these reasons and others explained in the following paragraphs, the Council of Europe put the problem in the hands of their Council for Cultural Cooperation in September 1971. A research group composed of René Richterich, J.L.M. Trim, J.A. van

d'apprentissage des langues vivantes par les adultes.

Analysing the causes of the lack of success of second language learners, one of the first and surely most striking inadequacy was that the very first objectives of language training were not met, i.e., the mastery of a communication tool. After many years of learning, some students were still unable to really live and express themselves at a higher than basic level in the language they were learning. Therefore, after the narrow focus on the structures of the language and the tools to make these structures known by the students, every method, now renamed "approach", focused on the fact that a language is a communication instrument and should be taught as such.

Adult students were the first to complain about structural methods that were not giving them or teaching them the necessary ability to use outside the classroom what they learned inside the classroom. Also, because of the booming of adult education it was becoming even clearer that (1) adults could not and would not spend years and years to master a language; (2) adults needed to learn quickly in order to find jobs, be it in bilingual countries or by moving from one country to another; (3) the previous methods were not adapted to the adult world; (4) the previous

27
teaching methods were teaching a linguistic content and not how to use these structures socially. As Roulet (1976) pointed out, the methods were only teaching one code, thereby neglecting the linguistic diversity of any language. Only one function of the language was learned, the referential function, ignoring the expressive function, the conative function and the phatic function described by Jakobovits (1970).

These functions well performed would allow true communication in a second language because the learner would be able to describe the world (referential, also called cognitive or denotative in Jakobovits' classification), to express attitudes or beliefs towards someone or on an idea (expressive function), to provoke an action or a reaction from someone else (conative function), and finally, to establish a real contact with a native speaker (phatic function).

The new researchers rather than theorizing against what was done in the past, stated the problem as it was perceived and tried to find solutions for it. Everyone was also very conscious that there was not one absolute way to learn a language but apparently as many ways as individuals. They also stressed the point that their research was in no way definite but in continuing renewal, and were put forward to create discussion and stimulate experiments in the field of second language.

The Council for Cultural Cooperation (hereafter CCC) approached the communication issue from the perspective of the learner's life situation. In doing so, they analysed what an adult needed to do and know in order to communicate. They analysed all the functions of life in which the learner was likely to perform. From that analysis they coined the term "functional approach". They also studied all the notions learners needed to express, from whence the label of "notional syllabus". Since communication was a nice blend of these 2 concepts, they arrived at the "notional-functional" approach and even the "communicative-notional-functional" approach. Since then however it is mostly referred to as the communicative approach.

After the first volume published in 1973, another very important step forward was the publication of The Threshold Level (van Ek, 1975) and its French counterpart Un Niveau-seuil (Coste, Ferenczi, Leclercq, Martins-Baltar, Papo et Roulet, 1976). These publications were as important as the publication of Le Français fondamental (1955).

According to the CCC a fundamental first step in the elaboration of any language program is a needs analysis. Richterich (1973) proposed a model that was somewhat criticized in its original form (costs and

complexity were making it difficult to apply) but was valid from a philosophical standpoint.

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In the light of the research that was done since 1971 on the needs issue, we can conclude that it seems logical and normal to start from the needs of the students if we want our teaching strategies to be worthwhile. This approach to needs brought about the title of this section which was taken from Focus on the Learner (Oller and Richards, 1973) and which illustrates the prime importance of learner's needs and interests in the development of any second language programme that seeks relevance.

The danger of the needs analysis as applied to reality is that very often it is a need of the institution or the needs of an industry which will prevail over the learner's needs. As Germain (1980) noted, the deep personal interest of an individual may be ignored and some educational institutions may give priority to institutional and/or industrial needs. This trap is particularly visible in Quebec where many industries organize and pay for courses given to their unilingual employees to comply with the stipulations of Bill 101.

Ideally, we should work on developing a more integrated approach that would include the needs of an individual having to perform in a language not only at work, but also in day-to-day life situations and possibly in

another job context, if one wishes to move out of the present occupation to a different one.

Needs analysis is one step forward in a better learning. Such a step would enable a program director to better distribute the students in groups according to their own needs and perceived objectives, and also enable the teacher to better select and organize more relevant teaching materials to meet students' expectations as much as possible.

Even if needs vary from one individual to another, we are convinced that, behind the diversity of the adult clientele registering in French as a second language courses, must lie some common denominators. We have to identify them, and analyse them in order to give students some solutions and avenues to fully develop their linguistic potential.

It is worth noticing that we started to talk about adult learners only in this section. In fact, before 1971, language courses given to adults were a mere replica of what was taught to adolescents in regular programs. The merit of the CCC was to focus on the adult as now the main consumer of language courses.

Almost at the same time, andragogy showed a significant difference between the learning strategies of adolescents and adults.

A current assumption is that the learner should not only learn a language but also learn how to learn a language (Cembalo et Holec, 1973). The CCC has also identified a series of variables relevant to the acquisition of a second language. The CCC team was not the first to point out these factors and we will see in the attitudes section different models proposed by different researchers. There is agreement, however, on the fact that all these factors have an influence. First is aptitude, i.e. the intellectual capacity of learning a language; then are attitudes, e.g. the emotional and psychological feelings that one develops towards the cultural group speaking the target language, the social status of the learner and the social image of both culture. Then comes the treatment of error in a learning process. Should error be considered as negative or as a necessary step toward an understanding of the target language and therefore, the only way the learner has to try out new hypotheses? The past learning experiences also play a ~~definite~~ factor in an adult education situation. The general kind of feelings learners may have towards schools and towards learning a language in particular can also affect learning. The personal desires to learn a language as opposed to the obligation to comply with a rule imposed by an employer or any other institution are also considered significant. The learning style of

the learner in dealing with a method that would require a specific learning style from the learner can also affect one's learning. The faith in any particular learning process, the relationship established with the teacher particularly at the beginning of the course, the adequacy of institutional needs with personal expectations are other factors.

The state of research is not the same on all of these issues but there is certainly progress since 1968 when existing methods started to be questioned.

We also have to point out that at the same time as the communicative approach was developed in Europe, another trend, and indeed a very important one, was developed in Canada: the immersion solution. Although the first immersion experience in Canada was in 1962 at the Toronto French School, a private school, most people became aware of it from the St-Lambert experiment evaluated by a team of researchers from McGill University under the leadership of Wallace Lambert and R.C. Gardner in 1965. This program has since then been duplicated successfully throughout Canada. This is an excellent program for school age children, especially for those living in an area where they will be able to practice outside of school what they learned inside. It has the great advantage of doing things in a second language rather than only learning a second language.

Some attempts were made to provide a similar type of immersion for adults. Because of time restrictions however it cannot obtain the same results. One can also argue that in fact the very nature of adult learning also makes it different. Very worthwhile attempts were set up in Jonquière, Laval University, and Montreal University.

On the same philosophical line, what was called the natural approach was developed in the United States. Also called humanistic approach, this movement shared the same philosophical basis as the European movement but used different means to enable the students to develop competence to communicate. Instead of stressing the importance of notions and functions in language, the learners are put in situations where they will learn the language more or less like the child learning a first language. For our purposes the — natural approach has the disadvantage of requiring a large investment of time, too large in fact for most adults confronted with the problem of having to learn a second language.

The natural approach recognizes four steps towards mastering a language (Krashen, 1977). The first stage is essentially a listening stage, also called the pre-production stage. The learners get used to the sound of the language before they are asked to produce

these sounds. The learners are therefore put in a low 34
anxiety situation in which key words are used and
become easily indentified by the learners. Techniques
eg. visual aids, total physical response, objects and
the students themselves in the classroom are used to
make sure that the linguistic message is understood.

The second stage is the early response production where
the students will be allowed to answer using one or two
words to various questions, as opposed to the complete
sentence of the structural methods which were not
reflecting the real usage of the language. Here,
errors are also expanded, as opposed to corrected, in
order to put more stress on the message than on the
form.

In the third stage, speech emerges more clearly. With
the accumulated language experience acquired by the
learners, they can now express ideas, make questions
and venture comments. At this stage, the learner will
start playing games, engage in problem-solving and
affective activities, and will look more for
content-oriented type activities in the second
language. The language will be more and more used as a
means to learn, as opposed to being the end of a
learning process.

The fourth stage, called cognitive-academic use of the
second language will also emphasize reading and writing

as well as cultural aspects of the language. The length of time spent by a learner at each stage may vary from individual to individual.

Dr. H.H. Stern, in a conference on April 1981 in Toronto, nicely summarized the state of the field: there are really 2 directions in language teaching with the same goals and objectives. One is analytical and comes from linguistics, the CCC with their "Un Niveau-seuil" is the best example, and the other one is non-analytical and comes mainly from psychology and pedagogy and can be seen in immersion programs and the natural approach.

Before concluding, it would seem important to define communication. In the field of second language as it is now, it seems the magic word that every program, every book, every teacher and every institution is highlighting to attract students and buyers. It is a catchy word that represents a real need of the student, especially students who struggled for so long with many different courses, and are still seeing a need to perform better to either get a job or to establish relationships with native speakers.

Communication for us is the performance of a combination of tactics by the learners to express themselves in the four functions described by Jakobovits (conative, expressive, referential, and phatic), as well as an ability to deal with the various levels of language. Therefore we believe that the following criteria are of prime importance in any attempt to develop the communicative competence of a second language learner. The learner's own language as a means to enable students to understand the structure of the second language should not necessarily be banished. Working with authentic documents as much as possible allows the students to build a true relationship with the target language and its native speakers. The learner should be encouraged to try things out, and understand that mistakes are part of the learning process. Techniques should be used to enable the learners to express their ideas as often as possible. Teachers should help students recognize and use the various levels of the target language, and moreover, enable them to know which variety of language to use according to the situation.

On the whole, we contend that pedagogical material to be developed should incorporate these principles of a communicative approach.

We would like to discuss some of the problems experienced by those trying to implement the new trends. A starting problem is that the model is still mainly theoretical and that there are no ready to use instruments. Teachers are left with many nice ideas to apply but no means to do so. Teachers can hardly re-create new programs in addition to teaching on a daily basis. Another problem, particularly with the CCC model, is how to select and organize the language we want to teach. A third problem is the lack of a grammar of French usage which would really be a useful tool in teaching learners how to communicate. It would help teach learners which level of language to use in which situation, how to recognize various levels of speech, together with the sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic rules behind them. At present, the teacher as well as the learner is put in a trial-and-error situation.

In our view, the American model, natural or human relations approach, has, in its non-analytical basis, the merit of avoiding some problems like the control of language input and the focus on the language itself.

We want to conclude this section by talking of the second language field as it is now in Quebec, particularly in Adult Education. This is far from an in-depth analysis of the situation but rather an

individual perspective, originating from private discussions and attendance at provincial association meetings.

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In the province of Quebec, we find adult education second language classes at three different levels: the High School, the CEGEP and the University. Each of these groups of institutions is now offering a wide variety of levels of instruction ranging from complete beginner to very advanced, but except for the first beginner course, they all have different labels, and the same label therefore does not necessarily represent the same reality. As a consequence the potential student is lost in a plethora of terms like intermediate, elementary, low intermediate, advanced, pre-advanced, semi-advanced, and so on. Those programs also vary in being credited or non-credited, therefore they also vary in price.

Do they vary in content? This is a difficult question to answer in a cut and dried fashion. There are too many variables: the number of students in the class, the teacher's qualifications and expertise, the method and the approach used, the length of a course unit, the use of authentic documents and activities as part of the course, the use of a monitor in the classroom, the flexibility of the program to adjust itself to any

particular student group, and the administration's commitment to the program.

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Consequently the state of second language programs in Quebec is almost as diversified as the number of institutions offering them, due to the existence of all of the factors mentioned and also due to the evasiveness of many of the guidelines by the Ministry of Education. This fact, in our opinion, must have some negative effect on the learner who each year or semester tries another institution in hopes of finding the key to bilingualism.

These considerations were presented to draw the reader's attention to practical problems that exist in addition to the actual approach chosen in teaching a second language. Will we ever live in the world of perfection? Probably not, but being aware of problems is certainly the first step to solving them.

The underlying theory of the present research is that learning, and particularly second language learning, is influenced by the learner's attitudes. If we consider that the learner is also affected by psychological and social factors, we can easily imagine that these factors have an effect on the learner's experience of learning a second language.

We should also mention that the reverse of our postulate is not necessarily true. If the learners' attitudes influence their learning, it does not necessarily mean that learning a second language will necessarily improve the attitudes of the learner towards the use of a second language or towards representative members of the second language group as indicated by Lambert (1980) and also, Genesee and Bourhis (1982).

The abundant literature on second language shows that many factors are interrelated and interact in various ways, as we mentioned previously. We will now present various models and the place each one gives to attitudes, as well as analyzing how each one defines attitudes. Stern and Cummins (1980) have divided these factors into three categories: the social context, the learning conditions and, the learner characteristics.

They claim that these factors influence the learning process and the outcomes (Figure 1). Desrochers, Smythe & Gardner (1974) have also classified these factors but into four categories: group specific attitudes, course related characteristics, motivational indices, and generalized attitudes (Figure 2).

McLaughlin (1980) has reduced them to two: the social situation and individual differences with a potential interaction of the two as a third theme. The latter paradigm may seem more simplistic but it has the merit of highlighting only the two main focuses of the learning situation: the learner, and his/her social values.

Research, in many instances, has chosen too narrow a focus and therefore ignored one dimension. For example, Hymes (1972), in his sociolinguistic approach, neglected the sociopsychological aspects of code-switching. However, Genesee & Bourhis (1982) were able to prove that both sociolinguistic and socio-psychological factors must be considered in analyses of communication across cultures. We believe that the McLaughlin paradigm does not, in its simplicity, neglect one aspect of the problem since his categories are quite broad.

Another fact to support the importance of social factors is Savignon's experiment (1972) where she

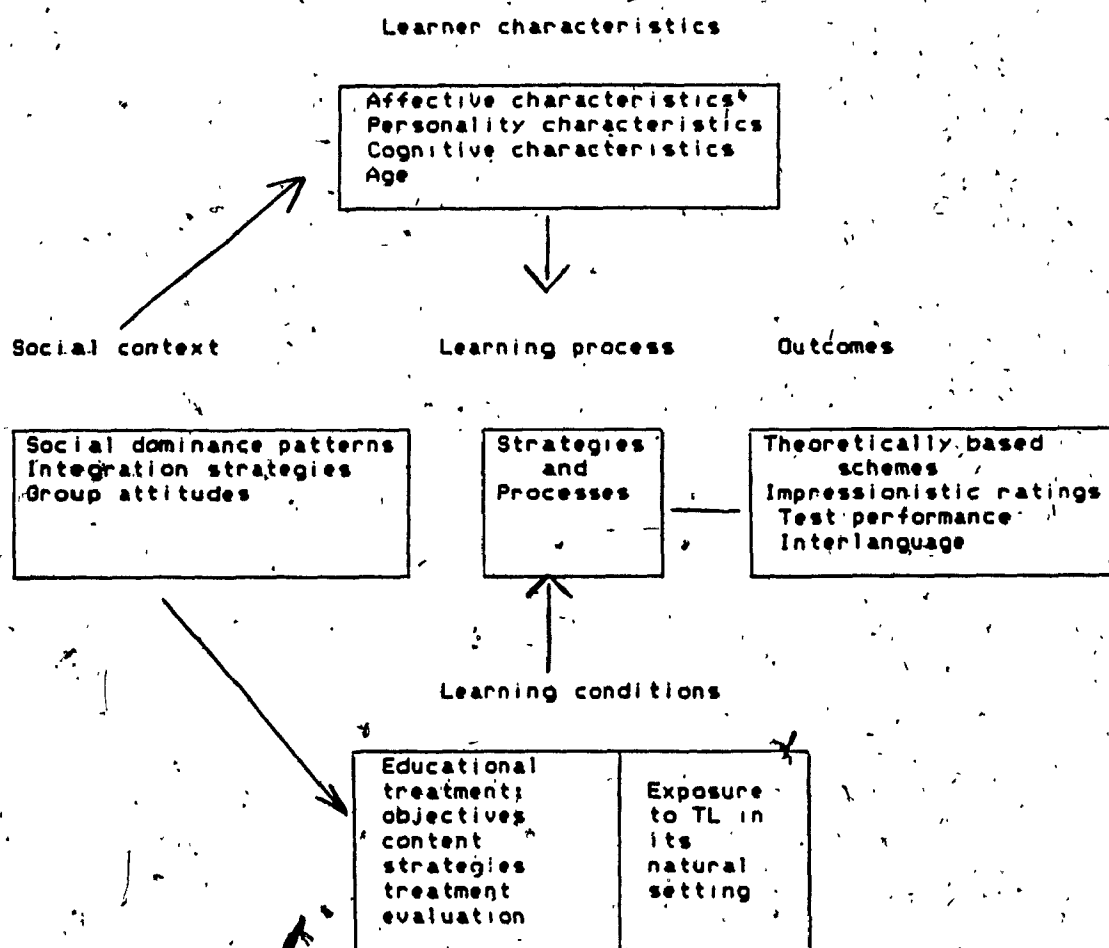


Figure 1. Framework for Examination of Second Language Learning by Stern and Cummins. (1980:200).

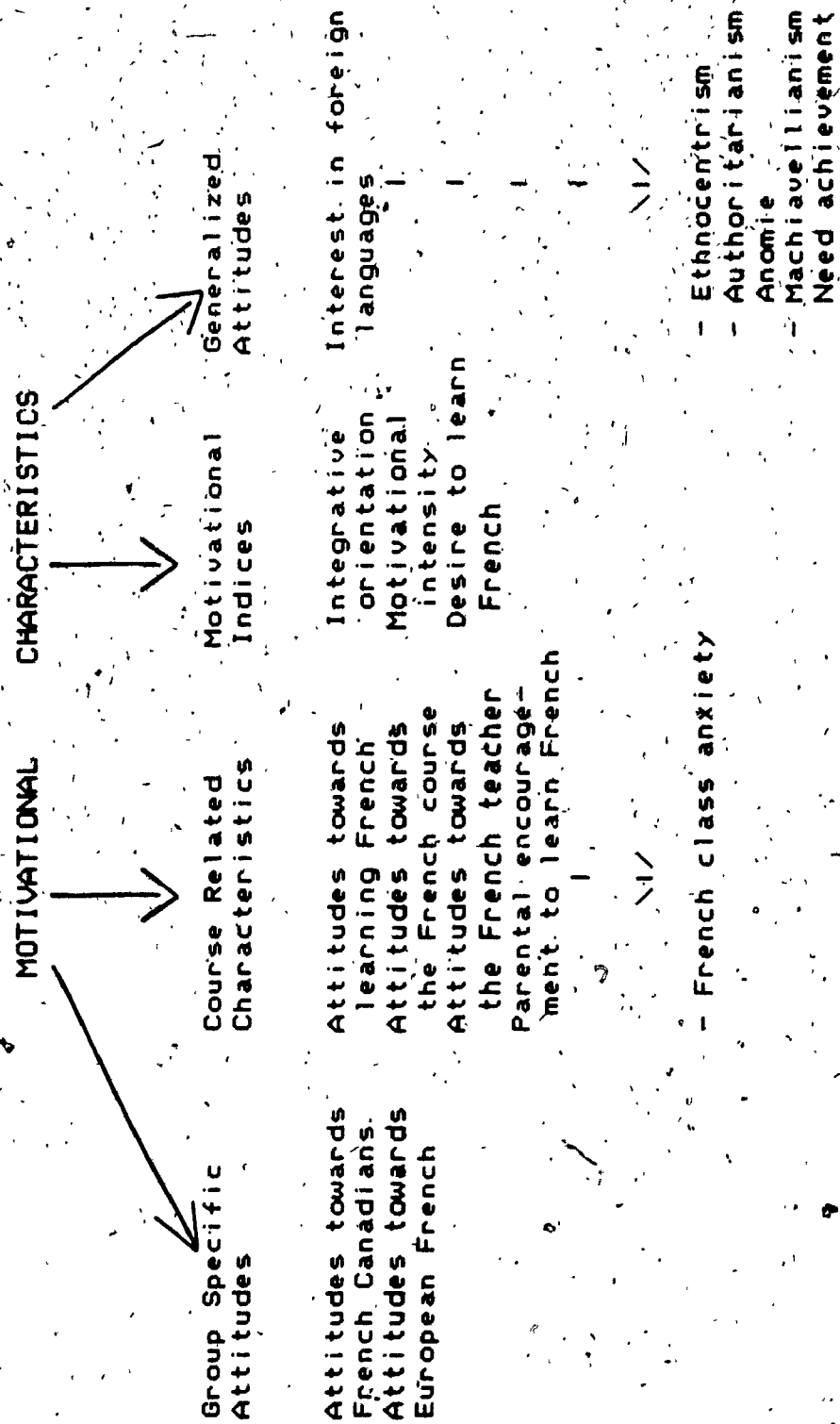


Figure 2. Aspects of the motivation to learn French from Desrochers, Smythe & Gardner, 1974.

discovered that there was no correlation between achievement and attitudinal and motivational criteria. The subjects she used were university students and the social context was Illinois, USA. But her theoretical model implied that improved proficiency may cause a positive variance in affective measures (Figure 3).

On the other hand, Lambert & Tucker (1972) discovered that immersion children's attitudes were much fairer and more charitable than those of the English and French control children. These findings explain that results vary according to the subjects and also according to the social setting.

Psychological factors are partially the result of socialization but also the result of individual perceptions. The socialization aspect of psychological factors may explain why research was successful with immersion children (Lambert & Tucker, 1972). However, this aspect of the problem may be quite different when dealing with adults that have been through their own socialization process. In addition, adults' individual perceptions are also more definite since they were more nurtured by numerous life experiences.

For instance, many people may think that their second language learning capacity is fixed, but as Lambert (1972) wrote, a person's abilities are not permanently fixed by hereditary background. Achievement is

dependent upon aptitude and intelligence on one hand, and a sympathetic orientation towards the other linguistic group on the other hand (Gardner and Lambert, 1972).

