

UNIVERSITY OF TASMANIA

FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING IN TASMANIAN SECONDARY

SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES:

A SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

EVERT JANSEN B.A., Dip. Ed.

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO

THE CENTRE FOR EDUCATION

IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS

FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

OCTOBER, 1983

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any University, and to the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except when due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

21st October, 1983

ABSTRACT

The research reported upon in this thesis aimed to identify the major social forces which influence the development of foreign-language teaching style. A conceptual framework adapted from sociology of education theory was used for this purpose.

The study population comprised 118 foreign-language teachers in Tasmanian secondary-level schools and colleges. A further total of 15 teachers participated in the pilot survey.

The approach taken in the thesis is based on the assumption that the development of teaching style occurs within, and is significantly affected by, social situations in which 'correct' professional behaviour is clearly defined and where the individual teacher's professional views and behaviour are usually largely in conformity with a shared, professional Weltanschauung.

To test the assumption that most Tasmanian foreign-language teachers were professionally socialized into particular modes of professional behaviour the study population (i.e. all participants in the empirical survey) was asked to compare present use of such techniques as grammatical explanation and vocabulary list memorization with the use of the techniques in the foreign-language classroom when the respondents were foreign-language pupils and students.

In addition to an examination of the teachers' pedagogic training, information was gathered by questionnaires and interviews about a range of institutional pressures such as reference group advice and Schools Board requirements.

The information gained about the professional pressures which the teachers experienced was closely examined in association with the details gathered about their foreign-language teaching style and professional ideology.

Two main aims of this investigation were to establish: whether a professionally derived and defined view of knowledge existed among Tasmanian foreign-language teachers; and, whether this "shared ideology" is methodologically innovative or conservative.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to extend his sincere thanks to his Supervisors, Mr. R.D.I. Maclean and Dr. J.A. Hunt, for their guidance throughout the study. Appreciation is also expressed to Messrs. A. Hamsen, I. Hill and Dr. G.B. Triffitt, for their valuable assistance and encouragement.

Grateful acknowledgement is made of the cooperation of the 133 Tasmanian foreign-language teachers who participated in the study; without their excellent and extensive contributions the research would not have been possible. Thanks are also extended to the Tasmanian Education Department and the Principals who allowed the survey to be disseminated in schools and colleges.

For advice relating to statistical matters the author wishes to thank Dr. M. Bailey, Dr. M. Eley, Dr. W. Ransley and Dr. P. Gardner; and for assistance in processing the data thanks are extended to Mr. K. Anderson.

Thanks are also expressed to Mrs. L. Kumpulainen.

Finally, the author wishes to sincerely thank his wife, Jane, for her patience and support throughout the study.

The thesis is dedicated to the memory of Scott Jansen who, even at his young age, appreciated the value of foreign-language learning.

C O N T E N T S

	PAGE
Acknowledgements	
<u>CHAPTER 1.</u>	
INTRODUCTION	1
1. Australia: A Multilingual Country	1
2. The Study of Foreign-Language Teaching	5
2.1 The Low Incidence of Foreign-Language Study	5
2.2 Innovation in Foreign-Language Teaching	7
3. Theoretical Orientation	11
4. Aims of the Present Research	14
5. Adoption of a Case Study Approach	15
6. Teachers in Secondary Schools and Colleges	16
7. Some Limitations of the Study	18
8. Value of This Research Study	19
<u>CHAPTER 2.</u>	
REVIEW OF RESEARCH AND RELATED LITERATURE	23
Introduction	23
1. Foreign-Language Teaching	25
1.1 The United States	25
1.2 Europe	29
1.3 Summary	40

	PAGE
2. Foreign-Language Teaching in Australia	42
2.1 Teacher Training Programmes	56
2.2 Curriculum Innovation	61
3. Foreign-Language Teaching in Tasmania	71
4. Summary and Conclusions	82

CHAPTER 3.

SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION THEORIES RELEVANT TO THE PRESENT STUDY	89
Introduction	89
1. Theoretical Framework	95
2. Some Sociological Comments on Foreign-Language Education	96
3. The Socialization of Teachers	100
3.1 Teacher Training Programmes	103
3.2 Conservative Pressures on Teachers	106
4. The Sociology of Education	112
4.1 Foreign Languages in the Curriculum	119
4.2 Classroom Discipline and the Control of Knowledge	122
4.3 Summary	126
5. The Sociology of Educational Innovation	127
5.1 Introduction	127
5.2 Strategies of Educational Innovation	130
5.3 Two Organizational Models	134
5.4 Teacher Commitment	135
5.5 Factors Hindering Curriculum Change	137

	PAGE
5.6 Sustaining the Innovation	142
5.7 What Will Change Involve?	143
6. Conclusions	151
 <u>CHAPTER 4.</u>	
PERSPECTIVES ON FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING	157
Introduction	157
1. The Psycholinguistic Approach to the Study of Foreign-Language Teaching	161
1.1 Palmer	161
1.2 Palmer and Redman	168
1.3 Brooks	170
1.4 Rivers' (1964) Review of the Audio-Lingual Method	174
1.5 Valette	175
1.6 Rivers (1968), <u>Teaching Foreign-Language Skills</u>	179
1.7 Allen and Valette	184
1.8 Webb	185
2. Foreign Languages in the Primary School	187
3. Homogeneous and Heterogeneous Groupings	193
4. Conclusions	201
 <u>CHAPTER 5.</u>	
METHODS OF FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING	213
Introduction	213
1. Aims	214

	PAGE
2. Methods: The Theory	225
2.1 The Place of Grammar	229
2.2 History of the Debate	231
2.3 Twentieth Century Methodological Principles	233
3. Methods: The Practice	240
4. Conclusions	243
 <u>CHAPTER 6.</u>	
RESEARCH PROCEDURES	246
Introduction	246
1. The Survey Population	247
2. Review of the Questionnaire	248
3. The Pilot Survey	249
4. Structure of the Questionnaire	250
5. The Questionnaire	253
6. Circulation of the Questionnaire	260
7. Return Rates	264
8. Coding and Computing	265
 <u>CHAPTER 7.</u>	
FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING IN TASMANIA	268
Introduction	268
1. Use of the Target Language in the Classroom	273
1.1 By Teachers	273
1.2 By Pupils	274
2. Administration of Vocabulary Tests	275

	PAGE
3. Grammar	276
3.1 Explanation of Grammatical Rules	276
3.2 Grammatical Exercises	277
4. Conclusion	279
 <u>CHAPTER 8.</u>	
PROFESSIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL SOCIALISATION	281
Introduction	281
1. Framework for the Analysis of Data	282
1.1 Professional Socialisation	283
1.2 Occupational Socialisation	285
1.3 Professional Ideology	286
2. Professional Socialisation	288
2.1 The Covert Curriculum	288
2.1.1 Teacher Use of the Foreign Language in the Classroom	288
2.1.2 Pupil Use of the Foreign Language in the Classroom	292
2.1.3 Vocabulary Lists	294
2.1.4 Grammar	297
2.1.5 Grammatical Exercises	299
2.1.6 Discussion	301
2.2 The Overt Curriculum	304
2.2.1 Pre-Service Methodology Courses	304
2.2.2 In-Service Information on Foreign- Language Teaching Methodology	306
2.2.3 Individual Reading	308

	PAGE
3. Occupational Socialisation	311
3.1 Reference Group Pressure	311
3.2 Occupational Constraints	313
3.3 Summary	319
4. Professional Ideology	320
4.1 Aims	320
4.2 Foreign-Language Skills	322
4.3 What Does Successful Foreign-Language Teaching Require?	326
4.4 Summary	332
5. Conclusion	334
 <u>CHAPTER 9.</u>	
A QUALITATIVE STUDY OF FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING IN TASMANIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES	336
Introduction	336
1. Research Background	337
2. Framework for the Analysis of Data	340
2.1 The School or College	340
2.2 The Education System	341
2.3 The Community	341
2.4 The Value of Foreign-Language Teaching	342
2.5 Foreign-Language Teaching in Tasmania	342
3. The School	343
4. The Education System	353
5. The Community	358
6. The Value of Foreign-Language Teaching	360

	PAGE
7. Foreign-Language Teaching in Tasmania	362
8. Conclusion	367
 <u>CHAPTER 10.</u>	
SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS	370
Introduction	370
1. Traditional Approach to the Study of Foreign-Language Teaching	370
2. A Sociological Approach to the Study of Foreign-Language Teaching	372
3. Main Findings of the Present Research	373
4. Some Implications of the Conservative Social Pressures on Foreign-Language Teachers	374
5. Some Suggestions For Further Research	377
REFERENCES	380
APPENDIX A. Questionnaire to Foreign-Language Teachers in Tasmanian Secondary Schools and Colleges	404
APPENDIX B. Pilot Survey to fifteen Tasmanian Foreign-Language Teachers	422
APPENDIX C. Letters to Principals and Teachers	434
APPENDIX D. Description of the Study Population	445

* * * * *

LIST OF TABLES

	PAGE
TABLE 1.1 Numbers of Modern Language Students in Tasmanian Government Secondary Schools and Colleges	6
8.1 Teacher Use of Target Language in Classroom: Junior Secondary Level	289
8.2 Teacher Use of Target Language in Classroom: Senior Secondary Level	290
8.3 Pupil Use of the Foreign Language in the Classroom, Junior Secondary Level	292
8.4 Pupil Use of the Foreign Language in the Classroom, Senior Secondary Level	293
8.5 Use of Vocabulary Lists: Junior Secondary Level	295
8.6 Use of Vocabulary Lists: Senior Secondary Level	296
8.7 Grammatical Explanation: Junior Secondary Level	297
8.8 Grammatical Explanation: Senior Secondary Level	298
8.9 Use of Grammatical Exercises: Junior Secondary Level	299
8.10 Use of Grammatical Exercises: Senior Secondary Level	300
8.11 Foreign-Language Classrooms	318
8.12 Aims of Foreign-Language Education	320
8.13 Teacher Ranking of Skills	323
8.14 Pupils' Ranking of Skills	325
8.15 Successful Foreign-Language Teaching Requirements	327

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION.

1. AUSTRALIA: A MULTILINGUAL COUNTRY

Australia is a multilingual country in which more than 130 different languages and dialects are spoken. A recent report (Clyne, 1982, p.12) listed the following national figures for regular users of Italian, Greek and German:

Italian	444,672
Greek	262,177
German	170,644

The publication of such figures in recent years suggests a rise in interest in the multicultural, multilingual composition of the Australian population. This interest is evident in such things as: the large number of courses available which deal with migrants in Australia (1); the increased stress on multicultural education (2); and, various sources (e.g. Claydon et al., 1979, p.173; Ingram, 1979, p.3) which stress the importance of developing the nation's 'language resource':

"...If multicultural attitudes prevail over xenophobic ones among Anglo-Celtic Australians and ethnocentric ones among other ethnic groups, multilingualism can become one of Australia's most important resources."

(Clyne, 1982, p.148)

The view that languages are a valuable national resource has also been expounded by a joint committee of the Australian Linguistics Society and the Applied Linguistics Association of Australia in a reply to the Curriculum Development Centre's

(1980) exclusion of foreign languages from a proposed core curriculum. The committee argued from educational, socio-political, personal, family and practical grounds for the inclusion of languages in a core curriculum for multilingual Australia (3).

The recent development in Australia of the notion of a 'national language resource', and concern about the maintenance and development of such a resource may have been influenced by publication of similar views in the United States of America. For instance, the recently submitted U.S. report, "Strength Through Wisdom" (1980), brought to the President's attention, as a matter of great urgency, some of the practical disadvantages at the national level resulting from low foreign-language proficiency. The report included accounts, for example, of U.S. ambassadorial staff being misled by an unsympathetic interpreter, problems caused by the scant representation of Farsi speakers among U.S. diplomatic staff in Iran, and the extremely low numbers of Japanese-speaking U.S. businessmen.

In essence, the "Strength Through Wisdom" report is relevant to Australia also because the country's trading and commercial relationship with Japan and other Asian nations, and its proximity to some of the most highly and densely populated nations in the world, are seen by some Australians as further important reasons for the development of the nation's language resource. For instance, the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers' Associations (AFMLTA) was informed:

"...by senior officials in Federal Government departments of occasions when, in tripartite negotiations, the Australian party has lost major trade contracts because the other vendor was able to speak the purchaser's language and influence the purchaser's negotiators during the informal, social activities."

(Ingram, 1982, p.17)

Clyne (1982 p.55) has argued that the Australian government as well as educators and ethnic communities need to make a 'concerted effort' to combat the effects of 'language shift': that is, an increasing use of English and the consequent diminished use of other languages by non-Anglophone migrants and their children; the "shift" being complete when the foreign language (4) is, in essence, forgotten by the former user.

The large numbers of foreign-language speakers, mentioned earlier, are mainly attributable to Australia's high acceptance of migrants from non-Anglophone countries. Australia probably has the second lowest incidence of foreign-language teaching in the world (Triffitt et al., 1976, pp.6-7). Ingram (1982, p.22) concluded from a survey of statistical reports that 'probably' only 11.6 per cent (10827) of matriculation students from Anglophone backgrounds were studying a second language in Australia as a whole. In Tasmania (Ingram, 1982, p.24) only 8 per cent of matriculation students studied a foreign language in 1981. Unless there is a substantial increase in the rate of acceptance of non-Anglophone speakers into Australia, the phenomenon of language shift can be expected to significantly deplete the country's language resource.

In the light of such considerations the role of the foreign-language teaching profession in Australia is likely to become increasingly important, because if the ethnic communities cannot stop or reverse language shift, the onus will be on the schools and colleges to develop foreign-language learning in Australia.

Despite the wide range of arguments which can be made to support the development of foreign-language learning in Australia, and the important role of the foreign-language teacher in the future of this development, relatively little sociological study (5) has been undertaken of foreign-language teachers and their work. Little is known in either Australia, or overseas countries, about how foreign-language teachers teach and what influences them in their choice of teaching style (6). Comments that are made in this regard in Australia are usually limited to impressions of how languages are taught (7), or statistical studies of the incidence of foreign-language learning (8).

The research study reported upon in this thesis aims to help correct this situation by examining an area of foreign-language education which has been largely neglected: that is, in doing this it seeks to adopt a sociological perspective on foreign-language teachers and their work.

2. THE STUDY OF FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING.

2.1 The Low Incidence of Foreign-Language Study

Much of the research and related literature which is discussed in Chapter Two of the present study is critical of the prevailing standard of foreign-language teaching, which is often given as the main reason why there is a comparatively low incidence of language learning in all Anglophone countries. Statistical reports show that the proportion of foreign-language students in Australian secondary schools is approximately half the British proportion, although twice the U.S. figure. For example, only some 60.0 to 65.0 per cent of secondary pupils were learning a foreign language in 1970 in the United Kingdom (Foreign Languages in Tasmanian Government Schools, (FLTGS), 1976, p.5). In 1979 the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies indicated that only 15.0 per cent of U.S. students were studying a foreign language. In 1976 the percentage of pupils learning a foreign language in Australia's government secondary schools, was listed as 29.9 (FLTGS, 1976, p.6).

The situation with regard to the low incidence of foreign-language learning in Australia was described in the 1970's as "critical", in the sense that the rate of decrease of foreign-language learning in Australian government secondary schools was at that time 0.6 per cent per annum (FLTGS, 1976, p.7). More recent figures show, however, that in Tasmania this rate of decrease did not continue after 1976 (See Table 1.1).

Table 1.1

Numbers of modern language students in Tasmanian government

 secondary schools and colleges.

Year	French	German	Indonesian	Italian	Japanese	Other Languages	Total	%
1975	7932	2165	182	28	119	-	10426	34.71
1976	6537	2288	512	77	110	-	9524	31.56
1977	6703	2422	580	73	47	-	9825	33.18
1978	6230	2462	520	61	75	28	9376	31.85
1979	6006	2316	646	73	80	18	9139	31.62
1980	5933	2106	443	86	191	111	8870	31.84
1981	5702	2355	439	109	108	94	8807	32.77
1982	5763	2305	558	126	209	178	9139	33.41

Source: MLTAT Newsletter, July, 1982, p.4.

However in Tasmania in 1981 only 8.0 per cent of matriculation students studied a foreign language (Ingram, 1982, p.24) (9). This figure represents a considerable decline in the incidence of foreign-language learning at higher school certificate level in Tasmania since 1958, when 62.0 per cent of matriculation students in Tasmania studied a foreign language (FLTGS, 1976, p.75) (10).

The study of foreign-language teaching in Australia, and other Anglophone countries, is faced with two major issues: the problem of the low interest in foreign-language study, and the increasing importance of foreign-language teachers in developing the resource of national multilingualism.

2.2 Innovation in Foreign-Language Teaching.

The relatively low incidence of foreign-language learning in Anglophone countries suggests that there is a need for innovation in foreign-language teaching, for as O'Byrne (1976, p.93) has said:

"...there is surely a need to look into ways of teaching languages when it is well known that the traditional way [(11)] eliminates the great majority of the learners, who are therefore considered failures."

(O'Byrne, 1976, p.93)

The basic premiss upon which the present study is based is that innovation in foreign-language teaching should begin with a sound understanding of how foreign-language teachers currently teach and what are the major factors which influence teacher choice of pedagogic style.

Many studies (e.g. Hill, 1968; Ingram and Quinn, 1978) of foreign-language teaching fail to distinguish between the current state of, and trends in, language teaching as against language methodology. A distinction should be made between these terms because it is not sufficient to have detailed information about methods and the psycholinguistic theories they are based on, that is, methodology, it is also important to understand the social environment within which languages are taught.

In Australia, when languages other than English are not acquired in the homes of non-Anglophone families, they are usually learnt in the classroom. While many have written about the applications of theories to the classroom environment (e.g.

Rivers, 1981; Allen and Valette, 1972) less has been written on the pressures from without the classroom, which language teachers have to face, which relate to the development of teaching style.

It is perhaps understandable that many of these pressures, which are not apparent to the methodologists, but which are very tangible to the practising teacher, have to a large extent been ignored by theorists. It can also be argued that there have been good reasons to accept the view that 'new' teaching methods have been successfully implemented in the classroom, without there being any substantial rise in interest and enrolment rates in foreign-language education. For example, \$15 million was provided annually from 1958 onwards for the training of teachers and purchase of equipment to the end of promoting the audio-lingual approach to language teaching in the U.S. (12). However, what has been termed a panacea for foreign-language education ills in the U.S. has proved, to continue the metaphor, to be a placebo with no long-term curative power (13).

The pattern in the past has been to find or develop a new method to replace the unsuccessful ones. Such an approach is based on the assumption that methods, when introduced by theorists with the support of government, are adopted in the manner in which they were intended to be adopted, by all or nearly all teachers. The failure of such an innovation, therefore, is attributable to defects in the method, and not difficulties with regard to implementation, so a new method must be developed.

The study reported upon here seeks to depart from this cyclic model of innovation in foreign-language teaching by adopting an alternative approach. It will initially seek to provide information on an area about which very little is known, by identifying some of the major elements of the pedagogic style of teachers surveyed. The study will then move beyond the descriptive level and endeavour to provide explanations for the adoption, adaption and rejection of a number of principles and procedures with regard to the teaching of foreign-language grammar, vocabulary and the perceived importance of the four language skills: aural comprehension, speaking, reading and writing.

In this way it is intended to add a sociological dimension to the psycholinguistic conceptual framework which has been used for the study of foreign-language teaching. As Musgrave (1973, p.82) has said in defence of such an approach being adopted:

"..it is not so much a characteristic of the individual teacher that determines whether or not curricular innovation will occur, but rather the existence of certain social situations which lead a teacher to perceive his role in such a way that innovation is possible or even worthwhile. The argument, in other words, is sociological rather than psychological."

An examination of the 'social situation' which can affect foreign-language curricular content and teaching style must begin with an understanding of how languages are being taught. This is a difficult undertaking because terms such as 'grammar teaching'

are variously defined among foreign-language teachers, and because many teachers seem wary of appearing professionally outdated or reactionary and may speak enthusiastically about a technique which is not representative of the rest of their pedagogic style. An intuitive appreciation of this problem may be one reason for methodologists' reluctance to research this area of foreign-language education.

The research study reported upon in this thesis comes at a time when advanced technology has greatly increased people's capacity for international travel and communication and international interaction of many kinds. Such interaction may be peaceful or hostile. It could be argued that the effective study of foreign languages for communicative purposes will greatly enhance international understanding and, therefore, interaction of a peaceful kind. In addition, multilingualism can be seen as a symbol of a cosmopolitan world-view, the development of which is an essential part of the criterion, used by some, to assess the value of knowledge (Degenhardt, 1982, p.89).

This research also comes at a time when many Australians appear to support the study of foreign languages in schools and colleges. For example, Ingram (1982, p.12) cited the following results of a number of opinion polls. In 1970, in response to a Morgan Research poll, 93.7% of persons surveyed supported the teaching of Asian languages. A 1976 poll showed that 92% of parents surveyed wanted their children to learn foreign languages at school. Another Morgan poll (June 1978) indicated that 80% of

Australians thought a foreign language should be taught, while a 1977 Gallup poll found 49% asking for a second language to be compulsory. Given such statistics on the incidence of foreign-language teaching in Australian schools, it seems clear that the nation's schools are failing to adequately satisfy the wishes of parents in this area. The present study not only seeks to help explain why the apparent support for foreign-language study is not reflected in the incidence of foreign-language learning in Australian schools and colleges, but will also attempt to find ways of attracting more pupils and students to foreign-language study by identifying some of the problem areas which currently exist.

An additional aim of the present research is to provide a model for the sociological investigation of the teaching of other subjects in school curricula.

3. THEORETICAL ORIENTATION.

The theoretical assumption upon which this study is based is that foreign-language teaching styles are formed with regard to the professional and occupational circumstances of the individual teacher, as well as consideration of psycholinguistic theory. In short, the foreign-language teacher's professional ideology cannot be formulated outside a specific imagined or actual teaching situation.

If this assumption is valid, it should be possible to discover whether some foreign-language teachers are forced by professional and/or occupational pressures to teach in a way that

is different from what they would choose to do under ideal circumstances. It should also be possible to identify the major pressures on teachers' choice of pedagogic style, at least as these are perceived by the foreign-language teachers examined.

The sociological study of foreign-language teachers is the study of the dynamics of social or group interaction pertaining to foreign-language teaching. This includes the likely professional and occupational socialisation of such teachers, which is based on the assumption that a foreign-language teacher's experiences as a foreign-language pupil and student, as well as pre-service training and subsequent occupational socialisation, can be expected to have a considerable influence on the development of that teacher's pedagogic style (14).

If the assumptions outlined above are valid, it is likely to follow that innovation in foreign-language education needs to be based on both a careful examination of psycholinguistic theory and foreign-language teaching methodology, and also an understanding of the professional and occupational pressures under which foreign-language teachers work. The approach to the study can be conceptualized in the following way. Foreign-language teachers are professionally and occupationally socialized in an education system. Major elements within this system are: the classroom; the school, college or university; and the administrative structure of the education system (which is often bureaucratic). Outside this education system is the wider local and national community. It is, therefore, necessary to

obtain information about the influences that these systems or social, professional and occupational structures are likely to have on foreign-language teaching. Individual foreign-language teachers, however, make decisions within these systemic limitations. It is, therefore, also important to gather information about the views and experiences of foreign-language teachers in order that an understanding can be gained of teachers' responses to, and freedom within, the environmental pressures within which they work.

It is also assumed that the socialisation of foreign-language teachers contributes to a certain way of thinking about issues pertaining to foreign-language education. To this extent certain theories about the social influences on knowledge will be used to shape the conceptual framework of the present study.

The present study, then, has two important levels: the gathering of quantitative data on the professional and occupational circumstances under which foreign-language teachers work, and the qualitative investigation of foreign-language teachers to see how they respond to perceived pressures and how they exercise their perceived professional autonomy.

In this study, much information about Tasmanian foreign-language teachers' professional background, current occupational circumstances, professional views, experiences and perceptions, was gained in two ways: by the circulation of a

questionnaire, and through a series of in-depth interviews with a small group of foreign-language teachers, and the open-ended comments provided by approximately 50.0 per cent of respondents, at the end of their questionnaire booklets.

4. AIMS OF THE PRESENT RESEARCH.

To summarize, this study has the following objectives:

1. To help to improve the incidence of foreign-language learning in Anglophone countries such as Australia by gaining a greater understanding of the professional characteristics of foreign-language teachers and their work.
2. To achieve a greater understanding of current foreign-language teaching and to identify some important factors which influence those teaching styles.
3. To collect background information in foreign-language teaching which will provide a useful knowledge base upon which the future implementation of innovation in foreign-language teaching can proceed.
4. To help account for the low incidence of foreign-language learning in countries with similar structural or systemic problems to the ones identified in the present study of foreign-language teaching in Tasmania.
5. To argue for the need for further sociological study of foreign-language teachers.
6. To provide a model for the sociological study of other areas of knowledge which are organized as subjects in

institutional curricula.

5. ADOPTION OF A CASE STUDY APPROACH.

The approach adopted is a case study of the sociology of foreign-language teaching in both government and non-governmental schools in Tasmania, one of the six Australian States.

Tasmania was chosen for several important reasons. The researcher lives in that state and has gained a cumulative total of fifteen years' experience as a foreign-language student, in addition to three years' experience as a teacher of German in Launceston, Tasmania's second largest city. Personal involvement with the Modern Language Teachers' Association of Tasmania (MLTAT) also means that useful insights have been gained into the concerns of practising foreign-language teachers in that state, and has allowed personal contact with key figures in the foreign-language teaching profession. Other important reasons for choosing Tasmania for the purposes of this research, include:

1. The relatively small size of the foreign-language teaching profession in Tasmania, which means that it was possible with the resources available for the researcher to make contact with all foreign-language teachers in the state.
2. Tasmania's small geographical size enabled contact to be made with foreign-language teachers in all parts of the state.
3. It was also opportune that the 1976 FLTGS Report closely considered many of the social influences on

foreign-language teaching from within the wider community. The present study seeks to complement and build upon the direction and findings of the report. The FLTGS report can be regarded as a beginning to the sociological study of foreign-language education in the sense that it considered very closely the continuing development of foreign-language education in the social environment in which it occurs. The present research will focus more narrowly on the professional and occupational structures within which foreign-language teaching proceeds, although some attention will be paid to community involvement. In this regard many of the impressions, discussed in O'Byrne's (1976) supplement to the FLTGS report, will be tested.

6. TEACHERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

It was decided to further limit the area of research to foreign-language teachers in secondary schools and colleges in Tasmania. State or government-controlled secondary schools in Tasmania are of two types: high and district high schools. These schools comprise grades seven to ten, most pupils' ages ranging from twelve to fifteen. State secondary colleges in Tasmania are called Higher School Certificate or Matriculation Colleges. Students' ages at this level, grades eleven and twelve, usually range from sixteen to seventeen. Non-state or non-government controlled schools or colleges often combine grades seven to twelve in one institution and may thus use the terms, 'school' or

'college', differently than the state system.

The decision to limit the study to secondary level education was made largely because that is where the bulk of foreign-language teaching occurs in Tasmania, mainland Australia and all Anglophone countries. The focus of the present enquiry is not intended to imply disinterest in foreign-language education at the primary level which is still very much in its infancy in Tasmania. On the contrary, such developments are to be welcomed and it is to be hoped that some of the issues raised in this thesis will help promoters of primary level foreign-language education to avoid some of the difficulties currently experienced at the secondary level.

This work should also be of value to those interested primarily in tertiary level foreign-language education, because it seeks to help explain why so few pupils continue their foreign-language studies to matriculation and tertiary level.

It can be argued that the future of foreign-language teaching at all levels largely depends on the continued viability of foreign-language education at secondary level. The establishment of a successful primary level foreign-language programme would seem to require the provision of adequate secondary level extension or continuation programmes. The viability of tertiary level foreign-language education must depend on the successful teaching of foreign languages in secondary schools and colleges, unless universities and tertiary colleges are prepared to rely on students with non-Anglophone

backgrounds, and foreign-language beginners to bolster their enrolment figures.

7. SOME LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY.

The fact that this research study is limited to an examination of foreign-language teachers in one Australian state's secondary schools and colleges means that conclusions reached cannot be claimed to be automatically valid for foreign-language teachers in other Australian states, or in other countries. That is something which would need to be tested by other studies. Readers will have to decide for themselves whether the issues raised are relevant to their professional and occupational circumstances.

A further limitation is that, although it purports to be a sociology of foreign-language teaching, it is obviously not a complete sociological study of the area. For example, the experiences, views and perceptions of students and their parents were not examined, and the focus on only secondary level foreign-language teaching has already been mentioned.

8. VALUE OF THIS RESEARCH STUDY.

It is, however, anticipated that the present study will present a strong argument for the need for a sociological perspective on foreign-language education, and that the conceptual framework used will gather and present information which will be of interest and value to those who support the teaching of foreign languages in Tasmania, mainland Australia, and in other countries. In summary, it is hoped to improve the quality and quantity of foreign-language education in Tasmania and elsewhere by the identification of certain professional pressures which inhibit and often prevent the implementation of innovative ideas into foreign-language teaching.

REFERENCES

- (1) For example "Language Development and Multicultural Education" (University of Tasmania, Centre for Education).
- (2) 'Multicultural' is here defined as 'culturally pluralist', in the sense that it is recognised that Australia's population includes significant minority groups from a wide range of cultural and linguistic backgrounds.
- (3) The Committee's booklet is undated, but appeared in 1981 in reply to the CDC Paper: "Core Curriculum for Australian Schools".
- (4) The term, 'foreign languages', is replaced by some authors with the term 'languages other than English' to indicate that Australia is not exclusively Anglophone and that many

other languages are, therefore, not foreign. The point is well made, but in this study the terms 'foreign languages' or 'modern languages' will be used for the sake of brevity, and in the sense that the languages are foreign to English, not necessarily to Australia.

- (5) The terms 'sociological study' and 'sociological perspective' are used broadly at this stage to indicate research concerned with the social dimensions of foreign-language teaching. The reasons for choosing this area for detailed research are discussed below. A fuller definition of the term 'sociological' in this regard is given in Chapter Three.
- (6) The word, 'style', is chosen here to distinguish teacher behaviour in the classroom from the concept, 'method', a theoretical unit of tenets and procedures.
- (7) Many of these impressions are discussed in Chapter Two.
- (8) Australia has seen a number of statistical reports, showing the provision, popularity and distribution of language education; for example:

-Department of Educational Research Branch Report (1977), "The Teaching of Modern Languages in Australian Schools 1975", Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.

-Fairbairn, K. and Pegolo, C. (1982), Foreign Languages in Secondary Schools Report No. 1A Statistical Background Report on Foreign Languages in Queensland Secondary Schools, Research Branch, Department of Education, Queensland.

-Hunt, J.A. (1972), "Modern Language Teaching in Tasmania, 1971: A Statistical Report", *babel*, Vol. 8,

No. 2, pp.15-19.

-Wykes, O. and King, M.G. (1968), *Teaching of Foreign Languages in Australia*, Hawthorn: Australian Council for Educational Research.

Wykes and King regretted the limitations of their report and called for research on foreign-language teaching practice in Australia (1968, p.xii and pp.150-151).

- (9) Ingram does not indicate whether the figure of 8.0 per cent includes non-government school and college enrolments.
- (10) Matriculation level education in the 1950's was much more selective and 'elite' than in the 1980's, and included an alternative foreign-language requirement.
- (11) It is difficult to precisely define what is meant by 'the traditional way'. However, O'Byrne (1976, p.93) describes the term with the phrases: 'grammar grinding', and 'translation exercises'. Rivers' (1968, pp.1-2) scenario of Classroom A encapsulates what, in this researcher's experience, is meant by the traditional way or approach. Such an approach is often associated with formalist teaching. Formalist foreign-language teaching relies on deductive grammar teaching, the use of vocabulary lists, and an emphasis on written work. For more information, see Rivers' (1968, pp.14-18) discussion of the grammar-translation method.
- (12) This figure is discussed by Ingram (1972, p.5).
- (13) See Farber (1970); Warriner (1980); Report: "Strength Through

Wisdom" (1980); Chastain (1971, pp. 23-24) for examples of dissatisfaction with foreign-language teaching in the United States.

- (14) For the purpose of this dissertation 'professional socialisation' includes teachers' experiences as foreign-language pupils as well as their pre- and in-service training. 'Occupational socialisation' refers to occupational pressures from within the classroom, the school, and the education system.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RESEARCH AND RELATED LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

"... the present situation of foreign-language education in Tasmanian government secondary schools is more than serious; it is critical."

(FLTGS, 1976, P.7)

"...[Australia] has the second lowest incidence of foreign-language learning in the so-called developed world. "

(Triffitt, 1982, p.2)

The percentage of pupils studying foreign languages in Tasmanian government schools fell from 43% in 1961 to 35% in 1973-4 (FLTGS, 1976, p.7) (1). This, in a nutshell, is the problem which Tasmanian language teachers and educationists have to face. However, this problem is not peculiar to Tasmania because the low enrolment rates in foreign-language classes in Tasmanian schools are consistent with the low incidence of foreign-language learning in mainland Australia and in other English-speaking countries.

This chapter seeks to place the situation in Tasmania regarding foreign-language teaching within a wider, Australian and international context. Various responses to the problem, as contained in the literature on the subject, will be considered and the patterns which emerge from among the criticisms and suggestions which have been forthcoming will be identified. This consideration should provide valuable background knowledge and a conceptual framework with which to evaluate past, present and future efforts to foster interest in language learning in

Tasmania.

The literature reveals three broad types of response to the problem of low interest in foreign-language education. These are: first, criticism as to the nature and standard of foreign-language education; second, posited solutions, which include: prescriptive injunctions which insist that teachers adopt different methods; claims for better time allocation for language classes; and, calls for improved training programs. In short, 'posited solutions' include the published descriptions of possible ways of attracting more students to foreign-language study. The term does not include accounts of actual attempts, experiments or action research (2) which have been or are currently being undertaken, and which form the third group: attempted solutions. Of course, many innovatory experiments will not have been recorded in published form.

This chapter will commence by briefly identifying the major situations and trends with regard to foreign-language education in the USA and several European countries. It will then focus in greater detail on the Australian experience, before considering what has been published about foreign-language education in Tasmania in the last twenty-five years.

1. FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING

1.1 The United States

The report of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies (1980, p.12) described Americans' incompetence in foreign languages as 'scandalous'. In 1965 only twenty-four percent of American students attending high school studied a foreign language, and by 1979 this figure had fallen to fifteen percent (3). The low student participation rate in the study of foreign languages was largely blamed on incompetent, poorly-trained teachers who failed to develop students' communicative skills (1980, p.13).

The President's Commission's extensive list of recommendations included the view that language skills of teachers could be perfected, or at least dramatically improved, by government-assisted visits to foreign countries. It was argued that this would be cheaper and more effective than the existing system of formal training. The analysis of the situation prevailing at that time, and recommendations to the President with regard to American foreign-language proficiency, are not new but highly reminiscent of the national developments in the U.S. during World War II, and again in 1958 (Wykes and King, 1968, pp.24-25).

The alleged boring nature of much foreign-language study in the U.S. was presented from the students' perspective by Farber (1970, p.22), the well-known critic of conventional forms of

education. The teaching of French in schools was condemned for both its inability to interest students, and its failure to effectively teach the language.

A recent article by Terrell (1982, p.121) attributed the non-development of the ability to communicate in the foreign language to the use of "...grammar-translation, audiolingual, and the various eclectic cognitive-based methods." Terrell claimed that students, taught by these methods, "...normally neither speak nor understand the spoken language, not should they be expected to do so." Terrell concluded that this unsatisfactory result, "...undoubtedly stems from the fact that they (the students) have concentrated on a cognitive understanding of the rules and must therefore apply them consciously when speaking." Success was seen to require active foreign-language communication on the part of the student:

"...Any approach in which real communication is the basis of class activities will produce students who, within a very short time, can function in communicative situations with native speakers of that language,"
 "...If you concentrate on communication, everything else will follow. Teachers of a second or foreign language can be given no better advice."

(Terrell, 1982, p.121 and p.129)

Warriner (1980) has given some possible reasons for the general lack of change in the direction of communicative foreign-language teaching in the U.S. She argues that most teachers were not prepared to cope with new methods; that many have had to do the best they could with inadequate text-books; and that most have never had the opportunity to become good

teachers as their own teachers, or professional models, were pedantic and conservative masters of the

"...routine of teachers talking, students listening, texts occupying the constant attention of both, and little language proficiency developing."

(Warriner, 1980, p.82)

Furthermore, she deplored the over-use of textbooks where teachers and students struggle, usually silently, to get through the book before the end of the year. It was also shown that the measurement of progress according to the number of pages of work completed in set texts often meant that teachers had no time left for speaking practice or discussion of foreign cultures.

Resistance to change in the foreign-language teaching profession was discussed fifteen years earlier by Rivers (1965), who claimed that many teachers in the U.S. were reluctant to adopt the audio-lingual method, despite the authoritative work by Brooks (1964) (4). The expressed fear was that the new method would not teach the four language skills of comprehension, reading, writing and speaking. It is interesting to note that Brooks (1964, p.vii) was in fact inspired to write his methodology precisely because he felt the four skills necessary for adequate communication were not being adequately taught, and that the audio-lingual method would teach them more effectively than would traditional methods.

The criticisms of language teaching in the U.S., and the solutions that have been posited or prescribed, suggest that, in the long term, little change in teacher behaviour has been

achieved on a national scale. It is interesting to note that four of the five texts listed as prescribed reading for the 1982 Modern Languages methodology course at the University of Tasmania were written and published in the U.S.. These texts were published between 1964 and 1977, a period which ended with a substantial decline in the incidence of foreign-language learning in American schools. Although we cannot assume that these texts are defective, harmful, or responsible for the decline in foreign-language teaching in the U.S., there is evidence to support the suggestion that the publication of foreign-language methodologies is alone not enough to effect large-scale change of teacher behaviour in the classroom and consequent re-vitalized student interest in language learning.

A paper from the U.S., by Tucker (1978), claimed to address itself to the problem of implementing new language teaching methods or programmes. Unfortunately, no guidelines for successful implementation were given, apart from the assertion that second-language teaching programmes will only succeed when supported by government or local education authority policies. Tucker's recommendation is sound (5) but inadequate for the successful implementation of innovatory programmes. For example, no suggestions are offered for securing administrative support, and no mention is made of changing teacher perceptions or involving teachers in innovatory programmes.

1.2 Europe

Resistance to change in foreign-language education is also a major problem in Europe.

Macro-level Despondency in Britain: Cameron (1970, p.85)

compiled an annotated bibliography on modern language teaching in England, and asserted that in "many schools" little had changed over twenty years in terms of the traditional emphases on grammar and translation. There is some difficulty in assessing the extent to which change does occur, for as Richards (1974, p.326) says:

"...That some teachers and some schools have experimented with new approaches cannot be doubted; that others would do so if helped is more than likely; but whether the majority see the necessity or can make the effort is not proven."

Whiteside (1978, p.33) pointed to the tendency among innovators to exaggerate "...the extent and the nature of the change taking place." Cameron's finding, then, becomes all the more disturbing. Wringe's (1976, p.1) book on developments in modern language teaching in Britain, echoes Cameron's pessimistic tone:

"...In contrast to the situation some ten to twelve years ago, the current mood among modern language teachers is one of disillusion and uncertainty."

This despondency was also discussed by Partington (1978), who spoke of a crisis in foreign-language education in Britain. It was argued that high attrition rates from foreign-language courses, and frequent complaints about prescribed syllabi, meant that it was time to re-think aims and methods.

Hawkins (1982, p.86) identified two kinds of language learning: the one where the learner expresses meanings which matter personally; and the other where attention is drawn to linguistic form. Only the first kind of language teaching was felt to be 'serious', and the prevalence of the second kind of approach was seen as a major problem with regard to foreign-language education in Britain:

"...Our secondary courses and almost the entire 16+ exam (save for the trivial oral) have concentrated on transactions of the 'non-serious' kind, devoid of personal meanings, i.e. of real communication."

(Hawkins, 1982, p.86)

Knowles (1982, p.100) agreed that 'communication' should be the main aim of all foreign-language teachers. It was stated that British foreign-language students receive only approximately 500 hours of instruction up to Bachelor degree level, while one year abroad may provide a student with 6,000 hours of second language experience. The despondency, mentioned above, was echoed in the cry: "...foreign-language learning and teaching in this country is at a crisis point" (Knowles, 1982, p.103).

Britain's major innovatory experiment in the sixties and seventies was the attempt at establishing the early teaching of modern languages programmes (ETML) (6). The innovation was received with much enthusiasm (Wringe, 1976, p.39); but due to poor organization and, ultimately, the largely unfavourable report by Burstall (1974), excitement among language teachers in Britain seems to have been largely replaced with disillusionment.

Critical discussions of the nature of the primary school French programme and the Burstall report (e.g. Wringe, 1976, pp.36-49) and Spicer (1981, pp.4-17) have done little to restore the earlier euphoria of the 1960s.

The word 'euphoria' is borrowed here from Hawkins' (1981, p.7) abstraction, 'euphoria and disenchantment', which he used in his discussion of the cyclic nature of the history of foreign-language education in Britain. The search for miracle solutions to the foreign-language teaching profession's problems inspired Hawkins to refer to 'panaceas from the past' (1981, p.95).

True or lasting panaceas have not been found, but there is some evidence to suggest that some success in the use of innovative methods by individuals or small groups of teachers has been achieved (Wringe, 1976, pp. 40-41; Varnava, 1975).

A disappointing feature of much attempted reform in foreign-language education is the tendency for this to be introduced, organized and assessed on the macro level with little follow-through to ensure that individual classrooms are suitable and programmes are evaluated. Massive projects such as those established in the U.S. during the second world war, and in Britain in the 1960s, were gradually deprived of funds or evaluated without proper consideration being given to the problematic nature of the new programmes. In this way variables which led to small-scale successes were not isolated and promoted, but were ignored in the demise or rejection of the

entire innovatory project.

Musgrave (1974, p.34) mentioned that experiments with large-scale curricular development projects in England and the U.S.A. in science education:

"...may well reduce the rate of innovation, since in both countries the time taken between originating a new project and the wide availability of a tested curriculum is in the order of five years, during which time only a small proportion of schools in the country concerned will be influenced."

(Musgrave, 1974, p.34)

It would be unfair to say that Burstall's (1974) evaluation of the British ETML experiment was not thorough. Her final recommendation, however, was generally received unfairly, as a rejection of the ETML pilot scheme in its entirety. This result was crudely summarized by a journalist's claim: "...The Parlez-vous is out" (Spicer, 1981, p.8).

Thus the failure of the British ETML experiment was published in the press. Relatively few people would have heeded Burstall's warning to interpret her findings with care, and perhaps fewer still would have read Hawkins' (1982, p.85) metaphoric pinpointing of the cause of the experiment's alleged failure: "...our brave French pilot scheme foundered on that very rock of teacher supply".

Simplistic generalisations in the media, such as the one discussed by Spicer (1981), were not conducive to change in foreign-language education in Britain because they failed to appreciate the problematic nature of

large-scale curricular change.

Sociological Perspectives on Curriculum: The conceptual framework developed by Eggleston (1977, pp.51-74) should prove valuable for future discussions on curriculum innovation. The "received perspective", which considers and evaluates syllabi as unproblematic, or given, is as unsuitable to future modifications of foreign language education as the "reflexive perspective" which emphasizes the socially constructed nature of knowledge. According to Eggleston (1977, p.69) the received perspective is too often unable to account for deviation from shared perceptions and views. The reflexive perspective too often fails to explain the: "...regularities which so visibly occur in individuals' construction of reality." Eggleston provides as an alternative conceptual model the "restructuring perspective" on curriculum and curriculum development. This perspective, a synthesis of the usually polarized reflexive and received perspectives, can be seen as a tool to help educationists and teachers understand:

"...both the realities of knowledge in the school curriculum and the possibilities for change therein."

(Eggleston, 1977, p.71)

The adoption of this perspective should provide a substantially different ideological basis from the received perspective which, in the past, has viewed curriculum status quo and curriculum change as unproblematic and thus amenable to sweeping generalisations such as: 'This method is effective'; 'The ETML programme was successful' or 'a failure'; and so on.

Micro-level Successes: The present situation with regard to

foreign-language education in Britain contains some encouraging signs regarding effective innovation. For instance, Varnava (1975) recorded the successful attempt at teaching French to mixed-ability groups at Holland Park School. Wringe (1976, p.119) indicated the marked success of primary teachers in designing and making many of their own teaching aids and equipment.

It is possible to identify the beginnings of a trend in the U.K. and the U.S. to consider the value and effectiveness of concentrating innovative energies on the micro level. Compare, for example, Burstall's (1974) detailed evaluation of a national experiment [involving some 17,000 pupils] with Rivers' recommendation of micro-level evaluation. Burstall's report was published by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER). In parochial contrast, Rivers (1981, p.461) suggests that the evaluation of a FLES programme:

"...may take the form of a round table discussion of the evaluative material among teachers, parents, administrators, local coordinators, and school board members so that all points of view are represented."

These two types of evaluation are, of course, not mutually exclusive. Neither is it true that firm conclusions about the future of the assessment of innovations in Britain, the U.S. or Australia can be easily formed. Rather, there is evidence to suggest a gradual increase in the awareness of some educationists that the many problems, with regard to foreign-language instruction, are:

"...of a specific and practical nature to be solved at classroom level and do not wait

upon major policy decisions or the results of long-term basic research."

(Wringe, 1976, p.127)

Success has been achieved on this level. For example, Stern (1981) reported that a successful innovation in Canada, where the foreign language became the medium of instruction, and which eventually involved some 75,000 people in the early 1980's, had gained its impetus from a small group of parents. Support for micro-level innovation should not be misconstrued as being an argument in favour of the adoption of a laissez-faire attitude among educationists. The micro-level discussions, envisaged by Rivers, would be well served by the construction of a conceptual framework which facilitates the discussion of not only the nature of subject areas, but also teacher perceptions and experiences, and the dynamics of change. One of the things which the research study reported upon in this thesis hopes to achieve is the development of such a framework by considering matters on both the macro and the micro level which are relevant to foreign-language teaching:

"...Some of the debates in sociology of education talk past each other as proponents defend either macro or micro interests as if the other were necessarily antagonistic to the view held. Others, like Bernstein in England and Bourdieu in France, accept the complementarity of levels..."