Successful learners must be psychologically prepared to adopt various aspects of behavior which characterize members of another linguistic-cultural group.

Motivation and attitudes are therefore success determiners (Lambert, 1972; Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

In summary therefore, the learner is affected, because the views of French people and culture, their attitudes and orientation towards the learning process determine or limit progress in developing second language competence (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) (Figure 4). In other words, the learner's achievement is predetermined by their views and attitudes, according to Lambert and Gardner.

In the literature reviewed prior to the experimental phase of the present research, the latter factor, i.e., the attitudes of adults towards the learning process, was not mentioned anywhere. This dimension of the present research has not so far been experimentally tested by other researchers.

Even if previous research with children and adolescents has proven that attitudinal factors influenced success

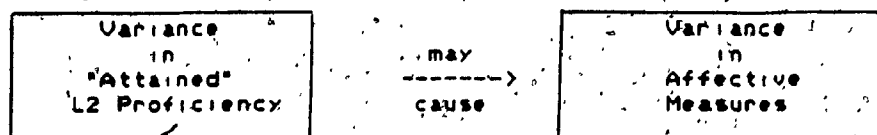
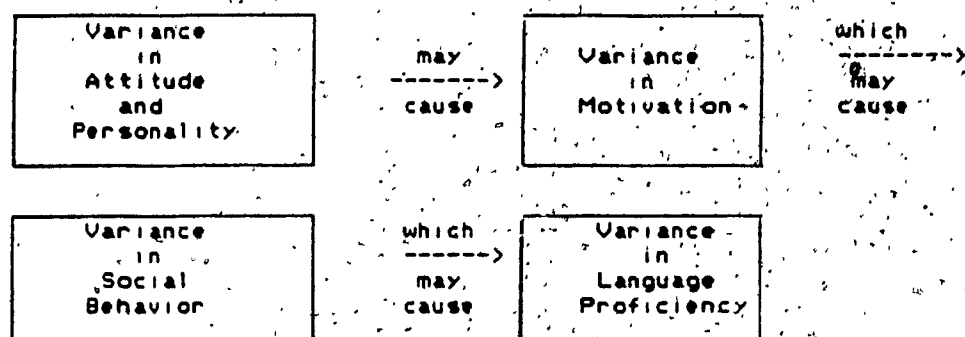


Figure 3. Sandra Savignon's model (1972) of affective-measures role, from Oller and Perkins (1978:51).



and on the other hand

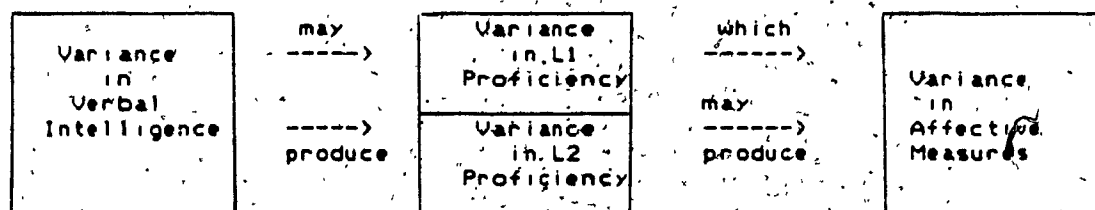


Figure 4. Gardner and Lambert (1972) model of factors affecting second language learning. From Oller and Perkins (1978:51).

in learning a second language (Lambert & Klineberg, 1967; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Lambert & Tucker, 1972; Genesee 1978; Genesee & Bourhis, 1982), one has to realize that to change attitudes is not an easy task. As mentioned by Lambert & Lambert (1963) attitudes are particularly resistant to change if they have been learned early in life, if they have been fully integrated into one's personality, and if they help to satisfy needs. Therefore, it would seem to be particularly difficult to change attitudes of adults over a short period of time. Nevertheless, we made it one aspect of our three-part study.

Furthermore, Gardner & Lambert (1972) found that it is difficult to deal with resentment by one linguistic group who are forced to learn a language through social and economic pressures. The social and political evolution of Quebec in the late '70s may fall into this category, i.e. some second language learners may feel a social pressure to learn French which may conflict with their own opinion about bilingualism. Gardner & Lambert (1972) also add that "negative stereotypes shared by a community could sabotage any educational effort to teach a language." On the other hand, ten years later, Genesee & Bourhis (1982) found some change in the attitudes of French Canadians towards their own group. This finding has value in showing that changing attitudes is possible, at least within a linguistic

group, and occurred in Quebec close to the time of our 48
research.

In 1970, Jakobovits pointed out that student motivation cannot be solved by a trick. The treatment sessions that we designed were not conceived as tricks but rather as cognitive discussion periods and reflections on a process that the students are involved with in their daily life. These discussions were intended as "mind openers" to broaden the student's knowledge about language learning and try to erase some deeply rooted misconceptions. The discussion material is provided in Appendix E.

If we return to the McLaughlin paradigm described earlier, the present research falls in the third category, i.e. interaction between the social situation and individual differences. We believe that consequently we are not taking too narrow a focus and that all the important aspects of the question will be covered.

On the whole we think that the topic of attitudes and motivation in French as a second language learning for adults in Quebec is worthwhile investigating for various reasons. Among the primary reasons for studying it are: (1) to discover if attitudes towards the second language learning process itself can be improved; (2) to discover if attitudes of

English-speaking Quebecers towards the French-speaking 49
community can be modified; (3) to discover whether
proficiency in French as a second language can be
improved as a consequence.

Among secondary reasons there are: the possibility
that present research will throw some light on the
actual status of our society in terms of perceived
relationships between the two main linguistic groups;
that it will give to the subjects involved some
insights into the second language learning process and
an opportunity to discuss preconceptions; that it may
activate new ideas to enable them to look at and
criticize positively any subsequent second language
learning situations. The experiment itself, for
practical reasons, only looked at short-term effects.
This does not prevent the possibility of long-term
effects, hopefully positive. Time may be the necessary
element to enable good ideas to mature. Like good
wine, good ideas exchanged during the sessions might
ferment and produce exceptional vintage.

We would like to include in our review the results and
theories of some research conducted at the same time or
slightly after our experimental phase and having
relevance in our topic.

Researchers like Gardner and Lalonde kept investigating
the attitude component of second language learning,

while others like Genesee, Rogers and Holobow tried to address the social psychology aspect of learning. As we can easily imagine, both are closely related.

Genesee, Rogers and Holobow (1983) modified Gardner and Lambert's (1972) model to include a component neglected so far, i.e. the perceptions of motivational support, and therefore intergroup relations (Figure 5).

As they always argued, Gardner, Lalonde & Moorcroft (1985) restated that learning a second language is a cognitive task as well as an emotional task. The cognitive aspect of it is more of a combination of uncontrollable external factors e.g. language aptitude and teaching method, whereas the emotional aspect is more of a combination of internal or affective factors e.g. attitudes and motivation.

Gardner and Lambert (1959) when they developed that aspect of second language learning talked almost interchangeably of attitudes and motivation as a willingness to become like the members of the target language community, in other words, changing oneself and become another being, culturally different.

Extensive research has been carried out since 1959 in many countries and all parts of Canada and the United States and the one common denominator to all these is the fact that second language achievement is related to

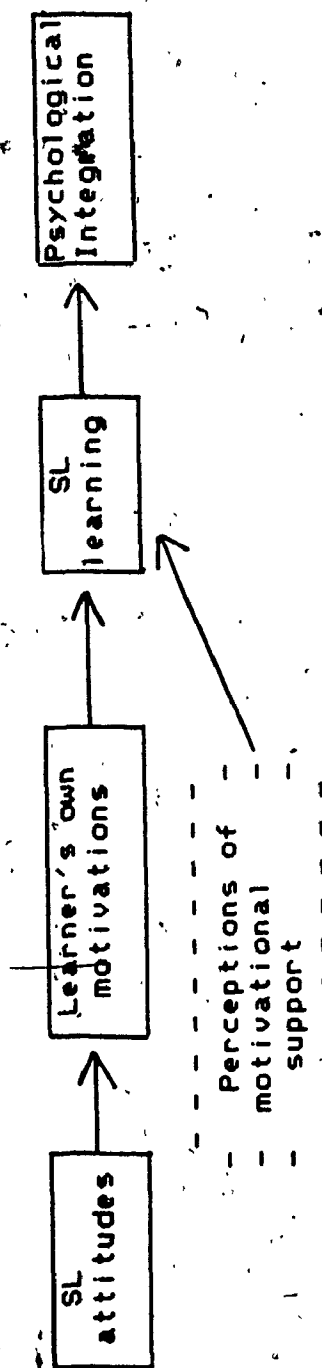


Figure 5. Schematic of amended Gardner model.
(Genesee, Rogers and Holobow, 1983:222).

both cognitive and emotional factors as described above. Most of this research however, deals with immersion, high school, or university level students. They also deal with second language learning situations other than French.

On the whole, there is a consensus of the research in stating that attitudes should have an effect on learning a second language, but it stops there, and researchers cannot agree on how attitudes affect language learning, and how to measure attitudes accurately.

Gardner, Lalonde & Moorcroft (1985) proposed a model to explain the emotional component of second language learning. They called it the socio-educational model. It is composed of three aspects labelled Integrativeness, Attitudes towards the Learning Situation, and Motivation.

Integrativeness is the combination of attitudes towards the target language community, and attitudes towards other communities in general, these producing a desire for social integration.

Attitudes towards the Learning Situation concerns the reactions to the language teacher, the reactions to the classroom, the reactions to the materials and the course in general.

Motivation is the desire to achieve a goal, the work put through to achieve that goal and the enjoyment from the activity involved.

As we will explain further, the present research adds a different dimension to the Learning Situation aspect in discussing the language learning process.

In Gardner et al.'s model Integrativeness and Attitudes towards the Learning Situation cause Motivation. In turn, Motivation and Aptitude cause French Achievement (Figure 6).

These researchers also point out the importance of the fact that integrativeness can become a threat to one's feelings of self, since language is such an important aspect of one's own identity. This point is important because threat to ethnic identity is negatively correlated with second language achievement. Another crucial point is that they recognized that the cultural milieu, in which language learning occurs, has its importance since it will influence attitudinal variables.

Genesee et al (1983) describe as a good language learning context one with little social distance between the groups, e.g. the Schumann model (1977) where both cultures are congruent, and where the language learning group is not dominant over the target

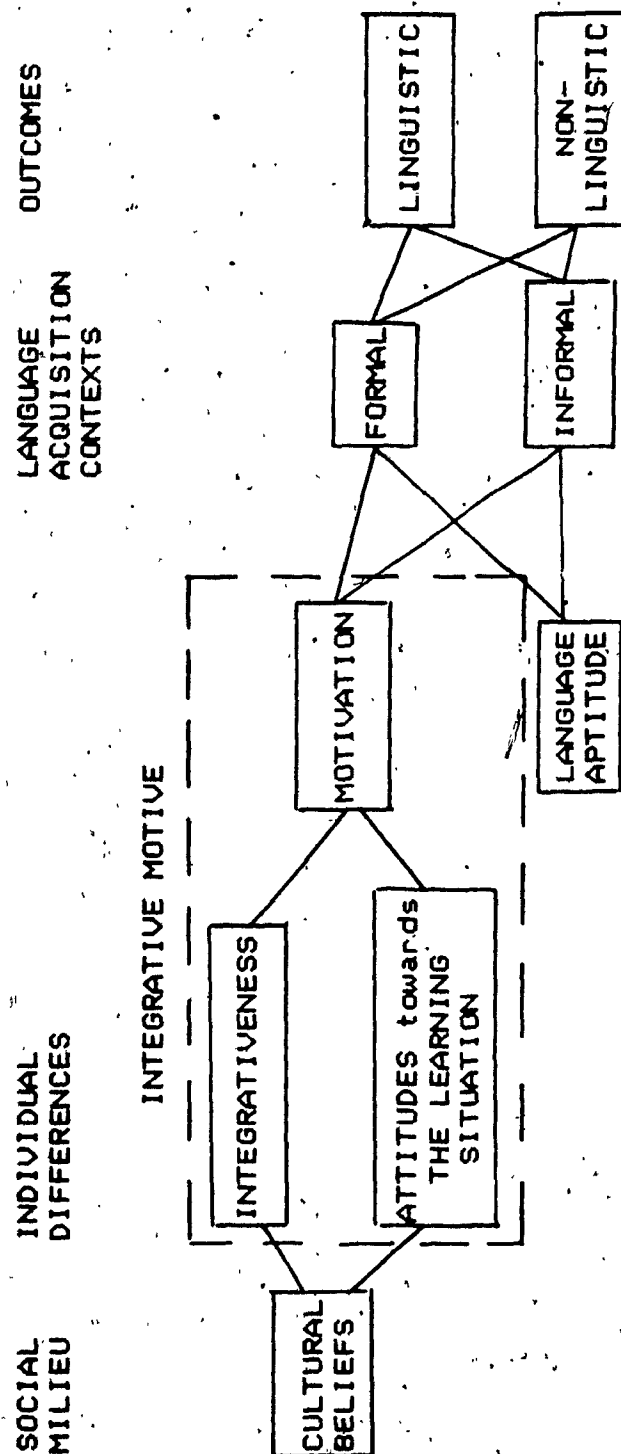


Figure 6. Operational formulation of the Socio-Educational Model as Gardner, Lalonde & Moorcroft, 1985

language group. Furthermore, they point out that it is the learner's perception of social distance that matters more than the objectively measured social distance.

Genesee et al. (1983:211) conclude that

while positive attitudes and motivation towards SLL may be necessary for learning to occur, they may not be sufficient to account for the full extent of learning. It is necessary to consider the social context in which learning occurs and, in particular, the extent to which the learner believes or expects that his or her motives for learning the SL are supported by the TL group.

This conclusion is important to us since that concept was incorporated into our research by using part of the same attitude questionnaire as the Genesee team. Their hypothesis was that second language achievement would improve if besides their own motivation, the students received motivational support from the target group. Their research, conducted with anglophone high school students in Montreal,

...offered convergent evidence that SL learners' perceptions of the TL group's support for learning their language is positively correlated with the learners' self-rated proficiency in the language and to their reported willingness to belong to social groups that include members of the TL group. (Genesee et al, 1983:220).

Our research deals with the same social context although the age group of our adult students adds another dimension to the situation. We discuss this basic difference in the following section.

A very important aspect of the present research is the adult education component. We want to argue that this is the key element that makes this research different from most other research. It was conceived as an attempt to bring together knowledge from the social psychology of second language learning and andragogy, both fields having experienced, although independently, an ebullition phase in the last two decades.

It is important at this point to explain the concept and theory of andragogy, and how these apply to the present research.

First, it is easy to understand that with the dramatic increase in the adult population attending a wide variety of educational opportunities, came an increased awareness of special needs, and of a different philosophy of education.

In 1968, adult students numbered about one fourth of total enrollment in the United States, in 1983, it was up to 40%, and predictions are at 44% for 1988 (Reiss, 1982). These figures are certainly a good indicator of greater need to understand the adult population's educational needs.

We first would like to talk about general principles of adult education, and then draw the important elements

for the conjunction of the adult education world with the social psychology of second language learning world, since the present research is a link between these.

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In February 1973, a book of prime importance to understand the field of adult education was published. It was Malcolm Knowles The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species. A Third Edition was published in August 1984, and in between there have been seven printings of the first and second edition combined, which is indicative of the importance and popularity of this book.

A lot of research had been done on the way animals learn, less research had been done on how children learn, and still less research had been done on how adults learn. This was the state of the field when Knowles decided to publish his book. Knowles reviews the many theories of learning and then draws the differences between adult and children's learning, in other words the difference between pedagogy, the art and science of teaching children, and andragogy, the art and science of helping adults learn, which is of prime interest for the present research.

When the number of adults kept increasing in post-secondary institutions throughout the United States, and we can argue that Canada followed a similar trend, no specific adjustment was made to meet the

needs of the new student population. However, with the greater proportion of adult learners grew the problem of the inadequacy of teaching methods to meet their needs. It became more and more evident that adults do not learn the same way children do. There was therefore an increasing concern about how adults learn. As we pointed out earlier, the new trends in second language learning in Europe, i.e. the communicative approach, were also developed to answer the specific needs of adult second language learners.

As early as 1926, Lindeman had some very good assumptions on adult learning and he is quoted in Knowles (1984:31)

1. Adults are motivated to learn as they experience needs and interests that learning will satisfy; therefore these are appropriate starting points for organizing adult learning activities.
2. Adults' orientation to learning is life-centered; therefore, the appropriate units for organizing adult learning are life situations, not subjects.
3. Experience is the richest resource for adults' learning; therefore, the core methodology of adult education is the analysis of experience.
4. Adults have a deep need to be self-directed; therefore, the role of the teacher is to engage in a process of mutual inquiry with them rather than to transmit his or her knowledge to them and then evaluate their conformity to it.
5. Individual differences among people increase with age; therefore adult education must make optimal provision for differences in style, time, place, and pace of learning.

Even though Lindeman had developed those assumptions as early as 1926, no unified theory of adult education emerged before the late 50's. Then the field of

education was also touched by theories from Freud, Jung, Maslow, Rogers, and Erikson. It is not the purpose of the present research to go into the details of each of these theories. However, it gives the reader a better understanding of the evolution of adult education.

Houle at the University of Chicago first, and then Tough at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education both investigated the whys and hows of adult learners. A typing of adult learners, now mainly called continuing learners, was developed (Houle, 1961).

The three types are: the goal-oriented learner, the activity-oriented learner, and the learning-oriented learner.

A goal-oriented learner has a specific clear-cut need and seeks continuing education to solve that need. These learners tend to learn by episodes. An activity-oriented learner would seek continuing education mainly for the social aspect of continuing education. Human relationship is their goal. The learning-oriented learner would seek knowledge for its own sake. The latter are life-long learners who will probably be involved in a kind of continuing education as long as they can.

Tough (1979) tried to go one step further and analysed 60
the effects of learning experiences on self-esteem and
on further learning activities (Figure 7).

From his model, it is obvious that self-esteem and
pleasure in the learning experience are important
factors in achievement and pursuit of subsequent
learning activities. Unfortunately, second language
teaching methods did not always have this focus in mind
when developing teaching material, as we mentioned
previously. It would seem that a teaching/learning
activity using such principles would be successful.
Our project, in its desire to raise awareness of the
learning process, wishes to give more confidence to the
adult learners, i.e. self-esteem, and make the learning
situation a more gratifying experience in the process.

In an integrative effort, Knowles summarized the
andragogical model under the six aspects that are
different from pedagogy: the need to know, the
learners' self-concept, the role of the learners'
experience, the readiness to learn, the orientation to
learning, and motivation.

We will briefly talk about these differences since they
are relevant to our research, particularly in our
attempt to discuss the language learning process, which
is an "andragogical" activity in itself. "Adults need
to know why they need to learn something before

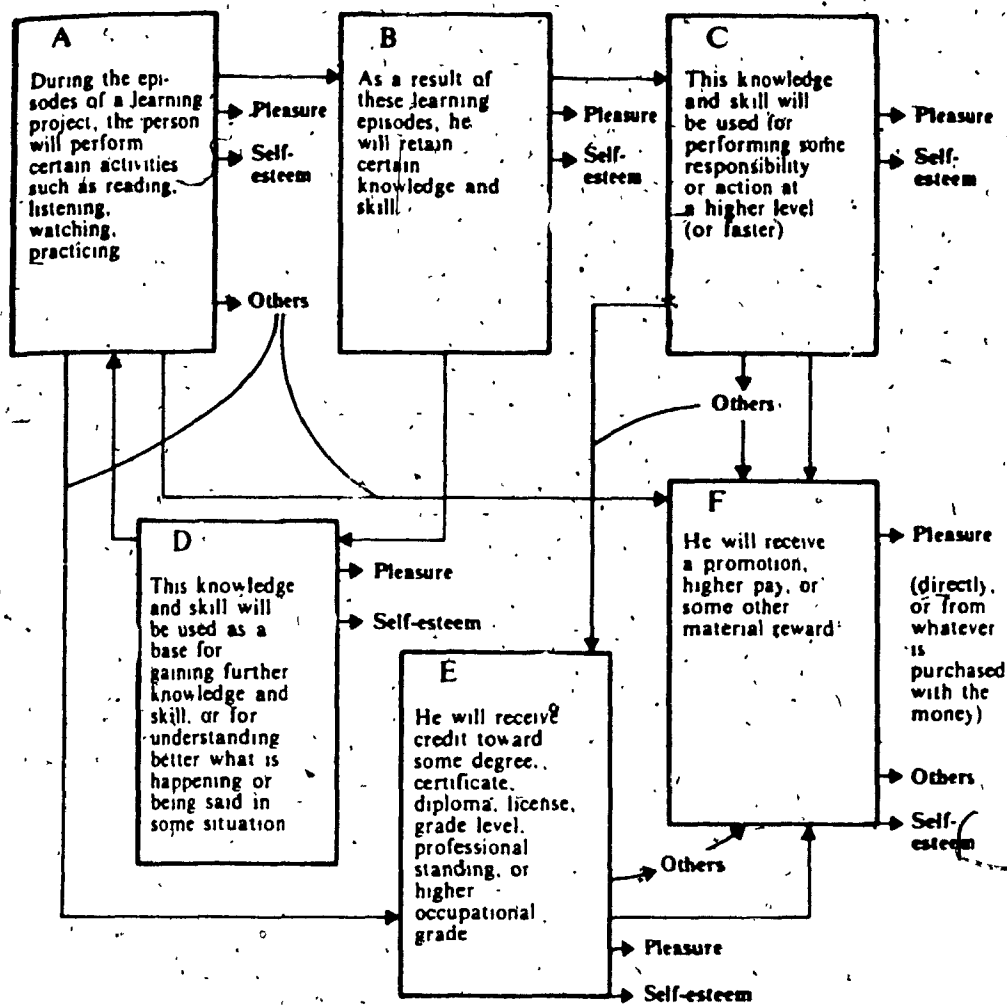


Figure 7. The relationship among the benefits that a learner may expect from a learning project. (Tough, 1979: 48).

undertaking to learn it" (Knowles, 1984:55). In other 62 words, adults engage in learning with a specific purpose that is clear to them. They won't sit through class without knowing that what they are doing is relevant for them.