(Robinson, 1981, p.22)

It should also be remembered that the incidence of foreign-language learning in Britain is more than double the figure in Australia, and in the U.S. (Triffitt et al., 1976, pp.5-7). However, the British figures do not compare favourably

with those of non-Anglophone countries where:

"...it is uniformly required that intending students of tertiary institutions must matriculate in both their own language and at least one foreign language,..."

(Triffitt, 1982, p.2)

Yet even in these countries, where virtually all pupils learn one or more foreign language, there is evidence of dissatisfaction with certain aspects of foreign-language teaching.

Benelux: The Netherlands has a long history of compulsory

foreign-language education. Bi- or multi-lingualism is often a prerequisite for educational or vocational success, and foreign-language study enjoys an unchallenged position in the school curriculum. General social approval and support for foreign-language study, however, has not prevented criticism of the teaching of languages.

In the mid 1950s Smit wrote an article about the state of teacher training in the Netherlands, which at that time was still in its infancy in the sense that university students were trained for research careers, and the introduction of pedagogical training was opposed by some on the grounds that it would lower academic standards. Fourteen years later Cameron (1970, p.96) found that foreign language study in the Netherlands was still very unpopular although widespread because of the use of the grammar-translation method. It must be remembered, of course, that the question of the popularity of language study in some societies has little bearing on enrolment figures because of the high value placed on such learning; for example in Belgium,

foreign-language study is compulsory from the age of ten until the end of secondary school, except for schools in the region of Brussels, where compulsory foreign-language study begins at the age of seven (Hamers, 1981, p.20).

West Germany: Foreign-language instruction in the ----- Bundesrepublik, as in the Netherlands, is accepted as a matter of course. Nevertheless, a recent article deplored the state of foreign-language teaching in West Germany in terms matched only by the U.S. President's Commission report, mentioned earlier (7), and some comments published in Australian journals, which will be discussed later.

Freudenstein (1979, p.110), writing on pedagogic reforms in foreign-language education in West Germany, quoted the following damning comment:

"...Der Fremdsprachenunterricht an deutschen Schulen ist europapolitisch gesehen eine Katastrophe'."

Translation:

"...with regard to European politics, foreign-language instruction in German schools is a catastrophe."

Although Freudenstein judged this statement as overly harsh, he did hasten to add that there are serious language barriers in today's Europe, which are hindering efforts to increase international cooperation. One problem is that upper secondary level courses stress grammar and literature rather than communication skills.

It is interesting to note that even in those countries in

which virtually all pupils participate in foreign-language study, there are still some serious problems with regard to the quality of the instruction provided. It is remarkable that, at the same time as these problems are allowed to persist, no expense is spared to foster goodwill among regional nations in the form of such things as the establishment of the European Parliament.

U.S.S.R.: A recent report from a visitor to the Soviet Union

(Muckle, 1981) suggests that in that country, in the area of foreign-language teaching, reforms have been instituted with consistent, centralized supervision. Inspectors police the requirement that the development of communication skills, which is the main aim of foreign-language instruction, is achieved through the high use of the target (8) language in the classroom. No doubt the Soviet Union has its incompetent as well as competent teachers, but Muckle (1981, pp. 155-157) noticed the enforced rejection of grammar and translation techniques. In the U.S.S.R foreign-language study is provided for all children, usually from primary onwards (Triffitt et al., 1976, p.4).

Anweiler (1982), who pointed out that in the U.S.S.R much emphasis is placed on the teaching of Russian to native speakers of such languages as Ukrainian or Latvian, was not impressed with the standard of foreign-language instruction in the U.S.S.R.:

"...In der Versorgung der Schulen mit Unterrichtsmitteln aller Art sollen die didaktischen Hilfen für den Russischunterricht Vorrang geniessen. Das Problem liegt hier vor allem in der oft bemangelten Qualität des Sprachunterrichts, seiner zu geringen Orientierung auf den

praktischen Sprachgebrauch und der auch sonst beklagten Unterrichtsroutine."

"...Oft mangelt es ihnen (den Lehrern) an sprachlicher und methodischer Kompetenz in der grundlegenden Phase des Sprachunterrichts."

(Anweiler, 1982, p.49)

Translation:

"...Educational aids in the teaching of Russian enjoy priority in the provision of teaching equipment to schools. Above all, the problem here often lies in the poor quality of language instruction, which is focussed too closely on the practical use of language, and the instructional routine which is also otherwise complained about."

"...Often the teachers lack basic linguistic and methodological competence with regard to language teaching."

Solchanyk (1982, p.114) wrote about attempts to remedy this situation. New departments in pedagogics and methodology have been established, as well as language and literature centres in schools. The maximum class size for foreign-language study has been set at twenty-five pupils, and on-the-job training schemes have been introduced for teachers. Russian is currently taught at primary school level and its introduction at pre-school level is being considered.

Muckle's impressions were similar to those of Kreindler (1982, pp.23-4), who spoke of centralized decision-making and uniformity in foreign-language instruction. Since the late 1960s the: "...Russian curriculum has been revised in line with emphasis on the functional rather than the theoretical learning of the language..." (Kreindler, 1982, pp.23-4).

1.3 Summary

This brief overview of foreign-language education in five highly industrialized countries has sought to offer some statistical features, and some recent impressions from a number of linguists, regarding foreign-language teaching. In the light of the literature consulted, several conclusions can be drawn.

With few exceptions (e.g. Muckle 1981) commentators reveal serious problems with foreign-language education in Europe and the U.S., in Anglophone countries these problems being manifested in low enrolment rates.

Dissatisfaction with the traditional grammar-translation approach led to attempts at implementing innovative programmes, whether these were the clearly defined "reading", "direct" or "audio-lingual" methods or more loosely defined courses suited to mixed-ability groups (Varnava, 1975).

A general finding is that ETML experiments attempted on the macro or national level were unsuccessful, while some smaller scale developments were successfully achieved. The main reason for this is likely to be that micro-level innovative programmes can respond more quickly to problems as they arise.

At the beginning of this chapter the problem in Tasmania with regard to foreign-language education was identified largely in terms of the low interest and low enrolment rates among pupils and students. To this can be added a further problem which arises due to the persistent popularity, among teachers in

Australia and overseas, of the grammar-translation method or, more precisely, approaches which strongly emphasize traditional, cognitive aspects of foreign-language learning. Part of the aim of the present enquiry is to ascertain the extent to which traditional approaches are still adopted by Tasmanian teachers of foreign languages.

A third dimension to the Tasmanian problem is provided by the overseas experience of little lasting success with macro-level curriculum development programmes. The present study will consider current attempts at effecting change in the curriculum, and in teacher behaviour in the classroom in Tasmania, in the light of these international experiences. Recent sociological findings on the nature of achieving successful educational innovation will provide theoretical guidelines for this part of the research.

Before turning specifically to the Tasmanian situation, however, it is necessary to review the published response to the persistently low incidence of foreign-language learning throughout all of Australia.

2. FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING IN AUSTRALIA

The most important vehicle for the interchange of ideas on modern-language teaching and learning throughout Australia is babel: the Journal of the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers' Associations (AFMLTA). Nearly all of the contributors to the journal in recent years have been Australian academics rather than practising, classroom teachers, which clearly indicates the scholastic nature of the journal. Because of what they regard as being the formal academic bias many Tasmanian teachers have expressed dissatisfaction with the journal, complaining that articles are often too erudite and theoretical in orientation to be of practical use. Since the late 1950s babel has sometimes included articles which strongly criticize the nature of foreign-language teaching in Australia.

Concern at high attrition rates and the general low incidence of foreign-language teaching in Australia in the 1950s did not immediately lead to criticism of teachers and their methods. The report of the proceedings of the 1957 Northeast Conference on the Teacher of Foreign Languages, published in babel (9), concluded that teachers or guidance officers could do little if students insisted on opting out of foreign language study (1957, p.26).

Aims: In the early 1960s, however, teachers did start to question their professional aims. The issue regarding why foreign languages should be studied was at times treated humorously

(Gelman, 1962). The suggestion that teachers of foreign languages should consider what they were doing began to appear in Australian journals with questions about the ultimate purpose of foreign-language education (Robinson, 1963). Robinson (1964), felt the purpose was to teach communication and intellectual tolerance (10).

It is interesting to note that potential innovators place a lot of significance on changing teachers' opinions about the primary aims of foreign-language education. There seems to be a belief among many educationists that a change in aims will automatically lead to a change of methods (Webb, 1974, p.13; Rivers, 1981, p.7; Warnock, 1977, p.148). To what extent this view is correct is difficult to judge, but there is evidence to suggest (e.g. see below) that methodological statements about the main aims of foreign-language education have remained largely unchanged and independent of actual teaching practice in Anglophone countries, over at least the last two or three decades. Methodological recommendations are discussed in a later chapter, but it should be noted here that Mallinson's (1953, pp.25-31) aims as stated in the 1950's of developing communication skills, international tolerance and understanding of foreign cultures as well as the mother tongue, are very similar to those published twenty-eight years later by Rivers (1981, pp.8-11). Yet in the U.S., Britain and Australia there is much evidence to suggest that many teachers still devoted most of their classroom hours to grammar and translation during this

period of time, instead of encouraging students to use the target language in communicative interaction with each other and the teacher. As the "Strength Through Wisdom" report put it:

"...The Commission views as a priority concern the failure of schools and colleges to teach languages so that students can communicate in them."

("Strength Through Wisdom", 1980, p.19)

It is difficult to empirically establish the extent to which these communicative and cultural aims have been adopted by teachers, however the Tasmanian report (Triffitt et al., 1976, p.82) revealed that Tasmanian language teachers hoped above all to promote international and intercultural understanding and tolerance. The same report did not indicate the relative importance teachers attached to other aims such as personal or intellectual development. In other words, an indication was gained of what teachers felt were their main aims, but not of the extent to which these or lesser aims determined choice of teaching method.

Throughout Australia, the causal connection between aims and methods has been generally regarded as unproblematic. Whitton (1972), for instance, has spoken of the 'desperate urgency' for foreign-language teachers to re-examine their goals (11), while Ingram (1972) has argued that the adoption of outdated methods could easily lead to dissatisfaction with foreign-language study, and hostile views towards speakers of other languages. When the formation of a core curriculum was widely discussed, Ingram (1980a, p.15) opposed the institution of compulsory language

study on the grounds that teachers first needed to re-think what they were doing. It is not being asserted here that aims and methods are unrelated, but that aims do not solely determine strategies adopted by teachers.

Discussions on the formation of a National Language Policy for Australia have highlighted the difficulty of identifying the aim(s) of foreign-language students, and of developing teaching styles which will respond to those aims:

"...Students today learn languages not for narrow academic reasons, but increasingly for a wide range of other purposes." "...there is still little agreement over how to ensure greater sensitivity in the education system to the changing purposes of language learning."

(Commonwealth Department of Education, 1982, p.15)

Methods: Before continuing this review of the available ----- literature on foreign-language teaching in Australian schools since the 1950s, it is necessary to include a brief explanatory note about the nature and significance of methods.

Sometimes the term 'method' is used in the foreign-language teaching field to indicate a narrowly, and usually exhaustively, defined approach to language instruction. Teachers may, if they wish, adhere to the strict instructions that methodologists, such as Palmer (1917) or Brooks (1964), provide. More recently published texts avoid presenting a single method in prescriptive terms and make more general recommendations. For example, Rivers (1981, p.xi), and Wringe:

"...Effectiveness in teaching, or indeed the practice of any profession, is not merely a

matter of having the right equipment or even the right approaches in general, but depends on the acquisition of a multitude of skills, knacks, perceptions and unhesitating discriminations which are commonly said to be the result of experience,..."

(Wringe, 1976, p.115)

In the following review the term 'method' will be used in its modern sense; that is, to indicate emphases, rather than pedagogic instruction codes (12). Claydon et al. (1979, p145), for example, specifically avoid prescribing rules but place emphasis on the use of the target language in the foreign-language classroom.

The view that choice of method by teachers is a very important variable in determining interest in foreign-language learning among pupils and the general public is commonly held among researchers. For example: "...The choice of method is all-important." (Wykes and King, 1968, p.149) (13). However this view is not universally accepted. It has for instance been challenged by Triffitt et al. (1976, p.9), who although acknowledging that methodology should be regarded as a valuable and important part of educationists' thinking about foreign-language education, also feel that:

"...to imagine that new methods or other 'technocratic' innovations will radically affect the incidence of foreign-language education, either in America or elsewhere, would befoolish."

This view was based on the failure of the introduction of new methods in different countries to effect a sustained, substantial increase in enrolment figures. Hawkins' (1981, pp.95-199) section

on 'Panaceas from the Past' seems to lend support to such a view. However, the view was based on the assumption that the introduction of new methods by authors and academics means that those new methods will find their way into the classrooms of the majority of teachers, a view which is not supported by the literature (e.g. Whiteside, 1978).

Triffitt's (1976, pp.12-42) argument that social factors outside the classroom provide strong disincentives to foreign-language study seems to be a tenable one. He has identified several misconceptions which are common in some monolingual, monocultural and, sometimes, xenophobic communities which form part of the social environment in Australia. These include the views, which appear to be common among teachers as well as the general public, that indifference to language study is a necessary consequence of geographical isolation; that success depends on a flair for languages, as if intelligence were subject specific; and, that foreign-language study, as a consequence, is very unpopular.

Given the significance for foreign-language education of social attitudes and curricular policy, the present research wishes to reaffirm the importance of instituting new communicative methods in Tasmanian schools, and, furthermore, it is proposed that one of the most constructive areas for research on foreign-language teaching is that area which will facilitate the implementation of new methods despite the obstacles which exist in the education system and the wider community.

Criticism of Foreign Language Teaching: Awareness of the
 unfavourable social environment in which many teachers have to work has done little to mitigate the comments of critics of foreign-language education in Australia. Criticism has been aimed at a number of specific areas. For instance, teachers have been accused of incompetence and apathy, and have been both advised and urged to re-think their aims and priorities in foreign-language education. These criticisms were often closely followed by denunciations of the widespread adoption of the grammar-translation method which was seen as being largely responsible for the poor level of attainment of communication skills among pupils and students.

Secondary level teachers of foreign languages bore the brunt of the articulate, strongly-worded attack. Critical comments from many individual Australian educationists are grouped here under the title, 'attack'. This is possible because of the very high degree of consensus among critics that classroom teachers were largely responsible for the poor state of foreign language education in Australia. It is interesting that practising teachers, as a group or profession, appear not to have defended themselves, in their professional journals, against allegations of linguistic and pedagogic incompetence. Teachers were only slightly exonerated by the frequent attacks on pre-service training programmes and language courses offered at Australian tertiary institutions.

For the purposes of discussion, the criticism of

foreign-language teaching in Australian schools will be reviewed by first looking at generalized assertions about the nature of the instruction. Secondly, the chapter will review the denunciation of the grammar-translation method, or approaches which place primary emphasis on deductive grammar teaching and the inculcation of writing skills. Thirdly, criticism of teacher training programmes - particularly undergraduate foreign-language courses - will be seen to involve a debate about the place of the study of language and literature in such courses. Fourthly and finally, certain views on the nature of knowledge will be briefly mentioned because they are fundamental to much of the criticism of both training programmes and teaching methods. It should be appreciated that all or some of these areas are inseparably linked in the minds and articles of most of the authors who will be mentioned.

Quality of Language Teaching: Ingram (1972) has called for ----- either the systematic reformation or complete abandonment of the present system of teaching foreign languages in Australia. He complained of declining enrolment rates in New South Wales, catastrophic attrition rates, and claimed that few students reached the stage where they could effectively communicate in the target language. In this sense Ingram felt that many teachers were failing and totally defeating the main aim of foreign-language study which he described as the objective of developing international tolerance and understanding. This lack of success was not blamed on contributing social factors, but

exclusively on the poor quality of teaching, which Ingram has called 'hopeless' (1972, p.4). Robinson (1978, pp.55-56) spoke of the failure of foreign-language courses in Australia to develop students' ability to communicate functionally within another system of signs, orally, graphically, and/or visually. Consequently she too was of the view that foreign-language study in the late 1970s often did not develop students' tolerance, understanding, or broaden their world-view.

Teachers were accused of apathy. Eltis (1975, pp. 19-20) felt that the greatest problem with regard to the decline in foreign-language enrolments was teacher apathy, and he scolded them for failing to help students understand the social, political, cultural and geographical background to the languages they study. The teaching of culture, he claimed, was too often limited to 'Pied Piper tales'.

There was no significant challenge to the widely held view that a crisis existed in foreign-language education in Australia (Rado, 1972). Quinn (1972) spoke of the 'tyranny of testing', and perceived foreign-language classroom behaviour as teacher dominated, boring and inculcating a sense of failure in many students. He suggested that schools may be impervious to reform (1972, p.73), and that radical changes were necessary. Quinn freely admitted the influence of Illich (1971) when he proposed that the study of languages should be taken out of the schools and into the ethnic communities.

Ingram (1979, pp.4-5) described the language education

situation in Australia as confused. He cited a Morgan National Opinion Poll, published in 1978, which showed that ninety percent of Australians thought that a second language should be taught. In the face of that very encouraging indication of public support for foreign-language education, Ingram (1980a, p.15) saw the existing state of language teaching as elitist, conservative and inefficient. Like Quinn (1972), Ingram was concerned about strong opposition from teachers to proposed innovations. The image that develops from a consideration of such comments about the state of foreign-language teaching in Australia is a negative and unpleasant one. The reader of babel and other relevant literature is hard pushed to find adulatory comments. Triffitt et al. (1976, p.30) claimed that teachers were a 'reasonably successful group'. This conclusion was based on the perceptions of pupils who were comparing French teachers with those in other subjects (Wykes and King, 1968, p.102). Quinn (1981, p.46) felt that improvements had taken place, but didn't indicate the form or extent to which this was so. He mentioned that the very best foreign-language programmes had replaced stated objectives to do with grammar and vocabulary lists with the goal of sharing an: "...authentic experience of cultural reality,..."(Quinn, 1981, p.46).

This is reminiscent of Brooks' (1964, p.96) 'cultural island'. The time span between the first publication of Brooks' Language and Language Learning and Quinn's article is twenty-one years. Quinn was referring to the best programmes available, not

common teaching practice. The length of time needed for the establishment of innovatory ideas in teaching practice was estimated by Mort, quoted in Hoyle (1977, p.383):

"...It was found that typically there was a fifty-year lag between a felt need and the appearance of an innovation to meet that need, a further period of fifteen years before the innovation was adopted by three per cent of school systems, and then a rapid period of adoption followed by a period of deceleration until near-complete diffusion had been achieved."

Criticism of Methods: The consensus among critics (eg. Collard, 1975; Ingram, 1977) is that the methods best suited to the fostering of international tolerance, an awareness of and interest in other cultures, and a feeling of achievement, are those methods which develop communication skills and avoid, as much as possible, grammar rules, vocabulary lists, pattern practice (14) and translation.

It was decided at the 1965 Berlin International Congress on Modern Foreign Language Teaching, that the manipulation of grammatical structures should be replaced by actual communication in the foreign language (Bowker and Triffitt, 1965, p.5). However, many course or text books, published since then, have ignored this recommendation (15).

Apparently many teachers have also ignored this recommendation. For example, O'Kelly (1982), the Principal of a Jesuit High School, was proud of the standard of foreign-language instruction in his school, despite the fact that in year eleven, only 15.0 per cent of those foreign-language students, who had

started in year eight, continued their study of a second language. The key techniques of memory training through the use of vocabulary lists and the formal analysis of grammar were seen to support the objectives of "intellectual stringency" and "cultural extension". O'Kelly revealed his ignorance of the arguments and views discussed in this chapter by asserting that the perceived departure from cognitive-based methods in many Australian schools was:

"... a change for which no explanation has been expounded, and one suspects that it has been an unreflected accommodation to the drift of the times."

(O'Kelly, 1982, p.14)

In fact, many "explanations have been expounded" for a change from cognitive to communicative methods, as can be seen from the following list of comments, ranging from 1975 to 1982.

Collard (1975) attributed choice of method to student and teacher apathy in the sense that both groups were motivated to find or develop new methods. He deplored the situation where many students were incapable of conversing in the target language and went on to argue that foreign-language teaching should no longer be based on the pedagogical models of Latin and Greek, where the emphasis was on literary pursuit, writing and mental discipline, a concept which Triffitt et al. (1976, p.20) felt had never been clearly defined (16).

Zajda (1976) attributed the failure of Russian to develop as a subject at tertiary level in Australia, to the consistent use

of the grammar-translation method over the previous two decades.

Ingram (1976) reiterated calls for the adoption of methods where the target language is frequently used by students, if the aims of interracial tolerance and cultural insight are to be achieved.

He went on to complain about the widespread use of methods where the learner is a passive recipient of a mass of information, and where the objectives of language teaching are reduced to the memorization of patterns and vocabulary (Ingram, 1977, p.9). He argued that methods were being chosen on a stochastic basis; that is, without due consideration of the nature of the language, the needs of the learner, and the characteristics of the classroom and broader social environment (Ingram, 1977, p.15). Kaplan (1978, p.5) argued that most children were being taught linguistics and grammar rules, but no language.

In addition Richardson (1979) has argued for the adoption of new teaching methods because she felt that teachers were obliged to take non-verbal communication into account when teaching foreign languages. Active communication in the target language, not drills, was viewed as essential if foreign systems of non-verbal communication are to be imparted. There is no sign that dissatisfaction with cognitive methods is lessening in Australia. For example, Klieme (1982, p.31) blamed the low interest in foreign-language study in Australia on the emphasis on literature and grammar:

"...Literaturstudium und eine die Grammatik
zur Conditio sine qua non des Unterrichts

erhebende Fremdsprachenmethodik schrecken mehr Schüler ab als die Wahlfachsituation der Fremdsprachen insgesamt."

(Klieme, 1982, p.31)

Translation:

"...The study of literature and a method of foreign-language teaching which raises grammar to the condition sine qua non frighten more pupils away than the entire situation with regard to foreign-language options."

The methodological consensus among Australian critics is very strong indeed. Many of their arguments are identical to those from other countries, which were referred to earlier in this chapter. The dichotomy between progressivist educationists and apparently conservative teaching staff is a persistent problem which occurs in many countries. Consider, for example, Kaplan's (1978) echo of the 1965 recommendations reported by Bowker and Triffitt regarding this matter.

There is much evidence to suggest that educationists' exhortations that teachers reconsider aims and methods have had little effect in influencing classroom strategies. Ten years ago, Quinn (1972, p.77) noted that the teaching of grammar exercises and pattern drills was continuing despite teachers' commitment to the objectives of communication and language use, and there appears to be no evidence to show that this situation has changed.

We will now consider the area of Teacher Education since the continuing popularity of the grammar-translation method among teachers has often been attributed to poor teacher training

programmes.

2.1 Teacher Training Programmes:

 Language and Literature: The Australian Academy of the

 Humanities' Committee on Foreign Languages presented a report on pre-service training programmes in 1975, after conducting a survey of foreign-language teaching in Australian universities from 1965 to 1973. The report was critical of the current situation. It was felt that tertiary courses too often produced incompetent students who very often were discouraged and had negative attitudes to language study. The self-perpetuating nature of the system was pointed out, where lack of training in the techniques of practical language teaching often led to the adoption of a conservative approach to teaching by beginning teachers. Siliakus' (1972) suggestion that trainee teachers be sent abroad to further develop their language skills was supported by the Committee.

There was, and there remains, general dissatisfaction among many educationists in the foreign-language field with teacher training programmes. Chamberlain (1975) saw Australian universities as devotees of the 'Great God Literature'. Students did not gain sufficient language training nor did the focus on literary analysis teach enough about the way of life of foreign peoples. Bostock (1975, pp.17-18) agreed that university courses should move away from traditional literary appreciation and analysis roles. The influence of Bernstein (1975) is apparent in

Bostock's claim that rigid discipline boundaries are one of the fundamental causes of decline of foreign languages in Australia, in the sense that language teachers are unable to draw from other subject areas to give a wider view of foreign peoples and cultures. Ingram (1977, p.11) also complained of inadequate teacher preparation, and Wykes and King (1968, p.84 and p.150) questioned the heavy emphasis on the literature of earlier centuries in university French courses.

Complaints about teacher training programmes in the 1970s gained renewed attention recently with the publication of an article which is specifically critical of university German departments (Joy and Cohen, 1980a). The authors saw the need for reform of German studies in undergraduate and teacher education courses since they felt that emphasis on literature resulted too frequently in graduates with a poor command of modern spoken German. It would appear that university departments on the whole have ignored Chamberlain's (1975) earlier criticism.

Joy and Cohen (1980a) also argued that poor language training encouraged the adoption by teachers of the grammar-translation method. They asserted, for instance, that teachers of German often rely on drills and written exercises so that they don't have to speak German in the classroom.

In reply to the view expressed by Joy and Cohen, Thomson (1980) has defended the teaching of literature as an excellent vehicle for the transmission of all other aspects of German culture. He has, however, conceded the need for reform, and has

suggested that students be sent to Germany to complete their language training. This suggestion appeared shortly after the identical recommendation in the U.S. Report to the President, mentioned earlier. Thomson agreed with Joy and Cohen that tertiary level students should receive adequate communication training and considerable knowledge of the relevant foreign culture, and stated that the language teaching profession had reacted apathetically to the decline of languages (Thomson, 1980, p.4).

The August, 1980 edition of Unicorn, the Bulletin of the Australian College of Education, was devoted to discussions of foreign-language education. In this issue, Joy and Cohen (1980b, pp.269-270) directed their comments and criticism at all university language departments. They insisted that university language departments should be responsible for the training of future language teachers, not provide an education designed almost exclusively for the needs of linguists or philologists. It is interesting to note that their perception of elitism and resistance to change in tertiary language departments is very similar to Smit's (1956) perception of the situation in the Netherlands, twenty-four years earlier.

Knowledge: Some of Joy and Cohen's views (1980b) reflect the philosophy of knowledge expressed by Esland (1975, p.77), who felt that the focus of education should be:

"...diverted from how man absorbs knowledge so that he can replicate it to how the individual creatively synthesizes and

generates knowledge, and what are its social origins and consequences."

That is, Joy and Cohen could see substantial benefits to teacher training programmes with a partial shift in the view of knowledge from what Eggleston (1977, p.53) called the received perspective towards the reflexive perspective. Joy and Cohen accept the value of both perspectives:

"Information, statistics, facts there must be, often of a specific, contextualized nature, but German studies would avoid a present tendency, especially in university German cultural history courses, to present facts as closed, to tell students what is or was being thought, and what to think about what is thought."

(Joy and Cohen, 1980b, p.275)

Ingram (1980b, p.282), using a quotation from Saint-Exupery, summarizes his view of the ultimate value of foreign-language learning, that is, to really get to know another culture. The view of the nature of knowledge, encapsulated in the quotation, is applicable to teacher training programmes. If students are to adequately learn a language and to become familiar with new teaching methods, then they must first be encouraged to actively use and experience that language and those methods. As Saint Exupery put it (Ingram, 1980b):

"...Connaître ce n'est point démontrer, ni expliquer. C'est accéder à la vision. Mais, pour voir, il convient d'abord de participer. Cela est dur apprentissage..."

Translation: (Ingram, 1980b, p.283)

"...To know is not to show nor to explain. It is to yield to a vision. But to see, you must first participate. That is the hard lesson..."

Suggested Improvements: Educationists have provided many

 suggestions for the improvement of foreign-language education. Some propositions about changing aims and methods, the perceived imbalance between language and literature, and about the nature of knowledge, have already been considered. Many other recommendations were made which show a wide diversity of approaches to the question of improving foreign-language education in Australia. For example: Ozsoy (1973) thought that generally foreign-language instruction in Australia began too late and pupils were given too little time to achieve expected degrees of competence; Wheeler (1973) offered some practical suggestions on how to individualize foreign-language learning; Mifsud (1973), one of the few high school teachers to contribute to babel, enthusiastically called for a programme of gradual

 implementation of individualisation of foreign-language objectives; and, the Research Branch of the Department of Education (1977) argued that examinations, which largely determined what was taught, needed to be reviewed.

Many calls have been made for the provision of in-service methodology courses. For example Kelabora (1976); Welch (1977); the Modern Language Teachers' Association of Queensland (1977); and, Ingram (1977). Articles such as these may stimulate thought and discussion but it would seem that they usually have little direct influence on the policies of education departments or teaching behaviour (e.g. Kerr, 1972b; Scott, 1978).

2.2 Curriculum Innovation

Theory: A number of authors in the 1970s came to realize that it is not enough to call for reform, and presented several models for curriculum innovation. Ingram (1973, p.19) discussed the problem of influencing teaching practice and concluded that experimentation with new research should involve teachers. Such a view was forcefully presented by Seaman et al. (1972) and Hoyle (1972, p.19), who argued that, for implementation of innovation to be successful, there must be greater teacher investment, in terms of interest and effort, in the innovation than in the traditional role. On the basis of such considerations, Ingram (1973) called for a much closer working relationship between teachers and theoreticians, innovations should be seen to be practical and practicable, and, new teachers should be made thoroughly aware of new techniques.

A similar recommendation was presented by Eltis (1975, p.22) who called for action research into foreign-language teaching and the provision of funds to facilitate the organization of groups of teachers to experiment with new ideas. A co-ordinator or change agent (17) would provide the necessary theoretical information and once a programme had been designed and used, there would be a constant evaluation of material and techniques, based on feedback from staff and students.

The Brisbane First National Conference of Modern Language Teachers (1976), addressed itself to the question of fostering

curricular change in a similar way to Eltis (1975) and Ingram (1973). The conference called for: educational administrators to be sympathetic to its aims; adequate resources to be made available for the continuous training of teachers; and, the provision of appropriate teaching materials. It was felt that the granting of these three requests would immediately bring into effect policies aimed at improving foreign-language education. Unfortunately, but not surprisingly, the conference's public request seems to have achieved little (Muir, 1976).

Such lack of progress has led to a greater awareness of the problematic nature of introducing new methods and securing their effective implementation in classroom interaction. For example, Staines (1972) listed parents, children, teachers and administrators as potential inhibitors of change. Teachers, it was argued, want clearly defined goals in terms of subject matter and maintenance of order, both of which are provided by strict adherence to the grammar-translation method.

An example of the difficulty of implementing an idea which seems theoretically sound became evident in bilingual schools. Kaplan (1978) called for the establishment of bilingual schools where all subjects are taught both in English and a community language (18). However, such a programme was found to have some inherent difficulties by Simkin and Moore (1978), who had great difficulty in trying to convince some beginning teachers from South America, who had experienced highly disciplined formalist backgrounds as students, of the value of new methods. This is

not to say that bilingual schools are necessarily doomed to failure (19), but notice must be taken of Musgrave's (1975, p.204) warning that teachers can very easily transmit the values they picked up as pupils. The conservative pressure from this source is obvious.

Chamberlain (1980, p.15) summed the problem of the implementation of new methods up neatly when he stated that innovators need to find ways of introducing what some regard as radical methodology into a fairly conservative education system. He argued that disenchantment with new methods was often a consequence of neglecting to think of the restraints within the Australian education system.

A similar view was expressed by Hasan (1978, p.59) who showed that methods may or may not be used according to the social context into which they are introduced. Banks (1977, p.242) would agree, for she found that with regard to professional socialization the school is possibly more important than the training institution, and Hasan (1978, p.61) urged 'those who influence the teaching of second languages' to 'start taking human communities more seriously'. That is, innovation should be designed with due consideration to the social context in which it is to be implemented, and should not, as so often has been the case, be presented as expert advice, in the hope that teachers will respond in the desired manner.

Awareness of the problem of curriculum innovation arose not only from theoretical sources, (e.g. Seaman et al., 1972; Hoyle,

1972; and Whiteside, 1978) but also directly from classroom observation. Eltis (1978) argued that the limitations on the role of the individual teacher in the classroom should be considered when courses are constructed. He also saw the need for teacher involvement in the implementation of programmes.

Eltis' article echoed Rado's (1974) perception that preoccupation with the immediate classroom situation had prevented many teachers from adopting audio-lingual methods. It is important to notice that the actual tenets of the method are not seen as significantly responsible for its general rejection among teachers. Rado argued that successful implementation of new schemes was contingent on the study of sociolinguistics in undergraduate, methods or inservice courses, flexible timetabling, open entry to courses, and adequate modification of assessment procedures.

It can be argued that articles such as those by Chamberlain (1980), Hasan (1978), Eltis (1978) and Rado (1974), while legitimate, stimulating expressions of opinion based on sociological theories of educational innovation, are themselves external, prescriptive formulae for change, which do not incorporate teacher investment of effort in the proposed innovations and, therefore, have little hope of directly effecting change of teacher behaviour in the classroom. In response it could be claimed that such research is addressed primarily to educational innovators, and not to practising teachers. It appears that such research has not achieved the ends

they advocate as most desirable.

In view of this it is interesting to consider some innovations which have been attempted in foreign-language departments in Australian educational institutions. It is, of course, to be expected that many micro-level innovations, whether successful or not, have gone unrecorded in published form.

Practice: Ingram (1980a, p.17) did not only discuss the ways in which innovations should be introduced, implemented and that implementation sustained, but proposed, as a model for change, the Teaching of English as a Second Language programme, which has been successfully established in Australia. The programme was set up by the Migrant Education Branch of the Federal Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs, and involved students, teachers, academics and administrators. Significantly, the programme was introduced on a macro, national level, but Ingram attributes its success to micro level co-operation among individuals and groups.

Australia has had no national experimental innovations in foreign-language education such as the British and U.S. schemes mentioned earlier, apart from the English as a Second Language programme. Very little information is available in the way of reports of actual attempts to implement innovations and suggestions into the foreign-language courses in schools (20).

It is interesting to note the action which has been taken in response to the sorts of criticism and suggestions which have

been discussed in this chapter. In a review of language teaching in New South Wales from 1962 to 1971, Kerr (1972a) looked at the problems which confronted innovators. Foreign-language study was delayed until grade eight where it was offered as an elective or optional subject, and the syllabus was extended to include a large cultural component. Teachers were directed to use an aural-oral approach, their views on methods being regarded as irrelevant to the ultimate issue of which method should be used. Methodological direction from a central educational bureaucracy seems to be successful in the U.S.S.R. (Muckle, 1981), but not in the Western world:

"...within education there is a strong sentiment against such [coercive] strategies founded on the assumption that because of their very nature educational ends cannot be achieved without the commitment of the participants, both teachers and taught."
(Hoyle, 1977, p.392)

The reaction from university staff to New South Wales' innovations was a polarization into traditionalists and progressives (Kerr, 1972a, p.5). Some traditionalist arguments were expressed by Bancroft (1965), and Just and Scott (1968).

There was polarization of ideas also among teachers. Because no retraining schemes were planned or established, although some in-service courses were commenced, many teachers were unprepared for change. Many had difficulty in completing the required section on culture because they had been given no extra time to cover the extended syllabus. Poor organization, then, led to severe problems with this innovatory project, as was the case

with the ETML experiment in Britain (Spicer, 1981, pp.5-6).

The New South Wales experience, however, did lead to some fortunate developments. Dissatisfaction with prescriptive course outlines handed down by committees on which they were under-represented led teachers to form their own organizations, conferences and journals.

A recent example of such a journal is Szene, the German Teachers Journal of the Modern Language Teachers' Association of Victoria. An early issue of Szene (1981) contains much enthusiastic reporting of the considerable efforts and achievements of the Association of German Teachers of Victoria. There is a great deal of discussion on the nature and format of present syllabi and examinations; practical suggestions on how to teach conversation skills are given by a subject adviser who is financed by the West German government; and, Hugo von Hofmannsthal is quoted as a critic of the types of sentences devised for grammar exercises (1981, p.9). The Szene publication reveals the influence of progressivist thinkers, but because it is produced by teachers, its credibility and significance as an agent of innovation, may be much larger among members of the profession than the work of other educationists (21).

Practical support for curriculum innovation has also been shown by the Australian federal government. The initial Schools Commission report, on the principle that teachers must be involved if innovation is to be effectively implemented,

recommended that an Education Centre be available in each state as a forum where teachers could discuss proposed innovations and the relevant dynamics of change (1973, p.124). The sum of one hundred and forty thousand dollars was provided for the establishment of the Tasmanian Centre, and fifty thousand dollars for annual operating costs (1973, p.144). Since 1973 three centres have been established in Tasmania, one each in Burnie, Launceston and Hobart. In total two hundred and seventy thousand dollars was also made available for the promotion of in-service training programmes.

Ketchell (1978) discusses the effects of the Commission's allocation of two million, three hundred and thirty thousand dollars for in-service training in Victoria. School-based administrators became generally more receptive to requests for permission to attend professional development programmes than they had been. Language consultants were based in some schools and there was an increase in the number of foreign-language assistants. As one would expect these changes helped raise morale among Victorian language teachers. Similar reports, however, do not seem applicable to Tasmania.

One of the most exciting reports of actual progress in implementing new methods in the high school comes from Joy (1981) in Queensland. At the Fifth National Conference for Teachers of German, in Hobart, Joy (1981, p.4) stressed the determination of himself and fellow innovators not to present teachers with prescriptive directions on how to teach. New syllabi present, as

examples, a range of activities, themes, situations, elements of grammar and snippets of conversation from which the teacher may choose. The only stipulation is that each section of work must be directed specifically to the promotion of oral or written communication skills. Teachers are required to create their own programmes and submit these to an Advisory Committee which acts as a moderating body and makes sure the objective of communicative ability is not forgotten. The Foreign Languages Advisory Committee stresses its commitment to continuous feedback, evaluation and development, and aims to instil the same approach in all teachers (22). This project is exciting because it is a planned attempt at institutionalizing new methods, and takes notice of the theory of curriculum innovation.

Summary: This review of foreign-language teaching on

mainland Australia over the past twenty-five years began with a brief examination of early reactions to the low incidence of language learning. This was followed by a discussion of the aims of foreign-language teachers and the significance of these aims in determining choice of method. It was noted that a causal connection between aims and methods was generally accepted among educationists, despite the incongruity of aims and teaching strategies discussed by researchers and critics.

A consideration of the definition and significance to foreign-language education of 'methods' preceded the review of criticism of foreign-language teachers. This criticism was seen to take two forms. First, teachers were attacked for their

alleged apathy and incompetence, and second, their choice of formalist methods was condemned.

In the 1970s attention was turned to teacher training programmes, which were regarded by many as largely responsible for teachers' shortcomings in the areas of foreign-language proficiency and pedagogic skills. Discussions on teacher training programmes focussed on the relative value of language training, compared with the study of literature, and on philosophical perspectives on the nature of knowledge.

Responses to the criticism of foreign-language teachers and their training, were grouped as posited solutions or theoretical suggestions and practical implementation of curriculum innovation. The discussion concluded by considering some recent, theoretically sound, innovatory projects.

This section of the chapter provided the national background against which to focus on the situation of foreign-language education in Tasmania.

3. FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING IN TASMANIA

The Past: In the 1950s the most popular approach to foreign-language teaching, among Tasmanian teachers, was the direct method (23). Dayan (1958) pointed out that in 1958 foreign-language students in Tasmania formed a relatively homogeneous, highly motivated group. With the comprehensivisation and proliferation of secondary education in Tasmania more and more teachers appeared who were not completely at ease with the language they were teaching and consequently opted for activities which minimized the use of the target language in the classroom. This view is gained from talking to many members of the profession in Tasmania, and attending in-service seminars, conferences and meetings of the M.L.T.A.T. (24), and is consistent with the experiences of Dayan (1968).

The difficulty of assessing exactly how languages are being taught was established by Hunt (1972, p.18), who asked Tasmanian foreign-language teachers to indicate which methods they used. From a list of six methods and 'eclectic' as an alternative, many teachers indicated that they used more than one method or claimed to be eclectic in their approach. Often text-books were used which were quite unsuited to the methods which had been indicated. In the final analysis Hunt suspected that the grammar-translation method prevailed.

His views were echoed back from the north of the state in somewhat stronger terms. Hill (1972, p.4) risked the wrath of his colleagues by complaining about the use of obsolete methods.

Perhaps by way of appeasement, text-books and available courses were held largely to blame.

As on the mainland, criticism of teaching methods was accompanied by constructive comment which, in Tasmania, focussed on the problem of insufficient time for foreign-language study. Hill (1972, p.3) revealed enormous variations in time allocation for the study of languages in Tasmania, this finding being repeated by Triffitt et al. (1976, p.76). In Term One, 1973, the shortest time per week allocated to the study of French was two periods of forty minutes each, which contrasted sharply with the highest allocation of six periods of forty-five minutes each. Some students were gaining the benefits of 190 minutes more French tuition per week.

Unfortunately, Hill's statistical findings had little effect because a similar study, which he made six years later, showed that there were still 'enormous discrepancies' in time allocation for foreign-language study (1978, pp.7-8).

The allocation of time for foreign-language study was further limited in some schools by the 1968 recommendation of the report, *School in Society*:

 "...At present the study of a second foreign language should be confined to the third and subsequent years of secondary schooling."

(1968, p.46)

The *School in Society* report, despite gaining only a 42.5 percent response rate to its research instrument (1968, p.68), was particularly influential because it was organized and published

by the Tasmanian Education Department and so had the support of the central educational bureaucracy in Tasmania. Interestingly, independent schools and many large Education Department schools, rejected the above recommendation (Hill, 1978, p.8).

Hawkins' (1981, p.97) metaphor, 'gardening in a gale', is relevant here. No sooner have the foreign-language seedlings been planted, than the mother tongue gale blows them away. Assuming that many lessons were largely conducted in English, time allocation was, and remains, of crucial significance.

Hill (1972, p.5), aware of the pressures on teachers to revert to traditional methods (25) (Seaman et al., 1972, p.124), stressed that teachers needed to be trained in new methods if proposed innovations were to be effectively implemented, and if that implementation was to be effectively sustained.

The most comprehensive study of foreign-language education in Tasmania to date is the Foreign Languages in Tasmanian Government Schools report (Triffitt et al., 1976). The report (26) focussed largely on the social environment in which languages are taught in Tasmania, and its recommendations follow lengthy discussions on social attitudes to and curricular policy on foreign-language education.

The report's methodological recommendation (1976, pp.62-3) is a synthesis of earlier methodological tenets, the comment being made:

"...The basic method of instruction should

usually be audio-visual, but modern research suggests that this should be varied so as to provide a more cognitive approach to grammar for the more able and a greater use of structural drill among the less able."

This chapter is not devoted to a detailed examination and evaluation of the tenets of various methods. What is interesting here is that the methodological recommendation of the report is not accompanied by suggestions on how the prescribed approaches should be implemented, this perhaps being due to the limited terms of reference and lack of funding for the report (Triffitt et al., 1976, p.1). It can also be argued that methodological suggestions must always precede discussion about the diffusion and institution of new ideas, in any given innovatory project. In any case, this recommendation was apparently not perceived as a threat by the Tasmanian language teaching profession, as no published response or history of debate on the matter has appeared.

The most controversial recommendation of the report was:

"...3(a) The study of a foreign language should be made an integral part of the curriculum for all pupils in Grades 7 to 10 of Tasmanian government secondary schools."
(27)

(Triffitt et al., 1976, p.57)

This proposal was rejected by the majority of foreign-language teachers in Tasmania, mainly on the ground that it would force them to teach pupils across the ability range. That this argument was not generally seen to apply to other, traditionally 'core' subjects such as English and mathematics,

suggests a high degree of elitism among foreign-language teachers. Teachers, in fact, were criticized in the body of the report (Triffitt et al., 1976, p.21) for persisting with the 'elitist fallacy', while in an egalitarian vein it was argued that:

"...all pupils can successfully engage in and derive educational benefit from the study of a foreign language, provided the instruction is adapted to certain fundamental preconditions."

This view is endorsed by British and American support for the teaching of foreign languages to mixed-ability groups (e.g. Varnava, 1975; Rivers, 1968, p.28; Hawkins, 1981, pp.27-60) (28). One of the objectives of the research study reported upon in this thesis, is to assess the levels of elitism in the foreign-language teaching profession in Tasmania, by asking teachers to indicate to what extent successful language learning depends on high intelligence and intrinsic motivation.

It is interesting that Triffitt's methodological recommendation was not regarded as binding by teachers. The external coercion implied by the recommendation that foreign languages be made an integral part of the secondary school curriculum, however, was strongly opposed. With hindsight, teachers need not have worried about the potential of the report to influence their professional lives since the Committee on Secondary Education in Tasmania took only two pages to dismiss most of the recommendations of the extensive FLTGS report (1977, pp.104-106).

In Tasmania, then, the major opportunity in the 1970s to introduce innovatory programmes in foreign-language education was lost largely because of teacher apathy and hostility (the present research has found that over 50 per cent of teachers surveyed have not read the FLTGS report), and bureaucratic dismissal. This is not to suggest that the report should be regarded as a failure, for as Hill (1978, p.6) has pointed out the increase in the number of students studying German, over the period 1971 to 1978, may well be due to the FLTGS report which recommended that French need not be regarded as the first foreign language (1976, p.64).

In addition, the stimulus to discussion and contemplation on the subject of foreign-language education, which the report provides, is substantial, and it is hoped that this will be appreciated for many years to come.

The opposition to reform, despite extensive research on foreign-language methodology and on social factors which determine attitudes to language learning and to the formation of curricular policy, has understandably led to frustration among would-be innovators. This was seen in Europe, the U.S. and mainland Australia with the use of terms such as: mindless, scandalous and catastrophic. In Tasmania, Triffitt (1981, p.10) attributed lack of change in Tasmanian high schools to teachers' 'sheer unwillingness' to implement innovations.

The Present: Despite such criticism there is no evidence to

suggest general despondency in the foreign-language teaching profession in Tasmania, to compare with Wringe's (1976, p.1) perception of the prevailing mood in Britain. For example 1982 saw the highest percentage of modern-language students in Tasmanian government secondary schools and colleges since 1975. Diversity in language courses has been encouraged with the recent introduction of Italian at the University of Tasmania in addition to Japanese, French and German, (29), and the recent publication in Tasmania of a text-book for Dutch, as part of the federal government's multicultural education commitment, Dutch being Tasmania's third most used language, after English and German.

An insight into the current foreign-language education situation in Tasmania can be gained from an examination of the official statement, produced in response to the White Paper (1981, pp.12-16) direction, by the State Supervisor of Foreign Languages (Harmsen, 1981). Harmsen invited the views of all three branches of the M.L.T.A.T. before drafting his statement and can, therefore, claim the support in this matter of the professional organisation.

The statement begins with some introductory comments about the value of foreign-language study in:

"...helping the young person to understand himself, his world and his fellow man"

Four broad reasons are given to support foreign-language study.

They are:

- (a) To foster international communication and tolerance
- (b) Vocational

(c) To promote understanding of the mother tongue

(d) Travel.

In essence, these reasons are no different from Mallinson's (1953, pp.25-31) aims, published twenty-eight years previously.

Harmesen's statement avoids a prescriptive outline of methods used or purportedly used in Tasmanian schools. Rather, the contents of syllabi are listed under the headings of: Grammar, Vocabulary and Civilization. The brief statements on grammar and vocabulary are of particular interest here, since these two areas of instruction are central to discussions of the much criticized grammar-translation method. On grammar we read:

"...The main aspects of grammar are learnt to enable effective communication to take place. Grammar is usually taught in a more formal way than in other subjects."

The synthesis here of two antithetical views on foreign-language education should be noted. The formal teaching of grammar is said to be subservient to the aim of developing effective communication skills. Normally, support for the formal teaching of grammar is expressed in terms of:

"...struggles for accuracy in grammar and idiom will help him [the student] to form habits of careful thought which will serve him all his life"

(Webb, 1974, p.14)

The development of communication skills is generally associated with frequent use of the target language and avoiding formal grammar as much as possible (Palmer, 1917, p.55; Rivers, 1981, p.221 and p.243; Curtis and Boulwood, 1977, p.196).

The ambivalence of Harmsen's statement, can be seen as reflecting disagreement among Tasmanian teachers about the role of formal grammar in foreign-language education.

On vocabulary he says:

"...Words and expressions are studied in context to enable students to use the language in everyday situations."

The teaching of vocabulary is seen as subservient to promoting communications skills also, specific reference being made to situational learning, or (by implication) the avoidance of non-situational vocabulary lists.

Part of the task of the present empirical survey of Tasmanian foreign-language teachers is to ascertain the extent to which Tasmanian teachers still use formal grammar and contextually independent vocabulary techniques. Personal experience as a foreign-language student in Tasmanian schools for a cumulative total of fifteen years, resulted in the impression that the major tenets of the grammar-translation method were very popular among teachers. No detailed, empirical research, however, has been done in this area, possibly because of such difficulties as were experienced by Hunt (1972).

Some brief reports of innovative experiments by practising teachers elsewhere are available. For instance, Weare (1982) informed colleagues of a programme at a metropolitan high school (30). Her stated aims reveal the deliberate departure from the formalist approach:

"...(i) that students experience the satisfaction of actually using the foreign language

(ii) that they achieve mastery of the language in an enjoyable fashion, and not simply by methods of rote learning and grammatical drill."

(Weare, 1982, p.10)

The implication in point two, that rote learning and grammatical drills are not enjoyable warrants special noting, a view which is well supported by the literature reviewed in this chapter.

It is interesting to note that Weare's innovative approach is at this stage, mainly limited to grades seven and eight:

"...Grades 9 and 10 see a greater emphasis on grammatical skills and more time spent on reading and writing. As we have not yet found a suitable text for students even at this level, German pupils work through a variety of worksheets and written exercises. As all students perform well at School Certificate [end grade ten] level, we have no reason to doubt the effectiveness of this method."

(Weare, 1982, p.11)

This approach indicates a durable commitment to the formalist methods, despite enthusiasm for communicative strategies at beginners' level. The formalist approach, though not enjoyable, is necessary for 'real' language learning to proceed, in contrast to the first two years, where: "...our attention is focussed on enjoyment of the subject" (Weare, 1982, p.10). Although Weare's enthusiasm for communicative aims and methods is encouraging, this enthusiasm has not yet shaken her conviction that serious language learning is grammar based, and not enjoyable.

For the purpose of educational innovation, it is interesting

to note the partial commitment to the new approach. It could be speculated that the way for the implementation of non-grammar-based, communicative methods is from lower levels up (31), since lower levels teachers in Tasmania do not face the academic pressures of externally assessed examinations, or the perceived pressure of preparing students for entry to academically taxing Higher School Certificate colleges (matriculation level).

The problem of teaching in an interesting way at advanced (post grade eight) levels was tackled by Hill (1980, pp.11-14) with a detailed lesson plan on teaching a reading passage. Hill's rejection of the formalist approach in this instance is evident from the start:

"...Most teachers agree that translation of a passage in the foreign language to the mother tongue is an activity which is unlikely to engender any spark of interest in all but the very, very earnest pupil..."

(Hill, 1980, p.11)

Attempts will be made to determine to what extent Tasmanian teachers of languages other than English do agree with Hill on this point. It is possible, however that, among those who agree with Hill, will be some who feel constrained to adopt formalist measures by considerations of academic pressure, classroom discipline, parental expectations, or other variables.

4. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter was divided into two parts. The first part looked at foreign language education in the U.S.A., Britain, The Netherlands, West Germany and Russia, where general consensus was found among commenters on language education in the following areas: there was much dissatisfaction with foreign-language education in general; poor progress, particularly in the speaking skill, among pupils and students was seen as largely the fault of teachers; foreign-language teachers were generally accused of being boring, pedagogically and linguistically incompetent, and, very significantly, resistant to change; the inadequacy of teacher training programmes was deplored; and teachers and teacher educators were regarded as professionally conservative, with the former group devoted to deductive grammar lessons, and the latter devoted to the formal study of literature.

Three major assertions were made on the basis of the review:

- (i) low interest in foreign language learning in Anglophone countries is expressed in low enrolment rates (32),
- (ii) traditional teaching approaches, which focus on language as a system of grammatical structures, are still very popular among teachers, although almost universally condemned by educationists and methodologists,
- (iii) innovatory programmes, which have been attempted on the macro level, have been unsuccessful in the long term because of poor organization, which reflects insufficient understanding of the theoretical findings

on curriculum innovation.

The review of the published literature on foreign-language education in Australia, including Tasmania, provided further support for the three assertions. Secondary level teachers of languages other than English were ruthlessly criticized for the poor quality of their teaching, their outdated choice of method and their resistance to change. This professional conservatism was unshaken by the criticism and suggestions offered.

In an attempt to bring about significant change, some critics turned their attention in the 1970's to improving teacher training programmes. But there is no evidence of much dramatic change in this area either.

Finally, in the late 1970s and early 1980s, several educationists, frustrated with the poor achievement of years of usually constructive criticism, began to discuss the problematic nature of curriculum innovation. In this vein it is hoped to gather information on foreign-language education in Tasmania, which will prove valuable to future innovation in the sense that the effective implementation of such changes is largely dependent on the social pressures on foreign-language teachers.

From 1919 to 1939 in the Tasmanian education system:

"...real success and implementation of experiments in curriculum innovationcould only come if the plan had the wide support from the head teachers and the inspectors."

(Rodwell, 1982, p.8)

In 1982, with no more inspectors, and the greater autonomy of

teachers, there may well be more varied and more subtle pressures on teachers to adopt or reject innovatory programmes and approaches.

REFERENCES:

- (1) Since then the situation has stabilized. For example, in 1982, 33.41 per cent of students in Tasmanian government secondary schools and colleges studied a foreign language (MLTAT Newsletter, July, 1982, p.4).
- (2) The term, 'Action Research', defines a combination of theory and practice in research. Participants follow a cyclic model of four steps: observation, planning, action, evaluation. The original concept is usually attributed to Kurt Lewin (Maus, 1971, p.148).
- (3) This compares unfavourably with the Australian decline from 37% in 1961 to 29.9% in 1973-4 (Triffitt et al., 1976, p.7).
- (4) Brooks, N. (1964, orig. 1960) Language and Language Learning, New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.
- (5) See, for example, Hoyle (1977, p.384), who discusses attempts to relate the social characteristics of superintendents with the rate of acceptance of innovations.
- (6) A similar project was attempted, but almost totally abandoned, in the 1960s in the U.S., where the national programme was called, Foreign Languages in the Elementary School - FLES. Poor organization led to the unsuccessful implementation of the programme in schools (Rivers, 1981,

pp.456-457).

(7) Supra, p.25.

(8) In foreign-language education the target language is the language which is studied, in contrast with the native or mother tongue of the learners.

(9) babel in 1957 was the journal of the Modern Language

Teachers' Association of Victoria.

(10) Thus calls for teachers to rethink their approach began well before the dropping of the alternative foreign-language requirement for matriculation in Tasmania in 1971.

(11)Quinn (1974) and Ingram (1974) called on teachers to rethink their approach.

(12) For an example of a prescriptive pedagogic instruction code see Palmer (1917).

(13) It is important, however, that it be recognized that the individual teacher is the one who ultimately has to adapt approaches or principles to her specific teaching situation (Littlewood, 1982, p.5). Sociological evidence to support this view will be discussed in Chapter Three.

(14) See Brooks (1964), pp.152-163. Pattern practice exercises require pupils to repeatedly hear, speak, read and/or write grammatical structures or patterns in the target language.

(15) See, for example, Russon and Russon (1966); Stilman, Stilman and Harkins (1972).

(16) This is not to deny the value of foreign language study as a way of developing higher order cognitive operations (Biggs and Collis, 1982, pp.145-160).

- (17) The term, 'change agent', is taken from Hoyle (1972, pp.20-21).
- (18) Any language other than English, used as the mother tongue by 'permanent residents' in Australian communities.
- (19) For a valuable discussion of the desirability of bilingual education in and for Australia, see Claydon et al. (1979).
- (20) At the time of writing discussions are being held throughout Australia on the formation of a National Language Policy. The Tasmanian Policy Conference was organized by the Ethnic Communities Council of Tasmania, and held in Hobart on 12 May, 1982. The formation of the National Language Policy is seen as significant to the development of Australia's official attitudes to migrants and the concept of multiculturalism. See, for example, Foster (1981, p.356).
- (21) A recent development in this vein is the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers' Associations' Newsletter, a publication designed along more practical lines than the Association's long-standing journal, babel. Even babel, however is attempting, in 1983, to interest more 'class teachers' (Ingram, 1983).
- (22) An example of action research.
- (23) Direct association of foreign word with concept; i.e. no translation. The method was undoubtedly often modified.
- (24) Modern Language Teachers' Association of Tasmania.
- (25) For example...
- (i) "...innovation requires change in the professional identity of teachers and the organization of the

school's social structure,

(ii)... innovation can mean a fundamental denial of much that they [teachers] have hitherto believed in"

(Seaman et al., p.103 and p.107)

(26) The report is referred to throughout this thesis in abbreviated form: FLTGS.

(27) This case is strongly put, at the national level, by a joint committee of the Australian Linguistics Society and The Applied Linguistics Association of Australia, in a pamphlet entitled, The Place of Languages in A Core Curriculum. The ----- Tasmanian conference on the formation of a national language policy recommended:

"...except for pupils in special classes the study of a language other than English should be made part of the core curriculum for at least the first two years of

----- secondary education" (1982, Appendix 9). Note the diluting effect of experienced and anticipated opposition to the initial 1976 recommendation. The official education department statement on foreign languages suggests a minimum requirement of one year: "...All students (except those in special classes) should have experience of foreign language study of at least one year." (Harmsen, 1981). -----

(28) See also the 1976 Report of the Committee on The Teaching of ----- Migrant Languages in Schools, p.50.

(29) The introduction of diversity in foreign language options in Tasmanian schools has not been without debate. See, for example, Triffit (1981, pp.9-16), in support of diversification, and Hill (1981, pp.18-25) in opposition.

(30) High schools in Tasmania are comprehensive and cater for twelve to fifteen year olds; grades seven to ten.

(31) For example, Kennedy (1980, p.16) mentioned the enthusiastic

response of primary school children to an audio-visual
method experiment in a small town in the north of Tasmania.

(32) This is not a peculiarly American phenomenon, as claimed in
the introduction to an article by Asher (1981).

CHAPTER THREE

SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION THEORIES RELEVANT TO THE PRESENT STUDY.

INTRODUCTION

The sociological study of foreign-language teaching is a relatively new area of research. The present study cannot draw from a large, existing body of literature on foreign-language education from which to derive a conceptual framework. As an introductory study, it is necessary to apply existing, appropriate research in the sociology of education to foreign-language teaching.

Because this approach is breaking new ground in the study of foreign-language education, it is necessary to discuss the major areas of concern within the literature on the sociology of education in some depth in order to show the theoretical background of the sociological approach adopted in the research project.

Whereas not every reference to the sociological literature reviewed in this chapter is directly related to the research design of this study, each reference illustrates one aspect of the larger theoretical framework. For example, the survey of Tasmanian foreign-language teachers' professional socialisation (see Chapter Eight) was based on the research on teacher socialisation which is discussed in this chapter.

Banks (1977, p.185) lamented:

"...we have few sociological studies of changes in pedagogic style, and either their

causes or their consequences. There is a vast literature on teaching method, and the effectiveness of different teaching styles, but this has been conducted in the main by educationists and is rarely set in a specifically sociological framework."

(1977, p.185)

The preceding chapter has sought to show that the low student participation rates in foreign-language education in Australia have often led to severe criticism of foreign-language teachers with particular reference to their foreign-language proficiency and teaching style. This chapter will present evidence to support the view that such criticism of teachers is often unfounded and of little value in constructing an environment which is conducive to change.

The argument will be developed that, for effective, sustained change in foreign-language teaching to be achieved on a large scale, it is imperative that foreign-language methodologists and methods lecturers address themselves to examining certain questions of sociological interest. For example, foreign-language teachers are socialised into their profession; that is, they adjust their views of themselves, foreign-language students and foreign-language teaching according to the professional and occupational norms to which they are accustomed. It will be shown that in most cases, this socialization, can be expected to have a decidedly conservative effect on teaching style. Those who would implement innovations in foreign-language teaching practice should take note of these conservative pressures and consider the evidence, which will be

discussed in this and later chapters, that the development of teaching style occurs with reference to social forces at play in classrooms and schools.

The sociological study of foreign-language teaching is seen as a vital complement to the psycholinguistic research which has been undertaken in the past. Whereas the previous chapter cited many articles in which foreign-language teachers had been criticized for their use of cognitive approaches and their resistance to change, the present chapter seeks to:

- (i) explain why a cognitive approach may appeal to so many foreign-language teachers;
- ii) outline sociological theories which help to explain why it is difficult for a foreign-language teacher to change her teaching style from a cognitive to a communicative programme (1);
- iii) provide information, in the light of the first two points, which will be of value to innovators in the field of foreign-language education; and,
- iv) clearly highlight the need for a sociological perspective on foreign-language education.

The broad term, "sociological perspective", which has been adopted until now to distinguish areas of sociological concern from psycholinguistic theory, is too general a term for a more detailed consideration of the value of the sociology of education to foreign-language education.

The need for sociological studies of pedagogic styles, and

the task of undertaking such a study, requires a perspective from which to view, make sense of, and structure the information gathered. A narrowly defined perspective would be inadequate because of the complicated and sophisticated nature of social processes.

"...The sociological imagination, I remind you, in considerable part consists of the capacity to shift from one perspective to another, and in the process to build up an adequate view of a total society and of its components."

(Mills, 1977, p.232)

While an understanding of the perspectives from which one is viewing an issue, can only help to clarify the nature and limitations of one's perception, it is not the case that truths are discovered more easily by the rigid segregation of perspectives, so that an issue is first regarded from one theoretical angle, then from another and so on. Consequently, this chapter will rapidly "shift from one perspective to another" and back again in its attempt to gain an adequate view of the social dynamics of foreign-language education. Different perspectives within sociology:

"...are no more than flags of convenience; they do not represent mutually exclusive definitions of legitimate theories and methods..."

(Karabel and Halsey, 1977, p.2)

A definition of each perspective which is adopted would be too lengthy to include here, would distract the reader's attention from the purpose of the present study, and has been most competently completed elsewhere (See, for example, Reid,

1978; and Robinson, 1981). However, Foster's summary of these perspectives will help to encapsulate, in question form, the essential differences among the sub-sections which together form the sociological perspective:

"...A functionalist would pose questions such as: What are the links between the institution of education and other institutions in this society? How do the elements of education systems like the schools, the education departments, the ministers of education contribute to the maintenance of those systems? For the sociologists using a conflict perspective, questions might include: What influence do pressure groups have on the formal and informal organization of school X? What is the nature of the power relations between teacher unions and the departmental bureaucracy in State Y? An interactionist might ask: What are the processes of negotiation occurring between students and teachers in a specific classroom? What are the major groups concerned with the teaching-learning process in a school and how do they affect that process? If a sociology of knowledge approach is to be used, we might ask: How do the social relations of pedagogy reflect the dominance of an elite culture? What counts as educational knowledge in "traditional" and "open plan" primary schools in Australia?"

(Foster, 1981, pp.31-32)

For the purpose of this study a structural functionalist perspective will be adopted to the extent that the continued widespread use of a cognitive approach will be seen to be a latent function of pre- and in-service courses which are not designed to help teachers implement proposed innovations. The maintenance of present teaching approaches in the classroom will be seen to be an overt function of the current organisation of the assessment and timetabling of foreign languages.

The conflict perspective will reveal the nature of relations between foreign-language teachers and: administrators; innovators; and the wider community.

The tensions and anxiety that these conflicts cause in some teachers will be revealed by the interactionist approach, which will also explain why many foreign-language teachers continue to teach in ways which they know to be of maximum benefit to only the most academically minded of their pupils.

The sociology of knowledge approach will develop the argument that the use of the cognitive approach in foreign-language teaching may reflect an elitist sub-culture which is perpetuated by the teacher and successful pupils.

Theories extracted from the literature on the sociology of educational innovation will be applied to the study to show how the effective implementation of a communicative approach to foreign-language teaching would require a redefinition of what counts as linguistic knowledge, so that the skills attainable by most pupils will become acceptable; the resolution of identified areas of conflict; and, the re-organisation of some areas of the existing structure of foreign-language education in Tasmania.

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter will begin by looking at some comments on foreign-language education made by a number of sociologists and educationists in Australia. The chapter will then provide the basis for this study's contribution to Australian foreign-language education by carefully considering relevant studies within the sociology of education in the areas of:

i) The Socialisation of Teachers:

- including specific discussion of pedagogic teacher training programmes and isolating the major conservative pressures on teachers which have been identified in the sociology of education;

ii) The Sociology of Education:

- Since the early 1970s a new range of perspectives has been introduced to the sociology of education. This development has led to a considerable amount of debate about what the main pursuits and the main research methods of the sociology of education should be. The present study is based on a synthesis of "old" and "new" perspectives in the sociology of education, because both kinds, it will be argued, can be valuable to the study of foreign-language teaching. The relationship between the control of pupil behaviour in the classroom and foreign-language teaching style will be seen to be an important consideration for those attempting to implement innovation in foreign-language education.

iii) The Sociology of Educational Innovation:

-This area of sociological research has identified many factors which are influential in hindering or promoting change in education. This research will be seen to be of value to foreign-language education in Australia, and a paper by Robinson (1978), which discusses some of the important contributions that the sociology of educational innovation can make to foreign-language education, will be closely examined.

The ways in which sociological theory has been instrumental in shaping the present research design, will be indicated and the value of the various sociological theories to the study of foreign-language teaching in general, and in Tasmania in particular, will be discussed throughout the chapter.

2. SOME SOCIOLOGICAL COMMENTS ON FOREIGN-LANGUAGE EDUCATION

It is interesting to consider some comments made by a number of Australian sociologists and educationists. Forsyth (1968) attributed the low incidence of foreign-language learning in the United States to the xenophobia which developed from the hatred of all things German at the time of the first world war. The point is made that the intensive Japanese language learning courses for selected military personnel were started only one month before the bombing of Pearl Harbour. We are told in unequivocal terms:

"...this neglect of language study had to be paid for in hard cash and no doubt in human lives."

(Forsyth, 1968, p.115)

Smolicz (1976) called for the development of English learning by migrants and other language learning by Anglophone Australians. He regarded the Australian school of the seventies as "the principal agency of Anglo-conformism", but potentially the key to:

"...the success of the Australian immigration policy and hence of the whole future of Australia."

(Smolicz, 1976, p.149)

Success in this sense depends on the implementation of change. One of the themes of the present study has been to draw attention to the problematic nature of change in education. Worsley (1978, p.515), in a section on conflict theory, asserted that material resources usually provide the source of conflict in any given social unit. As was mentioned earlier (Supra, pp.75-76) conflict in the Tasmanian foreign- language arena has not been primarily over material resources but over bureaucratic control over the organization of programmes and courses.

The Tasmanian Education Department has also been criticized by Middleton (1982, pp. 158-161), who showed that the "System" failed to provide the necessary support for the continuation of a very successful experiment in alternative education in Hobart; which had provided courses in Latin, French, German and Italian to a total school student population of only about fifty (2).

The wishes of students, teachers and parents on the one hand, and the dictates of educational bureaucracies on the other,

have clashed on a number of occasions. Kerr (1972b, p.271), for example, revealed bureaucratic lack of insight into the social dynamics of educational innovation. With regard to innovations in language teaching in New South Wales, Kerr wrote that the French syllabus was extended from "up above" in the educational administration hierarchy, to include a large cultural component; yet the time available to cover the syllabus was effectively reduced.

The methodological innovation revealed the same lack of understanding on the part of the bureaucrats:

"...teachers were directed to change immediately to an aural-oral approach; no reference whatever was given to sources where [details of] these techniques could be found."

(Kerr, 1972b, p.271)

The inevitable conclusion was quickly reached:

"...the decision to implement it [the innovation] was a political not an educational decision. When a favourable political climate developed the reforms had to be introduced quickly, with the usual results that attend the lack of extended planning."

(Kerr, 1972b, p.271)

By far the most serious criticism of our Australian educational bureaucracies is the allegation that the Federal Government was deliberately continuing a policy of public deception. Foster (1981) presents two scenarios of recent political events in Australia, to support her allegation that the previous Federal government, and, more exactly the Liberal Party, deliberately professes to be egalitarian and in support of

multilingualism in Australia, while maintaining certain lines of action which seem to give the lie to these claims.

In the first instance Foster writes:

"...The goal of equality of educational opportunity was openly endorsed by the Liberal Party, and its proposals included various types of compensatory programmes designed to reduce inequality. However, as its proposed allocation of financial resources favoured the non-State sector, which included the affluent, elite independent schools as well as the struggling Catholic parish schools, the perpetuation of advantage was virtually ensured."

(Foster, 1981, p.363)

The second instance concerns the Galbally Report. Foster queries the Government's ready acceptance of the Galbally Committee's conclusions. The lack of funding made available for the implementation of recommendations which the Government publicly supports suggests that the government wished to be seen as innovative while effecting little change. In Foster's words:

"...It would change the rhetoric of the situation but not the reality. In seeking to block social change, it would hide reality under a myth."

(Foster, 1981, p.363)

Foster's criticism rests on certain political, economic and social assumptions which others may or may not share. It is nevertheless significant that cynicism on the part of the Liberal government in Australia was seen by some as a powerful factor opposing change in education. If those who hold power in the educational system oppose change, then innovation will be difficult indeed. Studies have shown, however, that even if

bureaucrats and administrators are "on side", the support of teachers is required if the sustained implementation of innovative programmes is to be achieved. It is of crucial importance, then, that would-be innovators, such as methodologists, appreciate that the bulk of sociological evidence strongly suggests that teachers are socialized into professionally conservative patterns of behaviour. Opposition to change, therefore, is often explained as a result of the "mental set" which most teachers acquire as part of the hidden curriculum of their many years of school life.

3. THE SOCIALIZATION OF TEACHERS.

Simpson (1979, p.36), in a longitudinal study of the socialization of nurses, defined the concepts of status identification and occupational self-image. Students tend to perceive that others expect them to perform a given role. That is, certain patterns of professional behaviour are expected of the student by significant others, such as members of the public, training staff and professional colleagues. The student reaction to these expectations is normally to enact the role as it is generally perceived.

In this regard, teaching presents some peculiar problems. What is the effect on the socialization of the teacher, if there is no generally perceived or agreed-upon role for the incumbent to play? How does the novice perform a role which is variously defined by members of the public and often the topic of debate and contention between teacher- trainers and practising teachers?

Musgrove and Taylor (1969) identified a narrow teacher perspective on the teacher's role, which differed from the broader views of parents. Conflict in role perception has also led to:

"...lack of effective co-operation between the schools and university departments of education..."

(Lacey, 1977, p.53)

Morrison and McIntyre (1975, p.34) wrote:

"...There is a general, though not universal, tendency for the role behaviour of incumbents to conform to the norms and expectations of at least some members of the role set."

This tendency seems to be particularly strong for teachers. Although "there does not seem to be a distinct and consistent teaching personality", (Musgrave, 1975, p.233),

"...teachers in general may be more inclined than most to behave in conformity with the social pressures which they experience."

(Morrison and McIntyre, 1975, p.46)

If, as has been mentioned, teachers experience conflicting social pressures, with academics in training institutions requiring one mode of behaviour and professional colleagues another, (Lacey, 1977, p.48) to which social pressure is the beginning teacher to conform? McArthur (1981, pp.2-3) argued that it is precisely this dilemma which leads to "reality shock" where the "internalized ideal images of the teacher role" are "in conflict with the norms and values of the school sub-culture".

The significance of reality shock in the socialization of teachers has recently been questioned by the findings of a small

longitudinal study, which found stability of views of self, teaching, vocational interests and aspirations over the crucial student to teacher transition period (Power, 1981). Unfortunately, similar information was not gathered on attitudes to teaching method.

Lortie (1977, p.77) placed a percentage figure on the relative amounts of influence on the learner teacher of the two sources of social pressure: formal pedagogical instruction - 15%; teaching colleagues - 38%.

In the battle to be the professional model for teachers, the evidence strongly suggests that "other teachers" or the school are overwhelmingly victorious over training institutions:

"...A number of studies have demonstrated that after a few months of teaching the new teachers' attitudes are closer to those of his school colleagues than to those of the college....

"...Clearly therefore the school itself is acting as an important and indeed perhaps more important socializing agency than the college."

(Banks, 1977, p.242)

See also, Morrison and McIntyre (1975, p.76); Lacey (1977, p.48); and, Tisher et al., (1979, p.60).

Attempts at explaining the apparent lack of success of training institutions and their courses vary, but within the literature on teacher socialization, two kinds of response to this question are common. The first is to look at defects in training courses and the second is to consider and account for the usual response to the experience of transition from student

to teacher, always remembering that the socialization of the teacher is unique:

"...in that by the time one has to decide upon an occupation one has had at least ten years' experience of seeing teachers at work."

(Morrison and McIntyre, 1975, p.47)

The professional socialisation of Tasmanian foreign-language teachers began with their experiences as foreign-language pupils and students. If it can be established that many of these teachers teach in a similar way to the approaches that had been used when they were students, then one source of conservative influence on teaching style will have been identified.

The teachers were asked to indicate, where possible, how they were taught certain aspects of vocabulary, conversation and grammar, and to compare these strategies with the ones the respondents themselves use today (See chapter seven).

3.1 Teacher Training Programmes

The contents of teacher training courses are:

"...often perceived by trainees as "academic" knowledge, divorced from the realities of the "real-life" teaching situation..."

(Worsley, 1978, p.262)

A study by Peart and Dodson (1979, p.4) of beginning teachers in Tasmania revealed a similar call for more practical content in pre-service courses. Morrison and McIntyre (1975, p.65) explain this perception of "the theoretical study of teaching" as "irrelevant to the practice of teaching" by pointing to the lack

of theoretical organization of courses in training programmes. Failure to conceptually link courses on methodology, sociology, psychology and philosophy of education makes the theoretical side to education seem alien to teaching practice (Lortie, 1977, p.231).

Lacey (1977, p.49) quotes Waller (1932) who wrote:

"...When theory is not based upon existing practice, a great hiatus appears between theory and practice, and the consequence of theory does not affect the conservatism of practice."

The gap between theory and practice in teacher training is also identified by McArthur (1981, p.37) who calls on lecturers to become better informed on "what is going on in schools".

Smith (1979, p.98) argues that the myths (shared Weltanschauungen) and rituals (routine processes) of teacher training programmes led to the gap between theory and practice in education:

"...by definition on-campus course construction is a false construction, in which it is assumed that knowledge and the subsequent use of knowledge are conceptually distinct but instrumentally related."

(Smith, 1979, p.114)

While teacher trainers have had to face considerable criticism, the stance of many teachers has also been attacked. Morrison and McIntyre (1975, p.68), for example, cite a 1967 study by Griffiths and Moore. Of twenty schools:

"...only one of the head teachers had any detailed knowledge of what was done in college courses but most of his colleagues were confident that the college encouraged

unrealistic teaching methods."

A study by Cope (Morrison and McIntyre, 1975, p.70) found a highly emotive rejection of the college staff and their work. Some evidence does exist to suggest that, despite teachers' notorious reputation for ignorance of educational research, there is an increasing interest in this area (Morrison and McIntyre, 1975, p.105).

The nature of training courses is, however, insufficient to explain the all too common phenomenon where:

"...Teaching strategies devised within the collectivizing atmosphere of the university were simply dropped when the student experienced the "realities" of the school."

(Lacey, 1977, p.95)

In order to gather information about the sole teacher training programme currently provided for foreign-language teachers in Tasmania, and any other foreign-language methodology which these teachers may have studied, an in-depth study of the prescribed foreign-language teaching methodology texts was completed. The intention was to ascertain: what kinds of approach were advocated in these books; and, whether there was anything in the nature of the books which might help to promote or hinder the adoption of the presented approaches by Tasmanian foreign-language teachers. The teachers were asked whether they had completed any pre-service and/or in-service courses on foreign-language teaching methodology, and, if so, to indicate their evaluation of the courses. They were also asked to indicate which, if any, methodology texts they had read.

In these ways it was hoped to gain some understanding of the effectiveness of these training programmes in changing foreign-language teaching style in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges - in short, to discover whether these programmes were largely seen by teachers as valuable or "irrelevant to teaching practice".

3.2 Conservative Pressures on Teachers

A study by Shipman (1967) suggested that students tend to respond as they think questionnaires and social surveys want them to respond, while keeping their more conservative attitudes to themselves. This eagerness to conform is offered as one possible explanation for the shift in attitude from one agreeing with the training institution to agreement with the consensus of the school (Morrison and McIntyre, 1975, p.77).

Other conformist or conservative pressures on the teacher are applied in overt and covert form. Assessment procedures and preparation for perceived university requirements were identified by Delamont (1976, p.39) as parts of the hidden curriculum which can be a source of strong, teacher-controlled framing, as defined by Bernstein (1975, p.50).

Strong subject loyalties, particularly among junior staff can serve to insulate subject departments and thus have a conservative effect on teaching practice (Bernstein, 1975, p.61).

In support of his assertion that "...the curriculum is about

the distribution of power...", Eggleston (1977, pp.82-83), cites an example of overt coercion, where a teacher was soundly criticized by the local press, and suspended for querying the inaction of a local housing committee and encouraging his students to adopt a socially critical role.

In Eggleston's book many examples of potential professional pressures on the teacher give some indication of the hurdle to be overcome by pre- and in-service programmes aimed at introducing and implementing curriculum innovation. Bernstein (1975, p.65), asserted that, to accept change, teachers may need to be resocialized.

Teacher socialization, then, can be regarded as a conceptual label which is applied, to give structural unity, to a variety of different pressures on the beginning and continuing teacher. Until now, the sources of influence which have been identified, whether overt or covert in nature, have been conservative and conformist in direction. Lacey (1977) considers teacher response to these pressures and presents, optimistically, a possible model for change.

Lacey (1977, pp.96-99) uses an interactionist approach to identify two explanations for teacher conformity to accepted school or educational bureaucratic practices. The teacher can internalize (accept and become accustomed to) the "arguments and values" of the school, or she can:

"..."get by" and remain only partially convinced by them - strategic compliance. Beyond this, he can attempt to wrestle with

the constraints of the situation and in a sense hold the institution at bay - strategic redefinition."

(Lacey, 1977, p.96)

Lacey's approach to teacher socialization has important implications for social and educational change. If a substantial group of teachers can be found to be strategically complying with the schools' established practices, then the possibility for change is much greater than if, as is assumed by the structural-functional approach, conformity means acceptance or internalization.

The present study includes the responses of teachers to a question asking them to list the order of importance of the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing in the often very different circumstances of junior secondary, senior secondary school and "ideally", or "according to the respondent's professional ideology". Teachers were also asked whether they were required to spend more time than they wanted to, on certain pedagogic activities (See Chapter Eight).

In this way, and by interviewing, it was endeavoured to discover to what extent foreign-language teachers in Tasmania were complying strategically with the perceived professional and occupational constraints on their autonomy. In other words, the intention was to discover whether the teachers were teaching in the way that they wanted to, or whether certain professional and occupational conditions were more powerful than their ideologies in influencing teacher behaviour in the classroom.

Discussions of teacher socialization often seem deterministic, illuminating a series of social pressures which limit individual freedom.

"...The walls of our imprisonment were there before we appeared on the scene, but they are ever rebuilt by ourselves. We are betrayed into captivity with our own co-operation."

(Berger, 1977, p.141)

However, the same author points out:

"...The ingenuity human beings are capable of in circumventing and subverting even the most elaborate control system is a refreshing antidote to sociologistic depression."

(Berger, 1977, p.155)

Lacey (1977, p.98) reminds his readers of the extent of social and educational change over the past century or so. Thus there is no reason to despair of ever overcoming the conservative forces presently, and indeed, ever at play.

Lacey's (1977, p.127) study of strategic compliance has revealed a "radical strand in teacher training" with "considerable scope for change". A word of warning is offered against becoming too enthusiastic about this potential for change. Lacey is fully aware of the conservative forces which maintain the substantial difference between the student-teacher culture and the teacher culture. Student teachers can maintain their "radical" or "progressive" attitudes, despite some school-based experience, because of relatively weak commitment to the institution. However:

"...It seems unlikely that this development could continue in the following year as students move into and take up positions as full-time teachers within the school system."

(Lacey, 1977, p.115)

One important theory, used to explain the conformist nature of teacher socialization, is that of classroom control (Lacey, 1977, p.40). The maintenance of classroom discipline is of major concern to teachers and in many schools, "control of the class", that is, the behaviour of the pupils, is associated with a quiet, orderly room (Caspari, 1976, p.28).

The issue of classroom discipline is said to be a greater influence on teacher behaviour than pedagogic ideals held previous to professional experience. Beginning teachers:

"...may find that in order to keep control, they are behaving in ways that are contrary to the attitudes they hold, and in attempting to reduce this mental conflict they find it easier to modify their attitudes than to change their behaviour."

(Morrison and McIntyre, 1975, p.77)

Delamont's (1976, p.36) symbolic interactionist study of interaction in the classroom led her to the conclusion that:

"...the individual teacher's support of the "authority system" is the crucial element in her relationship with colleagues."

Given that the relationship between the individual teacher and her colleagues, and the teacher's concern about classroom discipline, are held to be the most powerful aspects of her professional socialization, it is important to regard the desire for a quiet classroom, as a socially and professionally generated desire. Crucial to an understanding of the link between the influence of peers, and control over students and knowledge,

(Delamont, 1976, p.48) is the explanation that:

"...the teacher's colleagues are a central element in her classroom performance because they form the reference group which determines her perspectives."

(Delamont, 1976, p.52)

That comment has important implications. The individual teacher's perspectives, her professional ideology itself, is seen to be shaped by reference group values and assumptions which are known to frequently be hostile to educational research and innovation and strongly supportive of visible pedagogy in terms of classroom behaviour and course content (Bernstein, 1975).

With regard to foreign-language teaching in Tasmania, the present study aims to gather some information on what the "reference group values" of the profession are. For example, if most foreign-language teachers in Tasmania support the view that the foreign-language classroom should usually be a quiet, orderly place, then they are likely to adopt a teaching approach which requires little physical movement and little noise from the pupils. Such an approach is necessarily teacher-centred and is provided, in essence, by the grammar-translation method. Newcomers to the profession will possibly be expected to conform to such an approach, and will most likely want to, if that is the way in which they had been taught while studying foreign languages. In short, one of the aims of this study is to examine key aspects of the professional socialisation (i.e. linguistic and pedagogic training) and the occupational socialisation (i.e. reference group, institutional, education department and community pressures) of foreign-language teachers in Tasmanian

secondary level schools and colleges.

The notion of socially-derived knowledge has led this discussion on teacher socialization to the concerns of the "new" sociology of education, based on the sociology of knowledge.

4. THE SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION

Developments in the sociology of education in the 1970s questioned the objectivist definition and evaluation of knowledge. The new emphasis on the social influences on what counts as knowledge may help to explain lack of change in foreign-language teaching. Elaboration of this point follows an outline of the sociological theories upon which it is based.

The new sociology of education is sometimes regarded as a departure from the structural-functional perspective. Instead the new perspectives and new methods of social research should be seen as additions to, not replacements of the former or old sociology of education (Banks, 1974).

The popularity of the new sociology of education is usually attributed to an anthology of readings, edited by M.F.D. Young (1975a, orig. 1971). Musgrave (1980) indicates that Young has been largely ignored in Australia. For example, a paper on Curriculum Innovation, viewed through the perspective of the Sociology of Knowledge, in an Australian edition of readings on the sociology of education, makes no mention of Young's book (Reus-Smit, 1975). North American responses to the new perspectives in the sociology of education have also been slow to

appear (Karabel and Halsey, 1977, p.47).

Young presents a view of curricula as "socially organized knowledge", and draws attention to:

"...The almost total neglect by sociologists of how knowledge is selected, organized and assessed in educational institutions..."

(Young, 1975, p.19)

Esland's paper, in the same book, departs from the individualistic view of man and knowledge which:

"...endowed man with an absolute rationality in which the knowing subject is detached from his social context."

(Esland, 1975, p.71)

Individualism is replaced with the view that knowledge is socially derived and defined:

"...The epistemological sufficiency of objectivism is directly challenged by the sociology of knowledge, which insists that man is seen as existentially related to his social structure."

(Esland, 1975, p.77)

The implication drawn from this philosophy and from an understanding of teacher socialization is that:

"...occupational perspectives derive much of their cognitive support from institutionalized world views reinforced by the rituals of membership and orthodoxy, and the strategies of loyalty maintenance."

(Esland, 1975, p.73)

Bernstein's paper, in the same edition, on the classification and framing of knowledge in schools, seeks to show how knowledge is strictly controlled by teachers (3) and how knowledge is tightly compartmentalized into subjects which are usually insulated from each other. One implication of such a

powerful control over knowledge is that innovations may be seen as attempts at interference in previously unchallenged areas of personal, institutional or systemic expertise. Thus schools are seen as conservative in nature, and ideologically and structurally opposed to change:

"...The institutionalization of knowledge not only ensures the rapid transmission of intellectual styles, it also inhibits them by making old styles rigid."

(Davies, 1975, p.282)

An example of rigidity of style is given by Lacey. Some student teachers of French, in a school where Lacey was observing, took the odd English lesson:

"...The 'French' students approached the teaching of English as they would a foreign language, using comprehension exercises, question and answer techniques and 'complete the sentence' exercises."

(Lacey, 1977, p.61)

Such reification of knowledge into a concrete set of procedures and a largely unquestioned "common sense", leaves little room for teachers to hold significantly contrasting and opposing views or perspectives, which Hunt (1978, p.61) feels is still the case "at least in some universities".

The essential difference between the old and the new sociologies of education is encapsulated by Bernbaum (1977, p.15), who distinguishes the "... 'class' characteristics of individuals from the 'class' content of their educational experience."

If knowledge and, therefore, educational experience are seen to be variable along class lines, that is, if truth is no longer seen as an objective entity, but something which is socially defined, then what is true or what counts as knowledge depends on one's perspective. The implications for education of such a relativist view are extensive:

"...New knowledge, changed paradigms, are not to be judged by their relevance to an external reality and their accuracy in facilitating a description and an understanding of that reality but in relation to the interests and power of those who create and use knowledge."

(Bernbaum, 1977, p.60)

The problem of coming to terms with the corollary, that if knowledge is socially derived and defined, then there is no such thing as objective truth, that is knowledge which has socially-independent value, is tackled by Zaniecki. Zaniecki's explanation of the educational implications of the sociology of knowledge is quoted by Bernbaum (1977, p.63). Systems of knowledge:

"...viewed in their objective composition, structure and validity - cannot be reduced to social facts, yet their historical existence within the empirical world of culture, in so far as it depends upon the men who construct them, maintain them by transmission and application, develop them or neglect them, must in large measure be explained sociologically."

Thus the main concern of the new perspectives is not to forever deny the validity of assertions by pointing to their socially and culturally biased nature, but to look at the ways in which groups in society define, control and use knowledge. The

emphasis is on the use of knowledge, not the nature of knowledge, which is a philosophical matter (Bernbaum, 1977, p.63).

The value of the new sociology of education to the study of foreign-language teaching is fundamental to the development of a new understanding of why foreign-language teachers teach in the ways that they do. If it is accepted that knowledge is something which is socially derived and defined, then it follows that foreign-language teachers' knowledge of teaching methodology must also be socially derived and defined. Attempts at innovation of foreign-language teaching style would, presumably, stand a greater chance of success where the innovator had some understanding of the social pressures which influence foreign-language teachers in their choice of approach. Such information is particularly important now that sociologists have found that pre- and in-service pedagogic training courses usually seem too theoretical in orientation to beginning teachers (e.g. Tisher et al., 1979, pp.41-43; McArthur, 1981, p.37). In short, foreign-language teacher choice of method is not usually made on the basis of a dispassionate, objective assessment of all methods known, but is influenced by a range of conservative institutional, professional and political perspectives and pressures which legitimize some views of knowledge, with regard to foreign-language teaching, and reject others.

Responses to Knowledge and Control: Many educational sociologists were impressed with Young's book, and studies of classroom activity began to appear, often to the exclusion of

"...the way the structure of the larger society shaped the daily lives of individuals..." (Branson, 1980, p.10). Branson, Banks (1974) and Bernbaum (1977) can see merit in the new perspectives, but maintain their respect for structural-functional aims and methods. To view only a social microcosm, such as a classroom, is as blinkered a search for truth as it is to study only macro trends and forces in society. If sociology is ultimately the study of groups, then groups of all sizes need to be examined.

Young's (1975b) position on the judgement or evaluation of social enquiry methods is to relate the nature of the research methods to the purposes of the enquiry. Methods should not be judged alone, as is so often done, on the basis of pure, theoretical discussions of the value or defects of the methods. By way of example, Young (1975b) criticizes some quantitative social surveys, which, in their endeavour to represent social attitudes in number form, ignore the subjective factor encapsulated by the explanation:

"...I like school because I have a good time
with my friends but I don't enjoy lessons."
(Young, 1975b)

Support for the social-problem-based, rather than purely theoretical, sociology of education is given by Karabel and Halsey (1977, p.57) who remind their readers of Mills':

"...injunction against allowing the question
of method to take precedence over the need to
investigate pressing substantive problems."

Unlike Young (1975b), however, Karabel and Halsey (1977, p.61) do not feel that a synthesis of the old and new perspectives will

"blur the issues", but will "shed light" on educational problems and thus make the issues all the clearer.

The present study will adopt the "synthetic" view of Branson (1980), Banks (1974), Bernbaum (1977) and Karabel and Halsey (1977), and draw from both the old and the new as was indicated earlier in this chapter. The research methodology will be determined by the purpose of the enquiry. That is, both the questionnaire instrument and the interview will be used. The rationale for such a "synthetic" approach and its importance to curricular change was clearly expressed in Australia by Musgrave (1980).

Musgrave's response to Young's book is to accept the new approaches but to point to the dangers of the relativistic epistemology, and to emphasize the need to study curricular change as a whole (1980, p.16). The assertion is made (Musgrave, 1980, p.17) that systematic legitimation of procedures encompasses both structural context and individual action.

Australian sociologists need to, therefore, pay attention to the issues raised by Young, particularly as this country is entering a period of re-evaluation of knowledge in the light of the recent acceptance of the nation's multicultural composition. Questions which sociologists concerned with Australian education need to address include:

- i) Should and/or is knowledge used for assimilationist or integrationist ends; and,

- ii) In the light of discussions on the core curriculum, what should/ does count as valuable or acceptable knowledge in a culturally pluralistic state (Musgrave, 1980, p.18)?

Both these concerns are important to the issue of foreign languages in the curriculum and it is interesting to consider how languages are used, at present, for social purposes.

4.1 Foreign Languages in the Curriculum

Some see the curriculum as:

"...part of a pathway through school that leads onwards to various social positions at later stages in the life cycle"

(Musgrave, 1974, p.33)

In which social direction does the foreign-language pathway lead? This question is of particular relevance to this study because it leads to discussion of a range of social influences which may prevent the implementation of innovation in foreign-language teaching style. It is often asserted that schools classify or label students and that knowledge is made available or withheld on the strength of that classification. Foreign languages are identified as part of the knowledge reserved for students who are perceived as 'bright' enough to be able to pursue an academic career at tertiary level:

"...there are no 'opportunity' sections of algebra or foreign languages. Thus, students who are considered to have low ability are automatically excluded from those courses which differentiate the college from non-college course programs."