Adults have developed over the years a deeply rooted self-concept. In their adult life they certainly expect to be treated as self-directed. However, when they engage in educational activities, their reactions can follow several patterns. In one pattern adults can react negatively to any attempt by an educator to impose the teacher's will on the learner's will. In another pattern, the adult learner can play the game of the dependent being, and expect to be treated like a child. Our discussion of the learning process, as well as the inclusion of learning strategies, was designed to develop a favourable relationship with the students in order to free them from a dependent state with regards to learning, and develop a self-directed learning attitude.

Adults have had much more diversified life experience than children. Even more important is the fact that in a given adult education class, the cumulative kinds of life experience of the students are not only phenomenal but also, always different from class to class. This always has some impact on the group dynamics. Our

discussions were rich in that respect by letting the students express their own difficulties, fears, and experiences related to second language learning. Our discussions started from materials provided, but evolved and included numerous personal experiences. In other words, it was not a teacher-student learning mechanism but an inter-student learning experience.

Adults are also ready to learn what they are engaged in learning. This may sound quite obvious since we stated that learning comes from perceived needs. Adults to a great extent decide by themselves to register in an adult education activity, which act represents a certain readiness to engage in a specific learning activity.

Adult learning is also more related to real-life situations than to purely subject-centered ones. Knowles (1984) gives the example of the teaching of illiterates who became more successful only when educators adapted their teaching to the real-life situations in which the learners would need to read and write, rather than to the pure teaching of reading and writing. The adaptation of the subject to real-life situations is therefore crucial. In our research, the real-life situation was the fact that the adults involved all had to deal with a second language situation. In the learning process discussion we also

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talked of what to say when a conversation breaks down,
or what to do when looking for a word we did not know,
which are such important aspects of second language
learning, part of real-life situations, yet not taught
in second language books.

Last and most important for the present research, is
motivation. Adults are responsive to external
motivators like grades, jobs, promotions and so on, but
internal motivators are still much more powerful.
Internal motivators can be increased job satisfaction,
self-esteem, quality of life, and so on.

Tough (1979) found that adult students' motivation is
frequently blocked by such barriers as negative
self-concept as a student, time constraints, and
programs that violate principles of adult learning.
Second language deals with such an intimate part of
oneself that we would add that these barriers can be
even stronger in terms of second language learning, and
can result from previous second language learning
experiences, second language beliefs and
misconceptions, and any interpersonal relationship that
occurred with native speakers. The experimental
discussions were precisely designed to deal with those
beliefs, misconceptions, and former experiences in the
hope that, by expressing, sharing and commenting their

feelings and experiences, students could understand better the process they were going through.

These considerations are among the key factors for our incorporating into the present research a discussion component dealing with the second language learning process, and give us reasons to believe that proficiency should improve as a result of our experimental treatment.

We would like to conclude by quoting Knowles (1984:62):

"The pedagogical model is an ideological model which excludes the andragogical assumptions. The andragogical model is a system of assumptions which includes the pedagogical assumptions."

As we stated before, the present research deals with second language learning, attitudes and adult education. It is an attempt to understand the educational problems of adult learners of French as a second language that I, and many others, were faced with as adult educators. It is intended to stimulate adult educators to help adult learners to understand the learning process they go through, and give them learning strategies to successfully achieve their educational goals.

Hypothesis

Our hypothesis is a three-part one. We suggest that adults who discuss the second language learning process and are provided with learning strategies, will (1) improve their performance in French; (2) improve their attitudes towards the language learning process, and (3) improve their attitudes towards the French community.

The literature on second language acquisition suggests that improvement in proficiency is the most likely to occur, and the literature on adult education suggests that change in the attitudes variables is less likely to occur in the short-term.

The sample for this experiment came from the adult population attending French courses in the department of Continuing Education of John Abbott College. Students were all Anglophones, or spoke English fluently. Teachers were qualified adult educators that had worked with adults for at least five years.

Four groups of students took part, two at the elementary level and two at the intermediate level. This accounted for 71 students total. The elementary level has 38 students, and the intermediate level 43. Two of these groups, one at each level, received instruction nine hours per week in the morning; the other two received six hours per week in the evening. This schedule explains the fact that there was a different proportion of men/women in the different groups, more women attending the day classes. However, all the students were registered for a 90-hour course. The testing schedule was therefore adjusted to make sure that the students received the same amount of instruction between the pretest and the posttest.

It was impossible to secure the services of the same teachers for the two groups at the same level. The four groups had four different teachers. However, those teachers worked very closely together and with myself for five years. We developed the curriculum

together and we all had a prime concern for adapting the pedagogical material to our adult population. The didactic material used was the same for the groups at the same level. The elementary groups used Le Francais International, book 3 and the intermediate groups used Le Francais International, book 4. In addition to the specific content of these books, the emphasis of the course was on developing the oral communicative competence of the learner through role-playing and simulation in situational context.

A total of 38 students volunteered and said they would come to the four scheduled Saturday morning sessions. At the pretest, 38 discussion packages were distributed to those who volunteered. However, many of them never came to the experimental sessions, probably as a result of a teacher strike that lasted four weeks. This was probably not the only factor contributing to lack of participation. The time lost in classroom instruction had to be made up and this may have had an effect on each individual's personal schedule. Many students did not like to see the semester stretched to the end of May and either decided to postpone their learning activity or to do it elsewhere. In addition, there are always many adults who overcommit themselves, have to deal with personal or health problems, simply lose interest, or feel that the course does not quite meet their expectations.

Table 1

Student distribution by groups.

	Total n	Exp. group	Control group A	Control group B	Not enough data
Elementary level					
Class A	15	5	3	3	4
Class B	23	0	9	6	8
Intermediate level					
Class C	17	0	2	6	9
Class D	16	4	2	6	4
TOTAL	71	9	16	21	25

In any regular semester at John Abbott the drop-out rate is between 15% and 18%. The number 25 (i.e. 35%) in the insufficient data column (see Table 1) is not quite a drop-out figure. It is only the number of students for whom I was unable to collect sufficient data at either the pretest or the posttest, and who consequently could not be included in the statistical analysis.

I would like to point out that the teachers involved were not actually on strike, they were only unable to teach because of the regular college teachers who were on strike. Teachers teaching for the continuing education department are hired on a contract basis to teach a specific course in a specific semester. New

contracts are issued every semester. This fact has its 70 importance in our topic: first, to eliminate any thought of negative teacher attitudes because of unhappy working conditions, and secondly, it was also made clear to the students that the classes were not willfully postponed.

In our opinion, the worst effect of the strike was to create a higher than usual drop-out rate in the general student population, and in particular among those who had volunteered to come to the Saturday sessions, but who did not.



In order to enable more in depth analysis of our results and for comparison purposes, attempts were made to include students from the Adult Education Department of the Protestant School Board of Greater Montreal (PSBGM) but these attempts were unsuccessful. This fact reflects the high degree of autonomy and independence shown by the various continuing education departments. In actual fact, the various institutions compete for more or less the same market.

The distribution of the students in the treatment groups from the classroom groups is shown in Table 1.

The students in the control group A were selected on socio-economic criteria as comparable to the students of the experimental group. This was done as a validity

measure since the number of experimental students was low. However, further analysis showed that there was no real significant difference between control group A and control group B.

In each group, i.e. experimental group, control group A, and control group B, there were students at both elementary and intermediate levels, once again numbers prevented the subdivision of our students into more groups. However, analyses on the results were made taking into account the level of instruction.



A test battery was administered to 71 adult students of French as a second language in the Continuing Education Department at John Abbott College to measure their proficiency in French, their attitudes towards the French community, and their attitudes towards the language learning process. A pretest-posttest design was used to determine if the treatment sessions given to the experimental group had significant results. The pretest was administered on January 24 or 25 depending on the course schedule. The posttest was given on April 6, 7, 19, or 20. The students all had the same number of instruction hours between the pretest and the posttest.

All 71 students were given the pretest battery, which consisted of a written test on attitudes towards the French community (Appendix A), a test on attitudes towards language learning (Appendix B), a personal information sheet (Appendix K) and an oral proficiency test. While the students were answering the written questionnaire, I had them come to me individually for the oral proficiency test. The proficiency test consisted of questions and answers on a series of pictures, gender evaluation with colored pictures and a free speech section from another picture. The free speech section was taped for further evaluation and

reference. These tests and pictures are provided in Appendix C.

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The posttest battery was the same as the pretest battery, with the exception of the free speech picture in the proficiency section, and the personal information section omitted. All the students took both the the pretest and the posttest. While 71 students had taken the pretest battery, only 46 were able to take the posttest. The students were given a code number at the pretest and only that number was used as a cross reference at the posttest.

Test battery.

The test on attitudes towards the community was given to us by Fred Genesee. It describes the students' feelings towards the other linguistic community, the students' desire for integration, and the students' perceptions of the other linguistic group towards their own linguistic group. Using it, Genesee, Rogers and Holobow (1983) found that students' expectations of motivational support from the target linguistic group emerged as significant and predictors of second language performance. Genesee's tests were designed for high school age students and the integration scenarios were therefore changed for our students to reflect a reality closer to adult life. This test is provided in Appendix A.

Attitudes variables were divided into 14 variables. I 74
talked here of expressed integrative or instrumental
motivation, attitudes towards the English community and
towards the French community on political, economical,
cultural and social aspects, and of the student's
perception of Francophones' reasons (again political,
economical, social and cultural) for Anglophones to
learn French. The questionnaire had a total of 90
items.

First variable: Instrumental attitude towards the
French community.

This variable means to what degree a student wants to
learn French in order to be able to function in a job
or any other imposed function without a real desire to
learn the language per se. It is a need to learn the
language but without trying to join in or understand
the other community that speaks that language.

The score for that data was the combined score from
questions 9, 10, 12, 15, 17, 18, 19, 28, 29. Maximum
possible score is 27.

Second variable: Integrative attitude towards the
French community.

This variable means to what degree a student wants to
learn French with a genuine desire to join in,
understand, and know more about the community that

speaking that language. The student wants to learn how to function but mainly wants to interact socially with native speakers of French. The score for this variable was the combined score from questions 11, 13, 14, 16, 20, 21, 23, 24, 25, 26, 30, 31. Maximum possible score is 36.

Third variable: Perception of French opinions of cultural nature.

This variable represents the student's perception of the opinions of French people concerning the cultural aspect of the French community life that the English community should learn. In other words, it says to what extent does the English-speaking student think the French community wants them (the English-speaking students) to learn French in order to participate more in French cultural activities. The score for this variable is the combined score to questions 33, 35, 37, 46. Maximum possible score is 12.

Fourth variable: Perception of French opinions of social nature.

This variable represents the student's perception of the opinions of French people concerning the social aspect of the French community life that the English community should learn. In other words, it says to what extent does the English-speaking student think the

French community wants the (the English-speaking students) to learn French in order to participate more in French social life and interact with members of the French group. The score for this variable is the combined score to questions 32, 36, 39, 40, 44, 49, 50, 53. Maximum possible score is 24. 76

Fifth variable: Perception of French opinions of economic nature.

This variable represents the student's perception of the opinions of French people concerning the economic aspect of the French community life that the English community should learn. In other words, it says to what extent does the English-speaking student think the French community wants them (the English-speaking students) to learn French in order to improve their (English) economic and job situation. The score for this variable is the combined score to questions 38, 41, 47, 51, 54. Maximum possible is 15.

Sixth variable: Perception of French opinions of political nature.

This variable represents the student's perception of the opinions of French people concerning the political aspect of the French community life that the English community should learn. In other words, it says to what extent does the English speaking student think the

French community wants the (English-speaking students) 77
to learn French in order to participate more actively
in the political life of the province. The score for
this variable is the combined score to questions 34,
42, 48, 52. Maximum possible is 12.

Seventh variable: Agreement on statements of English
social nature.

This variable represents the degree of agreement of the
student with statements concerning the social aspect of
English community life. The score for this variable is
the combined score to questions 74 and 76. Maximum
possible is 6.

Eight variable: Agreement on statements of English
economic nature.

This variable represents the degree of agreement of the
student with statements concerning the economic aspect
of English community life. The score for this variable
is the combined score of questions 69, 73, 77, 83.
Maximum possible is 12.

Ninth variable: Agreement on statements of English
political nature.

This variable represents the degree of agreement of the
student with statements concerning the political aspect
of English community life. The score for this variable

is the combined score of questions 67, 70, 89. Maximum⁷⁸ possible is 9.

Tenth variable: Agreement on statements of English cultural nature.

This variable represents the degree of agreement of the student with statements concerning the cultural aspect of English community life. The score for this variable is the combined score of questions 57, 60, 63, 78, 81, 87, 90. Maximum possible is 24.

Eleventh variable: Agreement on statements of French social nature.

This variable represents the degree of agreement of the student with statements concerning the social aspect of French community life. The score for this variable is the combined score of questions 65, 75, 88. Maximum possible is 9.

Twelfth variable: Agreement on statements of French economic nature.

This variable represents the degree of agreement of the student with statements concerning the economic aspect of French community life. The score for this variable is the combined score of questions 55, 62, 72, 80, 84. Maximum possible is 15.

Thirteenth Variable: Agreement on statements of French 79 political nature.

This variable represents the degree of agreement of the student with statements concerning the political aspect of French community life. The score for this variable is the combined score of questions 56, 58, 68, 85. Maximum possible is 12.

Fourteenth variable: Agreement on statements of French cultural nature.

This variable represents the degree of agreement of the student with statements concerning the cultural aspect of French community life. The score for this variable is the combined score of questions 59, 61, 64, 71, 79, 82, 86. Maximum possible is 21.

Since the number of variables was large, attempts were made to reduce it. The attitudes variables were divided into three variables: the degree of desired integration, the learners' perceptions of why francophones want anglophones to learn French, and the students' perceptions of the society in which they live. High numbers in the answers represent a higher desire for integration, a conviction that one's goals are supported by the other group (francophones), and a strong anglophone community attachment. However, none of these attempts prove significant.

The data on the language learning process were collected by asking direct questions to the students about different aspects of their learning strategies, since I could not find a test that had done that before. This questionnaire was developed by us and is shown in Appendix B.

For the oral proficiency series of measures, I used the Meloche test, developed by the Montreal Catholic School Commission. This test contains 50 questions for which the students receive either a zero, a one, or a two, as a mark for each question. The student is given a two for an answer that made sense and was grammatically correct, a one for an answer with a grammatical mistake but that made sense, and a zero for an answer that was unrelated to the question, regardless of its grammatical status. However, the test is stopped as soon as a student receives three zeros in a row since questions are of increasing difficulty.

In addition to the Meloche test, the ability of the students with grammatical gender was tested with a series of colored pictures. Three measures were drawn from the students' answers: their ability to use masculine or feminine articles, their ability to make adjective agreement, and a combination of both. The scoring of these was a straightforward right or wrong.

Finally, to assess their ability in free speech, the students were shown another picture of a scene in a park or in a camping site and were asked to describe it. The park picture was used at the pretest and the camping picture at the posttest. Questions were used if necessary to stimulate the students at the lower level. The final score for free speech was obtained by adding the scores from two raters according to the evaluation grid provided in Appendix D. The Pearson correlation between the two scorers was .81.

The proficiency tests and pictures are provided in Appendix C.

The experimental treatment consisted of a series of four meetings. These meetings were conceived to help adults learn better and evolved from numerous informal discussions held with students throughout my teaching years. The topics for these meetings were: the language learning process, the French gender, the French verbal system, and the last one consisted of review and evaluation discussion.

The students who accepted to come on Saturday mornings met on February 26, March 5, 12, and 19 of the winter semester. The meetings lasted about 2 hours each. I had originally wanted to have the students divided by level of instruction but the small number of students and the fact that English was used as language of communication allowed us to meet together.

At the first meeting on February 26, the students and I discussed (in English) questions and quotations from various articles on second language learning. This nine-page document had been distributed to those students who had volunteered at the pretest for the treatment. The students had been instructed to read this document before the first meeting and to jot down any ideas which they had on what they read. There were to be no right or wrong answers, just different ideas

to be discussed; this fact had been made very clear to 83
the students when the reading material was distributed.
They were also asked to choose three quotations: one
with which they agreed, one with which they disagreed
with, and one that they found surprising.

The main objective of the discussion was to develop an
awareness of second language learning processes: to
discover that an adult and a child do not learn the
same way, and to discover that second language learning
builds on the knowledge and the ~~systems~~ established
when a first language was learned. There were 65 items
(questions and quotations) divided in various
categories. The categories were: learning a second
language, age and learning, first and second language
learning, accent, errors, vocabulary and oral language,
grammar, strategies. A glossary was also included to
make the reading easier for the student. The document
appears in Appendix E.

The second meeting was held on March 5. The topic for
that meeting was French gender and its use in oral
speech. The main objective was to demystify the
complexity of grammatical gender in French and to help
students find a simple way to determine the gender of
an unknown word. This session was prepared using
mainly the research of Tucker, Lambert and Rigault
(1977) as well as Florence Stevens (1984). However,

the purpose of our research was different. Their research was to show that native speakers tend to attribute gender from the sound of the word. Our research used their results as a set of rules that the second language learner might use to determine gender.

At the beginning of the gender session, the students were given an exercise in which they had to identify the gender of a hundred words. I read aloud the words to see if they could guess the gender from the sound even when they did not know a particular word. The words were chosen for the fact that their ending sound was characteristic of either masculine or feminine gender. In the exercise, the sound endings of 48 words were representative of masculine gender, 27 words were representative of feminine gender. The remaining 25 words had sound endings that could be either masculine (9) or feminine (16), and were in fact exceptions.

The students were then given some documents on gender determination. An easy document explained how to determine gender according to the meaning of the word. The students were told that these rules could be very helpful in those instances where they knew the meaning of the word. A more elaborate document prepared mainly from the research of Tucker, Lambert & Rigault (1977) on determining gender from the sound ending of words

was also presented to the students. Both documents are provided in Appendix F.

It was explained that certain ending sounds clearly indicate that a word is masculine, and that other ending sounds are typical of feminine words. However for other sounds, it is necessary to look the written form to be able to determine the gender of a word (example: the sound /i/ is feminine if it is written -IE, or -YE, as in "la pluie"; but it is masculine if it is written without the mute "e" at the end, as is "le ski, le colis"). Those sounds were summarized on two legal size sheets, one for each gender, with the exceptions written at the bottom for further reference. They are presented in a different format in Appendix F.

The students were told of course that this was only a reference tool.. They could use it strictly as a reference, or if they wished, they might want to learn it in bits and pieces. It was made explicit to them that the objective for that day was for them to know that certain ending sounds can indicate a certain gender, and also to know how to use the reference tool they were given. They were also given another reference sheet listing certain words which could be of either gender. It also included a series of masculine words that are also used to refer to women, particularly in trades and professions.

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An overhead projector was used to make the presentation and allow the students to follow more easily. Together we did an in-class exercise which included a series of four words for each category of sound that I had previously talked about as being characteristic of a specific gender. The following week, the students did an exercise similar to the one that they had done the week before, to determine the gender of a series of words, with characteristic endings, read aloud. The difference between that pre-exercise and post-exercise was not analyzed statistically but the students all did better the second time. They all had a better score and they felt good about that. The documents used are included in Appendix F.

The third meeting was held on March 12. The topic for that meeting was the French verb system. The main objective was once again to demystify the complexity of the French verb system and give confidence to the students in learning it and using it properly in oral speech. They were explained how the oral verb system is in fact very regular and relatively simple.

The presentation on the French verb system started with a series of notes or remarks on the verbs. They were given in French (written) to the students and they were explained orally in English. The key element of that

presentation was to point out that there were not as many irregular verbs as the students seemed to think.

The irregular verbs were summarized as follows. Some verbs are really irregular and you just have to learn them; there are only four of those: "être, avoir, faire, aller". Some verbs are fairly irregular, you have to learn their particularities; there are four of them: "savoir, valoir, pouvoir, vouloir." Those eight are the most difficult verbs in French, but, as it was pointed out to the students, they had already learned most of them, since most teaching methods present those verbs at an early stage due to their frequency in daily use.

There is another group of verbs whose only irregularity is the fact that they have a special form for the future tense. There are nine of those: "apercevoir, courir, devoir, envoyer, mourir, recevoir, tenir, venir, voir." Once you know their future form, they are mastered. Another small group of three verbs has as its only particularity an "exceptional" form for one person in the present form. They are: "résoudre (ils résolvent)", "prendre (ils prennent)", and "dire (vous dites)." Finally, there are two verbs that exist only in the third person singular. They are: "falloir (il faut)" and "pleuvoir (il pleut). "Pleuvoir" is introduced very early in the French teaching methods,

whereas "falloir" is introduced at the intermediate level. Therefore they are already known to the

students. It was pointed out to the students that the total number of irregular verbs is twenty-two, i.e.: eight really irregular verbs and 14 slightly irregular verbs.

The rules for conjugating the verbs orally were then explained to the group. The reference material used for preparing this session was Csécsy (1968) and Rigault (1971).

They were warned that these rules may differ from the rules learned to write the verbs. The rules to write the verbs should still be applied when writing. The rules for oral use should be applied when talking. The rules of oral use were explained in English and distributed in French to the students. A glossary was annexed to the written document to help comprehension. Series of verbs were then given orally as examples and I worked with those in the classroom applying the rules that had just been explained. The remark sheet, the rules, the glossary, a summary sheet, and the list of examples appear in Appendix G.

The fourth meeting was held on March 19. This meeting was a summary of what had been done previously, a re-evaluation of the quotations discussed at the first

meeting, and a presentation of some ideas on what I called compensatory conversation.