(Cicourel and Kitsuse, 1978, p.197)

Musgrave (1973, p.31) cites a study of a comprehensive school in Birmingham, where:

"...a hierarchy of subjects was found with, for example, woodwork given low and French high status."

Thus it is asserted that language study, viewed from the perspective of the sociology of knowledge, enjoys a particular status in the curriculum and is often only provided for a certain kind of student. Eggleston (1977, p.81) argues that modern languages and other high status subjects perform the social function, not only of clearly distinguishing "bright" from "dull" students, but also of legitimizing that social differentiation. Languages, as we have seen, (4) are usually taught in such a way that only academically proficient students can cope. Till now, the general response to this situation in schools has been to reify the concept that language study is really only suited to students of above average intelligence. Very little attention has been paid to the socially biased nature and function of much of current foreign-language instruction.

One of the objectives of this study is to examine Tasmanian foreign-language teachers' views on the "social role" of foreign-language study. Should it be provided for only an intellectual elite, and thus serve as a means of social differentiation, or should the study of foreign languages serve the goal of social and cultural unity? If the majority of Tasmanian foreign-language teachers support the social unity role of foreign-language teaching, then they are likely to welcome

innovations which are designed to increase the successful learning of languages by a wider ability-range of pupils. However, if Robinson's (1978) impressions of Australian foreign-language education are correct, innovations may not be welcome because they challenge the social differentiation role of foreign-language teaching.

Robinson (1978) sees Australian schools as reinforcers of class distinctions - favouring middle and upper class students. Schools are seen to measure social class, not effective learning, and foreign languages play a significant part in this social differentiation role. She makes a distinction, however, between languages, such as French and German, which have traditionally been taught in a formal way in Australia, and community languages, such as Greek and Italian, which have often been taught with a stronger communicative bias (Robinson, 1978, p.68).

The sociology of education, for the purpose of this research project, does not only give us information about how the knowledge, included under the title of "Foreign-Language Study", is managed by those who wield power in school systems, but also that the reification of the social/political role of language study has, from the point of view of social egalitarianism, a stultifying effect on teaching style:

"...But how far can teachers yet probe into the uncomfortable question of what happens to creative potential in lessons devoted to English and mathematics, modern languages and science, geography and history? If these were not so unmistakably labelled and compartmentalized as academic subjects by the teaching profession as a whole (including, of

course, ---the ---university sector) and consequently by the parents, might they not, like the arts and crafts, release unexpected talents in children and corresponding skills in their teachers?"

(Richardson, 1975, p.41)

4.2 Classroom Discipline and the Control of Knowledge

Classroom observation methods in the sociology of education have revealed a close connection between the control of knowledge and the control of children's behaviour (5). Keddie (1975) has found that the reification, in classroom practice, of objectivist epistemologies, continues even where teachers away from the classroom, that is, in the "educationist context", appreciate that there is a social class bias of educational content and procedure.

The findings of researchers in this area lend support to the argument that formalist methods in foreign-language teaching are likely to be favoured by those who support visible, didactic, as opposed to less visible or evocative styles (6) as a means of maintaining classroom discipline. This was found to be the case with some foreign-language teachers in Tasmania (see chapter nine).

Most educational research, when presented to teachers, ignores the findings on how teachers decide, within systemic limitations, on their curricula:

"...initially they gave their attention to factors associated with classroom teaching and secondly to the interests of their pupils. The purposes of what was to be taught and its evaluation were only considered at a

later stage."

(Musgrave, 1974, p.32)

An indication of the directions into which these considerations have led many teachers is given by a study of pupil control ideology. Hoy (1968) distinguished between custodial and humanistic orientations in this regard. The study found that support for the self-discipline and co-operative interaction of the humanistic orientation changed in 75% of the cases to support for the rigid and highly controlled maintenance of order of the custodian. Commonly held views were summarized:

"...Teacher education programs tend to focus on ideal images and situations rather than the harsh realities of teaching', and, 'In the school in which I am teaching, good teaching and good classroom control tend to be equated.'"

(Morrison and McIntyre, 1975, p.161)

Young (1981) asserts that teachers want to account for their professional behaviour and to be able to show what they have achieved. The view gained of teacher-pupil interaction is drawn from Bernstein's concept of visible pedagogy:

"...the teacher has explicit control over the child. This control is enhanced by the existence of an "objective" grid which provides clear criteria for assessment and an appropriate procedure of measurement. The presence of a grid of this kind clearly enhances the presentation to the public of the school's role in social reproduction as an "objective" and independent one."

(Young, 1981, p.200)

Teacher epistemologies, which are seen to be formal and objectivist, legitimize the present strong classification and framing of knowledge in schools (Young, 1980, pp.62-63). It can

be argued that teachers, on the whole, have internalized the precriptive regularities and epistemic views of schools (Morrison and McIntyre, 1975, p.156).

The sanctions, which are reserved for deviants, (Musgrave, 1974, p.39) and the general ideological support of teachers for the present classification of knowledge are serious inhibitors of change:

"...Classification provides a frame of reference which helps subject-specialists to build upon previous work and to develop, systematically, knowledge of that subject; but classification also "protects" them from having their assumptions questioned by information drawn from other areas of knowledge."

(Worsley, 1978, p.257)

Worsley's comment on the classification of knowledge into rigidly defined subject boundaries (Bernstein, 1975) is also applicable to classroom activity. Knowledge presented in the classroom is seen as valuable and objectively verifiable. Changes to the curriculum must, therefore, meet these requirements or run the high risk of rejection. In addition, information from "other areas of knowledge", such as educational research, is not likely to be welcomed unreservedly.

The importance of the findings on the need for most teachers to have firm control over the dissemination of knowledge, and student behaviour in the classroom to a study of foreign-language teaching is considerable. This study will seek to determine whether any of the methods used by foreign-language teachers in

Tasmania are more suited to the maintenance of pupil discipline than others.


It is interesting to note that the proposed innovation of graded objectives, which formed the major theme of the September 1982 national modern language teachers' conference in Perth, and which is at present being considered by some French teachers in Tasmania, does meet the standards of a visible pedagogy in that assessment is made on the grounds of content covered, that is, an "objective" system of evaluation. And the value of the syllabus is easily defended on utilitarian grounds.

However, even an innovation such as the implementation of graded objectives would challenge the assumption that present objectives are totally adequate and would, if imposed on teachers from higher up in the professional hierarchy, infringe on their power to decide the topics of discussion (Worsley, 1978, p.259), thus encroaching on their autonomy (Hoyle, 1972, p.29).

"...Curriculum developers who intended to shift the focus and control of knowledge away from the teacher have run into difficulties. Few teachers are actually behaving as curriculum developers intended."

(Delamont, 1976, p.103)

The value for the present study, of the new directions in the sociology of education lies in the broadening of understanding it gives into the forces which oppose curricular change. The introduction and implementation of curriculum innovations can now be seen as problematic, in that such changes not only need to overcome the conservative nature of teacher



socialization, but also require a redefinition and re-ordering of the management of knowledge. Such change is likely to be opposed by those currently in control of that management, especially where change is seen to involve devolution of authority, in the sense that pupils may play a more active role in classroom activities, and parents are given the opportunity to insist that their children be taught to speak foreign languages, as well as to read and write them. The social differentiation function of language study will also be severely challenged if more and more "dull" students are seen to achieve accepted levels of foreign-language proficiency. Thus the new directions in the sociology of education help us to understand the complexities involved in educational innovation.

4.3 Summary

This section of the chapter began by defining the new directions of the sociology of education, briefly considered some responses to the new ideology, and showed how conservative forces are inherent in present curricular construction, and school and classroom organization. In this manner the discussion includes the three areas of concern of the new sociology of education as listed by Karabel and Halsey (1977, p.53):

- i) teacher-student interaction;
- ii) the categories or concepts used by educators;
- iii) the curriculum.

The contribution of the synthesis of old and new perspectives in the sociology of education to the questionnaire design (see

appendix A) and the interview programme lies in the identification of a range of conservative pressures which have often been ignored by those wishing to influence the development of foreign-language teaching style.

5. THE SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION.

5.1 Introduction

Findings on teacher socialization and the research methods of the new sociology of education have revealed the problematic nature of innovation in education.

Ultimately, views on educational change must rest on a philosophy of humanity and society. Philosophies expounded by social scientists in the past range from deterministic views of people like Sumner, to those, like Thomas, who rejected the mechanistic view of social progress (Maus, 1962, p.65 and p.123).

Usually, twentieth century sociologists have adopted a broad perspective where society is seen to influence the behaviour of the individual, and the individual is seen to be able to change society to a greater or lesser extent. Berger (1977) holds the view that individual freedom of choice and action depends in essence on the understanding of the socially determining forces which shape that person's behaviour, including the most private thoughts.

Debate on the interaction between formal systems of education and the societies and economies of which these systems form a part, is not new (7). Sometimes education is seen as a

harbinger of social development, sometimes as a reflection of enlightened improvements in social and economic thinking. Such discussions about the value of institutionalized education to society and, ultimately, to humanity itself, are of fundamental importance and continue today (8).

Musgrave (1973, pp.76-81) discusses the effects of this structural-functional or societal perspective on curricular change. A common strategy is to institutionalize educational innovation. Committees are set up, which develop new courses and materials along the lines laid down by research methodologists. With regard to foreign-language education in Tasmania, the first part of the FLTGS Report (Triffitt et al., 1976) provided a detailed discussion on the structure and functions of foreign-language learning in Australia and other Western societies. The second part of the report (O'Byrne, 1976) was a largely a-theoretical discussion of the perceived pedagogical problems of foreign-language teachers in Tasmania.

Both sections of the report were produced on the assumption that the rationally presented and empirically substantiated argument is usually acceptable to teachers and administrators, and, therefore, sufficient to effect the changes desired. Such an approach is only slightly less ignorant of sociological theory on educational innovation than are the prescriptive recommendations of the methodologists discussed in chapters four and five. Eggleston (1977, p.5) terms such studies, which hope to effect considerable changes in both content and processes of education,

"surprisingly naive".

This study differs from both parts of the FLTGS Report, in that an interpersonal as well as a societal perspective is adopted (Musgrave, 1973, p.81), and sociological theory is discussed in some depth in order to show the rationale behind certain aspects of the questionnaire design. It is intended that this approach will help to explain why the empirical-rational model of change must be replaced by a sociologically sound approach, if the desired innovations in foreign-language education in Tasmania are to be achieved. While the present study adopts an interpersonal perspective, it remains a sociology of the teacher, the school and the curriculum, leaving the interactionist, observer-participant study of foreign-language classroom behaviour for future research.

What is meant by educational innovation? And why is the concept problematic, often ensuring the continued lack of success of those who try to solve the problems of implementation?

"...At present there sometimes seems to be a vast gap between practitioners of education and theorists. The result is that either theories devised in universities get delivered to practising teachers in schools, from above, like god-given laws, or they never get divulged at all."

(Warnock, 1977, p.19)

The academic model for educational innovation (defined here as specific curricular and/or pedagogic change) is one, where the defects of current contents and procedures are elaborately declared, and the merits of new contents and procedures are

explained. This information is usually published in books and journals which most teachers do not read (Musgrave, 1973, pp.83-84; Whiteside, 1978, p.47) (9). If a teacher does read the information, it may or may not be assumed that she will quite simply implement the suggested changes into her teaching practice. Often no help or advice is given at this stage. In other words, the teacher is the innovator, the researcher is purely a supplier of information.

This model assumes that the teacher has the necessary autonomy to be able to change her teaching style and course content at will. It also assumes that the teacher, as an individual, is unaffected by the social environment in which she lives and works. In short, the rational teacher will innovate, the irrational one will not.

5.2 Strategies of Educational Innovation

Once innovation in education is seen as problematic and an issue which requires sociological insight, viability of recognized change strategies, or innovation models, must be assessed in the light of sociological theory.

Whiteside (1978, pp.46-51) identifies three change strategies (10). The first is the empirical-rational strategy, discussed above - an approach which is responsible for many Schools Council innovative experiments in Britain, where:

"...attempts to introduce curriculum change have often been based on the assumption that a significant proportion of teachers were

agreed as to the necessity for change, were willing to change and have the time and energy to change."

(Whiteside, 1978, p.47)

Musgrave (1973, p.85) presents the objection that 'the mere possession of knowledge does not guarantee its use'. The implication of this statement for educational innovation complicates the role of the researcher, because it is no longer sufficient to impart information about educational innovation; means of ensuring the use of that knowledge must also be found.

The second change strategy, the power-coercive strategy, is one where innovations are presented in the format of prescriptions or orders from higher levels in the professional hierarchy. The problems inherent in this approach are:

- i) the difficulty in policing and enforcing the desired change,
- (ii) the difficulty in recognizing strategic or ritualistic compliance and covert modification of the original innovatory material and/or methods, and
- (iii) the problem of individual or group opposition to both the innovation and the power-coercive manner of presentation (Whiteside, 1978, pp.48-49).

In a statement on the poor chances of success of this strategy in educational matters, Hoyle (1977, p.392) presents one of the major principles of the sociology of educational innovation:

"...within education there is a strong sentiment against such strategies founded on

the assumption that because of their very nature educational ends cannot be achieved without the commitment of the participants, both teachers and taught."

The notion of effecting change by influencing other people's views and desires to coincide with your own is not new to sociology. Maus, (1962, p.33) cites Riehl's somewhat sinister ideal of government-controlled conditioning of citizens to think that they agree with bureaucratic policy. Less sinister expressions of this philosophy are found in the approaches labelled, "normative re-educative". This strategy is fundamentally concerned with changing people's attitudes (Whiteside, 1978, p.50) and does this by "identifying and solving the problems associated with change", and by increasing people's awareness of how their behaviour affects others (Hoyle, 1977, p.392).

Criticism of this strategy is aimed at its focus on the individual, while neglecting the significant pressures or sanctions within the social situation (Musgrave, 1973, p.85). Awareness of this problem led Miles to place:

"...great emphasis on the use of 'temporary systems' such as attendance at courses or seminars in which members are re-educated in a setting totally separated from their normal social supports."

(Musgrave, 1973, p.85; and Whiteside, 1978, p.50)

Miles argued that it is not enough to concentrate on the individual. Social support was seen to be necessary for the successful "normative re-education" of the individual. In-service programmes, conducted away from the school, were seen not only to

introduce teachers to new ideas, but also to remove the teacher from the anti-research, professionally conservative pressures of the school environment. The problem is well documented, however, that the return to the school environment usually means a return to the mode of behaviour which the innovative programme had tried to change (Whiteside, 1978, p.50; Musgrave, 1973, p.77 and p.85; Hoyle, 1977, p.393).

Awareness of this problem has led some researchers to call for the abandonment of in-service programmes in favour of school-based innovation which is controlled by teachers but stimulated by external resources, information and agents (Cameron and Hannah, 1981, p.69; Pepper, 1972, pp.14-15). The role of the innovator or change-agent is thus to co-operate with teachers rather than to "impose change upon an unwilling client" (Hoyle, 1977, p.394).

This view is supported by Ingvarson (1982) who argues that future control of inservice education should lie with teachers themselves, not with tertiary institutions or bureaucrats, as proposed by the Auchmuty Report. Hughes (1972, p.130) saw the increasing need for involving not only teachers, but also parents in inservice education.

Considerations of this kind have not been widely recognized. The 1982 Committee of Inquiry into Education in South Australia proposed several changes in the teaching of modern languages. The committee recommended that inservice programmes be conducted to

implement the suggestions of an innovative working party (1982, pp.111-112). No mention was made of teacher control of those programmes, or of basing the experiments in schools where the restricting social pressures will immediately appear.

In the light of these discussions about the most effective change strategies it is interesting to note that the only official "change strategies" provided for Tasmanian foreign-language teachers are those inherent in the preservice and inservice programmes, and the advice available on request from the State Supervisor of Foreign Languages. No provision has been made, apart from the establishment of Regional Teachers' Centres as forums for the discussion of educational innovation, for the planning, introduction, evaluation and implementation of innovatory programmes. Tasmanian foreign-language teachers have, therefore, been asked in the present study to indicate how they feel about the current provision for the effecting of change in their subject area.

5.3 Two Organizational Models

Whiteside (1978) discusses two models of school organization. The Human Relations Model views differences of opinion and professional ideology among teachers, administrators, pupils and parents, as:

"...temporary aberrations which can easily be removed by greater contact, improvement of communications and/or 'retraining' programmes."

(Whiteside, 1978, p.53)

The political or conflict model is one which is often ignored by

sociologists, but is supported by Whiteside who found that many of the disagreements among staff members could not be explained away as problems of communication. This lack of consensus was felt to be a greater inhibitor to change than, say, the problem of overcoming initial staff resistance to change. In one case study where Whiteside (1978, pp.69-70) found that teachers were eager to accept an experiment which required a change from an objectivist to an epistemic view of knowledge, the assertion was made that innovative teachers may precisely be the ones who are likely to form their own conflicting opinions on how an innovation should be implemented.

The Tasmanian foreign-language teachers who were interviewed expressed a range of different ways of solving the problem of low interest in foreign-language study (See Chapter Nine). Teacher commitment to the need for change was very high.

5.4 Teacher Commitment

Whiteside's indication of the need for consensus in educational innovation is an extension of the often-stated principle of the importance of teacher commitment. Hughes (1972, p.127) argues that teacher support is the single most significant factor affecting curriculum change:

"...No matter what forces operate towards liberalizing the curriculum and making it more meaningful, these are powerless unless there are teachers capable of, and willing for, the necessary implementation."

The same point is raised by Esland (1972, p.122) and

Eggleston (1977, p.132) who regard staff attitude to change as part of the "innovative climate" of the school. Significant sources of pressure in this climate are the headmaster and senior staff (Rodwell, 1982, p.8; Musgrave, 1973, p.87). This is not a recent finding, but is often ignored by methodologists.

Thomas (1976, pp.230-233) tentatively concludes that the organizational climate of a school is a more important variable, from the point of view of innovators, than the 'characteristics of individuals'. No significant variables were found among the personality traits and past professional experiences of teachers and principals in innovative and non-innovative schools. Group variables were seen as more important than individual variables (11). Innovative schools were found to have greater principal supportiveness, lower principal involvement of an egoistic, authoritarian kind, and higher teacher intimacy than less innovative schools (Thomas, 1976, pp.216-219).

Thus the innovator's aim becomes:

"...to offer something simple and understandable to teachers who want and are able to use it."

(Musgrave, 1973, p.9).

Musgrave (1973, p.92) joins with Whiteside (1978, pp.106-109) in the call for participant-observer research in schools, in order to foster an innovative climate and to discover more about the dynamics of social change.

A final point that needs to be raised before turning to the obstacles to innovation in the formal education system, is the

question of jargon. If new ideas are to be diffused to teaching staff, they must be explained in terms which are not obscure or emotionally distasteful to practising teachers (Musgrave, 1973, p.90). The jargon used to define this aspect of an innovative programme is the term 'communicability' (King, 1974, p.90). Neither, however, should new ideas be couched in excessively simple or patronizing terms (Boomer, 1977). In short, the views and needs of the school or target community must be respected - a basic anthropological precept (Goodenough, 1966, pp.36-38).

Thus it is asserted that educational innovation requires teacher commitment, an innovative climate in schools and an acceptable manner of presenting the proposed innovation to teachers. With regard to the present study, some foreign-language teachers were asked to comment on:

- i) whether they perceived a need for change in foreign-language education in Tasmania;
- ii) how that change should be implemented; and,
- iii) whether they felt their school or college "climate" was conducive to innovation.

For discussion of these views see Chapter Nine.

5.5 Factors Hindering Curriculum Change

Resistance to change has for a long time been attributed to teacher conservatism. Inspector Neale wrote in his 1903 Report:

"... 'I have always done it this way' is the final and crushing objection of many to progress."

(Pirkis, 1982, p.12)

It is, however, entirely possible that opposition to change is not a sign of irrational conservatism, but a considered rejection of the proposed innovation. This explanation is very feasible in the light of the frequent neglect, on the part of educational researchers, to take into account the perspectives of teachers, students and parents (Esland, 1972, pp.105-106).

Nevertheless, criticism of teacher conservatism has not been baseless. The effects of professional and occupational socialization on teacher epistemology and behaviour has been discussed earlier and the essence of the problem is briefly summarized by Musgrave (1973, p.52):

"...Most of the present teachers were taught their view of academic knowledge in the past and will already lag behind the contemporary boundaries of their subjects."

King (1977) presents six features of the current Australian education system, which help to explain the professional 'inertia', the "first problem in changing direction":

- i) Most teachers accept an objectivist ideology and favour teacher-centred, didactic learning.
- ii) Official IQ assessments are widely accepted and used in the grouping of students.
- iii) Class grouping of students is largely unquestioned; little thought is given to the individualization of instruction.
- iv) There is a strong defence of the autonomy of the individual teacher in the classroom.

- v) Overcrowding makes experimentation difficult.
- vi) Teachers are, to a certain extent, controlled by closed, hierarchical, undemocratic management structures.

It is interesting to consider how each of these features applies to foreign-language teaching. The literature review chapter of the present study, and the chapter on methodologists' perceptions on how languages are taught (Chapters Two and Five) show how points one to four seem to apply strongly to the foreign-language arena. Point five raises an issue which varies from school to school. As far as foreign languages are concerned, complaints about small classes are more frequently expressed, than concern with overcrowding. Point six introduces the interesting relationship between the practising teacher and the formal occupational structure within which she works.

Widespread change can be prevented by strong or weak centralized control over knowledge codes (Bernstein, 1975, p.59). With regard to foreign-language instruction in Tasmania, central control is weak in some ways and strong in others. Centralized control has been substantially weakened by the devolution of authority to headmasters, who may or may not be sympathetic towards second-language education. However, the same Education Department has been strong and resolute in its failure to implement the recommendations of the FLTGS Report. For example, no minimum time for foreign-language instruction has been demanded of schools (O'Byrne, 1976, p.96).

The Schools Board of Tasmania supplies syllabi, appoints

moderators and produces examination papers. Individual schools decide on the choice of text-books. Grass-roots considerations such as these are thus not entirely within the teacher's professional control, and are often seen as practical determiners of conservative teaching practice (Musgrave, 1975, p.190, and p.199).

Another factor, which is known to inhibit change, is the conservatism of the pupils:

"...in the initial stage of introducing an emergent curriculum, it is just at the level of teaching method that the strongest constraint, namely the nature of the pupils, operates."

(Musgrave, 1973, p.52)

Innovations not only need to be adaptable to pupils' level of maturity, but also need to overcome the pupils' objectivist epistemologies and consequent acceptance and expectation of teacher-controlled order in the classroom (Shipman, 1975, p.147). King 1974, p.91) argues that teacher conservatism is reflected in reactionary student attitudes and behaviour.

One explanation for teacher and student hostility to change is the anxiety that is caused by the perception of innovation as a threat to previously held ideals and familiar procedures (Esland, 1972, p.107; Hoyle, 1972, p.14). This view explains McArthur's (1981, p.41) finding that:

"...Established teachers still tend to view new teachers in a school with some suspicion, especially if it's a first year teacher with radical views-..."

A more common explanation is the value attributed to practical

experience, which means that little weight is given to the suggestions of newcomers (Musgrave, 1975, p.198). Whatever the reason, the situation continues where:

"...The younger teachers, newly fledged from their Training Departments, tried their best, but could not overcome the inertia and lack of imagination that resulted from an over-reliance on texts designed to clear the path to the Matriculation hurdle."

(Mallinson, 1953, p.22)

In addition to school-based factors inhibiting change, it must be remembered that the conduct of an education system is constantly under the scrutiny of the conservative pressure of public opinion. Evetts (1973, p.153) argues that new ideas:

"...have to be transformed for mass consumption, and climates of opinion seem to result more from successful advertising techniques than from reasoned arguments."

Evetts' recommendation has recently been taken very seriously in Australia by an eminent Professor of Education, who called on educators to deliberately form and promote a "corporate image", along the advertising lines of giant business corporations (Beare, 1982).

There are various factors which can be expected to inhibit the successful implementation of innovation in foreign-language education. It is important to realize that the combined strength of these factors is often sufficient to destroy even those innovations which have been successfully implemented.

5.6 Sustaining the Innovation

King (1974, p.87) presents three essential differences between the teachers involved in an innovation and those who follow:

- i) The original group is more knowledgeable about the innovation and has a 'vested interest', in terms of time and energy, in making the innovation succeed.
- ii) The gradual development of the innovation prevents a sharp break, for the teachers involved, from past practices.
- iii) As originators, most teachers feel confident about the innovation.

It is clear that King's innovation is one where the teaching staff is closely involved at every stage. He examines the problem of presenting an innovation in terms acceptable to newcomers to a given school or education system.

Esland (1972, p.103, p.121 and p.124) looks only at the original group and asserts that the likelihood of the continued acceptance of new ideas and practices is closely related to the amount of personal investment of effort which is spent on the innovation. If teachers do not come to see the proposed changes as their own work, they will probably be discouraged by the unfamiliar complexities and revert to their former teaching approach.

Despite the seemingly overwhelming number of problems to be

overcome, there are claims of successful sustained implementation of new courses and methods and forms of educational organization. Many of these claims need to be examined carefully, because they are made by people who are unaware of what is really going on in classrooms (Keddie, 1975) (12); or are over-zealous proponents of change and exaggerate the claims (Whiteside, 1978, p.33); or are convinced by such claims, which often confuse development in methodology with development in teaching practice. For example, Musgrave (1975, p.189) asserts that the following results are seen 'particularly clearly':

"...The teaching of mathematics, science and modern languages, all noteworthy for the possibility of their use in the economy, has been revolutionized and teachers have themselves spread the knowledge of the new ways of organizing experiences whereby children may learn more effectively."

Studies of teacher socialization, ideology and knowledge in the sociology of education and innovations in education have revealed the problematic nature of bridging the gap between theory and practice in an effective, durable way. This researcher has located only one paper devoted to the topic of what is involved in changing the methods and direction of foreign-language instruction in Australia.

5.7 What will Change Involve?

The dynamics of change of secondary school foreign-language programmes in Australia are discussed by Robinson (1978). She argues that the continuing demand for communicative syllabi and the need for Australia to come to terms with the multicultural

composition of its population requires a new role for language study.

The 'role' discussed by Robinson is a social one. The majority of current foreign-language students in Australia have middle or upper social class backgrounds and institutionally accepted, high IQ ratings (Robinson, 1978, p.66). The new role would involve a change for foreign-language education as a tool of social differentiation and the reification of objectivist epistemology to the function of an instrument of social and cultural egalitarianism and tolerance. To fill the latter role, foreign-language curricula need to diversify to meet the requirements of a pluralistic community. Such a change would, as Robinson (1978, p.67) asserts, require radical change with regard to:

- i) the relative prestige of language study,
- ii) the goals of foreign-language study,
- iii) teacher definition of the 'able'.

Traditionally, of these three, methodologists have only considered the second. The prestige of language study, relative to that of other traditionally elite subjects such as algebra or advanced mathematics may, in the eyes of the general public, be significantly lowered if an increasing number of pupils successfully complete foreign-language courses. Thus there is conflict between the egalitarian and elitist proponents of second language education.

Anti-innovation pressures also arise from conflict over the question of prestige within the foreign-language subject arena. If spoken proficiency and/or cultural identification come to be counted as knowledge which is of equal value to an understanding of grammatical paradigms, then foreign-language instruction can no longer be used to clearly identify the able student. Change in the goals and content of foreign-language programmes are thus seen to incorporate change in ideology and epistemology. Credit would have to be given to new kinds of students, because more than one way of 'knowing a foreign language' would be recognized. The question thus arises:

"...Are we prepared to change our beliefs, our instructional habits, our commitments, and our evaluational procedures in order to accord equal status to Demetrios, who 'has a good ear', and Jill, who is 'a good grammarian'?"

(Robinson, 1978, p.71)

Robinson's question encapsulates the quintessential problem of the innovator. With regard to foreign-language education in Tasmania, the transformation of the didactic, grammar-based programme, with the main emphasis on developing writing skills, into an evocative, functional, communicative programme with equal importance granted to all four language skills, involves the change of beliefs, instructional habits, commitments and evaluational procedures at four levels which will be discussed in a moment.

Sociological theory, discussed in this chapter, lends support to the view that it is beyond the scope of the current

provisions for innovation in foreign-language education in Tasmania, to effect these fundamental changes in ideology on the part of many, if not most, foreign-language teachers in the state.

It is equally important to realize that certain beliefs and commitments will not have to change. The fear of having to sacrifice educational ideals such as the pursuit of excellence or areas of present teacher autonomy in educational decision-making, should be immediately dispelled. Sociological theory explains that prescriptive recommendations 'from above' are doomed to failure precisely because within the classroom the teacher, consciously or sub-consciously, has at her disposal a variety of ways of negating the effects of any imposed, intended innovation.

A fundamental principle of the sociology of educational innovation, however, is that innovation requires change in beliefs and commitments, not just change in behaviour. Teachers rightly argue that they teach in the way that they do because of their understanding of pedagogic theory and because of their appreciation of the occupational problems which appear in their schools. To ignore these factors is, in fact, to deny their significance and to simplify the concept of teaching to an extent, barely recognizable in any real school.

The present research has discovered that many secondary level foreign-language teachers in Tasmania claim to be ideologically committed to innovation in their subject area. They explain that they continue to teach in a "traditional manner"

because of the perceived professional and occupational pressures which they face (See Chapter Nine). This finding is important because it lends credence to the view that the criticism of foreign-language teachers as reactionary and conservative, evident in so many of the articles discussed in the preceding chapter, is often unfounded, in Tasmania at least.

A second principle, of equal importance to the first, is the view of innovation as something which usually has repercussions at the four levels of:

- i) the classroom,
- ii) the school,
- iii) the State Education Department,
- iv) the National Level (ie. the National Language Policy).

The present chapter has identified conservative forces at each of these levels. Individuals at each level hold varying amounts of political power with which they can influence proposed innovations. For example, if the Senators in the current Standing Committee on Education and the Arts, are to form the recommendation that the Federal Government pursue a vigorous policy, promoting communicative foreign-language programmes, designed to develop more bi- and multilingual proficiency in the Australian community, then a strong argument may be made for the establishment of a minimum time allotment for at least those courses which are judged to be truly communicative in purpose and design.

Such a move at federal level may lead to a Schools Board call for examination papers which adequately test communicative skills, with a substantial component of the assessment instrument devoted to conversation.

The principal and staff at the school level may realize that the substantial re-evaluation of what counts as a good foreign-language student at federal and state level, requires a similar change in ideology on their part if the school is to adequately prepare students for moderation tests or external examinations. Foreign-language teachers' long-unheeded calls for more time to be allocated to their subject may finally be regarded as legitimate claims.

In the classroom, the teacher must continue to be able to control the students' behaviour along the lines demanded by the other members of staff and the teacher's own pupil-control ideology. Her classroom discipline must not be threatened by the new emphases in the programme. She must have enough time to adequately develop students' skills and she must be committed to the new approach, preferably through ideological conviction, otherwise through professional rewards such as good pass rates so that she is prepared to comply strategically with the new demands.

Too frequently innovations are handed down in the educational hierarchy, or by methodologists, with no consideration given to the practical constraints and ideologies which shape teaching style. Thus the practising teacher is

expected to reject her own professional beliefs, which she has formed in the light of working in the classroom, and within the framework of institutional and bureaucratic demands.

If foreign-language methodologists wish to effect change in teaching behaviour they need to consider the following assertions:

- i) The successful implementation of new ways of teaching languages in schools is an educational innovation.
- ii) Innovation in education is primarily a social problem.
- iii) The relevant literature suggests that the innovator must adopt a conflict model of human relations. That is, it should be appreciated that change is likely to be opposed on ideological, epistemological and political grounds.
- iv) It is unfair to demand change at one level, say the classroom, without demanding consequential or preliminary changes at other levels. (For example, from those who control timetables and examination papers.)
- v) Teachers must feel confident that the new approaches will work in the classroom, that is, effect 'learning' as perceived by teachers, and not threaten classroom discipline.
- vi) The present empirical-rational change strategy of the publication of psychologically and linguistically based research findings, in books and journals which few teachers read, is as unsuitable and unsuccessful as the

power-coercive strategy.

- vii) The normative-reactive change strategy is only likely to succeed where the discussions and experiments are teacher controlled and, where possible, school based. (Admittedly there is a problem here with regard to subject specific innovations.)
- viii) The innovation should be 'sold' to parents and pupils as well as to teachers, in non-patronizing terms which avoid jargon.
- ix) The innovation should only require teachers to introduce changes in areas where they have the necessary decision-making authority.
- x) Educational researchers and methodologists should work with teachers and not make demands of them in ignorance of occupational difficulties in the classroom, the school and the Department.

The following is a cri-de-coeur from a teacher from Tasmania's North-West coast:

"...They should work with us, not criticize us. We need help, not demands."

Chapter six explains the research methodology of the present study. The questionnaire design and direction of interviews are closely guided by the sociological theory discussed in the present chapter.

6. CONCLUSIONS

It is possible to isolate three broad areas where the sociology of education is of inestimable value to the study of foreign-language teaching in general and the present research in particular:

- i) The study of teacher socialisation has provided much evidence to support the theory that teachers are professionally and occupationally socialised to teach in a particular way. This is not to claim that all foreign-language teachers adopt a uniform approach, but to assert that it is likely that there are professional and occupational factors which play a major role in influencing foreign-language teachers in their development of a teaching style. This role is likely to be conservative, in the sense that the influential factors which have been identified, and discussed in this chapter, promote the conservation of existing styles of teaching and hinder attempts at curriculum and pedagogic innovation.

These theories have shaped the research design of the present study to the extent that the study population (13) was asked to:

- indicate whether some key elements in the "traditional" approach to foreign-language teaching were still being used (i.e. vocabulary tests, grammar exercises);

- compare present use of these techniques with past use (when the participants in the study were foreign-language pupils);
- comment on a range of occupational factors such as: classroom conditions, funding levels and Schools Board requirements, all of which may or may not be influential in the development of teaching style.

The intention was not only to gain some understanding of how foreign languages were being taught in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges, but also to see if any factors of foreign-language teacher socialisation could be seen to be influential in this regard.

ii) The new sociology of education, with its discussion of knowledge as socially derived and defined, was of value in two major ways:

- a) Discussions of the close relationship between the "control of knowledge" and classroom management has made us aware of a sociological criterion for choice between foreign-language teaching methods. For example, it is plausible to argue that the "traditional", cognitive method of foreign-language teaching, where the teacher imparts knowledge in neatly classified, grammatical units, provides the teacher with a pedagogy which allows for strong control over student behaviour, and which is "visible", in the sense that teachers can show which

areas of grammar and vocabulary have been covered.

b) Consideration of teacher-student interaction and other areas in the field of foreign-language education where knowledge is defined, controlled and used for certain social or political ends, such as: control of student behaviour, social differentiation or social and cultural egalitarianism, have shaped the present research design to the extent that the subjects of the research were asked to indicate whether:

- they believed successful foreign-language learning required above-average IQ;
- they felt certain language skills were more important than others. To see whether the relative importance of the language skills of writing, aural comprehension, reading and speaking was decided with regard to sociological factors, the teachers were asked to indicate what they felt was the order of importance of the skills under the three separate circumstances of: "Ideally"; "Junior Secondary Level"; and, "Senior Secondary Level" (See Chapter Nine).

iii) The sociology of educational innovation has shown the need for innovators to respect the views of the people they are trying to influence. Educational innovators should be aware that the mere presentation of information about new teaching methods is rarely sufficient to effect change of teaching style. Neither is it feasible for innovators to attempt to coerce

teachers into adopting the new programmes and/or teaching styles. Serious reservations have also been expressed about the pre- and in-service teacher training courses, such as those currently provided for foreign-language teachers in Tasmania. Such courses, which are not school-based, and which do not acknowledge the structural difficulties faced by foreign-language teachers, often fail to provide adequate support for the implementation of the proposed innovation (See Chapter Four).

This researcher has interviewed some Tasmanian foreign-language teachers and gathered details about their views on current attempts at innovation in foreign-language education in the state. Their comments corroborate the view, generated by sociological theories of educational innovation, that the Tasmanian foreign-language teaching profession is in need of a theoretically sound means of achieving effective, sustained change in the structure and function of foreign-language education.

Before considering the quantitative and qualitative data, gathered by the present research, a close examination will be made of the literature currently prescribed for the foreign-language teaching methodology course at the University of Tasmania. The argument will be developed that the literature is of immense value, because methods and methodological principles, which are based on certain carefully considered psycholinguistic

theories, are clearly presented. It will be stressed, however, that these methods are unlikely to be implemented in foreign-language teaching practice in Tasmania because the literature, with some minor exceptions, does not acknowledge the importance to foreign-language study of the sociological theory discussed in this chapter.

REFERENCES.

- (1) These and other methodological terms are discussed in Chapter Five.
- (2) The experiment was assessed by the Tasmanian Education Department and the University of Tasmania (Middleton, 1982, p.158).
- (3) A case study, by Keddie, of how this is done, is included in the book.
- (4) Supra., p.119. See also Biggs and Collis (1982).
- (5) See, for example, Young (1980, p.62).
- (6) The terms 'didactic' and 'evocative' are intended as they are defined by Gusfield and Riesman (1978).
- (7) See, for example, Halsey, Floud and Anderson (1961).
- (8) See, for example, the A.C.E. (1980) papers on: Social Futures in Australia and the Implications for School Practice.
- (9) See also the present study, Chapter Eight
- (10) See also Hoyle (1977, pp.391-392); and Musgrave (1973, p.85) who discuss the same strategies in different order.

- (11) Hoyle (1972, pp.24-25), however, distinguishes between the restricted professional, who takes an intuitive approach to work and is not particularly interested in educational research, and the extended professional, who wants to 'intellectualize the task of teaching' and is, therefore, much more receptive to innovation.
- (12) See also Reid (1978, pp.46-47) for an example of how teachers organize their classes to stream students in a school which is overtly committed to heterogeneous grouping.
- (13) All those teachers who participated in the research.

CHAPTER FOUR

PERSPECTIVES ON FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING.

INTRODUCTION

Researchers in the area of foreign-language teaching usually draw from their knowledge of psycholinguistic theory to comment upon or examine in depth foreign-language teaching methods. By comparison papers on sociological considerations in foreign-language teaching (eg. Hasan, 1978) are few in number.

What is argued in this thesis is that a strong case can be made for the extension of the conceptual framework to include a sociological dimension, in order to develop a more comprehensive view of foreign-language teaching.

Focussing on foreign-language teaching in Tasmania, the purpose of this chapter will be to show that the literature currently prescribed for the pre-service foreign-language teaching methodology course at the University of Tasmania is very largely confined to considerations based on psycholinguistic theory. The following texts will be examined:

Palmer (1917), The Scientific Study and Teaching of

Languages;

Palmer and Redman (1932), This Language Learning

Business;

Brooks (1964), Language and Language Learning;

Rivers (1964), The Psychologist and the Foreign-Language

Teacher;

Valette (1967), Modern Language Testing;

Rivers (1968), Teaching Foreign-Language Skills;

 Allen and Valette (1972), Modern Language Classroom

 Techniques;

 Webb (1974), Teaching Modern Languages;

 Varnava (1975), Mixed-Ability Teaching in Modern

 Languages;

 Hornsey (Ed.) (1975), Handbook for Modern Language

 Teachers;

 Wringe (1976), Developments in Modern Language Teaching;

 Hawkins (1981), Modern Languages in the Curriculum.

Discussions of the limitations of the books' perspectives may imply a criticism of the authors' work. However, the purpose of this review is to argue that in terms of the needs of Tasmanian foreign-language teachers, much of the information and many of the recommendations contained in these books are often of little value due to the particular professional and occupational circumstances with which these teachers are faced. This is not to deny that the books contain much valuable and important information for language teachers.

The empirical enquiry reported on in later chapters has discovered that foreign-language teaching methodology texts are not very popular with foreign-language teachers in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges.

The questionnaire contained a list of twelve foreign-language teaching methodology texts and one report on

foreign-language teaching in Tasmania. Teachers were asked to indicate which of the texts listed they had read. Space was provided directly beneath this list and at the end of the questionnaire for the addition of any other titles of foreign-language methodology texts read (1).

Few teachers indicated titles other than those included in the list. The books discussed in this chapter, therefore, are likely to reflect fairly clearly the literature on foreign-language teaching methods that the Tasmanian secondary-level teacher of foreign languages is familiar with. Not one text had been read by more than fifty per cent ($N = 59$) of the study population (See Chapter Nine).

Before proceeding, a cautionary word is in order. A substantial minority (9.44%) of respondents indicated that they could not remember the titles of some or all of the methodology texts they had read. While it would be spurious to suggest that those teachers who can not remember titles can also not remember major methodological tenets, it is reasonable to propose that ignorance of names of authors and books does seem to indicate that those works have not been consulted for a considerable period of time, and/or did not overwhelm the respondent with their significance to her future, or continuing work in the classroom.

The books will be discussed in chronological order, apart from four texts which were published in the 1970s and early 1980s. These four texts will be discussed together in the context

of considerations of what has been written about foreign-language teaching in primary schools, and foreign-language teaching to homogeneous groups. The authors will be seen to approach foreign-language education from a psycholinguistic perspective. That is, considerations pertaining to some theories from the fields of psychology and linguistics are discussed. A sociological perspective on foreign-language teaching was not adopted by these authors in any rigorous, theoretically based sense, but some sociological insight and theory is applied to the issues of the Early Teaching of Modern Languages (ETML) and the debate about the homogeneous or heterogeneous grouping of pupils. These sociological insights are very valuable, and it is in this context that the present study, which is not primarily concerned with these issues, will briefly consider the questions of ETML and ability range in the classroom.

The term 'sociological perspective' is here used in a broad sense to distinguish areas of sociological interest such as peer group and classroom pressures from the psycholinguistic domain. The concern here is not with the various sociological perspectives as outlined by Reid (1978) and Robinson (1981).

The chapter will also develop the argument that foreign-language teachers in Tasmania and elsewhere would benefit greatly from the continued extension of the sociological perspective on foreign-language teaching.

1. THE PSYCHOLINGUISTIC APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF ----- FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING -----

1.1 Palmer. -----

In 1917 Palmer published The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages. His aim was to provide practising language teachers with a theoretical background and a set of principles necessary to guide them towards the adoption of a systematic approach to their work.

Palmer drew a distinction between the role of the methodologist and the role of the teacher. The classroom factors of stimulus, speed of progression, cohesion and presentation were seen as the concerns of the teacher alone:

"...The method maker may work at his writing desk or in his arm-chair; the teacher works in front of the class."

(Palmer, 1917, p.27)

It is evident that Palmer could see two domains: the theoretical and the practical - the former being mainly the responsibility of the methodologist, and the latter being the concern of practising teachers.

This perspective on the issues relevant to foreign-language education does not allow for discussion of some very significant political, psychological, administrative, social and economic trends which influence the teaching of foreign languages. An example from each of these categories may help to clarify the point. Palmer (1917, p.27) argues: "...if he [the

foreign-language teacher] works unsystematically it is because there exist few or no principles in system". What the present study endeavours to show is that many other considerations have bearing on what foreign-language teachers do in the classroom:

- (i) Examples of politics in education at the school level will be familiar to most teachers. The perennial issues of funding, time and room allocation not only reveal where power lies in the school, but also where the priorities of the decision-makers may lie. An unsympathetic Principal, for example, can easily refuse requests for new course-books, materials, or for re-allocation to better rooms, or for more equally-spaced lessons throughout the week.
- (ii) Psychologically a teacher, particularly if she (2) is young, inexperienced and the sole foreign-language teacher in the school, may feel oppressed by professionally hostile attitudes from the school or local community. Without encouragement from peers, or a readily available source of innovative ideas, it is not surprising that the teacher may take what she perceives to be the line of least resistance and so avoid the attention which innovation and experimentation are likely to attract.
- (iii) Administrative influences in both state and private schools are important. Centralized, bureaucratic control over time allocation, moderation procedures, and at Higher School Certificate level syllabi and examination

papers, are traditional, if partial, determiners of teacher behaviour in the classroom.

(iv) Significant social attitudes which influence foreign-language education have been clearly revealed by the FLTGS report. Discussion has been generated on the issues of indifference, isolation, learning models, intellectual ability, relevance, vocationalism, sex and age, and linguistic ability (Triffitt et al., 1976, pp.12-42).

(v) Many foreign-language teachers commented in interviews and questionnaires that students and parents were concerned about the high rates of unemployment in the state. Often the local community attitude was reported to be one of concern that students choose subjects which are most likely to secure them jobs at the completion of grade ten (3).

A vocational view of education is evident in a recent article in the Cosmopolitan magazine, which advised a young woman

to avoid language study because:

"...When she leaves university and begins to look for a job, she is shocked to discover that potential employers are not very interested in her languages degree."

(McGregor, 1982, p.111)

On the other hand, the economic benefits to Australia of increased foreign-language study is often pointed out (4), while the view of linguistic proficiency as a national resource was also propounded in the United States "Strength Through Wisdom"

report (1980).

Palmer's framework for discussion of foreign-language education does not allow for these considerations, as they apply to the 1980s. Palmer's book, of course, was published in 1917 and these comments are not criticisms of the text in terms of the situation prevailing at the time the book was written. However, from the point of view of foreign-language teachers in Tasmania, many topics of central professional concern (such as the ones indicated earlier) receive little attention.

It would not be true, however, to assert that Palmer pays no attention to anything but the method he presents. On the contrary, he devotes an entire chapter to "Factors of Linguistic Pedagogy", teachers being reminded to take into consideration the previous study and 'calligraphic' and pronunciational skill levels of the student, when devising an educational programme.

These factors, although significant, are psychological rather than sociological in nature. That is, the influence on foreign-language education of the cognitive and psychomotor level of development of the individual student is taken into account, but pressures arising from social or group dynamics are ignored.

Palmer's pedagogic principles, grouped under the headings: "The Theory of Study" and "The Theory of Memory", are also psychological principles. Choice of method is seen to be determined only by theories of cognitive processes:

"...Those who learn isolated lists of words
will cease wasting their time in doing so

when they realize the futility of such proceedings; those who learn grammatical rules by heart and imagine this to be the royal road to success will stop the practice when they clearly see this road to be a cul de sac."