The latter specifically deals with communication breakdown, what happens when one talks, how can one feel more at ease when speaking another language. Some common characteristics of conversation are totally ignored by many learners when they start speaking another language. Most of what was said in this session was from personal experience and notes taken at a conference on the communicative approach held at Vanier College in 1981.

It is normal to search for words in another language, in the same way it happens in one's own native language. It is normal to have the speaker repeat if one did not hear or understand. It is normal to have moments of silence in a conversation. It is normal to ask the speaker's help in explaining ideas or facts. It is normal to use body language. It is normal to use "passe-partout" words, like "chose", when one is missing the exact one. These are many conversational techniques that we all use frequently in our language and yet one may feel embarrassed to use them in another language, or simply forgets to use them. As a summary, it was also pointed out to the students that I did not expect them to remember everything we presented concerning the verbs and gender but I encouraged them

to use the tools they were given to improve their 90
knowledge at their own pace and feel confident about
what they already knew.

Scoring.

The data collected from the present research on adult learners were coded and entered on CYBER at Concordia University.

There are four sets of data: personal information, attitudes towards the community, language learning attitudes, and proficiency scores.

Personal information was collected from the students on the information sheet of the questionnaire shown in Appendix K. The student experimental numbers range from 01 to 69. At the time of the experiment each subject received a number of the type A-01, or D-22 depending on which class they were in. After the experimental phase was completed, these numbers were converted to simpler double digit numbers. The conversion list is part of Appendix H.

Once the experimental phase was completed, it was clear that something had to be done in order to be able to analyse the data, given the small number of experimental subjects. It was decided to try to create a control group similar to the experimental group on socio-economic status. They were called control group A and were chosen according to several criteria: sex, level of instruction, age and length of time in Quebec,

place of birth, education and type of work. The remaining students formed control group B.

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It was impossible to pair each experimental student individually. All the students that were comparable to a student of the experimental group were kept in control group A. This was a total of sixteen students since some experimental students were comparable to more than one control student. It proved impossible to find a student comparable to experimental student number 3 and sometimes a less than ideal match on one of the criteria mentioned had to be accepted. The groups were then coded: (1) experimental; (2) control group A, and (3) control group B. A description of the students by treatment group is shown in Appendix I.

The instruction level was also coded: (1) elementary and (2) intermediate. This merely reflects the course in which the students were registered. "Plan d'études" are shown in Appendix J.

The students were grouped according to their age range: (1) 18 to 24 years of age, (2) 25 to 30, (3) 31 to 40, (4) 41 to 50, (5) 51 to 60, and (6) 60 and over.

I was then interested in the number of years in Quebec. The actual number of years was put in relation to the age of the subject and the coding used reflected a percentage of the subject's life spend in the province

of Quebec. (1) 100% of the life of the subject was spent in Quebec, (for obvious reasons the time spent away as part of vacation periods was ignored), (2) 76 to 99%, (3) 51 to 75%, (4) 26 to 50%, and (5) less than 26%.

Education level was coded as follow: (1) less than High School, (2) High School studies; (3) College studies; (4) Undergraduate studies, and (5) Graduate studies.

The second block of data was on attitudes towards the other community, from the results of the extensive questionnaire obtained from Fred Genesee. Minor parts were modified to be more relevant for adult students.

Students answered or reacted to statements on a 9cm continuous line. They could answer anywhere on the line which was afterwards divided in 3 since their answers were all at either ends or in the middle.

Attitudes variables were divided into 14 variables. We talked here of expressed integrative or instrumental motivation, attitudes towards the English community and towards the French community on political, economical, cultural and social aspects, and perception of Francophones' reasons (again political, economical, social and cultural) for Anglophones to learn French.

The test battery section provided a definition of these variables as well as the questionnaire numbers they

refer to. Since it is quite long it will not be repeated here.

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Since the number of variables was large, attempts were made to reduce it. The attitudes variables were divided into three variables: the degree of desired integration, the learners' perceptions of why francophones want anglophones to learn French, and the students' perceptions to the society in which they live. High numbers in the answers represent a higher degree for integration, a conviction that one's goals are supported by the other group (francophones), and a strong anglophone community attachment. However, none of these attempts lead to significant results.

The third block of data concerned the attitudes towards language learning. These are the results of a questionnaire developed to try to assess the students' attitudes towards the learning process itself. This questionnaire is shown in Appendix B. It includes self-value, perception of their own potential in French, perception of strategies for learning new items, index of diversity of learning strategies, and expressed desire for interactions with French native speakers.

Self-value was measured from question 22, made of 100 parts at three points each, for a maximum possible of

30 points. This variable is the student's own

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perception of their own self. The maximum score possible is 30. The data collected ranged from 5 to 30 (pre) and from 18-29 (post).

Perception of their own potential in French was the cumulative values for questions 2, 3, 4, 9, 18, 19, and 21, as well as numbers 20, and 21 of section D, for a maximum possible of 27 points. This variable is the student self evaluation of their capacity to use the French language. Maximum possible is 27. The data collected ranged from 8 to 25 (pre) and 14 to 25 (post).

Perception of strategies for learning new items was the cumulative values for questions 1, 5, 7, 8, 10, and 11, for a possible maximum of 18 points. This variable represents the student's attitudes on learning new items. A higher score denotes a more positive attitude towards learning new things and a self-perceived easiness to learn new items. Maximum possible is 18. The data collected ranged from 7 to 18 (pre) and 6 to 18 (post).

The index of diversity of learning strategies was the cumulative values for questions 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, and 20, for a possible maximum of 30 points. This variable represents the student's expressed diversity of learning strategies. A higher score indicates a

greater variety of technique, a greater eagerness to 96
try every possible way to master the French language.
Maximum possible is 30. The data collected ranged from
8 to 26 (pre) and 8 to 24 (post).

The expressed desire for interactions with French
native speakers represents the student's expressed
desire to get involved linguistically with native
speakers. A higher score indicates a stronger desire
for interaction with speakers of the target language.
The score for this variable is the combined score of
questions 17 of the B section, and of questions 18 and
19 of the D section. Maximum possible is 21. The data
collected ranged from 7 to 18 (pre) and from 7 to 19
(post).

Since this test was developed for the present research
it cannot be as reliable as other tests which have been
normed on a large sample of subjects. Nevertheless, it
was important for the purpose of the research to gather
data on the above variables. The attitudes towards the
language learning process were indeed crucial in the
present research. The results are indicative of a
tendency which if significant, would need to be
replicated for reliability.

The last block of data concerned information on French
language proficiency, represented by the pretest and

the posttest scores on: the Meloche test, the grammatical gender of the articles, the grammatical gender of the adjectives, the combined scores of gender, and the free speech score. The proficiency tests are shown in Appendix D.

Analyses Performed.

One-way analyses of variance were performed on all the variables mentioned. The independent variables were age, level of instruction, years in Quebec, education, and treatment group, and the dependent variables attitudes and proficiency.

Small numbers prevented the use of t-test or regression analysis. Student-Newman-Keuls test was used to locate the difference between the groups.

Results of the test battery administered to the students were compiled according to proficiency, attitudes towards language learning, and attitudes towards the French community.

Oneway analysis of variance was run on pretest and posttest according to treatment groups, and the Student-Newman-Keuls test of significance was used to determine statistical difference between groups.

Oneway analyses of variance was also run according to the other independent variables. Results are described in three sections and are presented in table form with level of statistical difference.

Proficiency

Proficiency was measured on five variables. They were: the Meloche test, free speech, and three measures on the ability to use gender.

Results were significantly different in favor of the experimental group over the two control groups on the Meloche test variable (.003) at the posttest. Control group B was also significantly better than control group A on the Meloche test variable (.01) at the posttest. The groups were not significantly different at the pretest (Table 2).

Table 2

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Results of French proficiency tests
Significance levels according to groups

	Experimental group x	Control group A x	Control group B x
Meloche test (Maximum raw score = 100)			
pretest	22.67	19.75	31.71
posttest	72.44**	42.93	56.52**
Overall gender score (Maximum raw score = 31)			
pretest	21.33	20.81	20.33
posttest	28.00***	21.20	20.90
Gender score on articles (Maximum raw score = 19)			
pretest	14.78	14.19	14.00
posttest	17.78***	13.87	14.57
Gender score on adjectives (Maximum raw score = 12)			
pretest	6.67	6.63	6.33
posttest	10.22***	7.33	6.38
Free speech (Maximum raw score = 100)			
pretest	36.44	35.31	51.05
posttest	71.67*	51.07	61.81

* $p < .05$ level of significance between groups

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Results were significantly different at the posttest in ¹⁰⁰ favor of the experimental group over the two control groups on the gender variables (.001). There was no significant difference between the two control groups on the gender variables. There was no significant difference between the groups at the pretest (Table 2).

On the free speech variable, the experimental group was significantly better (.025) than control group A at the posttest. Results were not significantly different between the experimental group and the control group B on the free speech variable. There was no significant difference between the groups at the pretest (Table 2).

Oneway analysis of variance was also run according to other independent variables, e.g. education, years in Quebec, age, and level of instruction. Preliminary analyses showed no differences in scores according to sex, therefore this variable was not considered.

Results on proficiency in relation to education showed that ability to use gender with articles was significantly different (.03) between High School graduates and University undergraduates, the latter scoring higher. Results on the free speech variable showed that students with College or University level of education scored consistently higher than High School graduates. The difference was significant between these at the pretest (.032) and even more so at the

posttest (.016). No other variable was significantly different in relation with the level of education of the students (Table 3).

Table 3
Results on Proficiency tests
Significance levels according to education

	University level x	College level x	High School level x
Gender score on adjectives (posttest) (Maximum raw score = 19)	15.74*	15.00	13.57
Free speech (pretest) (Maximum raw score = 100)	47.46*	57.14*	31.50
Free speech (posttest) (Maximum raw score = 100)	64.95*	67.43*	48.29

* $p < .05$, level of significance between groups

Results on proficiency in free speech in relation to the number of years in Quebec showed that students having lived in Quebec for 25% of their lives or less, scored significantly higher than students having lived in Quebec for 75% of their lives or more (.018). No other variable was significantly different in relation to the length of time in Quebec (Table 4).

Table 4

Results of Free Speech tests
Significance levels according to years in Quebec

	Less than 25% of their lives in Quebec	More than 75% of their lives in Quebec
Free speech (posttest) (Maximum raw score = 100)	73.82*	51.26

* $p < .05$, level of significance between groups.

Results on proficiency in relation to age group failed to show any significant difference.

Results on proficiency in relation to level of instruction showed that students at different levels of instruction (Elementary and Intermediate) were, as expected, significantly different at the pretest (.05) on all proficiency variables. They were also significantly different on four of the five proficiency variables at the posttest (.05), showing no difference at the posttest on the ability to use gender with adjectives (Table 5).

A summary of results on the proficiency variables is provided in Table 6.

Table 5

Results of proficiency tests
Significance levels according to level of instruction

	Elementary Students x	Intermediate Students x
Meloche test (Maximum raw score = 100)		
pretest	10.60	50.30***
posttest	42.08	71.55***
Overall gender score (Maximum raw score = 31)		
pretest	19.68	22.10**
posttest	21.40	23.70*
Gender score on articles (Maximum raw score = 19)		
pretest	13.56	15.10*
posttest	14.12	16.50**
Gender score on adjectives (Maximum raw score = 12)		
pretest	6.07	7.05*
posttest	7.32	7.65
Free speech (Maximum raw score = 100)		
pretest	24.65	70.70***
posttest	45.42	78.40***

* p < .05, level of significance between groups
 ** p < .01
 *** p < .001

Table 6

Summary of significance levels for proficiency test results

	Group	Level of instruction	Education	Years in Quebec	Age
Meloche test					
pretest	--	.001	--	--	--
posttest	.01	.001	--	--	--
Overall gender score					
pretest	--	.01	--	--	--
posttest	.001	.05	--	--	--
Gender score on articles					
pretest	--	.05	--	--	--
posttest	.001	.05	--	--	--
Gender score on adjectives					
pretest	--	.05	--	--	--
posttest	.001	--	.05	--	--
Free speech					
pretest	--	.001	.05	--	--
posttest	.05	.001	.05	.05	--

Language Learning Attitudes

Language learning attitudes were measured on five variables. They were: self-value, self-perception of use of French, attitudes on learning new items, diversity of learning strategies, and expressed desire for linguistic interactions with native speakers.

Oneway analysis of variance was run according to groups, and showed that control group B scored significantly higher (.05) than control group A on the students' perception of their use of French. The experimental group results on this variable did not show a significant difference with the other groups.

Results on attitudes about learning new items showed that control group B was significantly better at the pretest (.05) and at the posttest (.01) than the experimental group (Table 7). Other analysis of variance according to groups failed to show any significant difference.

Table 7

Results on language learning attitudes
Significance levels according to groups

	Experimental group #	Control group A x	Control group B x
Learning new items			
pretest	10.67	12.56	13.76*
posttest	9.23	12.00	13.52**

* $p < .05$, level of significance between groups
** $p < .01$

Oneway analysis of variance according to length of time in Quebec, on the perception of their use of French variable, showed that students having lived all their lives in Quebec scored significantly higher (.05) than students having lived between 26% and 50% of their lives in Quebec. Other variables did not show a significant difference with the length of time in Quebec.

Oneway analyses of variance for other independent variables, i.e. age, level of instruction, and education, failed to show any significant differences.

A summary of results on the language learning attitudes variables is provided in Table 8.

Table 8

Summary of significance levels
for analyses of attitudes to language learning

	Group	Level of instruction	Education	Years in Quebec	Age
Self value					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	--	--	--	--	--
Perception of French use					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	.05	--	--	.05	--
Learning new items					
pretest	.05	--	--	--	--
posttest	.01	--	--	--	--
Diversity of learning strategies					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	--	--	--	--	--
Desire for linguistic interaction					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	--	--	--	--	--

Attitudes Towards the Community

Attitudes towards the community were measured on 14 variables: expressed integrative or instrumental motivation; attitudes towards the English community and towards the French community on political, economic, cultural and social aspects; and of the student's perception of Francophones reasons (again political, economic, social and cultural) for Anglophones to learn French.

Oneway analysis of variance was run according to groups, and Student-Newman-Keuls was used to determine significance levels. Results were significantly different on one variable at the pretest and on another variable at the posttest.

The experimental group and control group A both scored significantly higher than control group B at the pretest (.01) on their perception of French opinions of social nature (variable no 4), i.e. they tend to think that the French community want the English community to learn French for social reasons. This significant difference was not revealed at the posttest.

At the posttest, the experimental group and control group A both scored significantly higher than control group B (.05) on their perception of French opinions of a cultural nature (variable no 3), i.e. they tend to think that the French community want the English community to learn French for cultural reasons. This difference was not apparent at the pretest.

No other attitudes variables towards the community showed a significant difference according to treatment groups.

Oneway analysis of variance according to other independent variables, i.e. age, level of instruction, and education, showed a significant difference only with age, and only with regard to one variable at the pretest.

At the pretest, the age group 18 to 24 scored significantly higher (.05) on agreement with statements of French political nature (variable no 13) than the other age groups. This significant difference was not shown at the posttest (Table 9).

Table 9

Posttest results on agreement with statements
of French political nature (variable no 13)
Significance level according to age

Age group	Variable 13 x	No of Students
18 to 24	7.80*	9
25 to 30	5.64	10
31 to 40	5.17	6
41 to 50	5.91	11
51 & over	5.95	8

* $p < .05$, level of significance between groups

None of the other variables was significant. Since the results failed to show much significance, I tried to collapse the data into three broader categories and to see if analyses would show more significance. The new categories were motivation (integrative and instrumental), degree of agreement with English community statements, perceived support from French community to learn French. None of these attempts were fruitful in showing significant difference.

A summary of results on attitudes towards the French community variables is provided in Table 10.

Table 10

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Summary of significance levels
for attitudes towards the community

	Group	Level of instruction	Education	Years in Quebec	Age
Variable 1					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	--	--	--	--	--
Variable 2					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	--	--	--	--	--
Variable 3					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	.05	--	--	--	--
Variable 4					
pretest	.01	--	--	--	--
posttest	--	--	--	--	--
Variable 5					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	--	--	--	--	--
Variable 6					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	--	--	--	--	--
Variable 7					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	--	--	--	--	--
Variable 8					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	--	--	--	--	--
Variable 9					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	--	--	--	--	--
Variable 10					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	--	--	--	--	--
Variable 11					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	--	--	--	--	--
Variable 12					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	--	--	--	--	--
Variable 13					
pretest	--	--	--	--	.05
posttest	--	--	--	--	--
Variable 14					
pretest	--	--	--	--	--
posttest	--	--	--	--	--

We will now examine ~~the~~ results obtained in the present research to see whether or not our hypothesis is supported.

Our hypothesis was that adults who discuss the second language learning process and are provided with learning strategies, will (1) improve their performance in French; (2) improve their attitudes towards the language learning process; and (3) improve their attitudes towards the French community.

It should be noted that, as mentioned in the scoring section, two control groups were considered, i.e. one comparable to the experimental student group on socio-economic status (called control group A) and the other one made of the remaining students (called control group B). It is therefore obvious that significant difference is expected in favour of the experimental group over control group A, and that other significance in favour of the experimental group over control group B will add to the strength of the experimental treatment.

Proficiency.

It is obvious from the results cited and shown in the tables provided that the most conclusive support is to be found in the results of the proficiency tests.

The experimental group was significantly better than control group A on all five variables. Furthermore, our experimental group was significantly better than control group B on four of the five variables. This fact is even more surprising since 12 intermediate students were part of the control group B, compared to four in the experimental group. The higher proportion of intermediate students in the control group B should, in fact, have worked against a statistical difference in the results. However, the results show that the experimental group students were so much better than the others that the expected gap between elementary and intermediate students was reduced, i.e. the scores of five elementary students and four intermediate students combined in the experimental group was higher than the scores of nine elementary students and 12 intermediate students combined in control group B.

These results show confidently that the experimental treatment had a positive effect on language proficiency. The adult education principles put forth by Knowles (1984) and Tough (1979), incorporated in our

research in the language learning discussions, and the ¹¹⁴ teaching of learning strategies, have been shown to help adult students perform better orally. We would contend that the experimental treatment discussions increased the individual awareness about language learning and helped the students to concentrate on the task itself. The attempts to demystify the problems related to the use of gender and of verbs gave the students the confidence they needed to achieve better in those areas.

Results on language proficiency were very consistent in relation to treatment group, i.e. differences between the groups were significant with every variable. The same consistency was not shown when proficiency variables were analysed in relation to other independent variables.

Common sense would suggest that a higher level of education should produce better results. One may suppose that students with a higher level of education may have developed more diversified learning strategies as a result of their longer schooling experience and should therefore be better equipped to deal with and profit from new learning situations.

In relation to the proficiency variables analysed, education was a significant factor for the posttest on ability to use gender with adjectives, and for both the

pretest and the posttest on free speech. As expected, 115
the difference in ability to use gender with adjectives
was significant between High School graduates and
University undergraduates, the latter scoring higher.
Gender agreement of adjectives is a grammatical
category that does not exist in the same way in
English, therefore it requires an additional step in
information processing in the mind of the student. It
might therefore be an easier task for students having
had more formal schooling. However, it has to be
pointed out that this difference failed to materialize
with education on other proficiency variables.
Consequently, these results in relation to education
should not be generalized.

It is interesting to note that education was also a
factor in relation to the production of free speech,
and this both in the pretest (.032) and in the posttest
(.016). Students with post-secondary education scored
better than High School graduates. The most obvious
explanation for this fact is that students with a
higher degree of education might have a greater
facility to express ideas. This is probably true even
in the student's own language, but this assertion is
beyond the scope of the present study.

The education factor had only a limited effect on the
proficiency results, and was therefore not as important

as the treatment given to the experimental group, where significant differences were seen in favour of the experimental group over both control groups.

The results on proficiency in relation to the number of years in Quebec were somewhat surprising. The expectations would normally be that students having lived in the province longer would be more apt to perform better. Our finding of a significant difference (.018) between students having lived in Quebec for 25% of their life or less, over students who had lived in Quebec for 75% or more of their life, is contrary to the expected. This result may be attributed to the greater enthusiasm of those students in learning French, and possibly, less negative stereotypes towards the French community.

Immersion research has shown that immersion students were spared the negative Francophone stereotypes prevalent among Anglophones students in Quebec between 1970 and 1982. The 1970-1982 period having been one of turmoil with numerous language laws and political change, children in immersion classes were not affected as much as the Anglophone students in regular classes (Lambert, 1982). Similarly it could be argued that our adult students more recently arrived in Quebec have been spared the negative Francophone stereotypes existing in the English community through that period

of turmoil. The effect on proficiency of the number of years of residence in Quebec was in fact very limited (as was the case for the influence of education) and leads us to conclude that the number of years in Quebec is not a primary factor in determining proficiency. It has to be pointed out that the significant difference found in favour of the younger age group of students failed to be significant with other age groups, or with other variables.

It was comforting to observe that the proficiency results were significant in relation to level of instruction. Intermediate students were significantly better than elementary students, as one would expect, on all proficiency variables at the pretest and on four of the five proficiency variables at the posttest. It was somewhat surprising to notice that there was no significant difference between elementary and intermediate students, at the posttest, on their ability to use grammatical gender with adjectives. Surprising as it is, this difference may indicate that elementary students made more progress than intermediate students on their ability to make gender adjective agreements. It can also be argued that the limited number of items (only 12) in this particular measure made it harder to find significant difference.

On the whole, the most consistent effects were obtained as a result of the treatment; the experimental group scoring better on proficiency variables. Other factors, e.g. education and years in Quebec, showed a sporadic effect. These statistical results confirmed the very positive informal feedback gathered from the students at the end of the experimental sessions.

Language Learning Attitudes.

Our results were disappointing with respect to language learning attitudes. We were confident that improvement would be shown in the second language attitude measures between the experimental group and the control groups.

However, results were limited: (a) Control group B scored significantly higher (.05) than control group A on the students' perception of their use of French; (b) Control group B was significantly better at the pretest (.05) and at the posttest (.01) than the experimental group on attitudes about learning new items; (c) The perception of their use of French scores show that students having lived all their life in Quebec scored significantly higher (.05) than students having lived between 26% and 50% of their life in Quebec.

The difference mentioned in (a) was probably due to the fact that control group B had nine elementary students

and 12 intermediate students, whereas there were only 119 four intermediate students in control group A.

Therefore, the fact that the number of intermediate students in control group B was three times what it was in control group A, would have helped to show an advantage in favor of control group B. It would be logical to argue that more experience with the French language and/or more French classes attended (likely the case of all intermediate students) would have given students in control group B an advantage in dealing with the language. Being better to start with, intermediate students should feel better and be more confident in assessing their own knowledge than elementary students.

The significant difference on the learning new items score was shown both at the pretest and at the posttest, control group B scored higher than the experimental group. It could be argued that this indicates that the experimental treatment had, in fact, no effect one way or another on this language attitude variable. In fact, the measure of this particular variable failed to show significant change. However, it has to be pointed out that the actual improvement in the proficiency scores should prove that the experimental group did learn new items significantly better from the language proficiency results.

The perception of their use of French showed a significant difference in the posttest between the group having lived in Quebec all their lives and the group having spent between 26% and 50% of their lives in Quebec, the group having lived in Quebec longer scoring higher. Common sense again would suggest such results. It make sense to argue that students having lived in Quebec all their lives might perceive French more as an integral part of their lives than students having lived in Quebec less than half of their lives. It is therefore not surprising to see them rate their own ability with the language a little higher. However, it is surprising that a significant difference was shown only on this variable.

Since no other independent variables showed significant results, i.e. education, level of instruction and age, we would like to conclude that our results on language learning attitudes were, on the whole, tentative. We would attribute this fact to two main reasons. First, our experiment took place in a relatively short period of time compared to most research on attitudes conducted with school age students. However, as we explained previously, time restrictions were necessary when dealing with an adult population. Secondly, since it was developed for this experiment, the questionnaire on language learning attitudes may need further testing and revision.

Second language learning attitudes of adults are certainly a challenging area of investigation that would deserve more attention in the years to come. On the positive side, the fact that conclusive proficiency results were obtained with the experimental students leads us to believe that strategies for second language learning might have improved as a consequence of our meetings, even if the results on language learning attitudes were not significantly different.

Attitudes Towards the Community.

Results on students' attitudes towards the community were proportionately even less conclusive than results on second language learning attitudes. Out of the combined 28 measures of the pretest and posttest, only three showed any significant difference. Two between treatment groups and one in relation to age.

On the perception of French opinions of a social nature, the experimental group and control group A both scored significantly higher than control group B in the pretest, i.e. they tend to think that the French community want the English community to learn French for social reasons. In the posttest, the experimental group and control group A both scored significantly higher than control group B (.05) on their perception of French opinions of a cultural nature, i.e. they tend

to think that the French community want the English 122
community to learn French for cultural reasons.

Since no other attitudes variables towards the
community showed a significant difference according to
treatment groups it has to be concluded that the
differences described above should be considered weak.
If differences had been stronger, as a consequence of
experimental treatment, results would have been
significant also between the experimental group and
control group A. The results obtained would suggest
that the experimental group and control group A
students thought, in the pretest, that the Francophones
wanted the Anglophones to learn French for social
reasons, and they shift that perception to cultural
reasons in the posttest. These differences cannot truly
be attributed to the experimental treatment since no
difference was apparent between the experimental group
and control group A. Our argument is that they are
probably due to external factors, e.g. teacher or
environment.

Oneway analysis of variance according to other
independent variables, i.e. age, level of instruction,
and education, showed a significant difference only
with age, and only with regard to one variable at the
pretest.

At the pretest, the age group 18 to 24 scored significantly higher (.05) on agreement with statements of French political nature (variable, no 13) than the other age groups. This significant difference was not shown at the posttest. This may be interpreted as a sign of openness and idealism in the 18 to 24 age group. However, no significant difference were found for this age group on any the other variables.

On the whole, attitudes towards the French community stayed unchanged during the time of our research. Time was certainly the biggest factor against us. Most successful attitude research has generally been conducted over a long period of time, e.g. the St-Lambert experiment (Lambert and Tucker, 1972), immersion program experiments (Lambert, 1982), and High School or University level research (Savignon, 1972; Gliksmann, Gardner and Smythe, 1982).

While it is unfortunate not to have been able to show significant improvement in the attitudes towards language learning and in the attitudes towards the community, the time requirements from the part of the students could hardly have been greater. As it was pointed out in the literature review on adult education, adults with generally limited time available, are engaging in short-term learning

activities, seeking short-term results, and consequently are not available for long-term analyses.

On the whole, results on attitudes towards the community were very sporadic and disappointing. We were unable to sustain our hypothesis that, as a consequence of our treatment sessions, attitudes towards the French community would improve.

There were three hypotheses in our research: improving proficiency, improving language learning attitudes, improving attitudes towards the French community. We achieved only one successfully, i.e., improving language proficiency of the experimental students, but it is certainly the most important from the student's point of view. Statistical significant difference in favour of the experimental group over the control groups was obtained on most of the proficiency variables. With respect to the other two hypotheses, i.e., the improvement of attitudes towards the language learning process and the improvement of attitudes towards the community, we have failed to show a significant statistical difference.

In retrospect, if we look back at the definition of attitudes by Lambert (1982) provided in the Introduction, we can state that our results confirmed this definition in showing that attitudes cannot be easily changed once they are firmly set. Our research dealt with adults, i.e., students having reached later stages of attitude development and consequently more inflexible, was likely to find that attitudes would not change. The fact that our experiment was on a short-term basis added to the difficulty of finding significant differences in our results.

However, all second language learning models include attitude as a contributing factor to the whole process of language learning. This justified the inclusion of attitude variables in this experiment and at the same time limited it. From a subjective point of view, we would say that it was certainly worthwhile to include these variables. The experience of exchanging ideas with the students on language learning and on community attitudes was very challenging and very rewarding for both students and researcher.

The key problem in dealing with attitudes is to know what comes first: do better attitudes lead to better learning, or does improved proficiency lead to better attitudes? This problem has been pointed out by others e.g. Lambert (1980) and Genesee and Bourhis (1982) and is still unsolved.

However, what probably matters the most for the students we dealt with was improving their proficiency. As stated previously, adults enter learning activities with specific goals in mind. The primary goal of the students in our project was certainly to improve their level of French. We may even argue that the ones who came to the experimental sessions were more motivated, although we did not measure this fact statistically.

This argument would suggest as did Gardner and Lambert

(1972), and Genesee (1983), that motivation was an achievement predictor.

As Knowles (1984) and Tough (1979) have both mentioned, adults have their own reasons for engaging in education. Proficiency is certainly an important goal, while changing their attitudes towards the other community was certainly not a primary or consciously expressed goal. If adults need to improve to obtain or keep a job, our experimental students did it better than the control groups. They have their reward in first of all, achieving their goal of improved proficiency, and secondly, receiving whatever material reward is associated with it, now or later.

The complexity of second language learning models presented in the literature review would argue in favour of no change in attitudes over a short period of time since so many factors are interrelated in the second language learning process.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) have also pointed out that social and economic pressure may block learning. Our results would support the argument that social and economic pressure may block attitudes change but that learning can be improved with the help of discussions and the teaching of learning strategies.

Our hope to throw some light on the way Anglophones perceive Francophones remained unsatisfied, and we can only conclude that our research showed a status quo in the attitudes of our students before and after the experimental phase.

The theoretical model of second language learning proposed by Gardner, Lalonde and MacPherson (1985) probably gives us a very true picture of what happens when one learns a language. The problem is to accurately measure independently all the factors that are so intricately interrelated in the language learning process.

Genesee, Rodgers, and Holobow (1983) threw new light on the attitude component by considering learners' beliefs that their motives for learning a second language were supported by the target language group. It is our hope that our research emphasized the fact that discussions about the language learning process together with the teaching of learning strategies can help adult students' proficiency in a second language.

With regard to adult education theory, our sessions tried to answer the needs of students by discussing the language learning problems they may experience, and by giving them facts about the process of second language learning. In that respect, our sessions were a

real-life situation of helping students deal with their own learning experience.

We put emphasis on giving the students reference tools which they believed were needed to improve their performance. Our interventions were presented positively, since we did not want to put down students' previous learning experiences, but rather build on them, and demystify the language learning process. As suggested by Knowles (1984) and Tough (1979), we helped the students believe in themselves and in their potential. We did that by reducing the myths about language learning, and our suggestions worked like a self-fulfilling prophecy.

We feel that we have successfully reached an important goal by helping the students achieve better, even if their attitudes appear to have remained unchanged. We would like to see whether these results would be confirmed by other similar research projects. In any case, we believe our results are sufficiently positive to encourage teachers to incorporate language learning discussions in their lesson plans as well as teaching/learning strategies.

We hope that students will keep experiencing positive learning experiences and positive social "encounters" to reinforce the trends that we believe were started.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire for the attitudes towards the community.

Introduction

In the following questionnaires you will be asked to express your opinions about various aspects of learning French. For the results of this survey to be meaningful, it is important that you be as accurate and as honest as possible when answering. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions—we are merely seeking your opinion, and every one has a different opinion. Rest assured that your answers will be kept anonymous—do not sign your name to the questionnaire. Answer all the items unless it is important to you personally to omit certain ones. If you have difficulties or questions about any of the items, please raise your hand and someone will come to your assistance.

Answer directly on the questionnaire, on the appropriate scale, underneath each of the item. Now please read the following directions which will explain to you how to use the rating scales.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Directions

Following are a number of statements which correspond to what some people think, but not to what other people think. You might be asked to give your opinions about these statements, or you might be asked to indicate what you think others' opinions about these statements are. Therefore, it is important to read each paragraph at the beginning of each part of the questionnaire very carefully.

Examples

Indicate on the rating scale to what extent you agree, or disagree, with the following reason for doing homework.

1. I do homework:

a) ...so that I will learn better the material taught in class.

- if you totally agree with this statement, you would mark the scale as follows:

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

- if you totally disagree with this statement, you would mark the scale as follows:

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

- if you agree only somewhat with this statement, you would mark the scale in between. For example, if the statement corresponds moderately to your reason for doing homework, you would mark the scale as follows:

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

You are free to mark anywhere on the scale. Mark where you feel is right for you.

Following is another example:


2. Teachers give students homework:

a) ..so that we (the students) will learn better what is taught in class.

- if you believe that the statement corresponds entirely to teachers' reasons for giving homework, you would mark the scale as follows:

Does not correspond at all  Corresponds entirely

- if you believe that the statement does not correspond at all to why teachers give homework, you would mark the scale as follows:

Does not correspond at all  Corresponds entirely

- if you believe this statement corresponds somewhat to why teachers give students homework, you could mark the scale in between. For example, if you feel the statement does not correspond very well with teachers' real reasons, you might mark the scale as follows:

Does not correspond at all  Corresponds entirely

You are free to mark anywhere in the scale. Mark where you feel is right for you.

For each of the items on the following pages, give your immediate reaction.

Do not think too long about each one. On the other hand, do not be careless as it is important to indicate your true feelings.

Now go on to the next item and begin. Be sure you mark each of your answers on the scale underneath each of the items. Start with number 1, Part I.

Part I

A number of different situations are described below. Read each carefully and then indicate your reaction to it on the rating scale that follows.

1. In a work situation, francophones and anglophones want to organize a social club for the employees. The group is looking for a leader. Do you think that the francophones in the group would accept an anglophone as a leader?

Definitely
not

Most
definitely

2. A group of francophones and anglophones wants to improve communication between members of a multi-ethnic community. The group needs more members. Do you think that the francophones in the group would accept an anglophone as a new member?

Definitely
not

Most
definitely

3. This summer, a group of francophones want to help new immigrants integrate into their neighborhood. The group is looking for a leader. Do you think that the members of the group would accept an anglophone as a leader?

Definitely
not

Most
definitely

4. In your community a group of francophones are setting up a cultural group to plan cultural activities in French. The purpose of this group is to go out, socialize and foster the development of French culture of Quebec in that community. The group is looking for additional members. Do you think the group would accept an anglophone as a new member?

Definitely
not

Most
definitely

Part II

We are now presenting situations that are similar to those presented in Part I. Please read each one carefully and then indicate your response to the question at the end of each on the rating scale that follows.

5. In your work situation francophones and anglophones want to organize a social club for the employees. The group is looking for a leader. Would you like to be leader of this group?

Definitely
not

Most
definitely

6. A group of francophones and anglophones wants to improve communication between members of a multi-ethnic community. The group needs more members. Would you like to be a member of this group?

Definitely
not

Most
definitely

7. This summer a group of francophones wants to help new immigrants integrate into their neighbourhood. The group is looking for a leader. Would you like to be leader of this group?

Definitely
not

Most
definitely

8. In your community a group of francophones are setting up a cultural group to plan cultural activities in French. The purpose of this group is to go out, socialize and foster the development of French culture of Quebec in that community. The group is looking for additional members. Would you like to be a member of this group?

Definitely
not

Most
definitely

Part III

Listed below are possible reasons why English-speaking Québecers (anglophones) might want to learn French. Indicate to what extent you agree, or disagree, with each reason for wanting to learn French.

I WANT TO LEARN FRENCH:

9. ..because others will consider me to be a well educated person.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

10. ..so that I can become an influential member of the community.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

11. ..so that I can broaden my knowledge and my way of viewing the world.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

12. ..so that I can control francophones.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

13. ..because I would like to meet francophones.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

14. ..because I want to be more at ease with French-speaking people.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

15. ..because it would be an advantage if I entered politics.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

I WANT TO LEARN FRENCH:

16. ..because I want to understand francophones and their way of life.

Totally
disagreeTotally
agree

17. ..because it will be useful someday in my job.

Totally
disagreeTotally
agree

18. ..because others will respect me more if I speak another language.

Totally
disagreeTotally
agree

19. ..because it will help me get a good job.

Totally
disagreeTotally
agree

20. ..because then it would be easier for me to make friends with francophones.

Totally
disagreeTotally
agree

21. ..because it would help me to better understand the problems that francophones face.

Totally
disagreeTotally
agree

22. ..because I need it to get my secondary school leaving certificate.

Totally
disagreeTotally
agree

23. ..so that I can understand and appreciate French art and literature.

Totally
disagreeTotally
agree

I WANT TO LEARN FRENCH:

24. ..because I would like to become a member of the French community.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

25. ..because it will help me to get to know francophones.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

26. ..because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

27. ..because it will be useful when I finish school.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

28. ..because it will help me succeed in business.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

29. ..because it will insure me a job with a better salary.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

30. ..because I want to learn how people in French areas live.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

31. ..because I would like to have French-speaking friends.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

Part IV

Listed are possible reasons why French-speaking Quebecers want English-speaking Quebecers to learn French. Indicate to what extent you think that each of these reasons corresponds to their (francophones) actual feelings.

FRANCOPHONES WOULD LIKE ANGLOPHONES IN QUEBEC TO LEARN FRENCH:

32. ...so that we (English-speaking Quebecers) can meet francophones,

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

33. ...so that we (English-speaking Quebecers) can understand and appreciate French art and literature.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

34. ...because they will respect us (English-speaking Quebecers) more if we speak another language.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

35. ...so that we can broaden our knowledge and our way of viewing the world.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

36. ...so that we will become members of the French community.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

37. ...so that we will be considered well educated.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

FRANCOPHONES WOULD LIKE ANGLOPHONES IN QUEBEC TO LEARN FRENCH:

159

38. ..so that we can control francophones.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

39. ..so that it would be easier for us to make friends with francophones.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

40. ..so that we will learn how people in French areas live.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

41. ..because it will help us get good jobs.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

42. ..because it will help us to better understand the problems that francophones face.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

43. ..because we need it to get our secondary leaving certificate.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

44. ..so that we can understand francophones and their way of life.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

45. ..because it will be useful to us when we leave school.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

46. ..because it will make us more knowledgeable.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

FRANCOPHONES WOULD LIKE ANGLOPHONES IN QUEBEC TO LEARN FRENCH:

47. ..because it will insure us jobs with better salaries.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

48. ..so that we will become influential members of the community.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

49. ..so that we will be more at ease with French-speaking people.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

50. ..so that we will get to know francophones,

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

51. ..because it will help us succeed in business.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

52. ..because it would be an advantage if we entered politics.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

53. ..so that we can have French-speaking friends.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

54. ..because it will be useful to use someday in our jobs.

Does not
correspond
at all

Corresponds
entirely

Part V

Below are a number of statements about life in Quebec. Read each one carefully. Some of them seem the same, but each one is different. After reading each statement, indicate to what extent you agree, or disagree, with it.

55. Unemployment in the next few years is likely to increase especially among francophone workers in Quebec.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

56. Fewer and fewer francophones are becoming influential in Quebec.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

57. Anglophones in Quebec are rapidly losing their identity.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

58. Too many new immigrants to Quebec are becoming part of the French community.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

59. There is a danger that the French language in Quebec will be threatened if francophones learn English.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

60. The English culture in Quebec is threatened because of the popularity of French music among anglophones.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

61. English television is a threat to the French culture in Quebec.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

62. Francophones are losing control of the Quebec economy.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

63. There is less and less interest in the fate of the English in Quebec.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

64. The survival of the French community is in danger because it is only 20% of the Canadian population.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

65. Francophones in Quebec are losing their identity.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

66. There is a danger that the English language in Quebec will be threatened if anglophones learn French.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

67. Anglophones are getting fewer and fewer of the important jobs in Quebec.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

68. There is a danger that the French language in Quebec will be threatened if anglophones learn French.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

69. Anglophones are losing control of the Quebec economy.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

70. Fewer and fewer anglophones are becoming influential in Quebec.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

71. The French culture in Quebec is threatened because of the popularity of American music among francophones.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

72. Francophones are getting fewer and fewer of the important jobs in Quebec.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

73. Anglophones are playing a less and less important role in the economy of Quebec.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

74. The survival of the English community in Quebec is in danger because it is only 20% of the province's population.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

75. There is less and less interest in the fate of the French in Quebec.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

76. Public signs in English were quickly being replaced by French signs, even before the language laws.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

77. Fewer and fewer anglophones are getting the highest paying jobs in Quebec.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

78. The Quebec government is not doing enough to protect the English language in the province.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

79. The French culture is becoming weaker and weaker in Quebec.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

80. Fewer and fewer francophones are getting the highest paying jobs in Quebec.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

81. There is a danger that the English language in Quebec will be threatened if francophones learn English.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

82. The French language is getting weaker in Quebec.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

83. Unemployment in the next few years is likely to increase especially among anglophone workers in Quebec.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

84. Francophones are playing a less and less important role in the economy of Quebec.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

85. Francophones would like the Quebec government to pass more laws to protect the French language.

Totally
disagree _____

Totally
agree _____

86. French television is a threat to the English culture in Quebec.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

87. English culture is becoming weaker and weaker in Quebec.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

88. Francophones in Quebec think that too many new immigrants are becoming part of the English community.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

89. Without the protection of provincial language laws, public signs in French would quickly be replaced by English ones.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

90. The English language is getting weaker in Quebec.

Totally
disagree

Totally
agree

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire for the attitudes towards language learning.

1. For me, learning new vocabulary is:

Extremely
difficult _____

Extremely
easy _____

2. Using the verbs properly when I speak is:

Extremely
difficult _____

Extremely
easy _____

3. For me, using the appropriate gender is:

Extremely
difficult _____

Extremely
easy _____

4. For me, forming appropriate sentences is:

Extremely
difficult _____

Extremely
easy _____

5. Reading French is for me:

Extremely
difficult _____

Extremely
easy _____

6. Writing French is for me:

Extremely
difficult _____

Extremely
easy _____

7. Learning idiomatic expressions are for me:

Extremely
difficult _____

Extremely
easy _____

Please indicate why _____

8. For me, learning French is as a whole:

Extremely
difficult _____

Extremely
easy _____

Please indicate why _____

9. In conversation with a French-speaking person, it takes me a lot of effort to keep the communication going:

Totally
agree _____

Totally
disagree _____

Please indicate why _____

10. I should have learned French when I was a child. It would have been much easier:

Totally
agree _____

Totally
disagree _____

11. I feel that learning a second language is very similar to learning a first language.

Totally
agree _____

Totally
disagree _____

12. I don't care if I am making mistakes, I try to speak French as much as possible.

Totally
agree _____

Totally
disagree _____

13. As soon as I learn a new word I try it out even if I mispronounce it or misuse it.

Totally
agree _____

Totally
disagree _____

14. I like a teacher to give a lot of homework.

Totally
agree _____

Totally
disagree _____

because _____

15. I like the teacher to give detailed explanations on points of grammar.

Totally
agree _____

Totally
disagree _____

16. In class, when we have free discussions on various topics I feel I am not learning.

Totally
agree _____

Totally
disagree _____

Please indicate why _____

17. When individual students are making class presentations, I think it is:

Extremely
worthwhile _____

Not
worthwhile _____

because _____

18. My comprehension of a native French speaker is:

Extremely
low _____

Extremely
high _____

19. My capacity for getting my ideas across is:

Extremely
good _____

Extremely
poor _____

20. What means do you use to study for this course: (Please check or explain)

rote memory _____

making charts _____

making summaries _____

copying rules _____

inventing dialogues _____

other _____

21. In terms of bilingualism, I think I will reach:

0% _____

100% _____

22. I perceive myself as being:

interesting _____

boring _____

prejudiced _____

unprejudiced _____

friendly _____

unfriendly _____

pleasant _____

unpleasant _____

successful _____

unsuccessful _____

secure _____

insecure _____

permissive _____

strict _____

leader _____

follower _____

hardworking _____

lazy _____

ambitious _____

not ambitious _____

23. How much time do you spend on the following approximately:

listening French radio (weekly)

one hour _____ thirty hours

listening English radio (weekly)

one hour _____ thirty hours

watching French television (weekly)

one hour _____ thirty hours

watching English television (weekly)

one hour _____ thirty hours

reading French newspaper (weekly)

one hour _____ thirty hours

reading English newspaper (weekly)

one hour _____ thirty hours

reading French books (monthly)

one hour _____ fifteen hours

reading English books (monthly)

one hour _____ fifteen hours

going to French movies or plays (monthly)

one hour _____ fifteen hours

going to English movies or plays (monthly)

one hour _____ fifteen hours

For the following 2 questions, please give what would be your first usual reaction and the reaction that you would never have. Follow the example:

Example: You are in a party and you wear a brand new dress or suit. Someone drops a full glass of red wine on you. What is your reaction.