(Palmer, 1917, p.55)

The empirical research, reported on in later chapters, has found that many teachers do not feel that they are on the "royal road to success", but because of perceived requirements and pressures beyond their control maintain the type of approach criticized by Palmer.

Five further factors of linguistic pedagogy, isolated and discussed by Palmer, are the, choice of language to be studied; and, the orientation, extent, degree and manner of the study.

These factors are discussed from psychological and linguistic, not principally from sociological perspectives: that is, reference is made to the linguistic needs of the individual, not the social environment in which the learning takes place.

- i) In discussing which language should be taught, for example, Palmer does not mention vocationally or socially determined preferences, but offers a personal anecdote to support his assertion that it is easier for the student to learn a language which is not cognate with her mother tongue, than one which is lexically and syntactically similar.
- ii) Under the heading, "Orientation", Palmer (1917, p.59) draws our attention to the regional, temporal, social class and stylistic (literary and colloquial) variations

within any one language. He argues that teachers and students must decide towards which of these their work is orientated. Decisions should also be made on which language skills or manifestations the course should aim to develop and emphasize.

While it is useful for prospective teachers in Tasmania to be made aware of the different orientations which foreign-language study can have, it should also be remembered that secondary-level teachers do not work in a social vacuum or enjoy full professional autonomy, but are presented (at Higher School Certificate level) with syllabi, moderation requirements, course-books and Higher School Certificate examinations, which largely determine the orientation of courses and, as this research has discovered, the way that languages are taught also (See Chapter Nine). The theoretical nature of Palmer's discussion may help to explain why, with regard to beginning teachers: "...it is certainly the case that most of the attitude changes induced by college courses are relatively short-lived" (Morrison and McIntyre, 1975, p.76).

- iii) Palmer (1917, pp.66-67) argues that the amount of time devoted to the study of a language should have a bearing on the aim of that programme of study. This logical proposition seems self-evident - a total study period of 261 hours should not aim to develop students' language

skills to the same extent as another programme of 690 hours' duration. Yet, from the perspective of the Tasmanian foreign-language teaching profession, that is precisely what has sometimes in recent years been required (O'Byrne, 1976, p.67; Hill, 1978; See also Chapter Nine).

- iv) The question of the degree of study requires teachers to be aware that: "...Some students wish merely to learn about a language, others wish to assimilate the material of it" (Palmer, 1917, p.67).

In Tasmania the majority of foreign-language teachers are either ignorant of or in disagreement with the aims of their students as far as foreign-language learning is concerned, in the sense that teachers and pupils differed in their ranking, in terms of relative importance of the four language skills.

- v) Palmer offers two axioms for the manner of study, both of which ignore the social dynamics of foreign-language education in schools:

- "1. Let the student determine in advance what is his aim.
- 2. Let the work of the student be directed in accordance with his aim."

(1917, p.69)

The book was written for all who are interested in foreign-language learning and teaching, not just for those who work in a school system. But from the perspective of the trainee foreign-language teacher in Tasmania's education system, his model seems to be that of: "...an 'open school' characterized by

a non-bureaucratic structure, achieved (rather than ascribed) teacher and pupil roles..." (Hoyle, 1977, p.390).

Palmer's conceptual framework for discussion of the study and teaching of languages, therefore, is to some extent alien to that of practising teachers in this state because it ignores many considerations which are significant parts of these teachers' professional experience. For example:

- syllabus prescriptions
- examination and assessment procedures;
- time and room allocation;
- models of foreign-language teacher behaviour available to teachers;
- the availability of information on foreign-language teaching methodology;
- distance from colleagues;
- teacher and community perceptions of foreign-language education (i.e. - should languages be taught only to students of above-average ability?);
- problems of classroom management and student discipline.

1.2 Palmer and Redman.

In 1932 Palmer published with Redman This Language Learning Business. In the Foreword to their book the co-authors express ----- awareness of "totally different environments" in which languages are taught. They feel, however, that a universal, rational, scientific coding of the "problems of linguistic pedagogy" is

necessary to improve international standards of language teaching.

It is entirely acceptable in academic terms to form a general theory for practitioners to adapt to their individual and "totally different" circumstances. But, because these circumstances are so varied from place to place, it is argued here that general or 'grand' theory must be adaptable if it is to be applicable to specific environments. And, as a corollary, teachers need to be trained not only in theories, but also in how to adapt those theories to suit their professional requirements (Cameron and Hannah, 1981, p.65). Where Palmer and Redman's 'codification' may have been easily adaptable to the relatively restricted variety of professional and occupational circumstances of the 1930s, this is no longer the case in the varied foreign-language teaching environment in Tasmania in the 1980s.

Most methodologies provide discussion of specific problems which are experienced universally. Such works should therefore be supplemented by locally relevant material, if they are to be of maximum benefit to the teaching profession. Further research in this area is needed. For example: Palmer and Redman offer an 'ideal language course' on the basis of a lengthy discussion on the nature of language and language learning, but understand that individual teachers may need to make 'considerable modifications' to their programme. However, they devote only one paragraph to this problem (1932, pp.167-168).

1.3 Brooks.

Brooks' Language and Language Learning was first published in 1960, with a second edition in 1964. It was received with great excitement as an authoritative work on the audio-lingual method which was then seen as an important new approach. In the Foreword to the second edition, Brooks (1964, p.viii) explained that in his text attention remained focussed solely on the classroom. Brooks' framework is to provide a foreign-language teaching model based on scientific theories of language and learning; a similar approach to that of Palmer.

In his original Foreword, Brooks (1960) lists the questions which he sets out to answer in the body of his text. These are:

"...What is language?
 What is its role in human life?
 How is it learned?
 How is speech related to writing and how is
 language related to literature?
 What is involved in the learning of a second
 language and how does this differ from the
 learning of the mother tongue?"

(Brooks, 1964, p.xi)

Given their complexity, a single book could only be expected to try to answer these questions in general terms. The first part of the last question is particularly interesting because the limitations of Brooks' perspective are made especially obvious as he neglects to discuss matters such as those listed earlier.

Brooks (1964, pp.68-80) does, however, provide a section on 'Problems facing the teacher', where he deals with practical problems such as the composition of classes, students' 'lack of

unanimity of aims', and lack of integration or continuity within the curriculum.

Unfortunately, the approach to difficulties faced by American foreign-language teachers stops short of suggesting possible ways of solving the problems which are identified. For example, Brooks (1964, p.71) sympathizes with the teacher, who is often helpless in the sense that neither the time, facilities nor responsibility are provided for creating new teaching materials.

Later, however, Brooks' compassion disappears as he points the academic's bone at teachers:

"..it must be admitted that, as a professional group, language teachers have abdicated their position as arbiters of what and how their students shall learn from books and by default have yielded the editorial and critical function in this area to those who print and distribute texts."

(Brooks, 1964, pp.71-72)

It is claimed here that Brooks' criticism is not baseless, but is supported by the confused philosophies of some foreign-language classroom textbook writers (5). The important point that needs to be made is that the Australian teacher, reading Language and Language Learning, is presented with an annotated list of problems which troubled American teachers in the 1950s and 60s, and survive today, but it offered no model for problem solving. Rather, a new way of teaching is presented, with the intention that this be adopted within the constraints provided by areas of difficulty. In view of this the Australian teacher may feel that she is already sufficiently aware of the

professional problems she has to cope with, and may feel frustrated at Brooks' lack of support in this area.

Teachers who suffer noisy classrooms do not need to be told that: "...actuality often does not provide a most precious ingredient for successful language learning: background silence" (Brooks, 1964, p.74). This information is valuable for architects or educational administrators - not for the teacher who is allocated a room without prior or subsequent consultation. Brooks' intention may have been to address his book to education administrators as well as teachers, but from the perspective of the foreign-language teacher in Tasmania, much of the information of the kind discussed above is not very helpful.

In the same vein the question may be asked: to whom is Brooks directing his information that teachers face many kinds of circumstances which restrain them from travelling abroad to improve their language skills (1964, p.75)? If this were addressed to the United States President, as was the case in the "Strength Through Wisdom" report (6), then teachers could hope for some change. But as the book stands, most teachers would feel compelled to ask, "How?", in response to Brooks' (1964, p.75) avuncular solution to their problems: "...Perhaps the most realistic formula for improvement is a very simple and a very possible one: make all as good as the best that can be found".

With this general statement the day-to-day, organizational and occupational problems of the teacher are dismissed. Brooks' concern is not with ameliorating the working conditions of

teachers, but with promoting his particular method. He argues that adoption of his method will result in tremendous improvements within the present, flawed system:

"...With the same body of students now enrolled, the same amount of time in the curriculum, the same corps of teachers with the competence they have, and a new insight into the language teacher's role in classroom learning, an improvement of truly impressive proportions could be attained in a very brief time."

(Brooks, 1964, p.80)

The criticism of foreign-language education in the United States that is reviewed in Chapter Two, suggests that despite the initial enthusiastic response to Brooks' methodology in small groups of educational 'zealots' (7), no improvement of 'truly impressive proportions' has been achieved. This may be because the audio-lingual method was tried and found wanting; it may be because circumstances, ignored by Brooks, prevented the successful adoption of the audio-lingual method by the majority of practising teachers; or it may be due to general satisfaction among teachers with their current approach: that is, a failure to see the need for change (8).

It is reasonable to suggest that Brooks' 'empirical-rational' approach (9) has been based on the false assumptions that teachers in general wanted to change their classroom strategies and could easily transfer theoretical principles into classroom practice.

1.4 Rivers' (1964) Review of the Audio-Lingual Method.

In her text Rivers adopts similar terms of reference to those of Palmer and Brooks. Where Palmer and Brooks discussed the nature of language and language learning, Rivers concentrates on language learning. Even her chapter on, "Some Viewpoints On What Language Is" (1964, pp.23-30) does not discuss 'language events' (Brooks, 1964, pp.2-5) or Palmer's (1917, pp.29-46) grammar, lexicology and morphology, but adopts the psychological perspective as represented by the theories of Skinner, Chomsky, Luria, de Saussure, Mowrer and others.

Rivers' book includes recommendations for the practising teacher (1964, pp.149-163). The boundaries of her approach to this topic are clearly outlined in the opening sentence of the chapter: "...What can the practical teacher take from this intensive study of psychological learning theory and apply to specific problems of foreign-language teaching?" The problems perceived by Rivers do not include organizational or sociological concerns.

This is not to say that teachers are not offered valuable advice, and her recommendations will be considered in the following chapter. What is significant here is that, though Rivers is purportedly writing on the theme of the relationship between certain psychological theories and the work of the foreign-language teacher, she is more directly examining the audio-lingual method of foreign-language teaching in the light of

a number of theories of cognitive processing. The book may have been more accurately entitled, "The Psychologist and the Audio-Lingual Method", as theoretical tenets are discussed, not the views and practices of foreign-language teachers.

1.5 Valette.

Valette's handbook on modern language testing begins with an enthusiastic acknowledgement of improvements in foreign-language teaching in the United States, brought about by new objectives, materials and methods (1967, p.vii). It is assumed that the discussion of new approaches in books and journals has led to the successful adoption of those methods by most American teachers.

Valette's aim is to provide teachers with an assessment handbook so that the language education 'revolution' can be completed. The book is based on the assumptions that foreign-language teachers are unhappy with their current testing procedures and that teachers have control over most aspects of educational evaluation. Thus Valette does not consider such issues as politics and the curriculum or, more specifically, who decides on examination and moderation instruments and procedures (10).

The prefatory statement seems encouraging: "...the book's emphasis, however, is on the classroom situation, theory being introduced only when it has a direct application for the teacher". But the author does not direct her attention to the popular complaint among Tasmanian teachers that moderation tests

and external examinations, over which they have little or no control, largely determine what is taught and which approach is adopted.

The criticism that Valette's frame of reference is too narrow can be countered by arguing that her recommendations and testing models are to be adapted by teachers to suit their professional circumstances. What is significant from the point of view of the practising or beginning foreign-language teacher in Tasmania is that the book offers no help in this adaptation process.

A close examination of the first two paragraphs of the chapter on "Preparing the Test" (Valette, 1967, pp.9-19), in conjunction with the rest of the chapter, reveals the limited usefulness of the book on its own as a preparatory instrument for teachers.

Valette opens her chapter with a statement of the problem she hopes to help solve:

"...All too often tests (and, even more frequently, quizzes) are put together haphazardly shortly before they are to be administered because the teacher is overworked and unable to devote much time or thought to their preparation."

(Valette, 1967, p.9)

The problem is worsened by the perception that:

"...the busy teacher finds even less time to discuss the questions and results with them [the students] systematically."

(Valette, 1967, p.9)

Valette immediately offers two responses to the picture of

foreign-language testing she has painted. The first response is sympathetic but not very constructive: "...Such situations are unfortunate to say the least". The remainder of the book adds credence to the suggestion that Valette's 'statement of the obvious' in this instance reflects her lack of proposed solutions.

The second response is:

"...This chapter will provide suggestions for the establishment of an efficient testing programme that will eliminate the deficiencies described above."

(Valette, 1967, p.9)

It is interesting to list the deficiencies, described by Valette:

- 1) Tests and quizzes are often put together haphazardly.
- 2) Tests are often put together shortly before they are to be administered.
- 3) The teacher is overworked.
- 4) The teacher is unable to devote much time or thought to the preparation of tests.
- 5) The teacher finds even less time to discuss tests with students.

These deficiencies are to be eliminated by the 'establishment of an efficient testing program'. "Common sense" may tell the reader of Valette's book that she only hopes to eliminate the first two deficiencies with her assessment programme. However, all five problem areas are 'described', in Valette's terms, and it is not legalistic, pedantic or silly to expect some sort of positive suggestion in each area, because these problems persist.

It can be argued that Valette's aim is not to eliminate the deficiency of overworked teachers, but to solve the problem of teachers' lack of time for proper test preparation. However, her 'efficient testing program' requires much time to develop. For example, the Item File, where each test item or question is neatly typed and filed, could not be produced in a short period of time - especially as both preparation and assembling of items for tests require careful consideration of the relationship between the questions and objectives of the test.

In fact, few foreign-language teachers in Tasmania have read Valette's book (11), despite its consistent appearance on the Tasmanian university's foreign-language methodology course reading list. Perhaps teachers do not feel they have the time to read methodology texts; perhaps they are intuitively aware of the difficulty of translating theory into practice; and/or, perhaps some teachers in Tasmanian schools and colleges feel far removed from an author who wistfully hopes: "...In a college department, one professor might be given a lighter teaching load in order to construct semester, and perhaps midterm, examinations" (Valette, 1967, p.19). Whatever the case, Valette's Modern Language Testing seems to have made little significant impact on foreign-language teachers in Tasmania.

1.6 Rivers (1968), Teaching Foreign-Language Skills

This work is the most popular foreign-language methodology text among Tasmanian teachers (12).

The perspective from which Rivers approaches the field of foreign-language teaching is similar to the frameworks of texts already discussed; that is, a linguistic and psychological orientation. However, in this work, the tenets, principles and theories are more closely examined within the classroom context:

"...At this stage, some teachers fall into the monotonous pattern of setting a section of reading material for homework every night; they then begin the lesson each day by asking students to translate what they have prepared, sentence by sentence, around the class."

(Rivers, 1968, p.233)

Insights such as this, into what actually happens in some American classrooms, help to bridge the gap between theory and practice. In addition, evidence of Rivers' personal experience as a foreign-language teacher may be seen to make the book more relevant to the practising teacher:

"...When they accept the discipline the method implies, they reach heights of achievement which no teacher using traditional methods would expect of students at that stage."

(1968, p.49)

Teachers are offered advice based not only on theories but also on experience.

Rivers' area of concern is only slightly extended in the second edition of her book (1981) which includes a brief

discussion on "Societal Pressures". The significance of community, parental and student demands is seen to be of crucial importance:

"...The language program, as part of the educational enterprise, must be equally responsive to these pressures as are other areas of study. Because of the many interests and views in a modern pluralist society, some of these pressures may, in the short term, seem contradictory. Yet reponse there must be if the program is to survive and prosper."

(Rivers, 1981, p.13)

It is interesting to note that the United States curriculum is seen as something which is flexible enough, and sufficiently within the teacher's area of control, to be able to respond to contradictory community demands:

"...The thoughtful teacher will recognize a particular need which has become apparent and will adapt the program so that language study remains in step with and contributing to the type of education the community desires."

(1981, p.13)

Thus there remains a substantial gap between Rivers' perspective on foreign-language education and the experiences of many Tasmanian foreign-language teachers (See Chapter Nine).

A brief consideration of Rivers' recommendations, as contrasted with Tasmanian teachers' experiences, with regard to course-books and methodology texts, will help to reveal the extent of this gap and implicitly the need for development of a bridging framework.

Classroom Textbooks: Rivers' (1981, pp.475-476) warning that

inexperienced teachers need to be especially careful in their choice of school textbooks is ostensibly based on the assumption that teachers have the time, information and facilities needed to make a fully-considered, deliberate decision in this matter. In Tasmania, however, many foreign-language teachers have indicated that textbooks are generally not chosen on the basis of a deliberate evaluation of the merits of a number of competing books. Books are often chosen because of: ignorance of much of what else is available; prescriptions or recommendations in Schools Board Syllabi outlines; or, because the school to which the teacher has been sent, has sufficient copies of only one particular textbook (O'Byrne, 1976, p.14; see also Chapter Nine).

Rivers (1981, p.475) states that the importance of the textbook cannot be overestimated because it will inevitably be a major influence on classroom teaching style and the students' out-of-class learning. She acknowledges the significance of choice of textbook and perceives of classroom teaching as largely dominated by the content and structure of such books. Yet at the same time she fails to acknowledge the common situation in foreign-language education in the United States and Australia, where teachers are either: unable to make a careful choice of textbook, without considering such pressures as lack of time or adequate funding or peer group pressure; or, are unmotivated to do so, despite the rational treatises of methodologists.

In view of the high workload of Tasmanian teachers of languages other than English, they should not be expected to

become textbook reviewers as well. Foreign-language teachers are continuously involved in the on-going task of reviewing the courses and materials which they use, but difficulties are experienced when the teacher decides a course is no longer suitable. A decision must be made on replacing the textbook. At this stage the teacher is reliant on the critical reviews, on the wealth of material which can be purchased, of publishers, advertisers, and to a lesser extent, her colleagues.

The most thorough criticism of a particular textbook would necessarily include theoretical and practical considerations. It can be argued that teachers need to be offered incentives to undertake such reviews as the task could involve a substantial amount of research and require great commitment of time and energy. Some may feel, along with Rivers (1981, p.476) and Brooks (1964, p.72), that choice of textbook remains the teacher's responsibility, and that it is up to the individual to read widely enough in linguistic, cognitive development and methodological literature, as well as in published textbooks, to be able to make a fully informed choice in this matter.

What is beyond dispute is that few Tasmanian teachers of languages other than English have read all or even most of the books listed as preliminary, prescribed or reference reading, discussed in this chapter. And few have read methodologies outside this list (See Chapter Nine).

Many Tasmanian teachers who were interviewed expressed frustration at their lack of awareness of published textbook

material, and indicated that lack of time was a major factor in preventing them from studying a wide range of textbooks and classroom materials. In the isolated regions of the state, teachers face the further obstacle of lack of direct availability of alternative classroom and methodological texts.

Pragmatically, Rivers' book does not discuss the fact that most teachers do not read widely in their professional or textbook literature. The recommendation that teachers change their behaviour in this regard seems unlikely to achieve an overwhelming increase in the sale of foreign-language teaching methodology publications.

Rivers' perspective on foreign-language education is very briefly summarized as:

"...The many new directions opened up by research in linguistics and psychology have provided teachers with many new ideas for program development and teaching approaches."

(Rivers, 1981, p.90)

In Tasmania the "new ideas" are only formally available in book or journal form, mainly in the university library, or less formally at inservice seminars. The tyranny of distance is a relevant concept to apply to the information-starved regions of Tasmania. The university library's resources are not available to teachers unless they are enrolled in a course at the University of Tasmania. Teachers who live in Hobart, however, are able to read the available literature within the library building itself. Tasmania's only foreign-language bookshop is also in Hobart, as

is the office of the State Supervisor of Foreign Languages.

The question of distance is one of many possible explanations for the low level of reading in foreign-language methodology. Other factors are discussed in Chapter Nine.

Rivers, despite extending the terms of reference of her first edition to cover recent psychological and methodological theories, has a different understanding of foreign-language education to that of the Tasmanian foreign-language teacher.

The discussion of foreign-language methodology texts so far has revealed the durability and popularity of psychological and linguistics perspectives among authors. The chronological break in the present survey of perspectives adopted by methodologists, necessitated by the appearance of the second edition of Rivers' book, does not weaken this chapter's thesis that teachers have available to them few books which acknowledge the societal, administrative, funding and structural pressures which are an integral part of the teaching experience. Constructive, practicable suggestions in this area are required if the foreign-language education world of methodologists is not to seem alien to the experience of practising teachers.

1.7 Allen and Valette

Allen and Valette's book, Modern Language Classroom Techniques, A Handbook, does not include an analysis of the theories upon which its recommendations and suggestions are based. On the contrary, as a handbook, the work is designed as a

practical source of ideas for teachers. Basically it is a collection of what could be called 'tips for teachers', which are offered without theoretical discussion, though the soundness of most suggestions is evident from theories discussed in other texts examined in this chapter.

Readers are presented with advice and ideas expressed in a variety of ways ranging from suggestion to prescription. Pressures from outside the classroom such as those listed earlier, which have significant effects on what happens within the classroom, are not considered. Thus all problems are to be defined and solved within the conceptual boundaries of the foreign-language classroom situation. For example: "...High attrition rates in foreign languages are an indication that most classes are paced too fast for the average student" (Allen and Valette, 1972 p.5).

It is significant that Allen and Valette do not attempt to explain why so many teachers continue to pace their classes at a rate which ensures general dissatisfaction and failure among students.

1.8 Webb

Webb's book is about the teaching of modern languages in Britain. The difference between the British and the Tasmanian experience of language learning is evident from the beginning. Webb reports that as far as foreign-language education in Britain is concerned: "...most schools now realize the need to have at

least one room set aside for the subject" (Webb, 1974, p.10).

A common complaint among Tasmanian teachers was their failure to acquire a room specifically designed or allocated for foreign-language study (13).

Webb's first chapter is a brief history of the aims and methods of foreign-language teaching which have come and gone in the past. At the end of this chapter he lists three 'qualifying points' which show that he is aware of the complicated interaction between theory and practice in foreign-language education.

To make his first qualifying point, Webb quotes an Incorporated Association of Headmasters report which lists three questions said to be more important than the issue of which method to choose:

"...how well is the teacher prepared for his task? Is he really master of the language? And does he clearly understand that the object of the exercise is to enable his pupils to use the language for their own purposes?"

(Webb, 1974, p.33)

The second qualifying point recognizes that there is no simple, universally right or wrong method. Methods must be adapted to suit various important factors such as a teacher's personality and professional circumstances.

Thirdly, the point is raised that methods 'co-exist': "...and that in practice at any one time various different

methods can be seen in use in a given area, or sometimes indeed even within the same school" (Webb, 1974, p.33). Thus Webb looks at what happens in schools, not only at theoretical principles.

2. FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

Webb's practical orientation to foreign-language education is evident in his examination of the Early Teaching of Modern Languages (ETML) experiment. A sociological perspective was adopted in the sense that the project was discussed in terms of what actually happened in schools and classrooms:

"...While there was no doubt that work of a high standard was going on in some schools, elsewhere the inspectors were particularly worried by the boredom and hostility to the language which they felt was being created by lifeless presentation and an almost entire dependence on mechanical aids.... Two of the main problems to emerge have certainly been adequate provision of staff and liaison with the secondary schools."

(Webb, 1974, p.41)

By considering what actually went on in schools and classrooms organizational problems were revealed which psychology and linguistics theories could not isolate. The limited success of the ETML project did not establish that languages can not or should not be taught in primary schools. Rather, the experiment revealed that future projects need to be more carefully organized and administered.

Unfortunately, reactions to experiments such as this one are often convoluted, twisting the facts so that organizational deficiencies are ignored and failure is seen as unavoidable. Crudely articulated views such as: "You can't teach foreign

languages to primary school children; they tried in Britain and the United States and it didn't work" or "I told you so" (Wringe, 1976, p.44) demonstrate the dangers of not taking into consideration what happened, but looking only at theories and results.

It is interesting to compare Webb's perspective on the question of teaching languages to primary-school-aged children, with the perspectives adopted by Rivers, Wringe and Hawkins.

Rivers (1981, pp.445-462) discusses the conflicting theoretical considerations in deciding on the "Optimal Age" for learning a second language. After presenting various physiological and psychological theories she concludes that young children have some advantages and some disadvantages in comparison with older learners of foreign languages.

In her discussion of the British ETML experiment, Rivers concentrates mainly on the conclusions drawn by Burstall et al. (1974). Rivers accepts that poor teaching and lack of co-operation between primary and secondary school teachers limited the chances of success of the project. However, these considerations are mentioned in passing as the author resumes her theoretical discussion of the optimum age for foreign-language learning.

A practical orientation to balance the approach taken on the question of an optimum age for foreign-language learning is promised by the sub-title, "The Realities" (Rivers, 1981, p.453).

The perception of foreign-language education reality, however, is immediately seen to differ substantially from the Australian experience. Rivers discusses immersion and transitional bilingual programmes, common in Canada, but not in Australia, where bilingual education is in its infancy (Clyne, 1983).

A universal feature of foreign-language education is the lack of teacher control over some important areas of decision making. Rivers (1981, p.455) perceives of the local community as the major decision-making group. Some say is also expected from national governments, but it is felt that the power-position of administrators and community authorities is secure, and that:

"...decisions will generally be made on financial grounds, the most money going to those programs which are viewed as urgent priorities at a particular time." (14)

(Rivers, 1981, p.456)

The problem of little teacher-involvement in decision-making is not discussed, and no solutions are offered. Rather, Rivers begins a new, but related section on the American experiment with Foreign Languages in the Elementary School (FLES).

FLES flourished in the United States about twenty to thirty years ago, but has since waned as local school authorities have attributed priority to other areas: "...In many cases this was due to the persistence of problems foreseen by leaders of the FLES movement but never resolved" (1981, p.457). The problems listed are organizational ones of the kind experienced with the ETML project in Britain. Rivers (1981, p.457) urges that, with the recommendations for a re-birth of language learning in the

United States (15), school districts: "...need not repeat the mistakes of the past". Her solution is couched in general, prescriptive terms. Those mistakes are to be avoided by good planning, good teaching, and securing the support of administrators, students and parents.

In contrast, practical problems, which hindered the successful development of foreign-language programmes in primary schools in Britain, are emphasized by Wringe (1976, p.44-49), who is specific in his criticism of the planning of ETML. Avoidable problems include the situation where students, who had been taught French for some years in primary school, arrived at secondary level to find they were not: "...taught separately at all but in the same classes as the eleven year old beginners" (Wringe, 1976, p.46). The predictable teacher response was to: "...work, consciously or unconsciously, to close the attainment gap by concentrating his attention on those who knew least..." (1976, p. 47). Wringe ignores linguistic and psychological considerations when he states that:

"...many of the 'unfavourable' comments of secondary schools quoted in the report (16) turn merely on the administrative difficulties arising from the fact that some students had studied French for three years on arrival while others had not."

(1976, pp.47-48)

Another significant problem was the inadequate training of the teachers. Many received only a ten-day intensive course in language teaching methods..." (1976, p.48).

Organizational problems in developing a successful programme of foreign-language education in primary schools are also discussed by Hawkins (1981, pp.180-190). A Japanese study is cited, where the same fundamental problems of poor planning and lack of co-operation between primary and secondary sectors was seen as responsible for the failure of the programme:

"...the major obstacle being....lack of co-ordination between the elementary and secondary programs...FLES and nonFLES students integrated in the same classes from the eighth grade on...FLES students must mark time."

(Hawkins, 1981, p.181)

Turning to the British ETML scheme, Hawkins (1981, pp.181-182) says that the scheme was probably the most radical intervention in the curriculum ever attempted by central government. He mentions that the project ran into the 'traditional obstacles' but unfortunately and inexplicably neglects to state what they were in this particular case. Instead, he explains physiological theories of the critical age (17) for beginning second language study.

A distinction is made (1981, pp.187-188) between maturational, or psychological, and environmental factors: "...which might have made children's learning in primary school less effective than learning at secondary level". Five environmental factors of major significance are listed which in summary are:

- i) Primary teachers' lack of knowledge of French.
- ii) The primary teachers lacked language training.

- iii) The primary teachers were using new materials (80% used the audio-visual course En Avant) of which they had had little previous experience.
- iv) Primary teachers had to use the same materials and courses for all pupils, despite wide differences in social and academic background.
- v) "...Time allowed for French in the various schools was an important variable that the NFER (18) evaluation did not control."

The same difficulties were encountered in ETML projects in other countries (Hawkins, 1981, p.189).

It is interesting to note this development in perspective. Recent authors of texts on foreign-language education are beginning to acknowledge the significance of forming a sociological as well as a psychological and linguistic perspective for discussion of professional problems and difficulties.

Further evidence of this development is provided by an examination of researchers' discussions on the issue of homogeneous and heterogeneous groupings.

3. HOMOGENEOUS AND HETEROGENEOUS GROUPINGS

This section of the chapter does not attempt to summarize the major arguments for and against mixed-ability grouping in foreign-language education. Rather, a few pages are devoted, as with the previous section on the early teaching of modern languages, to an outline of the perspectives from which the authors in the present list (19) have approached this important and controversial issue.

The first author to write on this theme, Brooks (1964), does not include the topic in his index. The issue is disposed of in the space of about two pages. Brooks (1964, p.69) offers no in-depth discussion from any definable perspective but presumes that his readers will agree that: "...students, ideally, are those who have the necessary motivation, who are reasonably homogeneous in ability and previous training". He goes on to support the elective or optional status of foreign languages in the curriculum, as that situation provides an effective, automatic screening of students on motivational and ability grounds, which inclusion in the core curriculum would not afford.

Thus Brooks reveals an elitist view of foreign-language education since he supports a system which encourages only the more capable students to study second languages.

As will be seen in the rest of this section, it is sometimes more useful, when discussing the desired ability range of students in a given class, to think in terms of elitist or

egalitarian perspectives, focussing on cognitive development and the socialisation of the individual, rather than the distinctions among sociology, psychology and linguistics, which form the basis of the current discussion in this chapter.

The two frameworks are related - classroom organization which favours intellectual development in some students may be seen to hinder the desired socialisation of others (Wringe, 1976, p.58). Many authors argue that mixed-ability grouping has no significant effect on the academic progress of students of above average intelligence (Reid, 1978, pp.130-132).

Rivers (1968) does not enter into the debate on mixed-ability grouping. Rather, she offers advice for various language teaching situations. No separate section on grouping is included in either edition of her book, but the issue is touched upon in the context of discussion on other aspects of foreign-language education.

Rivers accepts streaming of foreign-language classes, but deplores the retarding effect on students' development of inflexible, uniform assessment procedures:

"...one or two of the streamed groups will advance more rapidly than the others. This can be a laudable pedagogical arrangement. Unfortunately the good effects of such streaming are obviated when the department or the administration insists on the construction of one test for the assessment of all groups."

(1968, p.307)

She is also aware that the problems of the bright, fast-working student and the dull, slow, frustrated student will emerge as the

year progresses (1968, p.379).

Several solutions to this problem are offered which revolve around the central concept of a system of graded objectives and assessments. The structure of this system is spelt out more clearly in the second edition of the book (Rivers, 1981, p.386). Basically, what is involved is a series of specialized tests, designed to establish that students have reached various specified levels of language proficiency (Rivers, 1981, p.386). In other words, progress in language study is not determined by biological age, or even by length of time spent studying the language, but by the achievement of successive grades of communicative skill. This proposal may circumvent the problem of streaming if the individual student determines the pace of her progress and tuition.

To the extent that Rivers considers ways of grouping foreign-language students, she examines the dynamics of interaction among teachers and students, and students and their peers. In short, she adds a sociological dimension to her psycholinguistic perspective on foreign-language education.

Hawkins (1981, pp.169-172) goes slightly further than Rivers and looks at the success and problems experienced by innovators who introduced graded tests in some schools in the United Kingdom. He points out the advantages of such a system of organization of foreign-language learning: students proceed at their own pace; the amorphous goal of linguistic fluency is

reduced to realisable, clearly defined units; students' motivation is increased with tangible evidence of success and progress.

Problems which have been encountered by innovators in this field include neglect of aspects of foreign-language study, such as understanding of the foreign country, which defy assessment by level-of-attainment tests. An organizational difficulty experienced in the United Kingdom is the administration of graded tests simultaneously to all members of a given class or form - thus rejecting the notion of individually-determined pace of tuition, which was, in the United Kingdom, one of the fundamental principles of the exercise.

Hawkins also adopts a sociological perspective in the sense that he considers not the theory, but the effect of theory on the actors, directors and managers of the social drama of the foreign-language classroom.

Webb (1974, pp.165-167) devotes less than three pages to mixed-ability grouping. The problem is regarded as one that is particularly pertinent to foreign-language education. Because of the students' dependence on the teacher as a model speaker of the target language, languages, as subjects in the school curriculum, are seen to lend themselves to child-centred discovery learning. Group work, which is often seen as necessary when teaching foreign languages to heterogeneous classes, is regarded as inefficient as a long-term manner of organizing classwork, as it reduces the time available for interaction between individual

student and teacher, and requires considerable skill at classroom management.

Webb (1974, pp.166-167) concludes that streaming of foreign-language students into homogeneous classes would seem to be to everyone's advantage. His choice is made on the grounds of pedagogical expediency. The second of two aims attributed to the modern British school is sacrificed for the first:

"...Schools are expected to provide the maximum opportunity for varied individual development but at the same time to avoid any segregation by ability or aptitude."

(1974, p.165)

As a parting shot, Webb laments the often poor organization of attempts at mixed-ability teaching.

It is interesting and important to note that again no attempt is made to apply theories of learning and language to this issue. In so far as Webb merely reports his observations and offers only his personal opinion on the question of mixed-ability grouping, his perspective on the issue can be said to be a-theoretical. Heterogeneous grouping is considered and rejected within the current structure of foreign-language education in Britain.

Wringe's (1976, pp.57-60) approach is a much more systematic one. Two grounds are presented for resisting popular pressure to promote mixed-ability grouping. The general perception of modern language learning in Britain is said to hold that it is teacher-centred and cumulative. The argument against

heterogeneous grouping is presented as follows:

"...Progress at any point requires the teacher to make certain assumptions about what the student knows and to introduce new material on the basis of these assumptions. Obviously it is impossible to teach the whole class simultaneously when these assumptions must differ widely for the different pupils present."

(Wringe, 1976, p.58)

On the other hand, arguments for heterogeneous grouping are said to be based on: "...equally valid social and educational priorities" (1976, p.58).

Wringe does not delve into the sociological theories of labelling, peer group pressure, student socialisation and other aspects related to the organization of education (20). However, a sociological perspective is adopted to the extent that "three fairly distinct strategies" among proponents of mixed-ability grouping are isolated.

The first two strategies discussed involve no real departure from homogeneous grouping. In one situation the class is presented with new material, but is then divided into sub-groups which are taught according to their perceived levels of ability. Another strategy involves the categorization of students, within the one class, into sub-groups. Wringe shows his awareness of sociological theory in the sense that pupils tend to behave according to the social labels by which they are identified (Reid, 1978, p.105):

"...The social evils of labelling and grading are preserved, if not actually accentuated, while the time available for effective

contact teaching is divided by four or five, depending on the number of groups into which the class is divided."

(Wringe, 1976, p.59)

The third strategy, and the only one acceptable to Wringe, is the individualisation of instruction, involving graded materials and tests. Awareness of sociological theory is seen to guide the author's choice of strategy.

While Wringe (1976) clearly supports the arguments favouring effective mixed-ability grouping, he is able to resist the temptation to present his opinion as a blanket recommendation. Instead, the difficulties for the average teacher in forming and working with heterogeneous groups are acknowledged and seen to be of paramount importance:

"...there may be situations in which the average language teacher cannot provide a satisfactory educational experience either for the less able or for classes of mixed ability. Where this is seen to be the case there would seem to be no alternative but to discontinue the experiment. Not to do so would be grossly unfair to both teachers and pupils."

(1976, p.122)

And so Wringe looks at what happens in some schools and cites sociological theory to support his contention on the issue.

The only author in the list to deal exclusively with the question of grouping in foreign-language education is Varnava (1975). The question of mixed-ability grouping is seen to be particularly relevant to modern language teaching because of the elitist label and function of languages in the curriculum:

"...Modern Languages have served as a convenient but misleading point of reference in the assessment and placing of pupils. To lose this function, Modern Languages must discard their specialist image..."

(1975, p.2)

Where other authors point out the practical problems associated with mixed-ability grouping, Varnava lists the deficiencies of the "streamed" situation. These include: the rapid development of a 'sink' of low-ability students who are difficult to keep under control and teach; the establishment of a reifying low expectancy level for low-ability groups; the inaccurate allocation of students to streams; and, the social bias in streaming (1975, p.3 and p.14).

Varnava's case for mixed-ability teaching is based on an appreciation of the deficiencies of streaming, whether overtly or covertly done. While homogeneous grouping is seen as unsatisfactory, the successful implementation of a mixed-ability scheme is seen as contingent on careful classroom management and:

"...no less than a transformation of teaching techniques and a complete reappraisal of objectives. A positive attitude towards equal opportunity in education, and the determination to encourage the development of individual aptitudes are prerequisite."

(1975, p.19)

In addition, adequate provision should be made for the in-service training, and preparation of syllabuses, teaching materials and new testing procedures, which will be required prior to the change from homogeneous to heterogeneous grouping.

Varnava, a strong supporter of mixed-ability teaching, does

not propose that teachers in a traditional situation accept his views and attempt to implement them within the limitations of their current occupational structures. The changes that are involved are seen to go beyond the classroom, and require the support of students, teachers and headmasters - a fundamental principle stressed time and again in the theory of educational innovation (21).

4. CONCLUSIONS

Some of the authors (eg. Brooks, 1964; Webb, 1974) reflect elitist, some (eg. Varnava, 1975, Wringe, 1976) egalitarian views on foreign-language education. Interestingly, no empirical research on the relationship between grouping and academic achievement are cited. Varnava (1975, p.20) estimates that mixed-ability groups advance at only an insignificantly slower rate than upper streams in a traditional situation.

The issue is uniformly regarded within the research and related literature as one on which sociological, not psychological or linguistics theories should be mainly brought to bear. Practical problems faced by teachers are not ignored but used as a fulcrum from which to raise the suggestion of a new approach to the organization of foreign-language education mixed-ability grouping, incorporating the individualisation of learning.

The classification of students and knowledge in foreign-language education is not mentioned in the older books in our list. From 1960 onwards, the topic is merely touched upon

(22) by authors who were confronted with a controversial topic which cannot be adequately discussed within the scope of their psychological and linguistics perspectives. The future may see methodologists paying more careful attention to the sociology of foreign-language education, and accepting that theories, which can be supported by empirical experimentation in controlled environments, may not be applicable to the professional circumstances in which foreign-language teachers have to work.

Wringe, Rivers, Hawkins and Webb isolate practical problems which have prevented or destroyed the chances of survival of innovatory projects in foreign-language education. In order to consider these problems, the authors have had to examine implementation procedures, group interaction, decision-making power in education, and group and individual perceptions of professional responsibilities.

The adoption of the sociological perspective on foreign-language education by some researchers is a recent development dating from about 1974 in the methodological literature provided for Tasmanian teachers, and in general in all the key texts on foreign-language teaching methodology. Many administrators have also ignored this way of considering practical, professional and implementation difficulties. Wringe (1976, p.44), for instance, laments the reaction to the Burstall report of some local authorities in England. Reading only the summarized conclusions, and ignoring the body of the report which urges careful interpretation of those conclusions, some

authorities have ironically diminished or abolished the very areas of support which led to micro-level successes in some cases:

"...In some areas, though the teaching of French in primary schools continues, provision for local in-service training has been cut and the employment of some established and dedicated part-time peripatetic teachers brought to an end. In other areas the teaching of French in primary schools, even where successful, risks being abandoned, apparently with little consultation with secondary schools which have invested considerable sums in the purchase of En Avant materials suitable for

pupils arriving at eleven with three years of French behind them."

(Wringe, 1976, p.44)

It is to be hoped that these early identifications of problems may lead to action in the future, but there are a number of factors which are at present inhibiting such a development.

- i) The first problem area is the lack of guidance from foreign-language educationists (23). As has been noted in this chapter, until the 1970s, books on modern language teaching ignored many social factors which influence foreign-language teaching. Consequently, books were written for an audience in many ways quite different from the foreign-language teaching profession in Tasmania, where many teachers feel they have little control over the choice of aim, method, materials, time allocation and room allocation.

The 1970s saw the identification of some of these

problems in the texts in our list, but the problems were not extensively discussed. Foreign-language educationists are likely to achieve little success if they are to be seen as hostile to school or local authority administrators. Demands that organizational mistakes of the past not be repeated may serve to further alienate educational bureaucracies from the foreign-language cause. On the other hand, it is unlikely that the problems will be solved if they are not openly discussed. As has been seen in this review of twelve modern language teaching methodology texts, published from 1917 onwards, silence on many practical and organizational matters of sociological interest has not caused the problems to disappear, but has allowed them to survive and prevent, for example, the successful implementation of primary school French projects in Britain, the United States and, indeed, Tasmania (O'Byrne, 1976, p.47 and p.80).

- ii) The second problem area is educational bureaucratic inertia, that is, resistance to change on the basis of acceptance of the status quo. This phenomenon appears not only in the United States, and Britain, where administrators were seen to reduce or withdraw their support for some foreign-language programmes despite the fact that those programmes had in part failed largely as a consequence of inadequate administrative support, but also in Australia. Clyne (1982, p.124) cites the case

where thousands of Australians petitioned the New South Wales and Victorian governments about inaction on the recommendations of the 1976 report of the Committee on the Teaching of Migrant Languages in Schools.

In Tasmania, the extensively researched FLTGS report was summarily dismissed in the scope of two pages by the State Education Department (24). Two subsequent, brief articles on the report appeared later in the *Tasmanian Teacher* (25), but nothing else was produced in published or departmental circular form. This is a sad result for the efforts of the committee members who had every reason to expect some worthwhile response to their work, especially as the commissioning of the report began with a statement from the 1972 Tasmanian Director-General of Education (26).

There have been many exciting developments in the provision of services and materials for foreign-language teachers and students. For example, \$15 million annually was spent in the United States between 1958 and 1972 to provide schools with language laboratories and soft-ware for audio-visual courses (Triffitt et al., 1976, p.8). Webb (1974, p.129 and p.179) applauded the British in-service teacher training scheme: "...involving one term post-to-post exchanges with France and Germany...". In Tasmania, the profession has been provided with the services of a Supervisor of Foreign Languages to assist in the implementation of modern methodology and to co-ordinate professional activities. The appointment has continued since

1968. The current Supervisor keeps foreign-language teachers informed of professional developments and visits schools on the invitation of the individual teacher. While this and his other duties are perceived as valuable by the profession in Tasmania, many issues of great importance, such as the issues of time allocation, moderation tests, external examinations are beyond his area of control.

It is therefore untrue that educational bureaucracies around the world have consistently and doggedly opposed innovation in the foreign-language area. On the contrary, from time to time funds have been lavishly outlaid on equipment. Witness, for example, the superb language laboratories in some community colleges and in the University of Tasmania.

Administrators in Tasmania have been more reluctant to furnish the profession with equally important, but less tangible requirements, such as a moderation instrument which respects the wide variation in time provided for foreign-language study in individual schools (O'Byrne, 1976, p.43 and p.69).

Finally, the intention has not been to imply that there has been a dramatic change in the thematic concerns of texts written on modern language teaching. The 1970s texts, discussed in this chapter, which do introduce a sociological perspective, do so only partially. The minimal extension of Rivers' framework has already been mentioned (27), and Webb's chapter entitled, "Beyond the Classroom" (1974, pp.118-137) does not discuss the concerns of the present study, but describes the organization of school

trips abroad.

Hornsey (1975, p.x) feels that authors such as Rivers are too vague in their writing about practical teaching problems. To avoid this trap, copious examples are given when offering advice on teaching foreign-language skills. But no attempt is made to avoid being vague, or, more precisely, silent, on the practical teaching problems identified in the present study.

Before the 1970s, many methodologists such as: Palmer (1917), Redman (1932) and Brooks (1964) were interested in presenting language teachers with a complete theoretical system or scientific code. From the perspective of the sociology of education, and often from the perspective of the trainee and practising teacher, Mill's criticism of Parson's The Social System can be applied to these and many other methodologists: -----
 "...What is 'systematic' about this particular grand theory is the way it outruns any specific and empirical problem" (Mills, 1977, p.58).

Some have focussed on the foreign-language classroom (eg. Brooks, 1964; Valette, 1967). They did not consider the powerful influences on teaching style which are revealed by the adoption of a symbolic interactionist perspective (See, for example, Delamont, 1976) (28). For this reason foreign-language teachers who work in classrooms experience a range of pressures and influences for which their reading of methodology has left them unprepared.

While the contribution of the psycholinguistic perspective on foreign-language education has greatly increased our awareness of how languages should be taught, consideration should also be given to circumstances within and outside the classroom, which are largely beyond the teacher's control, but which profoundly impinge on teacher autonomy. Foreign-language educationists need to pay attention to sociological theories on such areas as teacher socialisation and educational innovation because, as we noted in the last chapter, teachers do not work in a social vacuum. Societal, administrative, funding and structural pressures should be acknowledged by theorists if their understanding of educational reality is to resemble more closely that of the majority of teachers.