- a) get mad and leave the party _____
- b) laugh and say it is nothing _____
- c) ask the person to pay the cleaner first
- d) start to insult the person last
- e) other _____

The way I put "first" and "last" means that my first reaction would be to ask the person to pay the cleaner since I put "first" besides this option. My last reaction would be to insult the person since I put "last" besides this option.

Now please answer the following 2 questions according to this model.

24. In conversation, when I don't understand a word, my reaction is to:

- a) look it up in the dictionary _____
- b) try to guess its meaning by the context _____
- c) ask the person to translate it _____
- d) ask the person to explain it in other words in French _____
- e) ignore it _____
- f) react as if I knew the word to keep the conversation going _____
- g) other _____

25. In conversation when I can't think of a word I:

- a) stop talking and use the dictionary _____
- b) say the word in English and hope to be understood _____
- c) ask for the equivalent French word _____
- d) don't say anything _____
- e) use other words I know to get the message across _____
- f) use body language _____
- g) other _____

Proficiency scoring sheets and pictures.

The proficiency test was in three parts. The first part is not included since it is too large.

It is available from the Montreal Catholic School Commission.

The pictures used for the other two parts are included as well as the scoring sheet for the three parts.

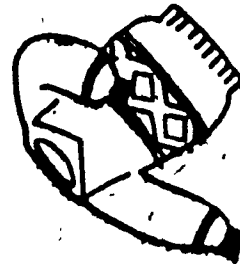
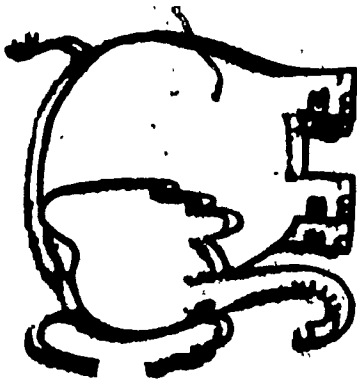
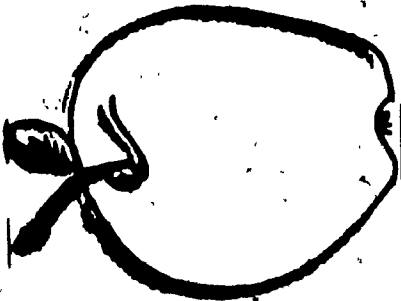
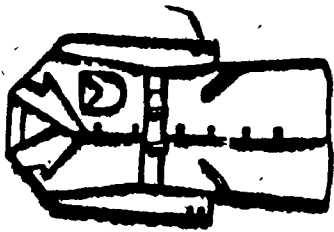
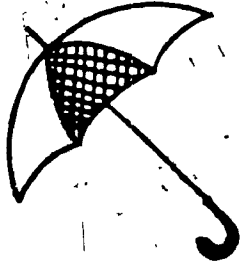
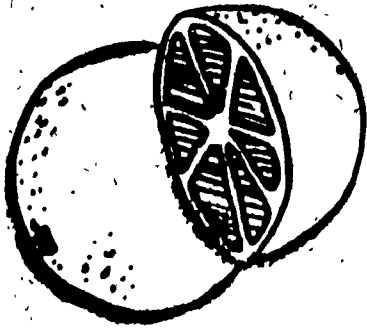
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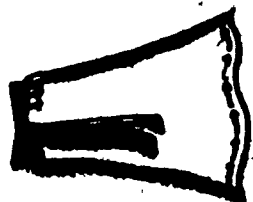
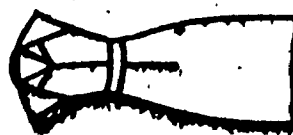
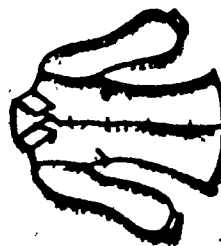
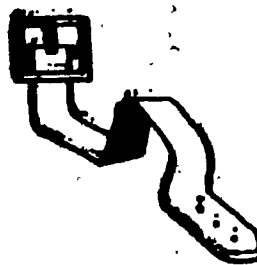
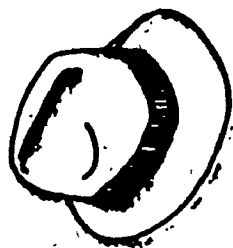
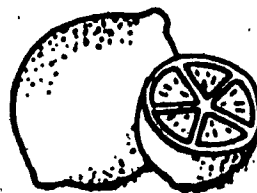
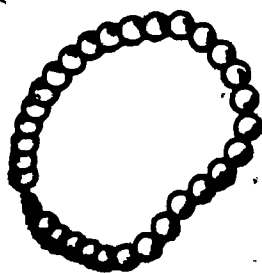
1.	2	1	0	26.	2	1	0
2.	2	1	0	27.	2	1	0
3.	2	1	0	28.	2	1	0
4.	2	1	0	29.	2	1	0
5.	2	1	0	30.	2	1	0
6.	2	1	0	31.	2	1	0
7.	2	1	0	32.	2	1	0
8.	2	1	0	33.	2	1	0
9.	2	1	0	34.	2	1	0
10.	2	1	0	35.	2	1	0
11.	2	1	0	36.	2	1	0
12.	2	1	0	37.	2	1	0
13.	2	1	0	38.	2	1	0
14.	2	1	0	39.	2	1	0
15.	2	1	0	40.	2	1	0
16.	2	1	0	41.	2	1	0
17.	2	1	0	42.	2	1	0
18.	2	1	0	43.	2	1	0
19.	2	1	0	44.	2	1	0
20.	2	1	0	45.	2	1	0
21.	2	1	0	46.	2	1	0
22.	2	1	0	47.	2	1	0
23.	2	1	0	48.	2	1	0
24.	2	1	0	49.	2	1	0
25.	2	1	0	50.	2	1	0

Total score _____ on 100.

PRE-TEST



POST-TEST



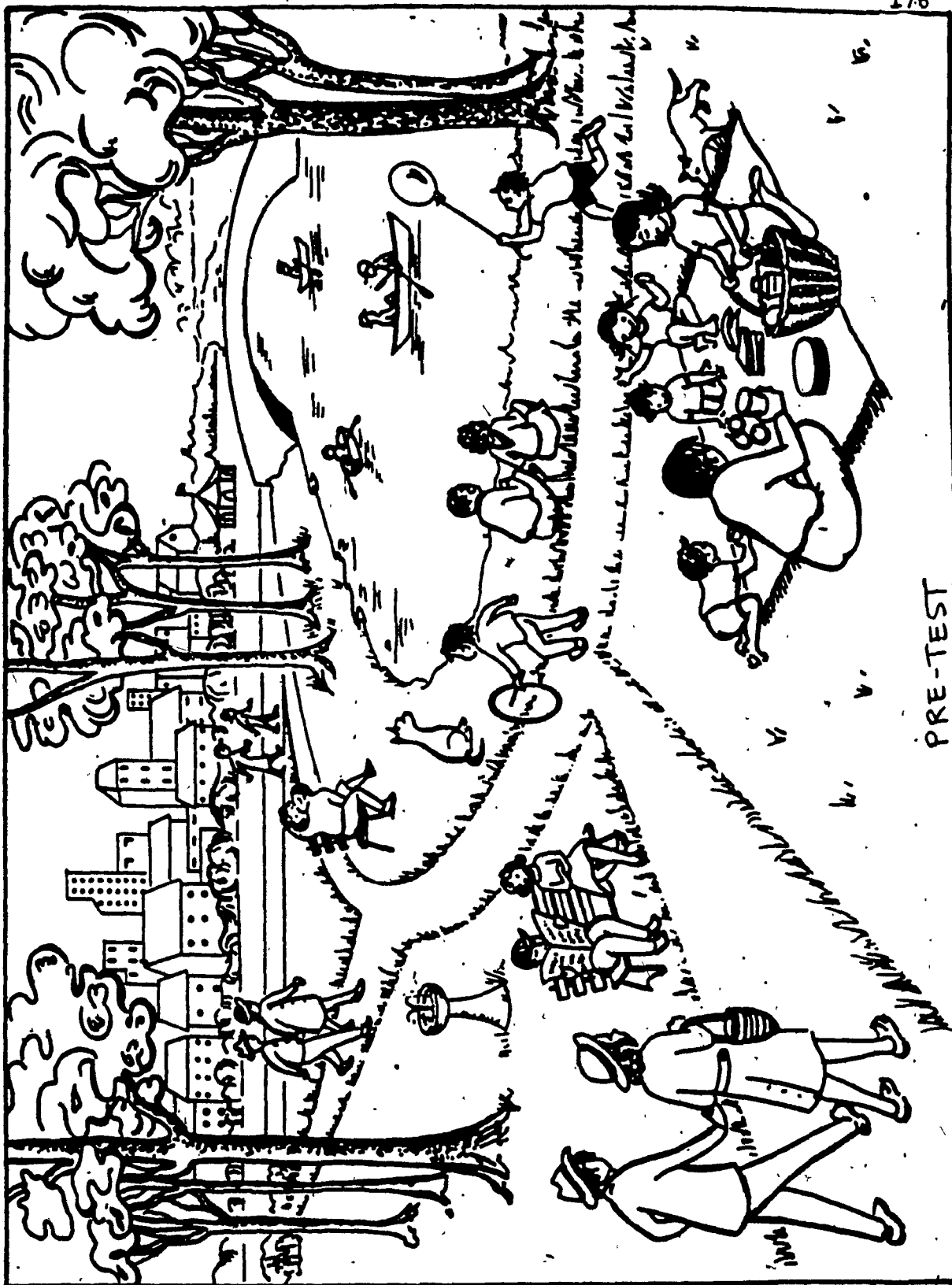
Oral proficiency

Part II.

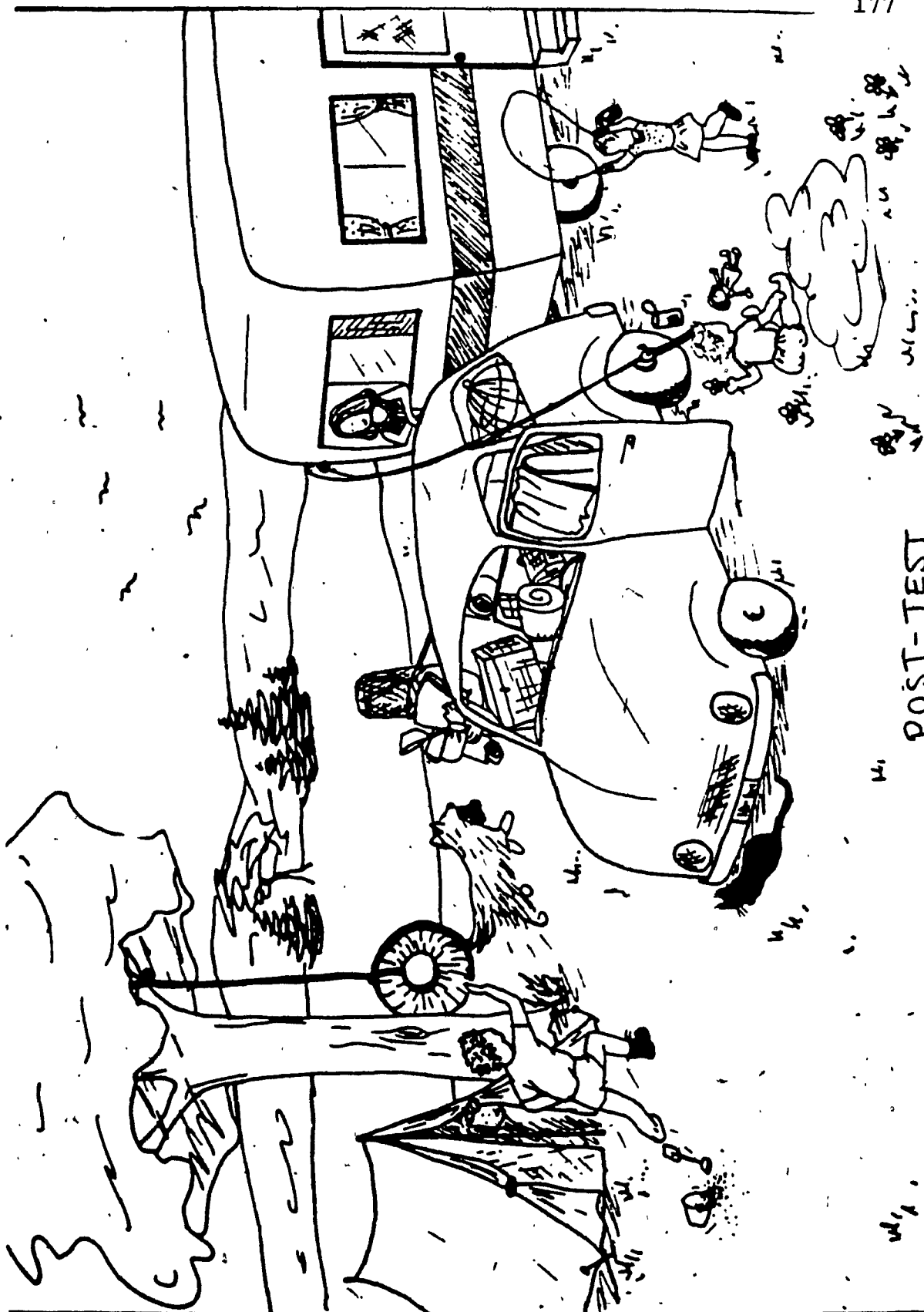
Answer sheet.

Student number: _____

une	orange	orange	2	1	0
une	pomme	verte	2	1	0
un	éléphant	gris	2	1	0
un	parapluie	bleu	2	1	0
un	chandail	jaune	2	1	0
un	lapin	blanc	2	1	0
une	brosse	brune	2	1	0
une	feuille	verte	2	1	0
un	chat	noir	2	1	0
un	manteau (imper)	brun	2	1	0
une	jupe	grise	2	1	0
une	blouse	blanche	2	1	0
un	chapeau	brun	2	1	0
une	cravate	brune	2	1	0
une	ceinture	blanche	2	1	0
un	collier	vert	2	1	0
une	robe	rose	2	1	0
une	fraise	rouge	2	1	0
une	banane	jaune	2	1	0
un	citron	jaune	2	1	0



PRE-TEST



Oral proficiency

Part III.

Student number: _____

	Rater A	Rater B
Pronunciation		
Grammar		
Vocabulary		
Fluency		
Comprehension		
Rater's initials		
TOTAL		

Evaluation Grid for free speech.

PRONUNCIATION

5. Has few traces in foreign accent.
4. Always intelligible, though one is conscious of a definite accent.
3. Pronunciation problems necessitate concentrated listening and occasionally lead to misunderstanding.
2. Very hard to understand because of pronunciation problems. Must frequently ask to repeat.
1. Pronunciation problems so severe as to make speech virtually unintelligible.

GRAMMAR

5. Makes few (if any) noticable errors of grammar or word order.
4. Occasionally makes grammatical and/or word order errors which do not, however, obscure meaning.
3. Makes frequent errors of grammar and word order which occasionally obscure meaning.
2. Grammar and word order errors make comprehension difficult. Must often rephrase sentences and/or restrict oneself to basic patterns.
1. Errors in grammar and word order so severe as to make speech virtually unintelligible.

VOCABULARY

5. Use of vocabulary and idioms is virtually that of a native speaker.
4. Sometimes uses inappropriate terms and/or must rephrase ideas because of lexical inadequacies.
3. Frequently uses the wrong words, conversation somewhat limited because of inadequate vocabulary.
2. Misuse of words and very limited vocabulary make comprehension quite difficult.
1. Vocabulary limitations so extreme as to make conversation virtually impossible.

FLUENCY

5. Speech as fluent and effortless as that of a native speaker.
4. Speed of speech seems to be slightly affected by language problems.
3. Speed and fluency are rather strongly affected by language problems.
2. Usually hesitant, often forced into silence by language limitations.
1. Speech is so halting and fragmentary as to make conversation virtually impossible.

COMPREHENSION

5. Appears to understand everything without difficulty.
4. Understands nearly everything at normal speed, although occasional repetition may be necessary.
3. Understands most of what is said at slower-than-normal speed with repetitions.
2. Has great difficulty following what is said. Can comprehend only "social conversation" spoken slowly and with frequent repetitions.
1. Cannot be said to understand even simple conversational French.

The following pages are a reproduction of the series of quotations used as a basis for discussion with the students in the first experimental session. These were distributed to the students at the pretest to those who said they would come. A total of thirty-eight packages were given.

Introduction

The following pages contains a series of quotations on second language learning. I would like you to read them since these will be used as the basis for discussion at our first meeting.

DIRECTIONS:

1. Carefully read all the quotations. Some terms are explained in the glossary at the end. Read it more than once if necessary.
2. You may mark down your ideas and thoughts on the sheets. You will keep them to help you in our discussion. There are no right or wrong answers. The goal of the discussion will not be to defend these quotations against yours ideas, but rather to allow us to exchange various points of view on second language learning.

3. Choose one quotation with which you particularly agree and state why.

4. Choose one quotation with which you particularly disagree and state why.

5. Choose one quotation that you find surprising and state why.

6. Please prepare some reactions to the questions submitted to you which are written in capital letters.

I AM LOOKING FORWARD TO SEE YOU ON FEBRUARY 5, 12, 19 and 26.

LEARNING A SECOND LANGUAGE

1. Learning a second language is a cross-cultural experience, a situation which some second language learners find interesting and challenging but which others find threatening. (Nelson, 1979)

2. Abandonment of preconceived mental attitudes is necessary to ensure second language learning, it is not an easy task but the rewards are invaluable, in the sense that an ability to use another language opens up a new world and extends one's mental horizons. (Curtin, 1979)

3. History makes it clear that when societies want to keep 2 or more languages alive, and learning more than one is taken for granted everyone seems to learn 2 or more as a matter of course. (Gardner and Lambert, 1972)
4. HOW IS IT THAT SOME PEOPLE CAN LEARN A SECOND LANGUAGE SO EASILY AND SO WELL WHILE OTHERS GIVEN WHAT SEEM TO BE THE SAME OPPORTUNITIES TO LEARN FIND IT ALMOST IMPOSSIBLE? (Gardner and Lambert, 1972)
5. Previous unsuccessful second learning attempts can jeopardize other attempts or at least be significant anxiety causing factors. (McCoy, 1979)
6. Human's abilities are not permanently fixed by hereditary background. (Lambert, 1972)
7. There is no reason to believe that adults lose any learning ability unless their minds are weakened by disuse, physical degeneration or disinterest. (Kidd, 1973)
8. Adults' orientation to learning is governed by a very real knowledge on the learners part of what they want to learn and how they feel they can learn it. ... And what an adult learns is often not reflected in achievement tests of general acquisition. (Nelson, 1979)

9. WHO CAN BEST LEARN ANOTHER LANGUAGE? (Naiman, Frohlich and Stern, 1978)

10. Affective variables may play a more important role than biological maturation in relation to adult second language acquisition. (Schumann, 1975)

11. Language is a means to an end rather than an end in itself. (Lambert, 1972)

12. For most adults, learning is not its own reward. (Zemke and Zemke, 1981)

13. Successful learners of a second language have to identify with members of another linguistic-cultural group and be willing to take on very subtle aspects of their behavior, including their distinctive style of speech and their language. (Lambert, 1972)

14. Mastering a foreign language depends on the learner's perception of the other group, to his/her willingness to identify with that group, and to his/her orientation to the whole process of learning a foreign language. (Gardner and Lambert, 1972)

15. The duration of instruction is indeed an important predictor of second language learning. (Genesee, 1978)

16. Seneca, Vergil, Livy and Cicero - those we read as ¹⁸⁵
models of the Latin language - learned Latin only
as a second language. (Gardner and Lambert, 1972)

AGE

17. IS THERE A CHANGE IN LEARNING RATE OR PROCESS WITH
AGE? (Ervin-Tripp, 1978)

18. Language becomes an increasingly important tool of
cognition with age. (Karmiloff-Smith, 1979)

19. There is no optimal age to learn a second language.
(Jacobovits, 1970)

20. Syntax was learned faster by older learner.
(Ervin-Tripp, 1978)

21. ADULTS OR CHILDREN: WHO IS THE BETTER LEARNER?

22. In some research children were superior second
language learners because sample of the target
language to which they were exposed was less complex
in structural and lexical content and thus was more
easily understood and internalized, facilitating
language acquisition.

23. BUT when they are put in a similar situation
children and adults learn equally well, and in many
instances adults learned better. (Nelson, 1979)

24. Given the same amount of instruction, or even less, adolescents will learn as much or more than younger children. (Genesee, 1978)

25. Older learners are favoured in many aspects, like the more fully developed semantic system, the more efficient techniques to memorize, the better problem-solving strategies, the knowledge of rules in their own language and their transfer capacity. (Ervin-Tripp, 1978)

26. The younger student deal better with the sounds of a new language. (Fathman, 1977)

27. Most children learn the same way, whereas adults, because of their diversified experiences, will differ in their learning strategies. (Nelson, 1979)

28. Children have not had experiences or formed attitudes which might jeopardize learning; especially second language learning which is highly loaded with personal and political significance ... BUT ... adolescents or adults who have a strong motivation to learn a second language can overcome those threats. (Genesee, 1978)

29. As human beings we resist change and adults often resist the dependent state in which they see themselves in second language learning. (Schumann, 1977)

30. The adult's more advanced cognitive maturity would allow him/her to deal with the abstract nature of language even better than children.