With regard to foreign-language teaching in Tasmania, the present chapter has shown, in summary:

- that the theoretical preparation of foreign-language teachers almost entirely excludes a sociological perspective;
- that where the beginnings of some sociological insight into foreign-language education has been included, the comments are very valuable because they point to important factors which can not be explained by reference to psychology or linguistics;
- the (necessary) use of non-Australian texts has furthered the gap between theory and practice in foreign-language education in Tasmania where many

teachers experience powerful pressures which theorists rarely acknowledge.

An inherent difficulty in introducing a sociological dimension to the study of teaching, that is, an approach which considers social influences on teaching, is the fact that social environments differ. This means that universally relevant sociological theory, such as that discussed in Chapter Three, must be supplemented with discussion of locally important issues. In Chapters Eight and Nine it is noted that parochial considerations in Tasmania are of crucial importance with regard to innovation in foreign-language education. Currently these problems of local importance are allowed to persist by the State Education Department, while the main thrust of the pre-service course remains focussed on theory which is addressed to a universal audience.

Before turning to the quantitative and qualitative data which have been gathered on the Tasmanian factors which effectively prevent the large-scale implementation of the theoretical tenets presented in the books discussed in this chapter, it is necessary to explain what these tenets are. That is the purpose of Chapter Five.

REFERENCES

- (1) The findings of this and other sections of the questionnaire are discussed in later chapters.
- (2) Feminine pronouns are used for foreign-language teachers because 72.9 per cent (86) of respondents to the empirical survey were female.
- (3) Fifteen to sixteen year-old age-group.
- (4) See, for example, the AFMLTA submission to the Senate Standing Committee on Education and the Arts (Ingram, 1982, p.14 and p.17).
- (5) See, for example, Stilman, Stilman and Harkins' confused approach (1972, p.v).
- (6) This very interesting report is briefly discussed in Chapter Two.
- (7) This term is taken from Rivers (1964, p.10).
- (8) The value of the audio-lingual approach was severely challenged by the Pennsylvania Foreign Language Project which reaffirmed support for the cognitive or 'traditional' approach (Smith, 1970, pp.164-166).
- (9) For discussion of this approach see Cameron and Hannah (1981, p.65).
- (10) Cf. Eggleston (1977, pp.123-124).
- (11) Thirty-three point one per cent (39) of the study population indicated that they had read Valette's handbook.
- (12) The book has been read by 44.1 per cent (52) of the study population.
- (13) See Chapter Nine for further discussion of this complaint.

(14) Cf. the similar situation in Australia:

"...Unfortunately, policy making must largely be made independently of educational research in general."
(McCallum, 1972, p.297)

(15) "Strength Through Wisdom" report of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies.

(16) Burstall et al. (1974).

(17) Cf. Rivers' "optimal age".

(18) National Foundation for Educational Research.

(19) The books are listed at the beginning of the chapter.

(20) For definitions and discussion of these terms see Worsley (1978).

(21) For discussion of this principle see: Whiteside (1978, p.50); Rodwell, (1982, p.8); Hoyle (1977, pp. 385-386); Shipman (1975, p.165).

(22) With the exception of Varnava (1975), who devotes his entire, if short and unreferenced, text to the issue.

(23) The term "foreign-language educationist" is necessary to distinguish those authors who are concerned with all aspects of foreign-language education, from those who are interested only in method, whether in pure or applied form, called "foreign-language methodologists".

(24) This incident is briefly discussed in Chapter Two, p.75.

(25) Triffitt, G.B. (1977), "The Scott Committee's Report: Some Critical Observations", The Tasmanian Teacher, Vol. 27, November, pp.6-7.

Scott, J.G. (1978), "The Scott Committee's Report", The Tasmanian Teacher, Vol. 28, February, p.3.

- (26) See FLTGS, Appendix A, for a copy of the Director-General's statement.
- (27) It is hoped that further extensions will include greater sociological insight.
- (28) The symbolic interactionist seeks to understand individuals' perceptions and reactions to social events such as teaching in a classroom situation (Reid, 1978, pp.13-14).

CHAPTER FIVE

METHODS OF FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING.

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the methodological recommendations in the literature prescribed for trainee foreign-language teachers at the University of Tasmania. It does this because it is important to understand whether this methodology is on the whole cognitive or communicative. In this context several points will be raised about the nature of the recommendations.

Firstly, the authors in the list clearly identify communicative proficiency, particularly in the spoken or conversational form, as the main aim of foreign-language education, though it is acknowledged that some students may wish to study languages for specialist, vocational purposes. Secondly, there is a consensus among these authors that the best way of achieving this aim is to encourage students to use the target language as much as possible.

Thirdly, the authors' perceptions of language teaching in the United States and the United Kingdom (for there are no Australian texts in the list) will reveal the domination of approaches which emphasise a conscious understanding of grammar rules; the rote learning of vocabulary; and, the use of the mother tongue for foreign-language instruction (1). Methodologists present a variety of approaches to replace grammar-based teaching. The nature of some of these programmes

will be outlined in response to the often-expressed ignorance of communicative/activist methods (eg. O'Kelly, 1982) (2).

1. AIMS

Palmer (1917, p.71) listed the four aims of the foreign-language student in point form:

- "...(a) The understanding of the language as spoken by natives.
- (b) The understanding of the language as written by natives.
- (c) The speaking of the language as spoken by natives.
- (d) The writing of the language as written by natives."

The repetition of the phrases: "as written by natives" and "as spoken by natives" reflects Palmer's uncompromising objective of fluency. His obduracy in this regard is evident elsewhere in the book:

"...We would urge that the factor of error should never be allowed to gain any footing at all. All errors other than those made by native speakers are abnormalities and the results of a faulty method."

(1917, p.119)

Proponents of this view are severely taken to task in the FLTGS report (1976, pp.22-23), where it is argued that to aim for native-like fluency in foreign-language education demands aims for similarly high and generally unattainable levels in all other areas of the curriculum (3).

It can be argued that this view is unrealistic and outdated but his aims are similar to the more recent authors listed in that he sees a utilitarian or communicative purpose for foreign-language education. There is no discussion of "disciplining the mind" or "strengthening moral fibre" - not

uncommon nineteenth century objectives (Webb, 1974, p.14; Chastain, 1971, p.12).

The 1932 text, which Palmer co-authored with Redman, shows no relaxation of the rigid standards, so firmly expressed in 1917. The authors consider a letter from an imaginary headmaster who argues that because only twenty per cent of his pupils require "efficiency in French", the development of such efficiency is not a primary concern (1932, p.135). Palmer and Redman, however, are not swayed from their position of teaching a language "properly", that is, with the objective of native-like fluency in mind.

The imagined correspondence between the headmaster and Palmer and Redman must be seen in the context in which it is presented in the book. The authors see themselves as protagonists of new methods which aim to impart communicative proficiency; the headmaster is appreciative of this for his better students, but for the majority he favours the old method of grammar and translation for non-communicative ends:

"...translation methods are going to increase their knowledge of, and capacity to use effectively, their own language, which is a necessity for them all. I know also that grammar methods are going to give them a training in logical classification,..."

(1932, p.135)

Thus a distinction can be made between communicative and cognitive aims. The two types of objective are not mutually exclusive, but as differences in nothing but emphasis form the

basis of contrasting philosophies of and approaches to language education.

Brooks (1964, p.107) makes a broad distinction between the two types of objective of the language course. For Brooks, learning a new language means bilingual learning "in terms of itself", that is, the ultimate objective of native or near-native fluency. The cognitive aim is not regarded as suitable for "an authentic course of language study", but limits the learner:

"...to the results of a compound system, in which the mother tongue is never relinquished. Language symbols are "decoded" from one system to another, and comprehension, meaning, and value are all in terms of the student's first language. In a word, he never leaves home."

(1964, p.107)

Considering aims more specifically, Brooks (1964, pp.108-110) isolates four "false short-range objectives", which are:

- i) the knowing of an indefinite number of words in the new language, acquired by means of bilingual vocabulary lists. Brooks points out that:

"...the knowledge of words alone is nil without an adequate control of structure to fit them into discourse."

(1964, p.109)

- ii) the aim to finish the book. The type of book intended here is the traditional text-book of grammatical analysis, paradigms and exercises. Brooks argues that grammar books represent language in an artificial manner, because:

"...No such neat separation of forms, no such logical progression from one thing to another, is to be found in language in action."

(1964, p.109)

iii) high scores on standardized tests. The problem here is that students may be coached for a test to the detriment of their language learning.

iv) translation, an activity which is too difficult for the beginner, and which quickly changes a co-ordinate system of two languages to a compound system. The co-ordinate system, proposed by Brooks, is one where:

"...not only the overt patterns of behaviour that characterize the new language, but also the mental processes that accompany it, shall have equal status with the mother tongue, yet be entirely separate from it."

In the compound system:

"... some features of the new language are learned, yet for the most part, and especially with respect to the internalized processes, the mother tongue is not relinquished, but continues to accompany - and of course to dominate - the whole complex fabric of language behaviour."

(1964, p. 49)

For Brooks (1964, pp.110-111), legitimate short-range objectives are the development of comprehension, speaking, reading and writing skills. Long-range objectives include the appreciation of literature, cultural understanding and tolerance, and insight into the role of language in the "functioning of the human mind" (1964, p.112). A discussion of aims and objectives reveals a number of levels on which goals for language education are stated. These can be defined by consideration of a number of different professional environments in which the teacher finds

herself. In the classroom, her immediate goals may be to inculcate certain skills in the students before her. In the staffroom, the teacher may explain her particular approach in terms of perceived requirements of syllabus outlines, assessment instruments and procedures or adequate preparation for matriculation. At professional association meetings, where the foreign-language teacher may feel secure in the knowledge that she has a sympathetic audience, aims may be expressed on the grander level of the benefits of language study for the intellectual, moral and affective development of the individual, and perhaps the well-being of the country and international relations.

Teachers, educationists and methodologists, who disagree on one level, may agree on another. In foreign-language education the problem of comparing and contrasting aims is largely solved by the distinction between what may be called cognitive and communicative aims.

Rivers (1964, p.8) makes no value-judgements on the priority of objectives in foreign-language learning because preferences in this regard "...are not examinable in relation to psychological learning theory." She does, however, list the major aims of the audio-lingual method, because these objectives, and the principles and corollaries derived from them, form the subject matter of her book. Briefly, the objectives are proficiency in the four language-skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, and also that the student will gain:

"...familiarity with the culture the language represents, as well as a larger view of life resulting from the realization that there are many cultures and value systems,..."

(Rivers, 1964, p.13)

The ultimate aim of foreign-language study rests in part on the moral value of promoting intercultural communication, understanding and tolerance. This aim was not just one held concurrently by methodologists. On the contrary, proponents of the audio-lingual method enjoyed much consensus of opinion on matters pertinent to foreign-language education:

"...An analysis of these sources shows a remarkable degree of concurrence, indicating that the leaders of the audio-lingual movement have a very clear idea of the objectives, principles, and procedures which they jointly advocate."

(Rivers, 1964, p.12)

Valette's (1967) Handbook on Modern Language Testing reflects this consensus in its list of long-range objectives, which are to:

"...enable the student to enjoy the literature written in the target language, to appreciate the culture of the target country, and especially to converse freely with its people."

(Valette, 1967, p.4)

It should be noted that the aim of communication, particularly in spoken form, is given priority. The debate about the relative place of language and literature in foreign-language education has been discussed in Chapter Two. Thus, while disagreements among protagonists of the audio-lingual method are not uncommon, the main aim of language use and communicative

proficiency remains unchallenged.

Rivers (1981, p.8) identifies five aims which are particularly relevant for the student in the modern secondary school or college. These are all subservient to the grand objective of the ability to: "...communicate readily with people who speak other languages and to understand sympathetically as well as intellectually, their ways of thinking and reacting" (Rivers, 1981 p.11).

She appreciates that teachers will select objectives or place varying amounts of emphasis on each objective, according to their individual professional circumstances; and understands, for example, that some students are interested only in specific courses with specific aims, and respects the wishes of students in this regard.

It is not true, however, that Rivers (1981, p.8) reveals no preference for some aims over others. On the contrary, she feels that the following five aims serve the grand goal of "effective communication":

- i) an increased understanding of the nature of language;
- ii) proficiency at reading a foreign language;
- iii) giving students the experience of expressing themselves within a foreign framework;
- iv) cross-cultural tolerance;
- v) cross-cultural communication.

The practically orientated handbook of Allen and Valette

(1972, p.3) offers three criteria for the measurement of success or failure of a language programme: students' progress in language acquisition; cultural understanding; and, the development of a positive attitude toward foreign-language learning. While it is professionally introverted to argue that foreign languages should be taught for the purposes of having students enjoy foreign-language study, it is laudable to develop a method of language teaching which will ensure that students enjoy this part of their academic experience.

Allen and Valette's consideration of aims is expressed in terms of the evaluation of foreign-language courses. Such evaluation must include judgement on the appropriateness of the course's objectives, and on the extent to which those goals have been realized.

It is proposed that an additional criterion of success is the retention rate of students from one section of a programme to another. This criterion should be considered carefully, especially if it is used to support claims about the relative popularity of subjects in a curriculum where some subjects are optional and others are part of the "core". Neither should the role of social pressures, such as egalitarianism, xenophobia, and vocationalism be ignored in this regard (Triffitt et al., 1976, pp.12-42).

Thus the proposition that low retention rates are a reflection of the failure of a given course needs careful examination. Lack of interest may be due to popular

misconceptions rather than any deficiencies in course design or procedure (Musgrave, 1975, p.195). Nevertheless, among foreign-language methodologists the consensus has been that low enrolment and retention rates reflect the failure of schools to develop in students the ability to communicate in foreign languages (Rassias, 1972; Luxenberg, 1978).

Webb (1974, pp.13-17) discusses aims in foreign-language education from an historical perspective. He does not argue for one or other particular objective, but isolates communication as the most modern aim to be promoted within the profession. The aim of communication is defined widely and is seen to incorporate the objectives of mental training, cultural understanding, insight into the mother tongue and international tolerance, as well as providing some pupils with a useful vocational tool, and nations with an invaluable human resource.

Hornsey (1975) is committed to the imparting of generative skills so that students will learn to generate their own foreign-language structures and thereby achieve communication skills as efficiently as possible.

Some might have expected that Varnava (1975) who is primarily concerned with foreign languages being taught across the ability range would reject communication as an aim which is unrealistically high for slow learners. But any notion of intellectual or social elitism with regard to language study is

destroyed by Varnava's commitment to providing a successful language learning experience, where all students are helped to acquire and practise: "...an alternative means of communication" (1975, p.7).

Wringe (1976, p.13) also identifies communication as the main aim of language learning. He refers to the work of transformational-generative grammarians, in his criticism of the audio-lingual principle that language learning is purely habit formation. For Wringe:

"...our aim is to equip students with the ability to generate utterances of their own in a language, rather than simply to supply them with a finite stock of situation-specific responses."

(1976, p.13)

The objective of communication is implicitly accepted by him in the discussion of the best way to achieve this aim.

Hawkins (1981, pp.27-60) discusses the benefits of foreign-language education in a very interesting chapter entitled: "Why a foreign language for all?". Several objectives are presented, all of which combine to achieve the central aim of communication. The ability to communicate in a foreign tongue will give the opportunity for insight into other ways of thought, other cultures, and enrich the student's understanding of language itself. Benefits are seen in terms of the student gaining enough proficiency in the target language to be able to use it effectively for her own purposes.

This is not to say that Hawkins' aim is to produce

bilinguals. On the contrary, he distinguishes between 'instruction in a skill' and 'education'. Foreign-language learning is not without value until absolute proficiency is achieved, but the learning experience itself is valuable as it:

"...can offer the pupil an experience different from that of the mother tongue and so contribute to an understanding of the polyglot world, and emancipate the learner from parochialism."

(Hawkins, 1981, p.32)

The achievement of foreign-language proficiency in terms of its beneficial effect on cognitive processes is still regarded as one of the many values of language learning (1981, p.56). Ultimately, however, the aim is not to develop students' intellectual prowess, but to foster communication and understanding between people of different linguistic, social, political and cultural backgrounds.

It should be clear from what has been said that in terms of the prescribed texts to which they are exposed the Modern Languages students at the University of Tasmania are presented with a single, fundamental aim for foreign-language education: communication. Other objectives, such as clarification of insight into the mother tongue, and benefits such as improved trading and diplomatic relations with other countries, and direct access to a foreign literature are seen as additional but second-order reasons for studying foreign-languages; benefits which accrue with the development of communication skills.

How then do the authors of these basic texts advise their

readers to teach in accordance with this aim?

"...The arguments in favour of a foreign language which are set out above are valid only if the language is taught in such a way that these advantages do in fact accrue: if the language is so presented that the student does in fact learn to communicate and to apprehend meaning directly in reading, if he is in fact guided into an understanding of the culture of the speakers of the language, and if he is taught how to learn a language efficiently."

(Rivers, 1968, p.26)

2. METHODS: THE THEORY

Introduction:

It can be argued that twentieth century theorists generally agree on the main aims of foreign-language learning. However no such consensus can be found in their methodological recommendations. Some authors present a unique formula for the teaching of foreign languages, (4) but even with writers who present a clearly definable approach which is largely attributable to them alone, certain common methodological principles are evident.

Before undertaking a discussion of the methodological principles in the literature prescribed for the only current pre-service course designed specifically for Tasmanian teachers of languages other than English, it is necessary to make two explanatory points.

The first is an elaboration of the assertion made in Chapter Two about the inadequacy of the term "method". Teachers are no longer encouraged to accept the tenets of one particular, easily

definable method. That approach was evident with Brooks' (1964) treatise on the audio-lingual method where a way of teaching or pedagogic code was explained and prescribed. Other authors appreciated the folly of thinking in terms such as methods, because they cover conceptual areas which are often too large for purposes of discussion and debate (5).

In recent times this development is most clearly revealed in, and was no doubt accelerated by, Rivers' (1964) critical analysis of the theory of the audio-lingual method. Rivers reduced the concept "method" to a collection of more manageable tools which she called principles and corollaries. It is now easier to agree with some principles of a given method, and disagree with others. The ambiguity of the term "method" was illustrated by Wringe (1976, p.121):

"...it is possible, even leaving aside the difference between "good" and "bad" courses themselves, to identify a number of quite different audio-visual teaching styles."

The second point that should be emphasized is one which most authors require their readers to keep in mind when following debate on methodological matters. This is the perception that any expert teacher who is committed to a given set of principles and procedures, that is, a method, may be entirely successful in achieving the objectives of that approach. Modern foreign-language educationists seem keen to avoid the role of the prescriptive theorist and adopt the new role of supplier of valuable comparative, theoretical and historical information.

Rivers (1968, p.50), for example, appreciates that: "...the effectiveness of any method in a particular situation is a function of the actual classroom performance of the individual teacher". Allen and Valette (1972, p.11) point out that materials designed for one approach can be used effectively in a manner for which they were not intended:

"...It is possible to take an out-of-print traditional book of the 1930s and with the aid of homemade visuals teach a course stressing conversation and an inductive approach to grammar."

Formalists and Activists: While Rivers acknowledges the need

for teachers to adapt rather than adopt theoretical precepts, and accepts that successful teachers employ many different approaches, she does not discuss methods from a value-free perspective. On the contrary, methods and their proponents are classified as formalists and activists, her professional support being reserved for the latter.

Rivers' classification is useful since it encapsulates the basic difference between the two kinds of foreign-language teaching methods proposed since the Renaissance:

"...Formalists have mostly relied on a

deductive form of teaching, moving from the statement of the rule to its application in the example; activists have advocated the

apprehension of a generalization by the student himself after he has heard and used certain forms in a number of ways - a process of inductive learning."

(Rivers, 1968, p.12)

Rivers (1968, p.12) asserts that formalist teaching which

has often been based on artificial exercises (6) usually leads to a stilted use of language, and goes on to describe the epitome of all formalist approaches, the "grammar-translation" method. The two arguments presented in favour of the method are that it achieves its objectives with highly intelligent students, and that it is not too demanding of the teacher (1968, p.17). The disadvantages, however, are much more numerous:

"...The grammar-translation method is not successful, however, with the less intellectual (7), who muddle through, making many mistakes over and over again and thus building up cumulative habits of inaccuracy which are difficult to eradicate at a more advanced stage."

As a result:

"...Such students find foreign-language study very tedious and they drop out of the class as soon as this is permitted."

(Rivers, 1968, p.17)

Other problems may include:

- i) too little emphasis on accurate pronunciation and intonation;
- ii) neglecting of communication skills;
- iii) much stress on knowing rules and exceptions to rules, but little active use of the target language to express one's own meaning;
- iv) students are often trained in artificial forms of language of a literary and esoteric type;
- v) the average student is faced with the monotonous chores of: vocabulary learning, translation and endless written exercises. Her role is a passive one (Rivers, 1968,

pp.17-18).

Rivers also discusses other methods and none of these escapes criticism. The main defect of the direct method, for example, was that students were made to use the target language too early, and in unstructured situations (1968, p.20). The warning was voiced that: "...Students trained audio-lingually, in a mechanical way, can progress like well-trained parrots:..." (1968, p.46). However, it is evident that in Rivers' view the audio-lingual method can be employed with success for all students, while the same is not claimed for the grammar-translation and the direct method:

"...The less gifted student also seems to profit more from this method than from more traditional methods. This type of student finds it hard to cope with the abstractions of the grammar-translation method and is often left behind by students of higher intelligence in the direct method, where he must acquire the meanings of words and the functioning of structural patterns inductively with very few props to help him."

(1968, p.48)

2.1 The Place of Grammar

Central to any discussion on how to teach foreign languages is the question of the place of grammar. As Rivers maintains in the second edition of her book:

"...As soon as the fundamental question of the role of grammar is raised in language-teaching circles, the discussion becomes animated, even heated, and, before the discussion has finished, at least some of the participants are likely to have taken up rigid and uncompromising positions."

(Rivers, 1981, p.63)

Far from adopting the polar stance of arguing bluntly that "grammar should not be taught", Rivers looks at the work of modern grammarians who consider the spoken as well as the written form of language (eg. Palmer, 1972), and others, like Chomsky (1965), who propose a transformational-generative view of grammar in which the student must acquire understanding of a set of possible structural rules within which she can generate an infinite number of acceptable linguistic transformations. Fundamental to the discussion of the role of grammar in language education are the issues of what is meant by grammar, and whether grammar rules should be acquired consciously or sub-consciously. Rivers supports the latter view and presents the objective that:

"...students acquire the grammar of the foreign language so that it functions for them as does the grammar of their native language - as a flexible vehicle of meaning which they do not even realize they are using."

(Rivers, 1968, p.71)

This is not to argue that students be required to memorize phrases and sentences without an understanding of the patterns involved. Rivers (1964, pp.152-153) envisaged that this information would be supplied by the student, who has inductively absorbed the generalization or linguistic pattern while using the structures in a variety of teacher-controlled situations. The inductive acquisition of grammatical pattern through language use was a major tenet of the audio-lingual method.

Hawkins (1981, p.245) feels that teachers should develop "insight into pattern" as well as providing frequent situations

where the student is encouraged to use the target language to express personal meanings. In this regard, Hawkins wants the best of both worlds, because the original argument for the value of the foreign-language expression of personal meanings was that this would attract attention away from the medium, or the grammar and vocabulary, to the message (Hawkins, 1981, pp.198-199). This is not to argue, however, that Hawkins (1981, p.169) supports grammar-based pattern drills or sentence translation and transformation exercises: "...mechanical, language laboratory pattern drills....would be no more functional than the traditional grammar-book exercises".

Wringe (1976) also denounces the use of traditional grammar exercises:

"...modern linguists have long been acutely conscious of the aridity of teaching for linguistic competence in abstracto by means

of contextless drills, exercises and narratives constructed to meet the demands of grammatical progression, but having no roots in any kind of reality."

(Wringe, 1976, p.62)

2.2 History of the Debate

How long this awareness of the defects of the grammar-translation approach of deductive grammar learning, memorization of vocabulary, and emphasis on the written form, has existed, is evident from Hawkins' (1981, pp.99-101) history of the debate on this issue.

He explains that the Middle Ages was a period of "immersion

learning" in foreign languages. The grammar-translation method, as we know it today, began in the seventeenth century, and reactions to this development were quick to appear: "...Both Luther and Melancthon protested against burdening pupils with too much grammar" (1981, p.100). John Locke is quoted: "... And I would fain have anyone name to me that Tongue that anyone can learn, or speak as he should do, by the Rules of Grammar" (1981, p.101). One of Comenius' rules was: "...languages are easier learnt by practice (and by actions) than from rules;..." (1981, p.103).

The nineteenth century witnessed no weakening of the attack on formal grammar teaching. Marcel, we are told, viewed: "...translation and teaching of grammar rules by rote as an obstacle to comprehension. Grammar should be learnt by induction" (1981, p.119). Vietor, author of the pamphlet: "Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren (Language teaching must about-turn), attacked the grammar-translation method: "...on the grounds that teaching grammar rules, instead of allowing pupils to discover the rules for themselves, takes the interest out of the work" (1981, p.123).

The nineteenth century attack on formal methods was continued by Sweet in Britain: "...For Sweet, as for his German contemporaries the dragon to be slain was grammar-translation" (1981, p.126). In France, Gouin presented the following three principles: "...put speech before writing; subordinate formal grammar to use of the language; learn language while doing"

(1981, p.128). In the United States: "...As early as 1818, N.G. Dufief had attacked the grammatical approach:..." (1981, p.128).

Nearly all of these and other authors who attacked the formal teaching of languages disagreed among themselves to a greater or lesser extent on what to replace deductive, grammar-based learning with. Thus a body of literature appeared whose recommendations were contrary to and critical of teaching practice.

2.3 Twentieth Century Methodological Principles

In the light of the evidence provided above regarding dissatisfaction with the grammar-translation method, it is interesting to consider the foreign-language teaching principles presented in the texts selected for the professional preparation of Tasmanian teachers. It is not within the scope of the present study to provide a comprehensive summary of the methods and principles proposed by all the authors in our list; rather, certain common features of their recommendations will be extracted.

Palmer (1917, pp.71-187) described his "Ideal Standard Programme", designed for general use with school children who have no previous history of foreign-language learning. The programme rests on a number of principles, the first of which is the segregated teaching of the phonetic, orthographic, etymological, semantic and "ergonic" aspects of language (8). Segregation allows the student's attention to be directed to only

one aspect at a time, and in this way helps to avoid confusion.

The second principle is that active use of the foreign language must be preceded by an "incubation period" where the student is a passive recipient of much target language material, this principle being based on observation of the "natural method" of mother tongue learning (9).

Thirdly, semanticizing (ie. acquiring definitions) may be done in any of four different manners: first, association of the word with the unit designated by it; second, translation; third, definition; fourth, context or example. Fourthly, there is the important principle of learning by heart or "catenizing". This approach is seen to have three immediate benefits:

- "...1. Exclusion of any possibility of error.
- 2. Relief from the burden of abstract calculation.
- 3. Immediate utility of matter so learnt."

(Palmer, 1917, p.112)

It should be noted that Palmer envisaged an active role for the student; and that the concept of catenizing does not include commitment to memory of grammatical rules and exceptions, but directly usable "units" of language. Furthermore, Palmer insisted that: work should be graded in such a way that students find work easy and respond accurately (to do otherwise is to require students to produce work they have not mastered); a lexical "microcosm" of the target language must be produced so that the student acquires the most essential words and structures first; it should be recognized that with regard to comprehension skills, the subconscious faculties (1917, p.131) or intuition are

superior to intelligence, in the assimilation of a foreign tongue.

These principles, as outlined above, give only the slightest insight into how Palmer envisaged their implementation into teaching practice. They do, however, serve to indicate a viable alternative to the conscious memorization and application of grammar rules, applied to the unchanging task of translating sentences.

Brooks (1964) also emphasized the importance of the sub- or non-conscious assimilation of the target language. He drew a clear distinction between learning about a language and learning a language:

"...The single paramount fact about language learning is that it concerns, not problem solving, but the formation and performance of habits. The learner who has been made to see only how language works has not learned any language; on the contrary, he has learnt something he will have to forget before he can make any progress in that area of language."

(Brooks, 1964, p.49)

In this sense Brooks (1964, p.62) asserted: "...the acquisition of non-thoughtful responses is the very core of successful language learning,...". The intention was not to develop thoughtlessness in students but to replace the conscious understanding and application of abstract rules with the formation of habits of foreign-language comprehension and articulation.

Translated into practice, this principle requires the student to change from a passive recipient of mother-tongue grammatical explanation to an active responder to foreign-language cues. Brooks (1964, p.135) appreciated the need for grammatical accuracy, but completely reversed the order of the traditional grammar-translation approach:

"...We first learn the grammar by actual use of communication, thinking of rules only after having learned many examples very well".

Change is also required from the teacher. A rich variety of foreign-language pattern drill exercises must, in his view, be prepared and presented in a lively way. The fact that many teachers failed to maintain the vital variety in this regard has led to much condemnation of the audio-lingual method.

In her discussion of this method, Rivers (1964, pp.149-163) concluded with a number of recommendations for the practising teacher. These recommendations reflect not only audio-lingual principles, but also the major difficulties experienced by teachers who had tried to implement the "new" approach in their teaching practice. Classroom teachers were told that they must be sensitive to class reaction and be prepared to change the type of activity at the first sign of fatigue or boredom (Rivers, 1964, p.151). It was deemed necessary to express the warning that: "...there is a limit to the amount of repetition which is effective for learning, even with reinforcement" (Rivers, 1964, p.151).

One principle, espoused by Rivers is that a strong emotional element is involved in language learning, a factor which may be forgotten in an approach which concentrates on the mechanistic manipulation of rules or repetition of syntactical structures (Rivers, 1964, p.161). The teacher then:

"...who would succeed in teaching a foreign language must be conscious of the invidious, frustrating, and insecure position in which the student finds himself in the early stages and must be able to inspire confidence through his understanding and patience."

(Rivers, 1964, p.162)

The "general thesis" of Rivers' book indicated the beginning of a development from the audio-lingual to the communicative approach in the sense that language communication was seen to involve a relationship between individuals and not merely the memorization and repetition of phrases and the practising of structures (Rivers, 1964, p.163).

The view of one British student is worth recording here as it encapsulates an intuitive appreciation of the significance of the emotional, communicative aspects of the very human business of foreign-language learning:

"...People say that French is boring, but I think that it is the tape-recorder that makes it boring, for when our class does 'situations' we are always interested, whereas, when the tape-recorder is going, we know that it will be just the same as all the other French lessons - recording, repeating, recording, repeating."

(Burstall, quoted in Webb, 1974, p.41)

Hawkins (1981, pp.246-248) presents a communicative approach

to foreign-language teaching at four levels. The intention was not that these levels be regarded as sacrosanct, or that classwork be rigidly restricted to lower levels before moving on to more difficult work. He (1981, p.246) makes the point that the difference among the levels lies in depth of language use rather than difficulty. Put briefly, the four levels are:

Level One - Activities are designed to draw the students' attention to the sounds and grammar patterns of the target language. Examples of such exercises include: all audio-lingual drills; reading aloud; gap-filling exercises; question and answer routines;

Level Two - Activities draw the students' attention to the message required by the teacher or text, not the medium. This level concentrates on comprehension exercises and communication within carefully controlled and defined areas of linguistic usage;

Level Three - Activities involve personal meanings but are still motivated by the intention to learn language. The fundamental difference between this and the previous level is that now the students' interests are allowed to determine the contexts of classroom dialogues, interviews and other activities;

Level Four - The aim is not directly to learn the language but to use it to achieve personal goals. The student at this level is required to survive linguistically by using only the target language. Suitable activities at this level include: trips abroad; communicating with people who do not speak the students' mother tongue; learning a school subject via the foreign

language.

It should be noted that at each level the emphasis is placed on language activity. Hawkins is not providing a comprehensive method of foreign-language instruction, but nevertheless presents a structure by which classroom activities can be classified. For him the onus remains with the teacher, not the methodologist.

"...Throughout this book it has been a recurrent theme that reform movements may come and go, but real progress in language teaching must depend on the quality of the teachers."

(Hawkins, 1981, p.286)

Among other skills, Hawkins requires that foreign-language teachers be competent and fluent in the target language and be provided with the incentive and frequent opportunity to improve their linguistic and pedagogic skills. Only in this way will they be adequately trained to teach at levels three and four as described above.

It is interesting to append to this review a brief look at how the foreign-language methodologists and educationists in our list perceive of the way in which languages were being taught in Britain and America at the time they were writing. The similarity between the perceptions discussed here and those reviewed in Chapter Two will become immediately obvious.

3. METHODS: THE PRACTICE

Palmer (1917, p.77) felt that most of the foreign-language teaching of his day violated a "natural law": "...In the case of our mother tongue the probability is that there is a vast preponderance of subconscious work, both active and passive; when the average person studies a foreign language the contrary is usually the case."

Brooks (1964, p.61) experienced large-scale dissatisfaction with the predominant use of the mother tongue in the foreign-language classroom:

"...Criticism by those who have spent from three to six years as students in foreign-language classes in school and college is frequently negative and often tinged with bitterness, the chief complaint being that during these courses they neither spoke nor heard the language in question."

Several reasons are given for the durability of the formalist approach in the face of harsh criticism from many academics (See Chapter Two). One view is that teachers are often unreceptive to proposed professional change because they teach as they were taught (Rivers, 1981, p.7). Hawkins (1981, pp.133-153) offers a number of explanations for professional inertia (10), his view being that day-to-day teaching in classrooms was largely unaffected by the development of new theories, and he lists these explanations:

1. One inhibitor to change was that teachers were often not familiar with the new method they were purportedly

using.

2. Examination requirements were often cited as the reasons for continued reliance on translation and grammar exercises.
3. Prejudices opposing reform were securely "entrenched".
4. Universities opposed reform and language departments refused to accept the role of teacher trainers.
5. Teacher training was inadequate in that teachers did not gain the fluency and foreign-language confidence needed for a communicative approach.

Rivers' view of the reasons for the persistence of the formal approach agrees largely with that of Hawkins:

"...Teachers who were themselves taught by this method and who have not had sufficient exposure to other possible approaches to teaching a language continue this tradition."

(Rivers, 1981, p.29)

New textbooks, modelled on nineteenth century grammar-translation editions, are seen by Rivers (1968, p.15) to frequently dominate the work of the teacher and frustrate attempts at innovation.

Allen and Valette (1972, p.4) also explained the lack of popularity among teachers of communicative, language-using methods by pointing to the poor foreign-language proficiency of the great majority of teachers.

Webb (1974, p.61) described the experience of the average adolescent foreign-language student who has passed the novelty

stage of beginning to learn a second language, as a time when puberty and its associated inhibitions makes it especially embarrassing to respond orally in a foreign language. It is also a time when the subject becomes boring and irrelevant to students' perceived needs and interests. This view of many students' experience is shared by Varnava (1975, p.11) who noted that many lose their initial enthusiasm for foreign-language study: "...at the point where the essential function of language is disguised by scholastic routine and academic objectives,...". The same point is raised in the Tasmanian context by Triffitt et al. (1976, pp.25-26), and with regard to New South Wales by Kerr (1972b, p.275). Nevertheless, Webb (1974, p.202) concludes optimistically and foresees continual discussion and change of aims and methods in foreign-language education.

Wringe (1976) agrees with Webb that the onus for professional change often lies with the practising teacher. His view of current classroom strategies, however, does not reflect the desired change: "...the learner of a foreign language, at least as presently undertaken by relatively able pupils, contains a large cognitive and cumulative element" (Wringe, 1976, p.58).

One source of change may lie in allowing student teachers to experiment with small groups of pupils, rather than presenting them immediately with the disciplining and organizational problems of large classes. This may prevent newcomers to the profession from reverting: "...blindly to the methods by which they themselves were taught" (Wringe, 1976, p.124).

4. CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter the intention has been to identify certain key common tenets in the methodological literature prescribed in the Modern Languages course at the University of Tasmania. Principles which are rejected include:

- a) Much use of the mother tongue in the classroom;
- b) Deductive grammar teaching;
- c) Much use of translation;
- d) Emphasis on the written form of language;
- e) Commitment to memory of grammar rules and contextually isolated vocabulary.

Alternatives to the cognitive approach are grouped into a range of different approaches which all seek to promote communication as the main aim of foreign-language education, and to make foreign-language study accessible and enjoyable for all students, the most fundamental principles presented by proponents of the activist, communicative approaches being:

- a) The appropriate development of all four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing;
- b) Much active use of the foreign language in the classroom by students and teachers;
- c) The inductive learning of and/or the subconscious assimilation of grammar rules;
- d) Language to be learnt in semantic, not grammatical contexts or situations;
- e) Classroom activities must be frequently varied to avoid boredom;

- f) Activities must be within the students' ability to avoid feelings of frustration and/or distress.

Other principles could be added to this list, but the ones mentioned suffice to illustrate the nature of the viable methodological alternatives to formalist methods, which have been discussed throughout the twentieth century and before.

Towards the end of this chapter a number of theories have been mentioned which attempt to explain the continued use of cognitive approaches among foreign-language teachers. It is clear that professional inertia is not simply a matter of irrational resistance to change, innate to most foreign-language teachers. Chapter Three has considered the major findings of researchers on the socialisation of teachers and the sociology of educational innovation and thus examined more closely the forces at play in educational change. The argument will be developed in the remainder of the thesis that the relationship between theory and practice in foreign-language education is problematic, in the sense that the transfer of the communicative principles in the literature examined in this chapter into teaching practice in Tasmanian schools and colleges is not to be expected as a matter of course.

REFERENCES

- (1) This perception was shared by Triffitt et al., (1976, p.21).
- (2) For an outline of seven different methods of

foreign-language instruction see Celce-Murcia (1983, pp.30-31).

- (3) Triffitt et al. (1976, pp.34-35) do, however, strongly support a teaching approach which allows every student the motivation of experiencing success.
- (4) Examples of such distinctive approaches are given by: Asher (1981); Hawkins (1981, pp. 196-198); Rassias (1972); Lozanov (1978).
- (5) See, for example, Palmer (1917, p.8).
- (6) Two examples of such artificial exercises are:

"...The little page turned to page seventy-one, The emperor has perhaps been struck by the empress..."
(Webb, 1974, p.74)
- (7) One theoretical explanation for this is given by Biggs and Collis (1982, p.154).
- (8) 'Ergonics' is defined by Palmer (1917, p.311) as:

"...The science which teaches us (a) to classify the units of a given language according to their function in the sentence; (b) to build up original (ie. unknown) units from the smaller known units of which they are composed."
- (9) The "natural method" is the way in which young children acquire their mother tongue.
- (10) Cf. King (1977); See also Chapter Three.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

INTRODUCTION

Methods of enquiry form the yardstick by which the validity of research results is measured. In this chapter procedures used to gather both quantitative and qualitative data are explained so that the results presented in later chapters can be interpreted in the knowledge of the methods which were used to obtain them.

Information was gathered from foreign-language teachers in Tasmanian secondary-level schools and colleges by means of a questionnaire and interviews. The two main aims of the enquiry were:

- i) to discover how foreign languages were being taught in Tasmania; and,
- ii) to identify the major factors which influence the development of foreign-language teaching style.

In the process of achieving these two objectives it was also intended that additional information be obtained about such matters as foreign-language teachers' views on certain professional and occupational pressures and the major tenets of modern language teaching methodology.

1. THE SURVEY POPULATION

The empirical survey reached 118 secondary-level teachers of languages other than English in Tasmania. Nearly all of the teachers in government schools and colleges received covering letters addressed to them by name and school. This was possible because virtually all of the relevant teachers appeared on the State Education Department lists. The problem of gaining a representatively fair sample did not arise because the total population was approached.

Lists were also obtained from the Education Department which showed the non-government secondary schools and colleges where foreign languages were taught. Names of teachers were not available from this source but a list of relevant addresses was obtained from the Tasmanian Catholic Education Office. Foreign-language teachers in non-government institutions, therefore, received their questionnaires and covering letters addressed to: "The Foreign-Language Teacher". Only one questionnaire was sent to each non-government school although it was appreciated that some schools may employ more than one foreign-language teacher. As this was known to be the exception rather than the rule, and as no respondents requested more questionnaires to be sent to their schools for colleagues to complete, it can be safely assumed that the questionnaire was completed by the total population of secondary-level teachers of foreign languages in Tasmanian schools and colleges.

2. REVIEW OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Prior to the dissemination of the pilot questionnaire (1) the construction and revision of draft forms were guided by the following considerations:

- i) length of questionnaire;
- ii) continuity or flow between sections;
- iii) clarity of questions;
- iv) precoding or optional answers.

Consideration of the last point took special account of Gardner's (1975b) discussion of the relationship between ordinal and interval scales, and parametric and non-parametric statistics. In many cases a choice had to be made between the evenly spaced Lickert ordinal scale and more specific but less uniform scales.

Such contemplation and modification led to a form of the questionnaire which was presented for criticism to several lecturers and teachers in the area of foreign-language education. Further revision in the light of their contributions led to the completion of the pilot questionnaire, which was drafted with fifteen teachers.

3. THE PILOT SURVEY

The pilot questionnaire was sent to fifteen teachers, all of whom were personally known. They were asked to complete the instrument and to add any comments, queries or criticisms that they felt were warranted.

The pilot questionnaire was sent with three covering letters of introduction and support. The first was addressed to respondents and outlined the nature of the study, pointing out its salience to teachers (Heberlein and Baumgartner, 1978; Moser and Kalton, 1973, p.264). Respondents were assured that their answers would be treated in the strictest confidence. The other two covering letters were from the Supervisor of Foreign Languages and the President of the Tasmanian Teachers Federation, two influential members of the foreign-language teaching profession who lent their support to the project and urged teachers to respond (See Appendix C).

Personal contact was also made with all respondents by telephone, letter and brief talks, outlining the nature of the research. A short talk on this topic was given at a Northern Branch meeting of the Modern Language Teachers' Association of Tasmania. Mailing lists were obtained from the subject Supervisor and personal letters were sent to all respondents.

4. STRUCTURE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The pilot draft of the questionnaire was divided into seven parts (See Appendix B): Section one dealt with the personal background characteristics of respondents, such as: age, sex, type of school; languages taught.

Section two sought information about the respondents' experiences as language pupils themselves. They were asked to indicate the extent to which they had experienced formalist techniques such as vocabulary lists, grammar exercises and grammatical analysis. It was intended that details about teachers' language learning, when combined with other information from the questionnaire, would reveal which language teaching models respondents were most familiar with. An inherent weakness of this section of the questionnaire was that its reliability relied on how accurate were teachers' memories. It is quite possible that what is remembered from one's learning experiences is influenced by more recently developed views on education. It was nevertheless felt that useful indications and trends could be revealed by this section, and the quantitative data were partially checked and verified in interviews.

The vast majority of the study population was in the first half of its professional career, so it was assumed that most young teachers would be able to remember reasonably accurately how they were taught. Respondents were given a "Can't remember" option and the responses of those who gave this indication were not included in the statistical analysis.

Section three focussed on various aspects of teachers' professional backgrounds, and sought to establish some general finding about the effectiveness of pre- and in-service methodology courses in promoting innovative, communicative approaches. This section sought information about teacher attendance at courses and active interest in foreign-language teaching methodology.

Section four was concerned with the working conditions of foreign-language teachers in terms of such things as the actual situation in which they were required to teach. It was included in the questionnaire as a corollary to one of the fundamental principles of the present study: that discussions on methodology must be firmly based on "occupational reality" as experienced and perceived by practising teachers.

Section five contained three questions which sought to gain an indication of whether peer-group pressure among foreign-language teachers was conformist, polarising, or indeed at all effective in influencing teacher choice of method. The sociological theory, discussed in Chapter Three, identifies the "reference group" as a powerful source of conservative pressure on beginning teachers:

"...The attitudes of beginning teachers undergo dramatic change as they establish themselves in the profession, away from the liberal ideas of their student days towards the traditional patterns in many schools."

(Lacey, 1977, p.48)

The relevance of each part of the circular should only be considered in relation to other parts. For example, it was hoped to be able to draw a tentative conclusion about the relative significance of peers as compared with methodology courses, in regard to choice of method.

Section six dealt with teachers' views on foreign-language education. Questions did not only seek information about aims and objectives, but also about the relative values placed by teachers on aspects of foreign-language education which they could control, such as an emphasis on conversation, compared with elements beyond their control, such as student intelligence (2). In this manner it was expected that any measure of fatalism in teachers' thinking about their work would be revealed. This section also dealt with the controversial topics of the role and nature of assessment procedures, and the place of foreign languages in a core curriculum.

The final section provided an opportunity for respondents to add any comments or raise queries. This was felt to be an important part of the questionnaire because future discussions on the development of foreign-language education in Tasmania should take notice of those areas of concern which are most distressing to teachers, that is, existing imperfections and problems as well as hoped-for improvements:

"...The theory and the practice of education have suffered in the past from an over-attention to what ought to be and its corresponding tendency to disregard what is."

(Waller, 1932, in Lacey, 1977, p.49)

The questionnaire provided a useful follow-up and development of the statistical surveys undertaken in Tasmania by Hunt (1962 and 1972). Hunt's surveys revealed much uncertainty among teachers about the definition of certain key terms such as: grammar-translation; audio-lingual; or modified direct method, and so these terms were avoided and replaced with specific questions about teachers' views and practices. The questionnaire also went beyond the scope of Hunt's studies in that it endeavoured to discover the reasons behind these teacher views and practices.

5. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The pilot questionnaire gained a 100 per cent response rate. Each copy was sent with an informal, hand-written covering letter and a stamped, addressed return envelope. Mailing procedures for the pilot and main questionnaire were consistent with the advice of Robin (1965) and Heberlein and Baumgartner (1978) which involved the procedure outlined earlier. After consideration of responses to the pilot survey, changes were made to most sections of the questionnaire.

A major difficulty faced by respondents to the pilot survey was in distinguishing between the differences of learning experience and teaching strategy at junior and senior secondary levels.

The problem is best illustrated by means of a hypothetical example. If a foreign-language teacher is sent a questionnaire

which asks for information about her experiences as a foreign-language student and about her professional behaviour as a language teacher, then she may only be able to answer open-ended questions, because of the wide variety of educational experiences she can remember. She may have been taught differently by different teachers at different levels or when studying a number of different languages. Similarly, she may adopt a variety of approaches in her current teaching behaviour.

Despite these possible elements of diversity in the professional experience of Tasmanian foreign-language pupils and students, it was felt that respondents would all have shared many common experiences in their linguistic and pedagogical training. One purpose of the research was to identify these shared experiences and to gain, where possible, an insight into their effect on foreign-language teaching practice.

It was decided prior to the dissemination of the main questionnaire that to provide optional answers, suitable for computer analysis, and which would cover all the variables listed above, would make the questionnaire lengthy and so possibly adversely affect the response rate (Moser and Kalton, 1973, p.309).

However, a number of respondents to the pilot survey indicated that they had been taught in a variety of ways by different teachers at different levels.

To avoid this problem in the main questionnaire, it was

decided to use the phrase "on average" before asking for information about such topics as the use of grammar exercises, vocabulary lists and conversation.

The dichotomy between teachers' experiences and approaches at junior secondary level and at senior secondary level was too large to ignore. Thus an additional instruction in the main questionnaire asked teachers to regard junior secondary as grades seven and eight; senior secondary as grades nine, ten, eleven and twelve.

The decision to label the groups in this manner was made after discussion with many foreign-language teachers throughout Tasmania, and after analysing responses to the pilot study. The definition provided of junior and senior level was not challenged by any respondents.

Thus a typical question in the final draft reads:

"...On average, how often do your students use the target language in the classroom?
(a) At junior secondary level
(b) At senior secondary level."

Providing a range of precoded answers at two levels for all relevant questions substantially lengthened the questionnaire booklet, and thereby increased the imposition on teachers' time and energy. The revision did, however, make for a more meaningful survey instrument because teachers could now clearly indicate whether or not differences existed between junior and senior levels of foreign-language education. It was felt that these changes would allow for deeper personal involvement on the part

of the survey population and so outweigh the possible negative effect on response rates of the extra length of the questionnaire (Oppenheim, 1973, p.35).

As expected, a number of the more experienced teachers had difficulty in answering questions which required them to recall their own student days. The decision to include the "Can't remember" option in the final document was thought to add reliability to answers, although there is also the risk that it may encourage some respondents to choose the option requiring the least amount of mental effort.

The second section of the questionnaire was extensively revised before completion of the final draft. Information gathered about teachers' experiences as language students was now juxtaposed with corresponding questions about current teaching practice. For example:

"On average, how often do you use the target language in the classroom?

"On average, how often was the target language used in the classroom by your teachers, when you were a student at secondary level?"

It was intended that this change would make the comparison between learning experiences and teaching practices more obvious to the respondent and encourage respondents to show where their teaching practice differs from the way(s) in which they were taught.

The third section remained largely unchanged except for the

inclusion of an additional question (Question 32). The main questionnaire asked teachers to evaluate the pre-service modern language teaching methodology course they had studied.

Certain stylistic weaknesses were discovered in the wording of some questions in section four. For example, the Lickert scale options applied to the question: Are you satisfied with the distribution of foreign-language lessons in your school timetable? - were felt to be relatively meaningless because levels of teacher satisfaction in this regard may tell us more about the teachers than about foreign-language lesson timetabling. It was decided to replace the question with:

"...Over the past three years has the
distribution of foreign-language lessons in
your school timetable in the school in which
you now teach...
Improved.....1
Remained much the same.....2
Worsened.....3
Unable to answer.....4..."

This question avoided the problem of interpreting levels of satisfaction. For example, a teacher who might have indicated "satisfied" with her distribution of lessons in the school timetable may have felt that her allocation was ideal, or inadequate but all that could reasonably be expected from the school administration.

The pilot survey questions on audio-visual materials were replaced with a question on funding. This was deemed necessary because of lack of teacher agreement on the definition of audio-visual materials or equipment.

The last question in section five was changed to avoid misinterpretation. The wording in the pilot survey was:

"Have other foreign-language teachers ever tried to influence you to teach in the same way that they do?"

Some pointed out that this question seemed to imply coercion by senior or more experienced colleagues. The likelihood of this misinterpretation occurring was reduced by including the following options in the answer scale:

Yes, by means of helpful suggestions

Yes, but only on request

Yes, but rarely

Yes, by direction or coercion

Never

For this and some other questions, teachers were invited to indicate more than one option if necessary. In this way an endeavour was made to provide as wide a range of answers as possible without resorting to open-ended questions or making the booklet unduly long. Open-ended questions were avoided because they require a large amount of time on the part of the respondent, and because information gathered in that way is very difficult to process in a study of this size.

With regard to section six, a problem encountered by some participants in the pilot survey was that of indicating views on foreign-language education without being sure of what levels the questions were aimed at. To clarify this matter, phrases such as the following were used:

Ideally

Currently at junior level

Currently at senior level

The successful foreign-language teacher in my present

position...

To prepare students for present Higher School

Certificate and/or tertiary level study should teachers
devote more time to...

The pilot work often led to greater precision in the wording of questions. For example:

Pilot survey:

"Are you happy with the present assessment procedures?"

Main questionnaire:

"Do any of the following constrain what you do in the foreign-language classroom?"

On reflection the latter question was felt to be much more useful in revealing variables which influence teachers in their choice of method. The former may have revealed nothing peculiar to foreign languages, while the latter question allowed teachers to consider factors other than assessment procedures which may constrain their teaching style.

Section seven of the questionnaire invited teachers to include any other information that seemed relevant to them. About half of the study population took advantage of this and their comments are discussed in Chapter Nine.

6. CIRCULATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Permission gained from the Director-General of Education to disseminate the pilot questionnaire covered the main study instrument. Written requests to send the questionnaire to teachers in non-government schools were sent to the Director of Catholic Education and the Hon. Secretary of the Association of Heads of Independent Schools of Tasmania. Both the Director and the Secretary explained that they could not grant permission and that each school should be approached individually.

The circulation procedure adopted closely followed the recommendations of Robin (1965). Prior to sending the questionnaire, a letter was sent to the Principals of all relevant schools which informed them of the study being undertaken and the imminent arrival of the questionnaire in their schools (See Appendix C). Principals were asked to encourage their staff to respond to the questionnaire, and were invited to raise any queries by mail or telephone. Letters of support from the Supervisor of Foreign Languages and the President of the Tasmanian Teachers Federation were enclosed (See Appendix C).

One Principal wrote to point out that his school policy required a written undertaking that a copy of the final research report would be presented to the school professional library, if staff members were to respond to questionnaires.

The survey population (3) was also sent a letter before the dispatch of the questionnaire, outlining the nature of the

research being undertaken, and requesting the teachers' co-operation. The relevance of the study to foreign-language teachers was explained (Moser and Kalton, 1973, p.264; Heberlein and Baumgartner, 1978) and a firm assurance given that all returns would be processed in strictest confidence. The letter included an invitation to discuss any queries about the project by phone or mail.

Pre-questionnaire letters (See Appendix C) to Principals and to the survey population were sent during the second term vacation - to be opened on the first day of term.

The second mail contact with the study population included the questionnaire, the accompanying letters from the State Supervisor of Foreign Languages and the Tasmanian Teachers Federation President, and a covering letter, which was very similar in content to the pre-questionnaire letter. Emphasis was placed on the study's significance to foreign-language teachers, the support of well-known individuals in the language teaching profession, and the anonymity which all respondents would be guaranteed (Oppenheim, 1973, pp.36-37). With these letters and the questionnaire was sent a stamped, addressed return envelope. An actual stamp was used on this envelope, rather than a franked impression (Moser and Kalton, 1973, p.265).

The questionnaire and the accompanying letters were posted four days after the study population started third term and received their preliminary letters.

The first reminder letter was dispatched eight days after the arrival of questionnaires in schools. This letter reminded the study population that it had already received a questionnaire, with accompanying stamped, addressed envelope, and that all responses were important to the validity of the research. Teachers were again assured of anonymity and the complete confidentiality with which their responses would be processed.

The fourth and final "postal missive" included a second questionnaire booklet, a stamped, addressed envelope, and the letters of support sent with the first questionnaire. One hundred and thirty-five questionnaires were despatched in the first instance. Thirty-eight were sent in the last mailing. This package contained a fourth and final covering letter. The survey population was reminded once again of the significance of the project to the professional future of all foreign-language teachers in Tasmania, and of the letters and questionnaires which had been sent.

All letters were individually signed, dated and had handwritten salutations. This personal touch may have helped to secure the good response rate (Robin, 1965, p.27). The time between the first and last mailed contact was twenty-five days. After another seven days only nineteen questionnaires remained outstanding or unaccounted for. It was decided, therefore, not to send the third follow-up letter as Robin (1965) suggests. Instead, personal contact was made with these teachers by

telephone or at MLTAT meetings.

Each member of the survey population was allocated a code number which was placed on the top right-hand corner of the questionnaire and discreetly inside the booklet as well. Code numbers were located with the names, or names of schools of teachers, in two separate places to avoid loss or accidental damage. A record card was kept for each member of the survey population, and as each questionnaire was sent this was recorded on the appropriate card. As responses arrived they were checked off on the record cards. Despite this procedure, four teachers received reminder letters after they had posted their completed questionnaires. This could be accounted for by a delay somewhere along the postal route. Generally, however, the system was very successful.

Advance preparation was necessary to avoid delays. Reminder letters were duplicated, addressed and signed so that on the posting date, they only needed to be dated. This system meant that some prepared letters had to be discarded, but worked efficiently otherwise. Dating was left till the last moment in case of unexpected postponements.

7. RETURN RATES

Forty-five questionnaires were returned before the posting of the first reminder letter. Thus the first follow-up letter was sent to 66.6 per cent of the study population. Fifty-two further responses arrived before the posting of the second reminder and questionnaire. The second follow-up letter, therefore, was sent to 24.4 per cent of the study population. Eighteen more responses arrived in the week following the posting of the second questionnaire booklet. At that stage one hundred and fifteen responses had been received. Only three more responses were received after that, to make a total of one hundred and eighteen.

Four reponses indicated that teachers had left the state or were otherwise unable to complete the questionnaire. This reduced the size of the survey population to 131. The final response rate is calculated as 118 returns from a total of 131 questionnaires received by teachers; or, ninety per cent. This figure does not include the three questionnaires which were returned blank, and a note from one teacher, which stated that she had "neither the time nor the inclination" to participate in the study.

8. CODING AND COMPUTING

The information supplied by the questionnaires was transferred onto computer card coding forms. This information was transferred to a computer file, resulting in a very lengthy list of lines of figures which had to be checked for accuracy against the original questionnaire booklets. All errors revealed by this painstaking process were corrected to ensure that the data file was an accurate record of teachers' responses.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to calculate the frequencies of responses to all questions, and the cross-tabulations required. Prior to the tabulations, the frequency list was carefully checked for errors.

A small number of respondents provided information which required careful interpretation. For example, teachers who are native speakers of the target language taught were recorded as having visited a country where the subject language is spoken as the native tongue. Unless otherwise indicated, this visit was recorded as lasting more than three years (See questions 8 and 9, Appendix A).

A number of teachers had read methodology texts other than the ones listed in question thirty-three. Six teachers had read other books but could not remember titles. Three had read Cole's Teaching French to Juniors. No other book was mentioned more than

once.

Some questions posed problems peculiar to certain

respondents. For example: one teacher was not sure whether or not she was a member of the MLTAT; one teacher had never heard of babel; another ignored the provided scale of 1 - 4 for question ----- forty-nine, and replaced the same with her own scale of 1,2,3,3-4; and one teacher ignored the "Undecided" box, but ticked both the "Agree" and "Disagree" boxes in response to a statement in question fifty-two.

Cases such as the last one were rare, and personal discretion was used to record the information given in a form acceptable for computer processing.

Six teachers indicated that they did not know whether colleagues in their current schools taught in much the same way as they did. As the only answer options provided for this question were "Yes" and "No", no response was recorded in these cases. A blank was also recorded for the teacher who responded with both "Yes" and "No" to this question.

Question forty-one, which asked teachers to remark on the physical conditions of their foreign-language classrooms, attracted much comment. Complaints were varied and included problems with regard to: air-conditioning; dilapidation; proximity to music rooms. Thirteen teachers lamented the fact that they had no single room for foreign-language study.

The pattern to emerge was that few teachers chose the "Other" options in answer scales, suggesting general satisfaction with the pre-coded answer scales provided.

REFERENCES

- (1) The terms "pilot questionnaire", "pilot survey", and "pilot study" are derived from Oppenheim's (1973, pp.25-30) discussion of pilot work. Moser and Kalton (1973, p.48) refer to the "dress rehearsal" of the main questionnaire as the "pilot survey", while Goode and Hatt (1952, p.146) use precisely the same definition for the term "pre-test".
- (2) The study is not concerned with the debate about the nature of intelligence or the empirical measurability of IQ. The crucial concept here is student intelligence as perceived by teachers.
- (3) All teachers to whom a questionnaire was sent (Moser and Kalton, 1973, p.53).

CHAPTER SEVEN

FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING IN TASMANIA

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the information, obtained from the questionnaire, on how foreign languages are taught in Tasmanian schools and colleges. The chapter looks at three fundamental aspects of second language teaching, and does not purport to be an exhaustive lexicon of every definable technique used by the study population.

The three areas, about which detailed information has been gained, are:

- i) the use of the target language in the classroom;
- ii) vocabulary tests; and,
- iii) grammatical rules and exercises.

These three areas were chosen because they represent central and controversial elements in the debate about foreign-language teaching. As was mentioned earlier (See Chapter Four) pedagogic principles, rather than methods, are the less clumsy conceptual tools for discussion of foreign-language teaching practice because principles and the techniques based on them are more narrowly defined than methods. The features of pedagogic style, discussed here, are too underdeveloped to be able to present a clear insight into precisely how most foreign-language teachers teach. The information does show that the following techniques are common characteristics of foreign-language teaching in Tasmania:

- a) Much use of the mother tongue in the classroom;
- b) Analytical grammar teaching;
- c) Much use of translation;
- d) Emphasis on the written form of language; and,
- e) Commitment to memory of rules and contextually isolated vocabulary.

It is argued throughout this thesis that teaching practice is not always a clear indicator of the professional ideology of the teacher (See Chapter Nine). The next chapter discusses the evidence, gathered in the empirical survey, which helps to explain why foreign-language teachers in Tasmania are still so often committed to formalist strategies. Of immediate concern is the information that has been gained on pedagogic style.

Questions on teaching practice were divided into two sections: junior and senior secondary level. Junior level includes grades seven and eight, while senior level includes grades nine to twelve. As not all respondents taught at both junior and senior level, the total response to these questions was lower than the size of the study population. Ninety-six respondents indicated that they taught at junior level, eighty-six in grades nine and ten, and twenty-eight at Higher School Certificate level (grades eleven and twelve).

Some respondents who had indicated that they did not teach at (say) junior level, nevertheless responded to the questions about teaching practice at junior level. It is assumed that, in these cases, respondents were referring to past experience. In

all cases figures shown are percentages of the total number of responses to the question under discussion. Percentage figures are followed in all cases by the absolute frequencies in parentheses.

The present study is largely descriptive, that is, its main concern is with describing how Tasmanian foreign-language teachers teach, and with identifying the major influences on the development of pedagogic style. No attempt is made to test possible causal connections between variables (Moser and Kalton, 1973, p.211). A survey of this kind requires the use of ordinal scales which are, in the opinion of some statisticians, not sufficiently "robust" for unconstrained arithmetic manipulation (Chase, 1976, p.5). For example, if we were to produce some figures which showed that 75 per cent of respondents agreed with view x, compared with 10 per cent who strongly agreed with view x, how is it to be established that everyone who "strongly agreed" felt themselves to be more in accord with view x to exactly the same extent? The interpretation of such figures must admit to the statistical limitations of respondent-subjective ordinal scales.

Despite these considerations, many statisticians (Gardner, 1975b; Burke, 1963; Labovitz, 1967, 1970; See Chase 1976, p.5) have argued that:

"...researchers should use the most powerful statistical procedures available, even with less precise scales such as ordinal measures"
(Chase, 1976, p.5)

Some difficulty was experienced in deciding on which statistical procedure to use for the analysis of the empirical data. The data were gathered from partially related samples; some of the teachers who responded at "junior level", were the same subjects as those who responded at "senior level". The McNemar and Cochran Q tests, designed for related samples, were unsuitable. The McNemar test for the significance of changes (Siegel, 1956, p.63) requires dichotomized contingency tables, and the Cochran Q test for k related samples was also unsuitable, because it is designed to measure the distribution of responses of one sample (or more than one matched sample) to three or more conditions (Siegel, 1956, p.161).

The present study's contingency tables required a statistical model which would measure the distribution of responses of two partially-related samples over different conditions. Consideration was given to the use of chi square because that statistical model was applicable to the contingency tables and because it can be argued that the use of chi square to measure partially-related samples makes for a more conservative test than the use of chi square with independent samples. Because the samples are partially related, it can be argued that there is more likelihood that responses will be similar, and, therefore, less chance of showing significant difference in the distribution of responses.

The research aim of testing the entire population of foreign-language teachers in Tasmanian secondary schools and

colleges, precluded the option of having independent samples. Tests for proportion could have been made of the distribution of those teachers who only work at junior and those who only work at senior secondary level, but one aim of the research was to test the entire study population and to draw tentative conclusions about the influence on foreign-language teaching style of working at junior or senior secondary level in the Tasmanian education system.

Ultimately it was decided not to use chi square, because of the nature of the samples, and to apply the t test to the raw scores rather than to attempt to measure the distribution of responses in contingency tables.

The t test was applied in the following way:

- a difference score was obtained from the two scores of each respondent under the two conditions: junior and senior;
- the t test for correlated samples was then used to see whether the means of these scores were significantly different from zero;
- the level of significance was said to be .05 .

In this way the null hypothesis was tested, that the subjects responded in the same way under the two conditions. Where the null hypothesis was rejected, it is claimed that the responses of subjects significantly differ from junior to senior level.

The limitation of the t test was the fact that only those responses from subjects who responded at both junior and senior level could be included in the statistical procedure. It should be noted that the acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis is made on the basis of the information gained only from those who responded at both junior and senior level; not from the study population as a whole.

1. USE OF THE TARGET LANGUAGE IN THE CLASSROOM

1.1 By Teachers

At junior secondary level, only 2 per cent (2) of the 100 teachers who answered this question always used the target language in the classroom. A further 23 per cent (23) mostly used the target language so that only 25 per cent (25) used the target language in the classroom more often than English.

Forty-two per cent (42) used the target language in the classroom as often as English, and 32 per cent (32) occasionally used the target language.

At junior secondary level English was the language used predominantly in foreign-language instruction. Thus the evidence shows a substantial discrepancy, in this regard, between the way in which teachers teach foreign languages and the recommendations of many methodologists, such as the ones discussed in Chapter Five.

At senior secondary level there was more teacher use of the

target language in the classroom than at junior secondary level. Only 2.1 per cent (2) of the ninety-seven teachers who answered this question always used the target language in the classroom. However, 35.1 per cent (34) indicated that they mostly used the target language. Despite the increased use of foreign languages in the senior classroom, only 37.1 per cent (36) used the target language more often than English, and 26.8 per cent (26) only occasionally used the target language.

Eighty teachers responded at both junior and senior level. The T value of -3.98 tells us that the difference between their responses, regarding teacher use of the foreign language in the classroom, is statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis, that there is no significant difference between teacher use of the foreign language in the classroom at junior and senior level, is rejected (T value = -3.98; df = 79; $p < 0.000$).

1.2 By Pupils

Pupil use of foreign languages in the classroom was, according to the teachers surveyed, less at junior secondary than at senior secondary level. Twenty-one point four per cent (21) of teachers at junior level indicated that their pupils mostly used the target language in the classroom. At senior level the corresponding figure was 27.4 per cent (26). At senior level 54.7 per cent (52) of teachers indicated that their pupils used the target language as often as or more than English. The same indication was given by 46.9 per cent (46) of respondents at

junior level.

Seventy-six teachers responded at both junior and senior level. The T value of -2.97 tells us that their responses, regarding pupil use of the foreign language in the classroom, differ significantly from junior to senior level. Therefore, the null hypothesis, that there is no significant difference between pupil use of the foreign language in the classroom at junior and at senior level is rejected (T value = -2.97; $df = 75$; $p = 0.004$).

2. ADMINISTRATION OF VOCABULARY TESTS

Despite the urgings of methodologists, 74.7 per cent (74) of teachers at junior level required their pupils to memorize vocabulary lists for tests at least once or twice a fortnight. Thirty-one point three per cent (31) required them to be memorized at least once or twice a week.

At senior level, the indication was that vocabulary lists and tests were used very slightly more often, with 78.4 per cent (76) using them at least once or twice a fortnight, and 32.0 per cent (31) at least once or twice a week.

Seventy-eight teachers responded at both junior and senior level for this question. The T value of 0.44 means that there was no significant difference in mean responses at the two levels. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted (T value = 0.44; $df = 77$; $p = 0.658$).

3. GRAMMAR

3.1 Explanation of Grammatical Rules

Grammar rules were explained very frequently at junior level. However there was a significant increase in the frequency of grammatical explanations at senior secondary level.

At junior level, 23.2 per cent (23) explained grammatical rules most lessons. Twenty-nine point three per cent (29) indicated that they explained such rules once or twice a week, and a further 25.3 per cent (25) explained the rules once or twice a fortnight. Only 22.2 per cent (22) of respondents at junior level explained grammatical rules very seldom.

At senior level, 51.0 per cent (50) explained grammatical rules most lessons. A further 37.8 per cent (37) explained the rules once or twice a week, and 11.2 per cent (11) indicated that their explanation of grammatical rules occurred once or twice a fortnight. Not one respondent at senior level explained grammatical rules less than once or twice a fortnight.

Eighty teachers responded at both junior and senior level for this question. The T value of -8.52 tells us that the frequency of their explanations of grammar rules in the foreign-language classroom differ significantly from junior to senior level. The null hypothesis, that there is no significant difference between the frequency of grammatical explanations at junior and at senior level, is rejected (T value = -8.52; df = 79; $p < 0.000$).

3.2 Grammatical Exercises

The explanation of grammatical rules is usually followed by work on grammatical exercises which are designed, often by means of translation of sentences, to test the students' understanding of the required rules.

The writing of grammar exercises is a central feature of the "traditional", grammar-based, cognitive approach to foreign-language teaching. It was, therefore, thought to be important to gain as much information as possible on the frequency of the use of grammatical exercises and the importance of the text-book, rather than the teacher's imagination, in providing these exercises. To this end, respondents were asked how often they required that their pupils complete the exercises in the set course-book.

While 62.0 per cent (62) of respondents indicated that they required their junior secondary pupils to write grammatical exercises once a week or more, the incidence of exercise writing at senior secondary level was significantly higher. At senior secondary level, 51.5 per cent (51) of respondents required their pupils to write grammar exercises several times per week; 93.9 per cent (93) required them to be written once a week or more.

Eighty-one teachers responded at both junior and senior level for this question. The T value of -6.14 tells us that pupils are required to write grammar exercises significantly more

frequently at senior level than at junior level. The null hypothesis, therefore, is rejected (T value = -6.14; df = 80; $p < 0.000$).

At junior secondary level, 11.6 per cent (11) of respondents required their students to complete all the exercises in the set course-book. Forty-two point one per cent (40) required the pupils to complete as many as possible. Thirty-four point seven per cent (33) of respondents required that their students complete only a few of the exercises.

At senior level, 16.3 per cent (16) of respondents required that their students complete all the grammatical exercises in the set course-book. Sixty-one point two per cent (60) required the students to complete as many as possible. Fifteen point three per cent (15) required that their students complete only a few of the exercises.

Eighty-one teachers responded at both junior and senior level to this question. The T value of -3.88 tells us that the requirement to complete grammatical exercises in set course-books is significantly greater at senior level. The null hypothesis is, therefore, rejected (T value = -3.88; df = 80; $p < 0.000$).

4. CONCLUSION

The quantitative data have shown that many foreign-language teachers in secondary institutions in Tasmania continue to use, frequently and regularly, some techniques which are basic to the cognitive approach. To this extent the impressions of many foreign-language educationists, such as those discussed in Chapter Two, are vindicated: that is, that traditional approaches are still widely used.

Also of interest is the discovery that in the areas of: teacher and pupil use of the foreign-language in the classroom; and, the explanation and application of grammatical rules, teachers' approaches differed significantly at junior and senior secondary level. This difference raises some interesting points for consideration. For instance, it is evident that the foreign-language style of many Tasmanian secondary-level foreign-language teachers differs significantly from junior to senior level in some areas. Is this difference to be explained by partially varying teaching ideologies, by varying professional and/or occupational circumstances, or both? Do most teachers prefer to teach more grammar, as is done at senior level, or less grammar, as is done at junior secondary level? Do the aims of the foreign-language teaching profession in Tasmania differ from junior to senior secondary level? What bearing do professional circumstances have on professional ideology?

Such questions form part of the enquiry into why foreign-language teachers in Tasmanian secondary schools and

colleges teach in the way that they do. A definitive, causal explanation of a teaching approach is impossible. It is not therefore necessary to abrogate responsibility in the matter to "pure" social theorists. The Modern Language Teaching Project gained information on foreign-language teachers' background as pupils and students, their professional training, their working conditions, and their aims and views on certain issues pertaining to foreign-language education. These responses will be analyzed and discussed in the following chapter.

Additional information, which gives more detailed insight into influential factors in the choice of teaching style, was gained from a series of in-depth interviews, discussions and written communication between approximately half the study population and the researcher. The information gathered in this more informal way is presented in Chapter Nine.

CHAPTER EIGHT

PROFESSIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL SOCIALISATION

INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with that part of the information gathered by the Modern Language Teaching Project which is concerned with the professional ideologies and professional and occupational socialization of the foreign-language teachers who participated in the research. A teacher's professional ideology is here defined as those professional conditions which she regards as ideal (Lawton, 1977, p.448). 'Professional socialisation' includes teachers' experiences as foreign-language pupils, as well as their pre- and in-service training. 'Occupational socialisation' refers to occupational pressures from within the classroom, the school and the education system.

The previous chapter has shown some of the key features of these teachers' pedagogic style such as their use of grammar exercises. With regard to pedagogic style, the research has revealed that many Tasmanian secondary-level foreign-language teachers frequently use the following key techniques of a cognitive approach:

- vocabulary list memorization;
- grammatical explanation;
- grammar exercise writing;
- much use of the mother tongue in the foreign-language classroom.

The frequent, widespread use of these techniques continues

despite the strong and repeated criticism, discussed in Chapter Two, and the methodological recommendations by such authors as Palmer (1917) and Rivers (1981), discussed in Chapter Five. Thus the impressions formed by many critics (eg. Ingram, 1980a) that foreign languages are still taught in a traditional manner has been corroborated by the Modern Language Teaching Project. An interesting finding, however, is that there is a significant difference between the way foreign languages are taught at junior and at senior secondary level, by the same teachers. For example, the explanation of grammatical rules, the writing of grammatical exercises and the use of the foreign language in the classroom all occur more frequently at senior than at junior secondary level. The present and the following chapters aim to help explain this variation in the behaviour of foreign-language teachers, and to establish whether the teachers examined were more ideologically committed to the greater (ie. senior level) or the lesser (ie. junior level) use of the techniques listed above.

1. FRAMEWORK FOR THE ANALYSIS OF DATA

The empirical data collected on the foreign-language background, working experience and professional views of the foreign-language teachers studied, has been organized into three sections:

- i) Professional Socialization;
- ii) Occupational Socialization;
- iii) Professional Ideology.

The professional and occupational socialization of teachers has been found to be a powerful force in the shaping of teacher

ideology and pedagogic style (See Chapter Three). These three areas of discussion are not mutually exclusive but professional ideology and teaching style are developed within the context of the social dynamics of a teaching career, not in the purely "academic" sense of consideration of psycholinguistic theory. For the purposes of this chapter, however, the three areas are separated for the sake of convenience, and are briefly outlined prior to the discussion of the research findings.

1.1 Professional Socialisation

The professional socialization of Tasmanian secondary-level foreign-language teachers was examined in the sense that the teachers were asked, in questionnaire form, to indicate certain experiences from the early stages of their professional socialization. As was discussed in Chapter Three, the teaching profession is unique, in that new members normally have a background of at least ten years of observing and working with practising, professional teachers. The beginning teacher officially enters the profession on completion of her formal training, when, in fact, the process of familiarization with the accepted modes of behaviour in the profession has been continuing for years. Beginning teachers have thus had many years in which to develop their own views on teaching.

While many student and beginning teachers have the objective of teaching in a substantially different way from the way in which they were taught, this commitment to "strategic

redefinition" is almost always weakened by the experience of the pressures faced by the practising teacher (See Chapter Three). Faced with these pressures, many teachers revert to a style of teaching which is similar to the teaching styles which they had experienced as students.

In this sense, the way in which current Tasmanian foreign-language teachers were taught when they were themselves secondary school pupils was regarded as a factor which might have a significant influence on the way that foreign languages are presently taught in the State. The teachers were, therefore, asked to compare their use of the techniques, discussed in the previous chapter, with the use of the techniques in the foreign-language classroom when the respondents were themselves foreign-language pupils and students. The responses of those who indicated that they could not remember how they were taught were not included in the statistical tests.

The t test was used to determine whether there was any significant difference between the frequency of the use of certain techniques in the past (as remembered by respondents) and the frequency of the current use of these techniques. The interpretation of the results rests on the assumption that respondents' memories were accurate, and that the terms used (eg. "vocabulary lists", "grammatical explanation") were defined in the same way by subjects and researcher.

The second area of enquiry into the professional socialization of the teachers studied involved an examination of

their pedagogic training. Where the professional models, provided by foreign-language teachers in the past, can be regarded as an important part of the "covert" training curriculum, the study of prescribed methodology can be seen as the "overt" or "official" part of the pedagogic preparation of foreign-language teachers in Tasmania.

Information was thus gathered about the teachers' pre- and in-service training, and, more specifically, about the foreign-language teaching methodology which they had read.

1.2 Occupational Socialisation

Chapter Three included a discussion on the occupational socialization of teachers. It was mentioned earlier that many researchers have found that occupational pressures (many of which are discussed in the following chapter) usually influence teachers to revert to the way in which they were taught, and/or to develop a teacher-centred, "traditional" style of teaching. An in-depth study of the occupational socialization of Tasmanian foreign-language teachers was not made, but some features of this form of socialization were isolated for discussion. These include:

- "reference group" or colleague advice (See Chapter Three);
- a range of perceived occupational "constraints", including Schools Board and Higher School Certificate requirements;

- condition of the foreign-language classroom;
- levels of funding.

The influence on teaching style of "pupil-control ideology" was examined in interviews (See Chapter Nine) because it was found that many teachers were sensitive about the question of classroom management. For example, a question included in the pilot survey, but omitted from the final questionnaire, asked teachers to indicate whether the foreign-language classroom should have a lively, noisy, or a quiet, scholarly atmosphere. Most respondents explained that the ideal foreign-language lesson includes both types of learning environment. It was decided, therefore, that the study of the influence of classroom management would be better left for the interactionist part of the research (See Chapter Nine), so that more meaningful responses could be obtained.

1.3 Professional Ideology.

The Modern Language Teaching Project also gathered information about the foreign-language teachers' professional ideology. Respondents gave their views on:

- the main aim(s) of foreign-language education;
- the order of importance of the four language skills: aural comprehension; reading; speaking; and, writing;
- thirteen statements about successful foreign-language teaching;
- a list of statements about successful foreign-language learning;

- the motivation of foreign-language pupils;
- inclusion of foreign languages in the core curriculum.

The intention of this part of the research was to gain empirical data on the views of Tasmanian foreign-language teachers on some topics of major professional interest. One objective of the present research was to identify a set of professional values and a "way of thinking" which was common to the vast majority of Tasmanian secondary-level foreign-language teachers.

It was felt that this information would be of value for the following major reasons:

- It indicates whether a professionally derived and defined view of knowledge exists among Tasmanian foreign-language teachers;
- It indicates whether this "shared ideology" is, basically, methodologically conservative or innovative;
- It gives some indication as to whether innovators and "progressives" in foreign-language education are likely to be accepted as "normal" members of the profession, or whether they are likely to be regarded as non-conformists;
- It helps to explain the continuing use of the "traditional" techniques, discussed in the previous chapter, in the sense that many prevalent views can be seen to be either consistent or inconsistent with the "traditional", cognitive approach.

2. PROFESSIONAL SOCIALISATION

2.1 The Covert Curriculum

The generalisation that teachers teach in the way in which they were taught is often expressed, and, as has been mentioned in Chapter Three, is supported by research evidence. The present study has found that in all cases examined there was a significant difference between the frequency of current use of certain techniques by the study population, and the frequency of the use of these techniques when respondents were pupils and students.

The terms, "past" and "present", will be used to distinguish between the teaching behaviour of respondents' foreign-language teachers (past) and the teaching behaviour of respondents themselves (present). In order to remind readers of this special definition, the terms, "past" and "present", will be enclosed in quotation marks.

While it is true that the way in which respondents were taught appeared to have much bearing on current foreign-language teaching styles, it is also evident that frequency of the use of these techniques in the foreign-language classroom has been significantly reduced over the past two decades.

2.1.1 Teacher Use of the Foreign Language in the Classroom.

The previous chapter analyzed and discussed the similarities and differences of teacher use of the foreign language in the

classroom at junior and at senior secondary level. This chapter is concerned with how responses compare and differ with regard to "present" and "past" use of the foreign language at both levels.

Teacher Use of Target Language in Classroom:

Junior Secondary Level.

TABLE 8:1

	Present		Past	
	N	%	N	%
Always _____	2	2.0	5	4.5
Mostly _____	23	23.0	12	10.9
As often as native language _____	42	42.0	20	18.2
Occasionally _____	32	32.0	35	31.8
Rarely _____	1	1.0	26	23.6
Never _____			6	5.5
Can't remember _____			6	5.5

At junior level 23.6 per cent (26) indicated that the foreign language had "rarely" been used in the classroom by teachers in the "past". Five point five per cent (6) indicated that the foreign language had "never" been used by their teachers in the classroom.

"Present" figures show that only 1.0 per cent (1) currently use the foreign language in the junior classroom only "rarely". No respondents indicated that they "never" use the foreign language in the classroom.

These figures suggest that there has been an increase in teacher use of the target language in the classroom over the past two or three decades. The t test was performed on the responses of the ninety-three teachers who answered both questions, that

is, regarding both "present" and "past" use of the target language in the classroom at junior secondary level (See Appendix A, qs.13 + 15). As in all tests, responses from teachers who indicated that they could not remember details about "past" use of the technique were disregarded in calculation for statistical significance.

The *t* value of 5.86 means that there was a significant difference between "past" and "present" responses. It can therefore be concluded that "present" use of the target language in the foreign-language classroom at junior secondary level is significantly greater than it was in the "past" (*T* value = 5.86; *df* = 92; *p* < 0.000).

Senior Secondary Level.

TABLE 8:2

	Present		Past	
	N	%	N	%
Always	2	2.1	6	5.4
Mostly	34	35.1	14	12.6
As often as native language	33	34.0	20	18.0
Occasionally	26	26.8	38	34.2
Rarely	2	2.1	23	20.7
Never			6	5.4
Can't remember			4	3.6

The senior level figures also indicate a trend towards greater use of the target language in the classroom. Twenty point seven per cent (23) indicated that the foreign language had been used "rarely" in the classroom in the "past". A further 5.4 per cent (6) indicated that the foreign language had "never" been

used by their teachers in the senior secondary level classroom.

Of respondents to the question about "present" use of the target language in the senior classroom, only 2.1 per cent (2) indicated "rarely", and none indicated "never".

Conversely, "present" figures show that 35.1 per cent (34) of respondents "mostly" use the foreign language in the senior classroom, compared with only 12.6 per cent (14) in the "past". These figures suggest that "present" use of the target language in the senior secondary-level foreign-language classroom in Tasmania is greater than in the "past".

To test this impression, the t test was performed on the responses of the ninety teachers who responded to both the "present" and the "past" question about teacher use of the foreign language in the senior classroom. The T value of 6.71 indicates that there is a significant difference between their "present" and "past" responses to this question. These teachers perceived a significant increase in "present" over "past" use of the target language in the foreign-language classroom (T value = 6.71; df = 89; $p < 0.000$).

2.1.2 Pupil Use of the Foreign Language in the Classroom.

Junior Secondary Level

TABLE 8:3

	Present		Past	
	N	%	N	%
Always	1	1.0	4	3.6
Mostly	21	21.4	8	7.3
As often as native language	24	24.5	11	10.0
Occasionally	43	43.9	31	28.2
Rarely	8	8.2	36	32.7
Never	1	1.0	13	11.8
Can't remember			7	6.4

Responses to the questionnaire suggest that there has been a significant increase in pupil use of the foreign language in the classroom in Tasmania. At junior secondary level, 32.7 per cent (36) indicated that the target language had only been used "rarely" by pupils in the foreign-language classroom, in the "past". A further 11.8 per cent (13) indicated that, in their experience as foreign-language pupils, there had been no pupil use of the target language in the classroom at all.

In response to the question about "present" use of the target language by pupils in the foreign-language classroom at junior secondary level, only 8.2 per cent (8) indicated that their pupils "rarely" used the target language, and only one respondent indicated "never".

The impression, gained from these responses, that "present" pupil use of the target language in the junior secondary

foreign-language classroom is greater than "past" use, was proven by the t test. The t test was applied to the responses of the eighty-nine teachers who responded to both the "present" and "past" questions about pupil use of the foreign language in the classroom at junior secondary level. The T value of 6.55 shows that there is a significant difference between their responses. Thus, these teachers perceived a significantly greater "present", as compared with "past" pupil use of the target language in the foreign-language classroom at junior secondary level (T value = 6.55; df = 88; $p < 0.000$).

Senior Secondary Level.

TABLE 8:4

	Present		Past	
	N	%	N	%
Always			3	2.7
Mostly	26	22.0	12	10.6
As often as native language	26	22.0	12	10.6
Occasionally	38	32.2	40	35.4
Rarely	4	3.4	30	26.5
Never	1	0.8	9	8.0
Can't remember			7	6.2

Twenty-six point five per cent (30) indicated that, in the "past", pupils had "rarely" used a foreign language in the senior classroom. A further 8.0 per cent (9) indicated that in their experience "past" pupils had "never" used the target language in the senior foreign-language classroom.

In comparison, only 3.4 per cent (4) and 0.8 per cent (1) indicated "rarely" and "never" respectively, for "present" pupil

use of the target language in the senior classroom.

Conversely, 22.0 per cent (26) indicated that their pupils "mostly" use the foreign language, while only 10.6 per cent (12) claimed that the target language had been used mostly in the senior foreign-language classroom in the "past".

It is evident that there was a widely shared view that there has been an increase in pupil use of the target language in foreign-language instruction in the classroom, from "past" to "present". To test the strength of this impression, the t test was performed on the responses of the eighty-six teachers who responded to both "past" and "present" questions on this topic (See Appendix A, qs.14+16). The T value of 6.08 shows that there is a significant difference between respondent perceptions of "past" and "present" pupil use of the foreign language in the senior secondary classroom (T value = 6.08; df = 85; $p < 0.000$).

2.1.3 Vocabulary Lists.

A key feature of the cognitive approach to foreign-language instruction is the vocabulary list. These can be bi- or mono-lingual. The "traditional" purpose of the lists was to provide the pupil with a source of contextually isolated vocabulary which had to be committed to memory. Traditional vocabulary lists were bilingual, so that the pupil could gain an immediate understanding of the foreign words by looking at their mother-tongue definitions. As we noted the technique has been severely criticized in the texts discussed in Chapters Four and

Five (eg. Rivers, 1968, p.18).

Junior Secondary Level.

TABLE 8:5

	Present		Past	
	N	%	N	%
Most lessons	10	10.1	27	2.1
Once or twice a week	21	21.2	42	37.5
Once or twice a fortnight	43	43.4	12	10.7
Very seldom	22	22.2	11	9.8
Never	3	3.0		
Can't remember			20	17.9

Chapter Eight concluded that the use of vocabulary lists was still prevalent in the teaching approaches of Tasmanian secondary-level foreign-language teachers. Table 8:5 indicates, however, that these teachers perceive a significant decline in the use of the lists over the past two or three decades. Where 10.1 per cent (10) indicated that they require their junior secondary pupils to memorize vocabulary lists for tests in most lessons, 24.1 per cent (27) indicated that this had been the case in the "past". While 21.2 per cent (21) indicated that they required lists to be learnt "once or twice a week", 37.5 per cent (42) indicated that this was the case in the "past". It is not true that the use of vocabulary tests has disappeared in Tasmania. Rather, the frequency of their use has diminished.

The T value of -6.21 shows that, according to the eighty respondents tested, there has been a significant decline from the "past" to the "present" use of vocabulary lists at junior

secondary level (T value = -6.21; df = 79; $p < 0.000$).

Senior Secondary Level.

TABLE 8:6

	Present		Past	
	N	%	N	%
Most lessons	12	12.4	26	22.8
Once or twice a week	19	19.6	40	35.1
Once or twice a fortnight	45	46.4	18	15.8
Very seldom	18	18.6	13	11.4
Never	3	3.1		
Can't remember			17	14.9

At senior secondary level there was also a significant difference between "present" and "past" responses to the questions about vocabulary lists. Twenty-two point eight per cent (26) indicated that their foreign-language teachers had required them to memorize vocabulary lists for tests "most lessons". This compares with the "present" figure of only 12.4 per cent (12). The perceptions, identified at junior level, are thus evident at senior level also.

Seventy-nine teachers responded to both sections of this question. The T value of -3.85 shows a significant difference regarding their perceptions of "past" and "present" use of vocabulary lists in foreign-language instruction (T value = -3.85; df = 78; $p < 0.000$).

2.1.4 Grammar.

Junior Secondary Level.

TABLE 8:7

	Present		Past	
	N	%	N	%
Most lessons	23	23.2	66	58.9
Once or twice a week	29	29.3	22	19.6
Once or twice a fortnight	25	25.3	3	2.7
Very seldom	22	22.2	5	4.5
Never				
Can't remember			16	14.3

According to the foreign-language teachers surveyed, there has been a massive decline in the frequency of the explanation of grammatical rules at junior secondary level. Fifty-eight point nine per cent (66) said that, when they were foreign-language pupils at junior secondary level, their teachers had explained grammatical rules "most lessons". Only 23.2 per cent (23), less than half the "past" figure, indicated that they explain grammatical rules that often to junior secondary level pupils. It is important to note, however, that explanation of such rules in the junior secondary school has not disappeared. Rather, the frequency of such explanations seems to have declined in many cases from "most lessons" in the "past" to "once or twice a week/fortnight" in the "present".

The eighty-five teachers who responded to both questions, showed a significant difference in their perceptions of "past" and "present" foreign-language teaching practice in this regard

(T value = -7.84; df = 84; p < 0.000).

Senior Secondary Level.

TABLE 8:8

	Present		Past	
	N	%	N	%
Most lessons	50	51.0	74	65.5
Once or twice a week	37	37.8	21	18.6
Once or twice a fortnight	11	11.2	4	3.5
Very seldom			3	2.7
Never				
Can't remember			11	9.7

At the senior level, respondents indicated a similar, though weaker decline in the explanation of grammar rules from "past" to "present". Sixty-five point five per cent (74) indicated that "past" explanation of grammatical rules occurred "most lessons" at senior secondary level. This figure compares with 51.0 per cent (50) who currently explain grammatical rules to their senior secondary-level pupils "most lessons".

Table 8:8 shows that current explanation of rules at this level still occurs most frequently in "most lessons". However, the T value of -2.35 shows that, according to the perceptions of the eighty-four respondents, there has been a significant decline in the frequency of grammatical explanations at senior level (T value = -2,35; df = 83; p. = 0.021).

2.1.5 Grammatical Exercises

Junior Level.

TABLE 8:9

	Present		Past	
	N	%	N	%
Every lesson	5	5.0	40	34.8
Several times per week	25	25.0	59	51.3
Once a week	32	32.0	6	5.2
Once a fortnight	18	18.0		
Very seldom	15	15.0	1	0.9
Never	5	5.0		
Can't remember			9	7.8

The explanation of grammatical rules is usually followed, in the cognitive approach (see Chapter Five), by the writing of grammatical exercises which require application of the said rule(s). If Tasmanian foreign-language teachers had been adhering to a traditional, cognitive approach in which these two techniques are used in association with each other, then the perceived decline in grammatical explanation will suggest a similar decline in the use of grammatical exercises. This was, in fact, the case. Thirty-four point eight per cent (40) indicated that, in the "past", the writing of grammatical exercises had occurred "every lesson". A further 51.3 per cent (59) indicated that they had been required to write the exercises "several times per week".

The responses for the "present" showed a perceived drop in the frequency of exercise writing to 5.0 per cent (5) ("every lesson"), and 25.0 per cent (25) ("several times per week").

The t test was performed on the responses of the ninety-four teachers who answered both sections of this question (See Appendix A, qs.25+26). The T value of -10.88 shows a significant degree of difference between their indications of the frequency of "present" and "past" writing of grammar exercises in foreign-language instruction (T value = -10.88; df = 93; p. < 0.000).

Senior Secondary Level.

TABLE 8:10

	Present		Past	
	N	%	N	%
Every lesson	10	10.1	43	37.4
Several times per week	51	51.5	59	51.3
Once a week	32	32.3	5	4.3
Once a fortnight	2	2.0		
Very seldom	3	3.0		
Never	1	1.0		
Can't remember			8	7.0

Respondents' perceptions of the writing of grammatical exercises at senior secondary level also revealed a significant decline in the frequency of the use of this technique. Thirty-seven point four per cent (43) indicated that, in the "past", they had been required to write grammatical exercises "every lesson". A further 51.3 per cent (59) indicated that the writing of grammatical exercises had been required "several times per week".