(Schumann, 1977)

31. On the whole we may say that adults and children are not better or poorer learners, they are just different. (Chun, 1980) Different aspects of a second language are best learned at different ages.

FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGES

32. DO YOU ACQUIRE FRENCH THE SAME WAY YOU ACQUIRED ENGLISH? HOW DID YOU LEARN ENGLISH?

33. First language learning is motivated by basic desires to communicate with, to become familiar to, and to belong with people in one's environment, first family members and then others in the linguistic community. (Lambert 1972)

34. Learning one's first language is difficult and time consuming. A child by the age of 6 has had 17,520 hours of listening to the first language and 2,190 hours of vocalization. Therefore learning a first language is not an easy task and it is more difficult because children are immature learners. (Genesee, 1978)

35. HOW CAN YOU EXPLAIN THAT ALMOST ANYONE LEARNS A FIRST LANGUAGE?

36. If the human brain is especially competent to deal with language learning, there is no reason to suppose this ability would confine itself to the first language. (Ervin-Tripp, 1978)

37. Stored experiences from use of first language are a boon, facilitating in many ways the learning of a usable second, third or fourth language. (Rivers, 1978)

38. In our native language when we cannot find the correct word to express ourselves, we often feel dissatisfaction. (Schumann, 1977)

39. WHY THEN DO WE FEEL SO STUPID OF NOT KNOWING SOME WORDS IN A SECOND LANGUAGE? DON'T WE ALSO HESITATE WHEN SPEAKING OUR OWN LANGUAGE? WHY DO WE FEEL EMBARRASSED OF DOING IT IN A SECOND LANGUAGE?

40. WHAT DO WE MEAN BY AN IDEAL NATIVE SPEAKER? (Carroll, 1979)

ACCENT

41. DO YOU HAVE AN ACCENT IN ENGLISH?

42. Pronunciation is not the be all and end all of learning a second language. (Schumann, 1977)

43. After 2 years of total immersion, English children learning French were recognized by their rhythm and intonation. They could not be mistaken for native speakers. (Lambert and Tucker, 1972)

44. HAVE YOU NOTICED THAT THE ONLY DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MANY ENGLISH AND FRENCH WORDS IS ONLY THE PRONUNCIATION?

ERRORS

45. DO YOU MIND ERRORS?

46. Adults tend to take errors personally, and are more likely to let them affect self-esteem. (Zemke and Zemke, 1981)

47. Good readers eventually learn to make mistakes that indicate that they are learning to ignore the less important details (like replacing "the" by "a", things that do not alter the meaning). The poorer reader did not. (Labov, 1972)

48. Many errors are impervious to correction.
(Dulay, 1977)

49. For a period, it was thought that many errors were caused by the interference of the first language. It is now more obvious that transfer from the first language and from previous learning experiences are not negative. (Felix, 1980)

50. Learning builds on what has happened before.

(Ervin-Tripp, 1978)

51. Learning is transferable. For learning to OCCUR, you need the following attributes: LISTEN, OBSERVE, COMPREHEND, and RESPOND. In addition, some technical skills are useful; they are: READING, WRITING, SPEAKING, and COUNTING (Smith and Haverkamp, 1977). This is valid for any type of learning.

VOCABULARY AND ORAL LANGUAGE

52. MEMORY is something a person DOES rather than something one HAS. (Rivers, 1978)

53. Any attempt to teach standard prefabricated responses to some stimuli is like shadowboxing. (Rivers, 1978)

54. Formulaic expressions are learned in association with appropriate situations. They are fixed expressions whose interpretation and functions could not be predicted by somebody who merely knew the grammar and vocabulary of the language. (Fillmore, 1979)

55. Real language use is needed for learning to occur and for the learner to remember. (Rivers, 1978)

56. The way we say something is part of the what we say. (Hymes, 1980) 191

GRAMMAR

57. Grammatical explanations would be more efficient than an intuitive approach with adults. (Von Eick & Oskarsson, 1972)

58. Rules are instructions to be tested in use. They have no importance in themselves, but only insofar as they facilitate the establishment of essential structured routines which make the expression of nuances of meaning possible in the new language. (Rivers, 1978)

STRATEGIES

59. HOW DO YOU THINK THAT ONE CAN BETTER LEARN A SECOND LANGUAGE?

60. Experience develops the necessary interconnections which permit the acquisition of second language. (Rivers, 1978)

61. Informal and formal environments contribute to different aspects of second language competence. (Krashen, 1976)

62. There is probably no one best solution to all individuals. (McLaughlin, 1980)

63. The possibility of extracurricular use of the second language and its associated benefits in terms of enhanced language proficiency should be a major consideration in bilingual communities where real opportunities to use the language exist.
(Genesee, 1978)

64. Here are some strategies of successful language learners: he/she is a willing and accurate guesser; he/she has a strong drive to communicate; he/she is often inhibited about weaknesses in second language; he/she is ready to risk making mistakes; he/she is willing to attend to form; he/she practices; he/she monitors his/her speech and compares it to the native standard; he/she attends to meaning in its social context. (Rubin, 1975)

65. Here are some strategies to use: join the group and act as if you understand what is going on, even if you don't; give the impression with a few well chosen words that you can speak the language; count on others for help; work on big things first, save details for later; make the most of what you got; look for recurring parts in formulas you know; get some expressions you understand and start talking.
(Wong Fillmore, 1979)

AFFECTIVE VARIABLES: the variables related to the feelings of an individual. A variable is a factor that can vary from individual to individual, for instance, motivation.

ATTITUDES: Settled behavior or manner of acting, representative of feelings or opinion, they are generally acquired from environmental factors.

COGNITION: The activity through which we learn something.

EXTRACURRICULAR: Extracurricular activities are activities done in addition to a set program of instruction.

FIRST OR NATIVE LANGUAGE: The language one first learns in the home environment.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE: A language spoken in a foreign country, for instance, Spanish or Russian for Canadians. See **SECOND LANGUAGE**.

FORMULAIC EXPRESSIONS: Expressions that are particular to a language. For instance, "How do you do?" in English or "Comment ça va?" in French. They are often not analyzable.

GRAMMAR: The rules which governs the way we use a language (oral and written). 194

INTERFERENCE: The action of acquired habits on a new learning experience. Generally mentioned as negative but not necessarily so.

INTUITIVE (or DEDUCTIVE) APPROACH / INDUCTIVE APPROACH:

An approach that is intuitive lets the learner discover the rules from the accumulated experience with the language. This approach is also called deductive. On the other hand, an inductive approach gives the rules and exemplifies them through a series of exercises.

MOTIVATION: An inner prompting or impulse which tends to influence a person's actions.

NATIVE SPEAKER: the user of a language who learned that language as a first language.

PHONOLOGY: The part of the study of language that deals with sounds.

SECOND LANGUAGE: A language that, in addition to one's own language, is in use in a community. For instance, French and English in Quebec.

SEMANTICS: The part of the study of language that deals with meaning of the words.

SYNTAX: The part of the study of language that deals 195
with construction of the language. It governs the
arrangements of words, their connections and
relations in a sentence or an utterance.

Note: space for the student handwritten notes was also
provided.

APPENDIX F

LE GENRE PAR LE SENS.MASCULIN:

1. Le nom des MÂLES sont généralement masculins: un cheval, un lapin, un homme.
Il y a quelques exceptions: une brute, une recrue, une sentinelle, une star, une vedette, une célébrité, une victime, une personne.
2. Les SAISONS, les MOIS, les JOURS: le printemps, Juillet est chaud, le printemps.
3. Les POINTS CARDINAUX et leurs composés: le nord, le midi, l'orient.
4. Les noms d'ARBRES et d'ARBUSTES: le pommier, un chêne, un érable...etc.
Sauf: la vigne, la bruyère (heather), la ronce (brambles).
5. Les MÉTAUX et les CORPS CHIMIQUES: de l'or fin, le manganèse, le cuivre...etc.
6. Les MESURES MÉTRIQUES: le mètre, le litre...etc.
7. Les noms scientifiques latins des animaux et des plantes.
8. Les INFINITIFS employés comme noms: Le boire, le manger, le faire.
9. La majorité des mots pris à l'ANGLAIS: un building...etc.
Sauf: girl, script-girl, pin-up, vamp, jeep, lady. (for obvious reasons)
10. Les noms désignant les LANGUES: le français, le russe, le néerlandais...etc.
11. Les noms de COULEURS: le bleu, le rose, le vert...etc.
12. Les LETTRES et les CHIFFRES cardinaux: un "a", un "b", ...etc.
un 2, un 3 un 20. Mais les chiffres ordinaux varient avec le nom qu'ils accompagnent. Et on dira: une douzaine, une trentaine, une centaine...etc.
13. Les noms de PAYS et de VILLES, sauf ceux qui se terminent par un "e"
à l'écrit: le Canada, le Portugal, les Etats-Unis, le Japon...etc.
SAUF: Le Mexique, Le Maine.

En cas de doute on peut toujours utiliser la tournure "la ville de _____"

FEMININ

1. Le nom des femelles: une brebis, une vache, une poule...etc.
2. Les noms ABSTRAITS: une espérance, la foi, la charité, la liberté...etc.
sauf: le silence.
3. Le nom des FRUITS: la pomme, une orange, la banane...etc.
Sauf: le raisin, le citron, le pamplemousse.
4. Le nom des SCIENCES: la physique, la géographie, la grammaire, la chimie...etc.
sauf: le droit.
5. Les noms de PAYS et de VILLES se terminant par un "e" à l'écrit:
la France, la Bretagne, la Belgique, l'Espagne, la Russie, la Chine,
la Georgie, la Floride, l'Allemagne Fédérale...etc
.....

Il existe encore quelques mots dont le genre n'est pas défini:

un/une après-midi, un/une interview
.....

Sons Masculins.

(by the sound and the written forms)

I-B

* /ɛ/	sauf -AIE	un intérêt
* /ɔ/	sauf /sɔ̃/ /zɔ̃/	un camion
	/sɔ̃/ /tɔ̃/ /ɛzɔ̃/	un bouillon
* /ɛ/	sauf -IE(s)	le ski
	-ye	le collis
* /e/	-ER(S) qual, nez	le premier
	-E(S) but NOT -IE(S)	le marché
* /y/	-U(+ cons.)	le tissu
		le refus
* /u/	sauf -OUE(S)	un fou
* /wa/	sauf -OIE(S)	un doigt
	-OYE	un roi

II-B

/ø/	-EUR (agent)	un acteur
* /l/	-L(S)	le journal
* /s/	-X	le tournevis
		le thorax
* /t/	-T	le scout
		un sept
* /st/	-STE(S)	le poste
		le cinéaste
		le texte
/g/	-G, -OGUE(S)	un zigzag
		un psychologue

I-A Vocal endings:
Rime sur /a/

* /ɔ̃/	le pain	le vain
* /ø/	l'enjeu	le jeu
* /o/	un cadeau	le mots
* /a/	un état	
* /ɛ/	le temps	le talent
/œ/	le brun	

II-A Consonantic endings:

/sm/	le capitalisme
/war/	le soir
vowel + -il /i/	un oeil, le soleil
* /aʒ/	le fromage
* Cons + -r /r/	(bra, cre, dra, fre, gre, pre, tre, vre)
	le coffre
	le sucre
	le ventile
* /k/	le cirque
* /b/	un verbe, un cube
* /m/	un homme
* /t/	le golf, un photographe

Exceptions

I-A Vocal endings:

- * la faim, la fin, la main
la catin, la Toussaint
- * la queue, la banlieue
- * la peau, l'eau, la photo
la radio, la faux (instrument)
- * la pampa, la guérilla, la java,
la tombola, la sierra, la véranda,
la vendetta. None ending by cons.
- * la dent, la jument, la mi-temps,
la maman et ses dérivés.

II-A

- * la nage, la page, la cage,
la plage, une image, la rage
- * la lettre, la poudre, la chambre,
une encire, une encire, la nacre,
la candire, la loutre
- * ceux en -IQUE sont 50/50. ATTENTION
une perleuse, la bandeuse,
la bibliothèque, Joyeuses églises

- * la bombe, la couche, la robe,
la barbe, une herbe, la jante,
la syllabe, la touche, la garbe,
la rhubarbe, la garde-robe

I-B

- * la forêt, la paix
- * la boisson, la trahison,
une opinion
- * la nuît, la brebis, la souris,
la perdrix, la fourmi, une obi,
la chauve-souris, une lady
- * la moitié, la pitié
- * la vertu, la brû, la tribu
- * la toux
- * la loi, la foi, la fois, la paroi
la noix, la voix, la croix

II-B

- * une eau-de-javel, une béchamel
une giri, une script-giri
- * une vis, une venus, une oasis,
la syphilis
- * une dot
- * la poste, la langouste

ES CARRÉS

- une femme, la plume
- une réclamation (20 notes en /am/)
- une victime (20 notes en /im/)

Sons Féminins.

(by the sound and the written forms)

I-C

/ɛ/ -AIE la roséale

* /i/ -EE(S), -YE la pluie

* /e/ -EE(S) la bouchée
-TE(S) la liberté

/y/ -UE(S) la vue, la rue

* /u/ -OUE(S) la roue, la boue

* /wa/ -OIE(S) la joie
-OYE

II-C

* /ø/ -EUR (abstrait) la peur

* /ɛi/ -IE(S) la ficelle
/ɔi/ la parole

* /s/ -CE(S) la glace
-SE(S) la danse
-XE la boîte

* /t/ -TT(H)E(S) la lunette
la natte

(by the sound only)

I-D

/sʒ/ une action
/zʒ/ une décision
/tʒ/ une question
/ʒʒ/ la contagion
/ɛz/ la maison
la raison

II-D

* /i/ la vitamine
/aj/ la bataille
/ɛj/ la veille
/ɛj/ une feuille
/uj/ une nouille
/il/ une lentille
* /ʁ/ une ceinture
* /ɛr/ la bière
* /ap/ la nappe
* /v/ la veuve
/ad/ la parade
* /z/ la cause

Exceptions

I-C

- * un génie, un sosie, le brie,
- un incendie, un bain-marie,
- un parapluie, un porte-parapluie,
- * un rallye, un amphibie
- * le musée, le trophée, le colisée,
- le rez-de-chaussée, le député, le comté
- * le garde-boue
- * le foie, un rabat-joie

II-C

- * un honneur, le labeur,
- le bonheur, le malheur
- * un modèle
- * le silence (seule exception en /sə/)
- le lux, le pouce, un indice
- * un mille-pattes

STATISTICAL NOTE:

These rules apply to approximately 25,200 words, and they count only 210 exceptions, for an accuracy of 99%.

It means that even without remembering the exceptions listed here, you would be right at 99%!!!!

I-D

NONE

II-D

- * un misogyne
- * le braille, le porte-bouteilles,
le cure-oreille,
- le porte-feuille, le mille-feuille,
- le chèvre-feuille, un antirouille
- * un augure, le mercure, un parjure
- * le cimetière
- * le pape
- * le conclave, un esclave,
(24 mots en -AVE, ATTENTION)
- * le pare-briss, le trapez, le vase
un obèse, le gymnase,
le strip-tease, + Couleurs,
Chiffres, et arbres.

EXERCICE.

(Please circle the appropriate article in front of each word.)

- | | |
|------------------|--------------------|
| un une bataille | un une intérêt |
| le la vent | le la grosseur |
| le la vitamine | le la boudhisme |
| un une attentat | un une trachée |
| un une ceinture | un une soir |
| un une pyjama | un une marché |
| un une ficelle | un une soleil |
| un une poids | un une lecteur |
| un une parole | un une verbe |
| un une pays | un une professeur |
| un une nappe | un une lac |
| un une salut | un une autobus |
| un une glace | un une cirque |
| un une sou | un une avion |
| un une lunette | le la golf |
| un une boulanger | un une acteur |
| un une natte | un une zigzag |
| un une camion | un une fromage |
| un une veuve | un une psychologue |
| un une jet | un une cinéaste |
| un une cause | un une journal |
| un une gond | un une scout |
| un une bière | un une homme |
| un une flacon | un une tournevis |
| le la peur | le la sucre |

.....

suite

un une millilitre	le la loi
le la foi	le la génie
le la cuivre	un une maman
un une pomme	un une musée
un une building	le la faim
le la physique (science)	un une foie
un une chène	un une eau
le la France	un une luxe
le la nord	un une queue
le la soie	le la mercure
le la bleu	un une guérilla
un une copie	un une pape
un une "a"	un une plage
un une avenue	un une vase (pot)
le la Canada	un une banque
le la boue	le la bonheur
le la printemps	un une barbe
le la bonté	un une plume
un une cheval	un une gaffe
un une gorgée	un une forêt
un une pain	un une oasis
un une action	un une toux
un une peu	un une bru,
un une roseraie	un une brebis
un une bureau	le la pitié

.....

(Please circle the appropriate article/in front of each word).

un une vitrail	un une centilitre
le la terreur	le la mémoire
un une crabe	un une bronze
un une tranchée	un une pêche
un une échec	un une bulldozer
un une session	le la bio-chimie
un une zodiaque	un une oranger
le la confusion	le la Virginie
un une relief	le la sud
un une boucher	le la joie
un une iceberg	le la noir
un une carré	un une théorie
un une astrologue	un une "w"
un une receveur	un une fondue
un une rival	le la Brésil
un une laboureur	un une joue
un une poème	un une hiver
un une cumulus	le la liberté
un une sabre	un une chien
un une horizon	un une bouchée
un une express	un une gain
un une mineur	un une infection
un une contact	un une aveu
un une hommage	un une passion
un une geste	un une traîneau

.....

suite

un une expansion	un une croix
un une gant	un une sosie
un une haie	un une dent
un une achat	un une député
un une oreille	un une fin
un une agenda	un une foie
un une étamine	le la peau
un une tournoi	le la silence
le la verdure	le la banlieue
le la ski	un une parjure
un une jumelle	le la sierra
un une jus	un une cimetière
un une colle	un une image
un une rendez-vous	un une pare-brise
un une étape	un une banque
un une cordonnier	un une malheur
un une terrasse	un une herbe
un une prénom	un une réclame
un une gazette	un une griffe
un une fait	le la paix
le la lessive	un une vis
le la communisme	un une toux
un une phrase	un une tribu
le la bonsoir	un une moitié
un une première	un une nuit

.....

Exercice commun page 1 de 4

boeuf	chat	coq	ère
automne	été	hiver	printemps
midi	nord	sud	ouest
pommetier	saule	chêne	saule
laiton	plomb	cuivre	mercure
kilomètre	litre	millimètre	
rouge	jaune	bleu	vert
"m"	"h"	"k"	"a"
Japon	Etats-Unis	Pakistan	Népal
vache	poule	chèvre	ânesse
automne	été	hiver	
orange	orange	orange	orange
graphologie	biologie	chimie	physique (science)
Inde	France	Belgique	Floride

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/ /	marin	engin	venir	vin
/ /	sec	assaut	essieu	spiritueux
/ /	canot	défaut	saut	agresseu
/ /	gérant	rueur	payer	habitant
/ /	avocat	candidat	recas	villes
/ /	saura	sofa	boa	
/ /	bois	endroit	empêch	toit
/ /	pie	prole	voie	
/ /	ennemi	verrus	colis	sursis
/ /	folie	pluie	vie	envie
/ /	individu	refus	fichu	intrus
/ /	statue	charrue	issue	
/ /	cou	serou	clou	remous
/ /	roue	moue	joue	soue
/ /	charité	humanité	égalité	fraternité
/ /	premier	pâtissier	verger	
/ /	lampe	sorgée	poignée	
/ /	bouillon	chiffon	plafond	dragon

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/ /	direction	persuasion	raison	raison
/ /	flocon	abandon	camion	
/ /	sanction	question	session	injonction
/ /	raie	baie	taie	haie
/ /	forfait	jet	lait	guet
/ /	impérialisme	capitalisme	fanatisme	idéisme
/ /	noir	soir	pouvoir	bonsoir
/ /	oeil	cerceuil	fauteuil	
/ /	cube	microbe	club	snob
/ /	talc	fisc	choc	échec
/ /	décalque	disque	tank	
/ /	oeuf	récif	bluff	triomphe
/ /	joug	kidnapping	boomerang	
/ /	cardiologue	archéologue	neurologue	spéléologue
/ /	feuille	fiancailles	patrouille	
/ /	ruine	vitamine	étamine	
/ /	peinture	sciure	soudure	vergeture
/ /	poil	hôtel	crawl	

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/ /	moelle	ruelle	aile	
/ /	école	farandole	perole	colle
/ /	slalom	calme	chrome	
/ /	étape	nappe		
/ /	timbre	cadre	marbre	massacre
/ /	lys	file	sens	
/ /	angoisse	évidence	vacances	
/ /	flirt	script	volt	
/ /	goutte	patte	mascotte	butte
/ /	cuve	louve	valve	grève
/ /	marché	carré	clergé	
/ /	texte	journaliste	reste	geste
/ /	espionnage	camionnage	co-voiturage	orage
/ /	écluse	rose	épouse	chaise
/ /	boulangère	pâtisserie	galère	clairière
/ /	travailleur	imprimeur	soudeur	ingénieur
/ /	candeur	maigreur	grosseur	peur

Les Verbes français: Notes générales.

1. En français, à l'oral, la personne est marquée par le pronom, comme en anglais. Mais en français, l'orthographe n'a pas suivi l'évolution de la langue orale.
2. La formule de politesse est la 2^{ème} personne comme en anglais, différemment d'autres langues latines comme l'espagnol ou l'italien qui utilisent la 3^{ème} personne.
3. Dans le langage courant NOUS est souvent remplacé par ON, dont la conjugaison est plus facile.
4. Les néologismes verbaux sont formés sur la forme des verbes en -ER et parfois sur la forme des verbes en -IR parce que ces conjugaisons sont très régulières. Ex: solutionner, téléviser, alunir, amerrir...etc. Les verbes du 3^{ème} groupe forment un groupe défini auquel on n'en ajoute plus.
5. Les marques de /õ/ et de /e/ respectivement au pl.1 et au pl.2 sont constantes à tous les verbes. La seule exception pour /õ/ est le verbe ÊTRE (nous sommes), et /e/ ne compte que 3 exceptions: ÊTRE (vous ^{êtes} êtes), FAIRE (vous faites), et DIRE (vous dites).

6. Les verbes à initiale vocalique (aimer, écouter, entendre...etc.) sont 5 fois moins nombreux que les verbes à initiale consonnantique, mais ils présentent une certaine particularité: ils exigent la LIAISON.

7. Voici un aperçu des verbes irréguliers en français, nous élaborerons plus loin. Il y a 4 verbes vraiment irréguliers qu'il faut apprendre. Ce sont: ÊTRE, AVOIR, ALLER, et FAIRE.

Il y a 4 verbes assez irréguliers dont il faut connaître les particularités. Ce sont: SAVOIR, VALOIR, POUVOIR, ET VOULOIR.

Il y a 9 verbes dont la seule irrégularité est d'avoir un thème spécial au futur. Ce sont: APERCEVOIR, COURIR, DEVOIR, ENVOYER, MOURIR, RECEVOIR, TENIR, VENIR, VOIR.

Il y a 3 verbes dont la seule irrégularité est d'avoir une forme différente à une personne du présent. Ce sont: RÉSOUDRE, PRENDRE, et DIRE.

Il y a 2 verbes courants qui sont défectifs. Ce sont: FALLOIR et PLEUVOIR.

Ces 3 derniers groupes ne totalisent que 14 verbes que nous qualifierons de presque pas irréguliers.

VERBES EXEMPLES.1 thème

PARLER

FERMER

CHANTER

PLACER

MANGER

DANSER

COURIR

TROUVER

DONNER

PASSER

DEMANDER

PENSER

RESTER

TRAVAILLER

LAISSER

COMMENCER

MARCHER

REGARDER

CHERCHER

RIRE

CONCLURE

CRÉER

CRIER

MONTRER

SEMBLER

ENTRER

AVANCER

ARRIVER

ÉCOUTER

AIMER

APPRÉCIER

1 thème + alternance

ACHETER

ACQUÉRIR

APPELER

CÉDER

GELER

JETER

MENER

MOURIR

PESER

XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX

1 thème (suite)

OUVRIR

PAYER

VOIR

BALAYER

ASSEOIR

CROIRE

2 thèmes

AGIR
 ATTENDRE
 BATTRE
 CHOISIR
 CONNAÎTRE
 CRAINDRE
 CROÎTRE
 CUIRE
 DÉMOLIR
 DIRE
 DORMIR
 ÉCRIRE
 ENTENDRE
 FINIR
 GRANDIR
 GUÉRIR
 HAIR
 JOINDRE
 LIRE
 MAIGRIR
 METTRE
 MOUDRE
 NAÎTRE
 PARAÎTRE
 PARTIR
 PEINDRE
 PERDRE
 PLAIRE
 PUNIR
 REMPLIR
 RENDRE

2 thèmes + alternance

BOIRE
 DEVOIR
 POUVOIR
 RECEVOIR
 TENIR
 VENIR
 VOULOIR
 XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX

2 thèmes (suite)

RÉUSSIR
 SALIR
 SENTIR
 SERVIR
 SUIVRE
 VAINCRE
 VIVRE

PRÉSENT: C'est le temps à apprendre et qui donne la clé de tous les autres. Il faut retenir: (1) la seule forme orale du singulier; (2) la forme du pl.3 (qui est souvent identique au singulier); (3) la forme du pl.1 et pl.2 en /ø/ et en /e/.

Cas particuliers (4): AVOIR, ÊTRE, ALLER, FAIRE.

Cas à peine particulier: RÉSOUDRE, VALOIR, SAVOIR, PRENDRE, DIRE et leurs composés.

IMPERATIF: Ce temps a la même forme que le présent aux personnes correspondantes, i.e., Sing.2, pl.1, et pl.2.

Cas particuliers (3): ÊTRE, AVOIR, SAVOIR.

IMPARFAIT: Pour former l'imparfait on utilise le pl.1 du présent auquel on ajoute

/ɛ/ sing.1, 2, 3, et pl.3

/jɔ/ pl.1

/je/ pl.2

Cas particulier (1): ÊTRE.

SUBJONCTIF: Pour former le subjonctif, on utilise :

(1) le pl.3 du présent qui devient la forme du Sing.1, 2, 3, et du pl.3;

(2) l'imparfait pl.1 et pl.2 qui sont identiques au subjonctif pl.1 et pl.2.

Cas particuliers (9): ALLER, VALOIR et VOULOIR ont un thème spécial du subjonctif tout en ayant le pl.1 et pl.2 selon cette règle. Et de plus, AVOIR, ÊTRE, FAIRE, POUVOIR, SAVOIR, et FALLOIR ont un thème spécial qu'ils gardent pour les 6 personnes.

FUTUR: Pour former le futur on utilise deux bases.

Règle 1: Pour les verbes en /e/ et en /ir/ (du type /fini/ /finis/), on prend le singulier du présent et on ajoute

/ra/ Sing.2, Sing.3;

/rē/ Sing.1 et pl.2;

/rō/ pl.1, pl.3.

Note: pour les verbes à l'infinitif en /e/ dont le radical se termine par deux consonnes

NON-SÉPARABLES (comme ENTRER, SEMBLER, MONTRER, RENCONTRER ...etc.) on ajoute obligatoirement un /ə/ devant /ra/, /rē/, /rō/, puisque le français tolère mal la rencontre de 3 consonnes, surtout si les 2 premières sont inséparables.

Règle 2: Pour les autres verbes à l'infinitif en /r/, on ajoute les désinences /a/, /e/, et /ō/ qui font alors corps avec ce /r/ de l'infinitif.

Voir le tableau-résumé à la section conditionnel.

Cas particuliers (19): Ces verbes ont un thème spécial au futur (ils ont également ce même thème

au conditionnel): ALLER, APERCEVOIR, AVOIR, COURIR,
 DEVOIR, ENVOYER, ÊTRE, FAIRE, FALLOIR, MOURIR,
 PLEUVOIR, POUVOIR, RECEVOIR, SAVOIR, TENIR, VALOIR,
 VENIR, VOIR, VOULOIR.

CONDITIONNEL: Pour former le conditionnel, on utilise
 la même base que pour le futur, et on ajoute les
 mêmes désinences que l'imparfait. Voici le
 tableau-résumé pour ces deux temps (futur et
 conditionnel). Les exceptions énumérées à la
 section futur existent aussi pour le futur.

Règle 1

INFINITIF EN /e/	
INFINITIF EN /ir/ du type /i/-/is/	INFINITIF /r/ EN
INFINITIF EN /r/ à alternances variées	

Règle 2

VERBE SEUL		VERBE OBLIGATOIREMENT ACCOMPAGNÉ PAR UN PRONOM Sujet atone ou par un nom sujet.				
	IMPÉRATIF	INDICATIF PRÉSENT	SUBJONCTIF PRÉSENT	INDICATIF IMPARFAIT	CONDITIONNEL	FUTUR
					Thème en /r/	
SINGULIER	1 n'existe pas	Thème court	Thème long <u>A</u>	Thème long <u>B</u> + /ɛ/		+ /e/
	2 T. court					+ /a/
	3 n'existe pas					+ /a/
PLURIEL	3 n'existe pas	Thème long <u>A</u>				+ / <u>ö</u> /
	1 Thème long <u>B</u> + / <u>ö</u> /	Thème long <u>B</u> + $\begin{cases} /j\ddot{o}/ \\ /j\ddot{e}/ \end{cases}$				
	2 Thème long <u>B</u> + /e/					+ /e/

ADDITION: Ajouter un ou des sons à la fin ou au milieu d'un verbe.

ex.: /dər/ ----> /dərɪm/
 /ildər/ ----> /dərtil/

ALTERNANCE VOCALIQUE: On dit qu'il y a alternance vocalique lorsque dans la composition d'un verbe, on change la voyelle pour une autre. Ce phénomène se produit au pl.1 et pl.2.

Ex.: /mən/ ----> /mənɔ/
 /bwa/ ----> /byvo/

ATONE: Se dit d'une syllabe qui n'est pas accentuée.
 Voir **TONIQUE**.

EX.: "je" dans "je mange".

DÉSINENCES: Les portions du verbe qui indiquent le temps.

Ex.: "-e, -es, -e, -ons, -ez, -ent" au présent pour les verbes en -ER.

ÉLISION (ELIDER): Elider, ou faire une élision, c'est éliminer une voyelle. En français correct on n'élide que "a" et "e".

Ex.: j'~~e~~écoute, l'~~a~~amie.

LIAISON: C'est le fait de lier deux mots par un son.

Ex.: ils'~~e~~coutent ----> /ilzɛkut/

RADICAL: C'est la portion du verbe qui est sa racine.

Ex.: Le radical de "aimer" est "aim-", celui de "parler" c'est "parl-".

SUFFIXE: C'est une forme que l'on ajoute à un radical ou à un mot.

Ex.: dans "facilement", le suffixe est "-ment".

THEME: C'est ce qui reste d'un verbe lorsqu'on a enlevé les désinences. Il s'obtient généralement en enlevant le son /e/ ou le son /r/ de l'infinitif.

Ex.: "fermer" ---> /fɛrm/

"finir" ---> /fini/

mais "boire" ---> /bwa/, /bwav/

Un verbe peut avoir 1 ou 2 thèmes.

TONIQUE: Se dit d'une syllabe qui est accentuée. Voir ATONE.

Ex.: "mange" dans "je mange"

"-geons" dans "nous mangeons".

En français la syllabe tonique est généralement la dernière.

APPENDIX H

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Number conversion for experiment scoring.

EXPERIMENTAL NO.	COURSE NO.	TREATMENT GROUP
01	A-01	EXPERIMENTAL
02	A-04	EXPERIMENTAL
03	A-06	EXPERIMENTAL
04	A-08	EXPERIMENTAL
05	A-09	EXPERIMENTAL
06	D-01	EXPERIMENTAL
07	D-08	EXPERIMENTAL
08	D-09	EXPERIMENTAL
09	D-10	EXPERIMENTAL
10	A-02	CONTROL GROUP B
11	A-03	CONTROL GROUP B
12	A-05	x *
13	A-07	x
14	A-10	CONTROL GROUP A
15	A-11	CONTROL GROUP B
16	A-12	x
17	A-13	CONTROL GROUP A
18	A-14	x
19	A-15	CONTROL GROUP A
20	B-02	CONTROL GROUP A
21	B-03	CONTROL GROUP B
22	B-04	x
23	B-05	CONTROL GROUP B
24	B-06	CONTROL GROUP B
25	B-07	CONTROL GROUP A
26	B-08	CONTROL GROUP A
27	B-23	CONTROL GROUP A
28	B-10	CONTROL GROUP A
29	B-11	CONTROL GROUP B
30	B-12	CONTROL GROUP A
31	B-13	CONTROL GROUP A
32	B-14	x
33	B-15	x
34	B-16	CONTROL GROUP A
35	B-17	CONTROL GROUP B
36	B-18	x
37	B-19	CONTROL GROUP B
38	B-20	CONTROL GROUP A
39	B-21	x

* x= no sufficient data was collected to allow any analysis.

EXPERIMENTAL NO.	COURSE NO.	TREATMENT GROUP
40	B-22	x *
41	C-01	x
42	C-02	x
43	C-03	x
44	C-04	x
45	C-05	CONTROL GROUP B
46	C-06	x
47	C-07	CONTROL GROUP B
48	C-08	x
49	C-09	CONTROL GROUP B
50	C-10	CONTROL GROUP B
51	C-11	CONTROL GROUP A
52	C-12	CONTROL GROUP B
53	C-13	CONTROL GROUP B
54	C-14	x
55	C-15	x
56	C-16	x
57	C-17	CONTROL GROUP A
58	D-02	x
59	D-03	x
60	D-04	x
61	D-05	CONTROL GROUP B
62	D-06	CONTROL GROUP B
63	D-07	CONTROL GROUP B
64	D-11	CONTROL GROUP A
65	D-12	x
66	D-13	CONTROL GROUP A
67	D-14	CONTROL GROUP B
68	D-15	CONTROL GROUP B
69	D-16	CONTROL GROUP B
NO DATA	B-09	REFUSE
NO DATA	B-01	REFUSE

* x= no sufficient data was collected to allow any analysis.

Student's characteristics

Experimental group

No	Sex	Level	Age	YQ	ED	Birth	Work
01	F	Elem.	43	14	Nursing	Philippines	nursing
02	F	Elem.	42	17	Nursing	Philippines	nursing
03	M	Elem.	63	23	B.Sc.	USA	retired engineer
04	F	Elem.	25	2	B.S.	USA	Animal lab tech.
05	F	Elem.	19	17	H.S.	Quebec	unemployed
06	F	Int.	55	24	Coll.	Denmark	bookkeeping
07	F	Int.	59	37	Coll.	England	word processor
08	F	Int.	45	8	B.A.	Saskat.	teacher
09	F	Int.	53	3	Coll.	Germany	day care

Control group A

No	Sex	Level	Age	YQ	ED	Birth	Work
14	F	Elem.	18	18	H.S.	Quebec	unemployed
17	F	Elem.	18	14	H.S.	Prague	unemployed
19	F	Elem.	50	26	B.A.	Germany	unemployed
20	F	Elem.	45	23	Coll.	England	Accounting
25	F	Elem.	26	2	Coll.	USA	Keypunch oper.
26	F	Elem.	41	15	Nursing	Philippines	nursing
27	F	Elem.	18	18	H.S.	Quebec	sales
28	F	Elem.	19	19	H.S.	Quebec	office
30	F	Elem.	24	8	B.A.	Ontario	Computer prog.
31	F	Elem.	19	15	H.S.	Ontario	nanny
34	F	Elem.	26	1	B.A.	Ontario	secretary
38	F	Elem.	18	18	H.S.	Quebec	sales
51	F	Int.	51	5	H.S.	Germany	secretary
57	F	Int.	48	10	B.A.	Ontario	teacher
64	F	Int.	47	10	B.A.	USA	unemployed
66	F	Int.	50	18	B.A.	Holland	with Seniors

Control group B.

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No	Sex	Level	Age	YQ	ED	Birth	Work
10	F	Elem.	37	25	Univ.	Ontario	sales
11	F	Elem.	37	8	Univ.	England	nursing
15	F	Elem.	55	25	H.S.	Quebec	unemployed
21	F	Elem.	18	9	H.S.	Scotland	word processing
23	M	Elem.	28	25	H.S.	Manitoba	office
24	F	Elem.	27	22	B.A.	Quebec	sales clerk
29	M	Elem.	25	25	B.A.	Quebec	manufacturing
35	F	Elem.	40	25	B.A.	Hungary	teacher
37	F	Elem.	28	28	H.S.	Quebec	florist
45	M	Int.	27	20	M.A.	Quebec	Outdoor educator
47	F	Int.	18	12	Coll.	Ontario	cashier
49	F	Int.	26	26	H.S.	Quebec	unemployed
50	M	Int.	25	17	B.A.	B.C.	unemployed
52	M	Int.	19	19	H.S.	Quebec	waiter/cook
53	M	Int.	30	35	B.A.	Quebec	unemployed
61	F	Int.	34	10	Univ.	Trinidad	nursing
62	F	Int.	66	3	Coll.	England	unemployed
63	F	Int.	45	10	Univ.	Sweden	crafts & design
67	M	Int.	37	10	Univ.	Ontario	office
68	F	Int.	40	5	B.A.	B.C.	unemployed
69	F	Int.	38	16	Univ.	Scotland	unemployed

John Abbott College
Center for Continuing Education

PLAN D'ETUDES
Cours de français élémentaire
602-302/402

Organisation du cours

Le cours est d'une durée de 90 heures données à raison de 6 ou 9 heures par semaine, soit les mardis et jeudis soirs de 19h00 à 22h00, ou encore les lundis, mercredis et vendredis matins de 9h00 à midi. Le cours a lieu au local 1-102.

Objectifs du cours

Le cours 302/402 s'adresse à des étudiants anglophones qui ont déjà certaines notions de base en français. Ces étudiants peuvent s'exprimer au présent, passé composé et futur proche dans des phrases simples. Ils savent aussi les formes interrogatives simples et la négation.

Les objectifs du cours touchent à la compréhension et à l'expression orales, et à la prononciation. Le cours vise à ce que les étudiants puissent se débrouiller en français dans des situations de la vie courante comme au restaurant, au garage, à l'épicerie, au téléphone, dans la rue...etc.

Ce cours va les aider à exprimer leurs besoins, à formuler des questions, à comprendre un message, en un mot, à pouvoir communiquer.

Mais pour y parvenir, les étudiants doivent passer par des étapes où ils apprennent à maîtriser certaines structures de la langue française comme le temps des verbes, l'emploi de pronoms, la formulation des questions...etc.

Au début, les étudiants sont invités à exprimer leurs besoins particuliers, surtout au sujet du vocabulaire et des situations, afin d'aider le professeur à choisir quels thèmes seront abordés en classe. A ce niveau, on utilise le livre 3 de la série Le Français international qui renferme les structures et les points grammaticaux suivants:

- adjectifs démonstratifs et qualificatifs;
- articles partitifs;
- adverbes de lieu, de manière, de doute, de quantité, de temps;
- verbes pronominaux au passé, présent, impératif et futur;
 - croire que...;
 - aller à l'impératif;
 - connus au passé récent;
 - à l'impératif avec pronom objet;
 - suivis d'un infinitif, aussi avec "à" et "de";
 - si + condition + présent;
- négation avec ne ... plus, ne ... encore;
- questions avec l'inversion;
- prépositions de lieu;
- pronoms: en, c'est ... qui...; c'est ... que...;
- expressions idiomatiques: ça m'ennuie, avoir l'intention de.
- vocabulaire: maison, alimentation, identification, famille, occupations, itinéraires.

Ces structures grammaticales sont suivies selon les besoins et le rythme du groupe. De plus, des exercices oraux spécifiques sont prévus pour améliorer la prononciation à partir de documents authentiques.

Participation des étudiants

Le rôle de l'étudiant est primordial. Sa présence et sa participation en classe sont des plus importantes.

Evaluation

Evaluation orale	45%
Evaluation écrite	15%
Présentations et sketches	20%
Présence et participation	20%

John Abbott College
Center for Continuing Education

PLAN D'ETUDES

Cours de français intermédiaire
602-113/213

Organisation du cours

Ce cours s'adresse à des étudiants de niveau intermédiaire qui ont réussi un cours de niveau 402 ou qui, après entrevue, ont été dirigés vers ces cours.

Le cours est d'une durée de 90 heures données à raison de 6 ou 9 heures par semaine, soit les lundis et mercredis soirs de 19h00 à 22h00, ou encore les lundis, mercredis et vendredis de 13h00 à 16h00. Le cours a lieu au local 1-102.

Objectifs du cours

Ces cours visent à améliorer la compétence des étudiants à comprendre, à parler, à lire et à écrire le français dans le contexte québécois.

Contenu du cours

Au début, les étudiants sont invités à exprimer leurs besoins particuliers, surtout au sujet du vocabulaire et des situations, afin d'aider le professeur à choisir quels thèmes seront abordés en classe. A ce niveau, on utilise le livre 4 de la série Le Français international qui renferme les structures et les points grammaticaux suivants: le style indirect, le futur simple, l'imparfait et le subjonctif présent, le comparatif et le superlatif, et un bon nombre d'expressions idiomatiques.

Des exercices oraux spécifiques sont prévus pour améliorer la prononciation à partir de documents authentiques.

Participation des étudiants

Le rôle de l'étudiant est primordial. Sa présence et sa participation en classe sont des plus importantes.

Evaluation

Evaluation orale	45%
Evaluation écrite	15%
Présentations et sketches	20%
Présence et participation	20%

Personal Information sheet.

1. Do you want to take part in the experiment? yes no

2. Experimental number: _____

3. Sex: ☐ male ☐ female

4. Age: _____ years old

5. In what municipality do you live? _____

6. In what type of house: ☐ single family home,☐ town house☐ condominium☐ apartment7. Place of birth (city/province/country):

8. How many years have you been in Quebec? _____ years

9. Have you lived outside of Quebec? ☐ yes ☐ no

if yes, where and for approximately how long:

in _____ for _____ years

in _____ for _____ years

10. Please indicate your formal schooling:

☐ less than 12 years☐ 12 years or High School☐ specialized technical training☐ University undergraduate☐ Graduate☐ Other. Explain: _____

11. Where have you done your formal schooling:

- ☐ all in Quebec
- ☐ all outside of Quebec
- ☐ in various locations. Please indicate,
ex.: H.S. in Ontario, University in
Quebec, ...etc.)
- _____
- _____

12. Are you presently working outside of the home?

- ☐ yes, full-time
- ☐ yes part-time
- ☐ not working

if yes, what kind of work do you do?

13. In your work do you have to use French? ☐ yes ☐ no

Please indicate what percentage of your work is
_____ done or has to be done in French? _____ %

14. Why did you register in a French course?

15. What difficulties do you have in speaking French?

16. What activities do you have in your spare time?

17. a) Do you have close friends with whom you speak
mainly French?

none _____ many

b) Are there other people whom you know with whom
you use mainly French?

none _____ many

c) Are there French families in your neighborhood?

none _____ many

d) How often do you use French from day to day?

never _____ very often

18. When someone speaks to you in French, how likely
are you to respond in French?

not at all _____ always

19. When you speak French, how do you feel?

a) not at all _____ very

comfortable _____ comfortable

b) not at all _____ very

confident _____ confident

20. How well do you speak French?

not at all _____ very well

21. How well do you comprehend spoken French?

not at all _____ very well

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND COOPERATION!