In comparison, "present" indications showed a decline to

only 10.1 per cent (10) who required their students to write the exercises "every lesson". But, as was stressed in Chapter Seven, grammatical exercise writing is still required frequently at senior secondary level, with 51.5 per cent (51) indicating "several times per week", and a further 32.3 per cent (32) indicating "once a week".

Nevertheless, the t test, which was performed on the responses of the ninety teachers who answered both sections of this question (See Appendix A, qs.25+26), showed a significant difference between "past" and "present" use of this technique at senior secondary level (T value = -8.05; df = 89; p. < 0.000).

2.1.6 Discussion

The t tests applied to the responses indicate that the Tasmanian foreign-language teachers surveyed perceived a significant difference between the "past" and "present" use of the following elements of foreign-language instruction:

- teacher use of the target language in the junior and senior secondary-level classroom;
- pupil use of the target language in the junior and senior secondary-level classroom;
- the memorization of vocabulary lists for tests (the lists were bilingual in 92.8 per cent (103) of the cases) at junior and senior secondary level;
- the explanation of grammatical rules at junior and senior secondary level;
- the writing of grammatical exercises at junior and

senior secondary level.

It is important to note the direction of these perceived changes. Teacher and pupil use of the target language in the foreign-language classroom was perceived as greater in the "present" than in the "past", however, there was a perceived decline in the use of vocabulary lists and grammatical explanation and exercises. It is evident, then, that most teachers perceived a significant change in foreign-language instruction, and that this change had been in the direction of a weakening commitment to the traditional, cognitive approach which stresses:

- much use of the mother tongue in the foreign-language classroom by pupils and teachers - and little use of the target language;
- a high reliance on bilingual word lists for the development of foreign-language vocabulary; and,
- a high reliance on the conscious acquisition and application of grammatical rules.

The statistical tests applied to the data show that the differences in mean respondent perception of the "past" and "present" use of the techniques examined are 'significant' in the statistical sense that the probability of the differences having occurred at random is sufficiently small for the null hypothesis to be rejected. This is not to claim that the differences are 'significant' in any non-statistical sense, indicating that "present" use of the techniques listed above is radically or

dramatically different from "past" use.

While it is evident that participants in the Modern Language Teaching Project perceived a decline in the use of certain key, "traditional" techniques in foreign-language teaching, it is also true that these techniques are still used very frequently (See Chapter Seven). It can be concluded that, while the "past" experiences of the teachers have greatly influenced the development of their foreign-language teaching style, in the sense that many "past" techniques are still used, "present" commitment to the use of these techniques is perceived as weaker than before.

At this stage it is pertinent to point out that, to the question: "Do you teach in the same way you were taught when you studied a foreign language at secondary school?", 39.5 per cent (34) indicated "definitely not", and a further 41.4 per cent (48) indicated "not really".

It is evident that the vast majority of respondents felt that they taught differently and less traditionally than the way in which they had been taught foreign languages at secondary level. For innovators in foreign-language education in Tasmania an indication of whether the perceived changes in teaching style have been welcomed or resented by the majority of teachers concerned is important (1). The qualitative data, discussed in the next chapter, lends support to the view that many Tasmanian secondary-level foreign-language teachers welcome the weakening

of the commitment to the cognitive approach. Opposition to cognitive methods is founded on ideological grounds, and/or on the basis of experience of pupil dissatisfaction with traditional techniques. Therefore it is plausible to presume that further reduction in the use of traditional techniques will be welcomed by the Tasmanian foreign-language teaching profession, provided that the current perceived and/or real inhibitors to such development are removed.

2.2 The Overt Curriculum.

2.2.1 Pre-Service Methodology Courses.

Seventy-five point two per cent (88) indicated that they had completed a pre-service course on modern-language methodology. Only 9.0 per cent (8) of these had taken their course at the Tasmanian College for Advanced Education (TCAE), whereas 67.4 per cent (60) had completed their course at the University of Tasmania, and 11.2 per cent (10) each at "Other Australian" or "Overseas" institutions.

Of the seven who indicated their evaluation of the TCAE course, 57.1 per cent (4) indicated "very valuable", and 42.9 per cent (3) "moderately valuable".

Fifty-nine teachers indicated their assessment of the pre-service course at the University of Tasmania. Of these, 16.9 per cent (10) found the course "very valuable", 27.1 per cent (16) "moderately valuable"; 1.7 per cent (1) thought only the theory was valuable; 20.3 per cent (12) thought "only the

practice" was valuable; 3.4 per cent (5) were "undecided"; 16.9 per cent (10) thought the entire course was "not really" valuable; and, 13.6 per cent (8) found that "the whole course was a waste of time".

Of those who had completed their course in other Australian institutions, 40.0 per cent (4) thought the course had been "very valuable", and 60.0 per cent (6) "moderately valuable".

Of those who had studied their pre-service foreign-language methodology in "overseas" institutions, 60.0 per cent (6) thought the course had been "very valuable" and 40.0 per cent (4) "moderately valuable".

Exactly half of the twenty-eight respondents from institutions other than the University of Tasmania felt that their pre-service modern-language methodology course had been "very valuable", which compares favourably with the 16.9 per cent (10) from the University of Tasmania.

An interesting trend was discovered with regard to attendance rates and levels of satisfaction with the modern languages methodology courses at the various institutions. Thirty-four point one per cent (28) of those who had completed a pre-service methodology course had done so in the period: 1978 - 1982. A further 30.5 per cent (25) had completed their courses between 1973 and 1977 inclusive. Forty point seven per cent (11) of those who had completed their course in the period 1978-1982 thought that the programme was "very valuable". In the same

period only 3.7 per cent (1) thought the "whole course was a waste of time". These figures compare favourably with those for the preceding five-year period, 1973-1977 when only 16.0 per cent (4) thought their course had been "very valuable", and 20.0 per cent (5) thought the "whole course was a waste of time".

Despite the fact that only 28.7 per cent (25) felt that the course they had studied was "very valuable", there is evidence to suggest that Tasmanian foreign-language teachers have, over the past ten years, shown a greater interest in pre-service foreign-language methodology courses (2) and have, on the whole, found them more valuable in the past five years.

2.2.2 In-Service Information on Foreign-Language Teaching

Methodology: Tasmanian foreign-language teachers have a number of different sources from which they can gain further information about foreign-language teaching methodology. The "official" structure which has the function of increasing foreign-language teachers' knowledge in this regard is "in-service education".

Chapter Three discussed the strengths and weaknesses of in-service courses and seminars which present methodological innovations in an environment which is substantially different from the ones in which most foreign-language teachers work. Of particular interest here is the rate of attendance at in-service programmes on foreign-language teaching methodology, of the teachers surveyed.

Only 2.6 per cent (3) attended in-service modern-languages methodology courses "more than once a year", 14.5 per cent (17) attended "once a year", and 27.4 per cent (32), "once every two years". Thirty point eight per cent (36) attended "rarely" and 24.8 per cent (29), "never".

Thus 55.6 per cent (65) had rarely or never attended foreign-language in-service courses. "Rarely", in this sense, is defined as "less than once every two years". The evidence suggests that this "official" medium of imparting information about foreign-language teaching methodology to Tasmanian foreign-language teachers is reaching the majority of those teachers less frequently than once every two years. Even if the eleven respondents who indicated that they had taught foreign languages for only one or less than one year, were included in the category of those who had never attended a foreign-language in-service course, the evidence would suggest that, for many Tasmanian foreign-language teachers, there is a need for modification of the nature and frequency of the provision of these courses if the aim of "sustaining vigour and enthusiasm in the Teaching Service..." is to be achieved (White Paper, 1981, p.65).

2.2.3 Individual Reading

Where individual school policy or the views of a headmaster may prevent a teacher from attending in-service programmes, individual foreign-language teachers can always increase their knowledge of foreign-language teaching methodology by private reading. In order to gain some insight into the professional reading habits of Tasmanian foreign-language teachers, the Modern Language Teaching Project asked respondents to indicate which of the books, prescribed for the Modern Languages course at the University of Tasmania (See Chapters Four and Five), they had read. The FLTGS Report (1976) was added to the list of books which are shown below in order of popularity:

AUTHORS	%	N
Triffitt et al. (1976)	48.3	57
Rivers (1968,1981)	44.9	53
Allen & Valette (1972)	36.4	43
Valette (1967)	33.1	39
Rivers (1964)	17.8	21
Varnava (1975)	16.1	19
Brooks (1964)	12.7	15
Hawkins (1981)	10.2	12
Hornsey (Ed.) (1975)	9.3	11
Webb (1974)	8.5	10
Palmer & Redman (1932)	6.8	8
Palmer (1917)	4.2	5
Wringe (1976)	2.5	3

In addition 15.3 per cent (18) indicated that they had read one or more other text on foreign-language teaching methodology. It is interesting to note that not one text had been read by more than half the study population, and only three texts had been read by more than one third of the teachers surveyed.

Respondents were asked to indicate whether they felt they needed to be more informed about modern languages methodology. Thirty-five point six per cent (42) felt that they "definitely" needed to be more informed; 40.7 per cent (48) felt that they "perhaps" needed more information, and 19.5 per cent (23) felt that more knowledge about foreign-language teaching methodology was "not really" necessary. Four point two per cent (5) indicated "No" in response to this question (See Appendix A, q. 35).

It is interesting that such a substantial number of respondents should be uncertain about the professional value of more foreign-language methodology. The qualitative data, gathered as part of the research project, lends credence to the suggestion that many felt that more theory would potentially have much to offer, but would be of little value in their current professional circumstances (See Chapter Nine).

Additional empirical data seems to support the view that many Tasmanian foreign-language teachers are not disinterested in methodology as such, but do intuitively reject "theory" which is perceived as distant from "practice". Fifty point four per cent (59) were financial members of the MLTAT, where the bulk of the

membership fee is spent on subscription to the journal, "babel", from which many articles are discussed in Chapter Two. Only 19.0 per cent (22) read "babel" "always". Eight point six per cent (10) read it "often"; 46.6 per cent (54) read the journal "sometimes"; and, 25.9 per cent (30), "never". Many Tasmanian foreign-language teachers have complained about the theoretical and esoteric nature of "babel". Readership may improve with the new, revised format and less "academic" style which the journal has adopted in 1983. However, in personal conversations already several complaints from Tasmanian foreign-language teachers that the new "babel" is still of little practical use have been heard.

In contrast with their reaction to "babel", Tasmanian foreign-language teachers have shown much enthusiasm and support for the more parochial publication, the "MLTAT Newsletter". The Newsletter, which is much more popular than "babel", is read by more foreign-language teachers than are members of the association. Below are the indications given of the readership of the MLTAT Newsletter:

	N	%
Always	58	49.6
Often	13	11.1
Sometimes	26	22.2
Never	20	17.1

There seems to be firm evidence that the development of a body of literature on foreign-language education, which is based on an understanding of what foreign-language teachers think is

valuable, will result in more active interest in this area.

3. OCCUPATIONAL SOCIALISATION.

3.1 Reference Group Pressure

One of the most powerful agents of occupational socialization on the individual teacher, identified by sociological theory (See Chapter Three), is that of "reference group pressure", that is, individual teachers face much pressure to conform to the pedagogic style of their colleagues. The Modern Language Teaching Project asked Tasmanian foreign-language teachers to indicate how many other foreign-language teachers they had worked with in their professional career. Forty per cent (46) indicated "under five"; and, 36.5 per cent (42) indicated that they had worked with "six to ten" foreign-language teaching colleagues. The vast majority, then, had worked with ten or less other foreign-language teachers. These teachers seem to have had a strong, conformist influence on each other's pedagogic style. Seventy-seven point one per cent (81) indicated that the foreign-language teachers in their school taught in basically the same way that they did.

Responses were less uniform in answer to a question about how colleagues may have influenced the development of teaching styles in a conformist manner (See Appendix A, q. 47). Responses were as follows:

	N	%
Yes, by means of helpful suggestons.....	46	39.0
Yes, but only on request.....	18	15.3
Yes, but rarely.....	11	9.3
Yes, by direction or coercion.....	7	5.9
Never.....	47	39.8

Whereas most respondents indicated a high level of conformity of foreign-language teaching style, they were almost equally divided on whether this conformity had been achieved by "means of helpful suggestions", or whether there had "never" been any overt influence from colleagues. Despite the perception of considerable conformity of foreign-language teaching style, and the identification of many professional and occupational pressures, many respondents stressed that they were fully in control of what happened in their foreign-language classrooms. The impression was formed that, while most teachers were prepared, and often keen, to discuss professional difficulties, they were also keen to present themselves as individuals who made "autonomous" decisions in the light of the difficulties or pressures which they experienced. Thus many respondents who claimed to be professionally autonomous also admitted to being influenced by a number of occupational constraints.

3.2 Occupational Constraints

The research instrument included a question which asked teachers to indicate whether they had experienced any occupational pressures which constrained what they did in the foreign-language classroom (See Appendix A, q.56). Thirteen point six per cent (16) indicated "School Policy"; 2.5 per cent (3) indicated "Other Foreign-Language Staff"; 32.2 per cent (38) felt that "Schools Board Requirements" constrained their professional behaviour in the foreign-language classroom; and, 55.9 per cent (66) indicated "School Organization (eg. timetable)" (3).

These findings suggest that reference group influence on foreign-language teaching style is very much a "covert" form of pressure, in the sense that the majority of respondents were of the opinion that they taught in a similar way to that of most of their colleagues because they chose to do so. Conformist reference group pressure was not recognised as an "occupational constraint" which identifies acceptable, and therefore normal parameters of foreign-language teaching.

Important "overt" limitations on teachers' freedom with regard to decision-making in the foreign-language classroom were "School Organization (eg. timetable)" and "Schools Board Requirements". A deeper insight into the importance of these sources of pressure on the development of foreign-language teaching style was gained by the interactionist section of the present research which involved teacher interviews (See Chapter

Nine). No other important areas of occupational constraint were mentioned in response to this question in the empirical survey. Some additional information was gained by asking the teachers whether they had to devote relatively more time to any one or more of a range of foreign-language learning activities, in order to prepare their students for "present" Higher School Certificate and/or tertiary level. Many Tasmanian foreign-language teachers felt that they were pressured to teach in certain ways because of "academic" requirements at upper secondary and tertiary levels:

In Grades 9 and 10

	N	%
Essay Writing.....	61	51.7
Conversation.....	57	48.3
Grammar.....	55	46.6
Written Comprehension.....	40	33.9
Translation.....	38	32.2
Literary Analysis.....	6	5.1
Other.....	6	5.1

At HSC Level

Conversation.....	48	40.7
Essay Writing.....	46	39.0
Grammar.....	40	33.9
Translation.....	39	33.1
Written Comprehension.....	28	23.7
Literary Analysis.....	25	21.2
Other.....	4	3.4

These results give only a very broad indication of the influences of perceived HSC and tertiary requirements on foreign-language teaching in Tasmanian secondary schools. For example, the view that more time should be devoted to conversation practice, does not preclude the possibility that very little time is spent on foreign-language conversation because of other factors such as consideration of classroom management (See Chapter Nine).

It is evident that essay writing, conversation and grammar are all seen as important areas of foreign-language teaching within the confines of present HSC and tertiary examination structures.

An understanding of Tasmanian foreign-language teachers' reactions to this situation was sought by asking them to indicate whether they were required to spend more time than they wanted to on any of eight areas of foreign-language learning. While only 0.8 per cent (1) felt she had to spend too much time on conversation, 26.3 per cent (31) and 16.1 per cent (19) felt that they had to spend too much time on grammar and essay writing respectively. Fifteen point three per cent (18) were of the opinion that too much time had to be spent on translation.

It is evident that the respondents revealed a much higher level of dissatisfaction with the amount of time they felt they had to spend on grammar, essay writing and translation, than on conversation, reading, cooking/dancing, written and aural

comprehension. However, the fact that 26.3 per cent (31) indicated dissatisfaction with the amount of time they had to spend on grammar, does not necessarily mean that 73.7 per cent (87) were perfectly content with the emphasis and time which they gave to the study of grammar in their foreign-language courses.

Some teachers, as mentioned earlier, did not feel that they were "required" to spend any time on any single activity. They claimed that they taught as they wanted to in the light of the circumstances which they experienced. This ambiguity of terms required a closer examination of this area on a more informal, personal level, where meanings could be clarified in the respondents' own terms. The qualitative data gathered, supported the impression formed on the strength of the figures listed above, that dissatisfaction with grammar, translation and essay writing was very high among Tasmanian foreign-language teachers (See Chapter Nine).

This is not to assert that these teachers would unreservedly welcome innovations which involved an increased emphasis on conversation, cooking and dancing, reading and comprehension activities. Objections to such innovations may be based on practical as well as ideological grounds. It does seem that communicative innovations in foreign-language teaching are more likely to be ideologically supported by Tasmanian foreign-language teachers than innovations which aim to increase the cognitive component.

Other "overt" occupational constraints on foreign-language

teaching were the questions of funding and classroom facilities and conditions. Ten point four per cent (12) indicated that insufficient funding was a major problem for them as foreign-language teachers. Thirty point four per cent (35) agreed that their funds for foreign-language education were insufficient but felt that this was "not a major problem". Thirty-one point three per cent (36) thought that insufficient funding was "not really" a problem; 17.4 per cent (20) indicated the option, "I have all the books, equipment etc I need"; and, 10.4 per cent (12) thought that the status quo was not ideal but as good as could be expected. Thus, insufficient funding does not seem to be a major constraint on the development of foreign-language teaching style in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges.

With regard to foreign-language classrooms, the survey asked teachers to indicate the disadvantages, if any, of their foreign-language classrooms. The results are listed below in order of importance:

TABLE 8.11

	N	%
Insufficient display space.....	36	30.5
No provision for use of audio-visual materials....	31	26.3
Insufficient storage space.....	30	25.4
Insufficient supply of audio-visual materials.....	23	19.5
Too cold.....	18	15.3
Too much noise.....	17	14.4
Overcrowding.....	17	14.4
Inadequate or unsuitable furniture.....	16	13.6
Room designed for other purposes (eg. Woodwork, Biology).....	16	13.6
Poor ventilation.....	15	12.7
Room used as thoroughfare by school population....	12	10.2
Too hot.....	12	10.2
Poor lighting.....	8	6.8
Room in an isolated area.....	6	5.1
Room is dirty.....	4	3.4
Use of room for foreign-language study begrudded by staff.....	3	2.5

It is evident that the major areas of concern had direct bearing on the introduction of audio-visual materials and programmes into foreign-language instruction.

3.3 Summary

The empirical survey has found that the vast majority of Tasmanian foreign-language teachers believed that they taught in a similar way to that of most of their colleagues. While individual teachers experienced different constraints on their teaching style, the majority identified "School Organization" as a major source of occupational pressure. It was found that this source of pressure and other important ones, such as perceived HSC and tertiary and Schools Board requirements, influenced many teachers to include much grammar, conversation, essay writing, written comprehension, and translation in their teaching styles. The greatest dissatisfaction was expressed with the focus of foreign-language teaching on grammar, essay writing and translation, with virtually no dissatisfaction expressed about perceived pressures to teach conversation, written comprehension, reading, aural comprehension, and, other activities such as cooking and dancing.

While insufficient funding was regarded as a serious occupational constraint by only a few respondents, large minority groups complained about the inadequacy or insufficiency of support services needed for the establishment of audio-visual programmes.

4. PROFESSIONAL IDEOLOGY

4.1 Aims.

Foreign-language teachers, in this study, were asked to show what they regarded as the main aim(s) of foreign-language education. A list of nine aims was presented (See Appendix A, q. 48) and respondents were asked, where applicable, to indicate more than one main aim. The results are listed below in order of importance:

TABLE 8:12

Aims of Foreign-Language Education	N	%
To increase pupils' cultural awareness.....	108	91.5
Fostering of international/racial understanding..	88	74.6
To promote pupils' intellectual development.....	79	66.9
To facilitate direct communication with people from other countries.....	78	66.1
Fostering of international/racial tolerance.....	65	55.1
To provide insight into mother tongue.....	63	53.4
Disciplining the mind.....	46	39.0
Vocational purposes.....	19	16.1
Improvement of Australia's trade and diplomatic relations with other countries.....	19	16.1
Other.....	5	4.2

Few teachers designated only one main aim for foreign-language education and only five mentioned aims outside this list. Three of the four most popular aims show that Tasmanian foreign-language teachers have firmly accepted professional objectives which would seem to demand the use of a

communicative approach, with emphasis on the development of all four language skills: listening; reading; speaking; and, writing. The "cognitive" aim of promoting pupils' intellectual development has been maintained by the vast majority of these teachers, although the aim of "disciplining the mind" was not very popular. It is not clear whether respondents' views of intellectual development through foreign-language education were formed in the sense that bilingualism encourages "divergent thinking skills" (Fradd, 1982), or whether foreign-language instruction of a cognitive kind was seen as a means of helping the individual "develop" from one level to the next in an intellectual taxonomy such as that proposed by Biggs and Collis (1982).

What is clear is that it is not possible to identify a single main aim for foreign-language teachers in Tasmania which points neatly in the direction of their teaching style. As was suggested above, the aims of the fostering of international/racial understanding, cultural awareness and the development of the ability to communicate directly with people from non-Anglophone countries, would seem to require emphasis on all four language skills. Cultural awareness and international and racial understanding may be developed in monolinguals by means of monolingual discussions and the reading of mother tongue books and journals. But for foreign-language education the aims are different, in the sense that the pupil does not learn so much about the foreign culture or race, but directly experiences the "foreign" ways of thinking and viewing the world by actively

using the language with which that Weltanschauung is constructed. In this sense a traditional approach with emphasis on foreign-language form rather than use, would seem to be largely precluded by these aims.

4.2 Foreign-Language Skills

In the pre-test to the Modern Language Teaching Project, respondents were asked to list the four language skills in order of importance. The objection was raised that this was impossible to do without reference to junior or senior level. The final enquiry instrument asked teachers to list the skills in order of importance under the three conditions: Ideally; Junior Secondary Level; Senior Secondary Level (See Appendix A, q. 49).

Differences between "ideal" and "junior" responses were not as great as those between "ideal" and "senior level". This suggests that the agents of occupational socialization which affect teacher ideology were stronger at senior than at junior level (See Chapter Two, p.80).

TABLE 8:13
TEACHER RANKING OF SKILLS.

	Ideally		Junior		Senior	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Speaking	1) 63	56.8	37	36.6	20	20.2
	2) 33	29.7	33	32.7	18	18.2
	3) 10	9.0	19	18.8	32	32.3
	4) 5	4.5	12	11.9	29	29.3
Aural Comprehension	1) 37	33.3	32	31.7	28	28.3
	2) 52	46.8	29	28.7	30	30.3
	3) 16	14.4	20	19.8	22	22.2
	4) 6	5.4	20	19.8	19	19.2
Reading	1) 16	14.4	20	19.8	27	27.3
	2) 19	17.1	24	23.8	27	27.3
	3) 60	54.1	37	36.6	26	26.3
	4) 16	14.4	20	19.8	19	19.2
Writing	1) 7	6.3	12	12.0	32	32.3
	2) 8	7.2	14	14.0	27	27.3
	3) 19	17.1	26	26.0	16	16.2
	4) 77	69.4	48	48.0	24	24.2

These results show that the school environment influences foreign-language teachers' views on the relative importance of the four language skills. Where "speaking" was regarded as "ideally" the most important skill by 56.8 per cent (63), only

36.6 per cent (37) thought the same rating applied at junior level, and only 20.2 per cent (20) indicated the first or "most important" ranking for the speaking skill at senior level. Conversely, the writing skill was seen as "ideally" the most important by only 6.3 per cent (7); by 12.0 per cent (12) at junior level; and, by 32.3 per cent (32) at senior level.

Respondents' views on the relative importance of the language skills are seen to change substantially from a situation which they regard as ideal to the perceived teaching environments of junior and senior secondary school and college. Thus it can be argued, for example, that teacher emphasis on the writing skill at senior level is not necessarily evidence of a traditional professional ideology on the part of that teacher. In most cases foreign-language teachers in Tasmania will wish to promote development of speaking proficiency, but will not give this skill much attention at senior level because of perceived occupational pressures. Foreign-language educators would seem to be well-advised to address themselves in some cases to the sociological pressures which currently seem to prevent so many foreign-language teachers from teaching according to their fundamental ideological commitments. In this sense, to effect change in a teacher's professional ideology would be seen to be inadequate to effect change in teaching behaviour (See Chapter Three).

The foreign-language teachers surveyed were also asked to show the order in which their pupils "prized" the four language

skills:

TABLE 8:14
PUPILS' RANKING OF SKILLS.

		Junior		Senior
		N	%	N
Speaking	1) 50	55.6	34	39.5
	2) 22	24.4	20	23.3
	3) 5	5.6	15	17.4
	4) 13	14.4	17	19.8
Aural Comprehension	1) 17	18.9	18	20.9
	2) 30	33.3	33	38.4
	3) 24	26.7	20	23.3
	4) 19	21.1	15	17.4
Reading	1) 10	11.2	19	22.1
	2) 25	28.1	19	22.1
	3) 33	37.1	29	33.7
	4) 21	23.6	19	22.1
Writing	1) 13	14.6	19	22.1
	2) 13	14.6	18	20.9
	3) 24	27.0	17	19.8
	4) 39	43.8	32	37.2

Pupils clearly indicated "speaking" as the skill which they prized most highly at both junior and senior secondary level.

However, this skill was seen as the most important by considerably fewer pupils at senior than at junior level. Pupils' as well as teachers' views on the relative importance of the four language skills are affected by the level of foreign-language learning that is considered. While this may not be a surprising finding for many foreign-language teachers, the reduction in importance of "speaking", and the increase in importance of "writing" from junior to senior level does suggest that the current structure of foreign-language education in Tasmania has the function of influencing many teachers and pupils away from their ideal, primary commitment to the development of foreign-language speaking proficiency and towards the more traditional emphasis on writing skills. Thus the conservative pressures on teachers are reflected in pupil attitudes (See King, 1974, and Chapter Three). Despite these pressures, however, most students did perceive of speaking as the most important skill, even at senior level - corroborating the impressions of many Tasmanian foreign-language teachers (See Chapter Nine).

4.3 What Does Successful Foreign-Language Teaching Require?

Respondents to the enquiry indicated, on a five-point Lickert scale, their level of agreement or disagreement with thirteen statements presented as prerequisites for successful foreign-language teaching in the respondent's current occupational position:

TABLE 8:15

The successful FL teacher in my present position must:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Be fluent in the FL	48.7%	38.5%	5.1%	6.8%	0.9%
Have students of above average IQ	6.2%	20.4%	8.0%	57.5%	8.0%
Be able to explain grammar rules clearly	30.8%	62.4%	2.6%	3.4%	0.9%
Have natural teaching ability	44.4%	43.6%	7.7%	4.3%	0.0%
Have students who are prepared to do their homework	18.8%	58.1%	9.4%	12.8%	0.0%
Have suitable materials	33.6%	60.3%	2.6%	3.4%	0.0%
Have at least four hours per week of FL class	27.0%	30.4%	14.8%	27.8%	0.0%
Have homogeneous groups	7.9%	40.4%	17.5%	31.5%	2.6%
Be familiar with modern language methodology	9.6%	69.3%	14.9%	6.1%	0.0%
Be a native speaker of the FL	4.3%	4.3%	6.0%	58.1%	27.4%
Have a good imagination	35.7%	55.7%	5.2%	3.5%	0.0%
Have parental support	25.0%	56.9%	10.3%	7.8%	0.0%
Have dramatic flair	15.8%	47.4%	16.7%	20.2%	0.0%

With regard to the professional qualities of the individual teacher, the greatest support was given to the view that the foreign-language teacher must be fluent in the target language. She should also have "natural teaching ability" and a good imagination. While these views gained clear support, it is

interesting that in no cases was the statement "strongly agreed" with by more than 48.7 per cent of respondents.

Still clear but less widespread support was given to the qualities of the ability to explain grammatical rules clearly, dramatic flair, and familiarity with modern languages methodology.

The only quality which was clearly rejected by most respondents as a prerequisite for successful foreign-language teaching in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges was that the teacher be a native speaker of the target language. This response is not surprising in the light of the composition of the study population (See Appendix D).

With regard to student motivation, the strongest support was shown for the view that foreign-language teachers required parental support. The vast majority felt that it was necessary to have students who are prepared to do their homework, and this may explain the high regard for parental support.

Only about one in every four respondents felt that successful foreign-language teaching in their positions required students of above average IQ, and less than half agreed that homogeneous grouping was a necessity. Most respondents rejected these elitist notions despite the fact that only a very small and able minority continues on each year to senior secondary and tertiary level foreign-language study.

The question of elitism in Tasmanian foreign-language teaching is a complicated one because some teachers have adopted an egalitarian manner in discussions of their work, while maintaining a largely cognitive approach which requires pupils to respond at intellectual levels which, in most cases, are probably beyond the pupils' intellectual capabilities (Biggs and Collis, 1982, pp.145-160). For example, recently a Tasmanian teacher, who, having expressed her egalitarian views with regard to foreign-language education, complained that she could "bang her head against a brick wall", but her students would still refuse to learn their inflexions. The teacher did not regard the cognitive approach as elitist, despite its success with only a minority group of above-average pupils. The issue is further complicated by the fact that many teachers feel that they must teach in an elitist way, even though they disagree with this approach on ideological grounds (See Chapter Nine).

The teachers surveyed were also presented with a list of ten views on what successful foreign-language learning requires. Four of the views were of areas largely beyond their control; five were directly within teachers' control; and one, "high motivation", is a controversial topic with regard to teacher responsibility. Twenty-five per cent (29) indicated that it was possible, in their teaching positions, to motivate, in most cases, those students who have little intrinsic interest in foreign-language study (See Appendix A, q.54). Sixty-three point eight per cent (74) indicated "Sometimes (not in most cases)"; 9.5 per cent (11) indicated "No"; and, 1.7 per cent (2) indicated

"Not sure". The vast majority, then, felt that "high motivation" was outside the control of the practising foreign-language teacher.

With reponses thus classified into areas largely within or outside teacher control, it is possible to gain some insight into whether the majority of Tasmanian foreign-language teachers are of the opinion that successful foreign-language learning is something they can largely determine, or whether factors largely external to their teaching are of primary importance in this regard.

At junior secondary level, the five most important requirements for successful foreign-language learning were:

	N	%
Good Foreign-Language Teaching.....	93	78.8
Much Listening to the Foreign-Language...	87	73.7
High Motivation.....	86	72.9
Much speaking of the Foreign-Language....	83	70.3
A good memory.....	46	39.0

Three of the four most important of these requirements are directly in the teacher's control. The exception, however, as shown above, was "high motivation" which in most cases was not seen as a factor which teachers could generate in their students. This finding illuminates the importance to Tasmanian foreign-language education of the FLTGS Report (1976), whose discussion on student motivation and consequent recommendations have received so little response from the State Education

Department and the foreign-language teaching profession.

At senior secondary level the five most important requirements for successful foreign-language learning were seen by the study population as a whole, as:

	N	%
High motivation.....	93	78.8
Good foreign-language teaching.....	82	69.5
Much speaking of the foreign language.....	79	66.9
Much listening to the foreign language.....	62	52.5
Much writing of the foreign language.....	39	33.1

As at junior level, with the exception of "high motivation", most teachers felt successful foreign-language learning could be achieved by good foreign-language teaching.

Other responses to this question (See Appendix A, q.53) which are of interest to the discussion of professional ideology, are those regarding intelligence and writing. Where only 12.7 per cent (15) thought that "above-average intelligence" was one of the "most significant items" at junior level, 29.7 per cent (35) thought so at senior level. The "junior" response for writing was 20.3 per cent (24), compared with 33.1 per cent (39) at senior level. Thus the traditional, elitist view of foreign-language education was much more noticeable at senior than at junior level.

4.4 Summary

An empirical survey was undertaken of Tasmanian foreign-language teachers which asked them to give indications of their views with regard to aims, skills and prerequisites for successful foreign-language teaching and learning.

All respondents had professional aims which are usually associated with communicative programmes in foreign-language education (See Chapter Five). However, the promotion of pupils' intellectual development was also regarded by many teachers as one of the main aims of foreign-language education.

Teachers' rankings of the four language skills: speaking, aural comprehension, reading and writing, differed markedly from "ideally" to "junior" and "senior" level. The evidence suggests that occupational pressures at both levels, but particularly in the senior secondary school or college, substantially decreased respondents' views of the importance of speaking, and increased their ranking of the writing skill. In short, the effects of working in school environments seems to have had a conservative effect on this aspect of most respondents' professional ideologies. These findings were regarded as basic to the theme that decision-making in the development of a foreign-language teaching style is largely made in reference to matters of sociological interest, and were, therefore, investigated further in the interactionist part of the present research.

Pupils' ranking in order of importance of the four language

skills were also more conservative at senior than at junior secondary level, although predominant pupil interest in the speaking skill was evident at both levels.

Elitist views on what is required for successful foreign-language teaching were held by a large minority of the study population, but the majority held views that are consistent with proposed communicative innovations. Successful foreign-language learning on the part of pupils was, in most cases, seen as something which could be achieved by competent teachers who have a good imagination and "natural teaching ability". An important exception to this finding was the prevalent view that successful foreign-language learning requires high pupil motivation, which, in most cases, was seen as something outside the control of the individual teacher. Minority views which emphasized the importance of above-average intelligence and development of the writing skill increased substantially from junior to senior level.

5. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter has been to present the evidence gathered in the questionnaire study, which helps to explain why so many Tasmanian foreign-language teachers continue to use conservative techniques but use these techniques significantly less at junior than at senior level.

The evidence lends support to the view that, while the vast majority of current Tasmanian foreign-language teachers were taught languages in a largely cognitive way, the use of such techniques in present foreign-language education in Tasmania is significantly less than was the case in the foreign-language learning experience of the teachers surveyed. This departure from the traditional approach was consistent with many of the shared views of respondents' professional ideology. Key aspects of respondents' occupational socialization were seen to have a more conservative effect on teacher ideology, and classroom practice (See Chapter Seven) at senior than at junior secondary level. The continuing emphasis on writing and grammar may, therefore, be more directly attributable to aspects of respondents' professional and occupational socialization, than their professional ideologies.

Thus it was mainly on practical, rather than on ideological grounds that 71.2 per cent (84) supported the inclusion of foreign-languages in a core curriculum for no more than two years.

In order to investigate these empirical findings further, an interactionist approach to the study of Tasmanian foreign-language teachers was adopted. The following chapter presents the qualitative data, thus gathered - and it will be seen that the conclusions of this chapter are corroborated by the comments of the teachers who were interviewed.

REFERENCES.

- (1) See Chapter Three about the importance of teacher commitment to educational innovation.
- (2) This trend may, of course, be largely explained by the Tasmanian Education Department requirement that teachers complete a B.Ed. or Dip.Ed. as part of their pre-service training.
- (3) Sixteen point one per cent (19) were of the opinion that the distribution of foreign-language lessons in their school timetable had improved over the past three years. Fifty-four point two per cent (64) felt that the distribution had remained "much the same", and 11.9 per cent (14) indicated that the distribution had worsened.

CHAPTER NINE

A QUALITATIVE STUDY OF FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING IN TASMANIAN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND COLLEGESINTRODUCTION

Previous chapters have developed the arguments that: published advice to and criticism of foreign-language teachers has often been of little lasting effect and, at times, misdirected; and that the institutional, systemic and community pressures on teachers and teaching behaviour have been too frequently ignored by authors who have failed to consider those areas of foreign-language teaching which are of sociological interest.

This chapter is based on the assumption that, as the occupational circumstances of foreign-language teachers in Tasmania differ (1), it was expected that the perspectives of teachers would differ. However because each respondent taught in a classroom in an institution, which formed part of a larger educational 'system', it was expected that this uniformity of professional experience would be reflected in widely shared concerns, interests and desires, in short, a professional sub-culture. Worsley (1978, p.216), in his definition of sub-culture, mentions the key words 'isolation' and 'threat':

"...Distinctive cultures, sometimes called sub-cultures, develop in a society, when a group lives or works in relative isolation, when a group perceives external threats to its welfare or when a group has a common interest to defend against outsiders."

(Worsley, 1978, p.216)

The emphasis in this chapter is upon gaining greater understanding of the professional sub-culture of foreign-language teachers, by identifying their major professional concerns and perceptions of factors which professionally isolate and/or threaten them.

1. RESEARCH BACKGROUND

This chapter is a phenomenology of foreign-language teaching in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges. That is, it is not concerned with the nature and functions of the social and professional structures within which foreign-language teachers work, but rather with identifying foreign-language teacher perceptions regarding the professional and social environments within which they work (Reid, 1978, p.14).

The research data contained in this chapter deals with the views on foreign-language teaching of about half the study population of the Modern Language Teaching Project. Personal experience, including three years of teaching in Northern Tasmania, with two years in the capacity as President of the Northern branch of the MLTAT, frequently included discussions with foreign-language teaching colleagues. Furthermore, eighteen months' residence in the South of Tasmania has often provided opportunities to absorb and discuss the views of many Southern teachers also. Because little experience had been gained of the foreign-language teaching profession in the North-West of Tasmania, a special trip was made to that area in order to conduct in-depth interviews with seven foreign-language teachers.

The interviews, which lasted for about sixty minutes each, were tape-recorded, and this information was studied alongside the comments which appeared at the ends of questionnaires of forty-one respondents. Additional information was gained from two foreign-language teachers, one from the South of Tasmania, and one from the North-West, who wrote lengthy letters about their professional difficulties.

The guided or focused type of interview was used (Moser and Kalton, 1973, p.298) in the sense that a list of twenty-two questions was used to keep the interview within the framework of a sociology of foreign-language teaching. The criticism has properly been raised that interviews of this kind often tell us more about the interviewer than about the topic of interest (Madge, 1975, p.177). Madge argues that a danger lies in the fact that the interviewer can influence the interviewee by guiding the discussion to areas which are of interest and concern to the researcher, but not necessarily to the interviewee. In response, it is pointed out that three years were spent, immediately prior to beginning the present study, discussing professional views and concerns with foreign-language teachers at Northern Branch and State Executive meetings of the MLTAT. Information gained in this informal manner provided the framework for the questions which were asked, and in each case, interviewees answered many questions on the list without them having to be asked. It can therefore be claimed with some confidence that the areas of discussion were of interest and concern to the interviewees as

well as the researcher.

The value of the in-depth, guided interview and the open-ended request to discuss one's professional views and concerns by correspondence lay in the opportunity that this provided for respondents to describe, in their own terms, their professional opinions and experiences. The intention was that this approach should add depth to the information gathered in the body of the questionnaire, and allow respondents to concentrate more closely on the matters perceived by them to be of greatest professional concern.

In view of the fact that not every member of the study population was interviewed, and the non-random way in which comments at the end of questionnaires were used for the present chapter, (all comments were studied), it is not possible to automatically assume that the views and concerns discussed and presented below are representative of the views of the majority of foreign-language teachers in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges. It is, however, hoped that sufficient teachers have been approached, and enough data gathered to allow some tentative conclusions or generalisations to be made. Every effort has been made to ensure that the comments quoted below encapsulate widely held views in the foreign-language teaching profession of Tasmania. Where minority or small-group views have been included, this has been indicated.

2. FRAMEWORK FOR THE ANALYSIS OF DATA

The data collected on the professional opinions and views of foreign-language teachers in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges, has been organized according to the three levels or tiers in the working environment of the foreign-language teacher: the school, the education system, and the wider community. Many teachers identified these three areas as sources of considerable professional pressure.

The evaluation of whether someone is teaching well or poorly is thus often seen to be contingent upon the pressures under which that person works.

Pressures from outside the foreign-language teaching profession were seen to come from three main areas:

2.1 The School or College

- a) the need to be able to control pupils in the classroom; that is, pupil discipline;
- b) the need to be able to show that some learning was being achieved; that is, commitment to a 'visible pedagogy';
- c) the need to prepare pupils adequately for the subsequent stage of foreign-language learning, whether this be Higher School Certificate or tertiary level;
- d) inadequate resources;
- e) the need to have the support of the school Principal with regard to:
 - i) formation of classes;

- ii) time allocation;
- iii) innovation;
- iv) attendance at in-service seminars.

2.2 The Education System

For most teachers "the Education System" meant the highly centralised administration of education in Tasmania by the Tasmanian Education Department, but included perceived pressure from Higher School Certificate level, the University, the Schools Board, and Foreign-Language Subject Committees. Many teachers complained that the Department was remiss in:

- i) failing to provide schools with adequate materials,
- ii) failing to provide syllabus outlines and moderation requirements which primarily require the development of aural and oral skills,
- iii) failure to acknowledge that foreign-language teachers in Tasmania have substantially varying amounts of time to prepare children for Moderation tests and entry into Higher School Certificate level foreign-language study,
- iv) failure to provide foreign-language teachers with avenues by which to effect professional change.

2.3 The Community

Many teachers viewed 'the community' as a generally hostile source of pressure on the foreign-language teacher. Community attitudes with which many teachers disagreed, and which were perceived as being wide-spread, included:

- i) the vocationalist view of education which sees schooling as preparation for employment, rather than for life itself or citizenship within a local, national and international community;
- ii) the view that if foreign languages had to be taught, the languages that should be studied were Japanese, Indonesian, Italian or Greek, because these were seen as of more practical value than French and German;
- iii) the view, with which many teachers concurred, that pupils should be taught to speak the foreign language and that not so much emphasis should be placed on the writing skill; and,
- iv) the wide-spread student perception of foreign languages as difficult.

2.4 The Value of Foreign-Language Teaching

One of the most profound impressions gained from this less formal interaction with approximately sixty foreign-language teachers, is that many reject the notion that they are able to teach along the guide-lines provided by their own professional ideologies. Many found that they had to compromise their teaching style to the occupational conditions under which they worked, and the curriculum over which they felt they had little control. This situation led many to question the value of their work.

2.5 Foreign-Language Teaching in Tasmania

The fifth section of this chapter will consider the comments

that were made about foreign-language teaching in Tasmania. Evaluation of teaching in this subject area will be seen to be problematic in the sense that some teachers felt poor teaching was directly attributable to pedagogic incompetence, while others felt that they themselves taught badly, but explained that they had little control over which approach to adopt in the classroom.

Finally, some comments on the implementation of innovation in foreign-language teaching will be considered.

3. THE SCHOOL

Classroom Pressures: In Chapter Three, the sociological theory was mentioned that many teachers require a 'visible' style of teaching which will allow them to remain in full control of what is done in the classroom by pupils. To this end an approach where the teacher is the main instigator of action and where pupils work within clearly defined areas of admissible behaviour, would seem to be the most suitable.

Some foreign-language teachers had experienced difficulty in maintaining pupil discipline in the classroom, and explained that efforts to maintain pupil discipline required the use of formalist techniques where little physical movement is expected from the pupils, and work proceeds in a quiet, orderly, scholarly atmosphere.

"Unless you are carefully trained in a new way you keep veering back to what you used to do because you feel that you are accomplishing something in that way, whereas you're not sure if you're accomplishing anything when you've got children nattering away to each other, with a group over here

and a group with a tape-recorder over there. Are they really learning anything? Whereas I know that they are learning something if I say "repeat after me" or whatever."

One teacher, commenting on the suggestion that group-work within the classroom was an ideal way of teaching heterogeneous classes, declared that her pupils lacked the self-motivation and self-discipline to be able to work constructively on their own. Another explained:

"I do more writing than spoken work simply because if you're speaking to a class of twenty-five you only get that one person listening which you're speaking to or largely, and the other kids, if they're not really switched on, and they're not, they'll be talking amongst themselves - so no-one else can hear anyway. So it's purely a matter of classroom mechanics."

Teachers' Perceptions of Students: The idea that pupils were

particularly difficult to control because of their cultural bias against foreign-language study was sometimes expressed in very strong terms. Descriptions of the type of pupil who is not interested in any kind of scholastic learning were encapsulated as follows:

"I love the romantic sound of French, the guttural tones of German and the sing-song quality of Italian.... "Huh?" says little Johnny Bloggs, scratchin' his 'ead, "Yeah, but all I wanna do is go milk me cows Miss."

A second type of student, the kind who takes a particular dislike to foreign-language study, was described as:

"...a tricky customer, whose view, I fear, is representative of many. He is an alert, bright kid who does pretty well in other subjects but when it comes to French pretends

that he left his brain at home that morning."

A lengthy cri-de-coeur from which the following two sections have been extracted show the perceptions that some teachers had of many of their pupils:

"Foreign-Language teaching is seen by many pupils at my school as useless: it will not get them a job (or so they imagine). They are often of mediocre intellect, have no background in learning and their prejudices are largely insurmountable. Many of the pupils I see are unable to speak coherently, formulate thoughts adequately, or attain levels of abstract thought, and consequently are their own worst enemies."

A foreign-language course which requires the memorization and application of many abstract rules and the exceptions to these rules would, presumably, also be a formidable enemy to such pupils.

One teacher classed the subjects in her school curriculum into two groups: vocational and leisure-oriented, foreign languages fitting into neither. Pupil dislike of foreign-language study was explained in terms of the 'high degrees of interest and effort' required to achieve 'reasonable fluency'.

The complaint was made by another teacher that she had to teach pupils 'the English Grammar', in order to explain 'the grammar of the foreign language to them':

"Often they don't know the tenses, the prepositions or adverbs."

Not all teachers despaired of students' attitudes to foreign-language study. Some were very sympathetic with those

students who became disillusioned with foreign-language study when it became apparent that they were not gaining the skills they had set out to achieve.

"Most children who choose French (as against those who are required to do the subject by the school timetable) are hoping to become fluent speakers of the language after their period of study and to be able to meet normal "tourist" social situations, and to read magazines and newspapers. They do not want to be able to take down French dictation, nor write imaginative essays, nor read French literature. Hence the enormous drop-out rate."

This teacher felt that the type of student described above was justified in her disillusionment. The teacher acknowledged that her own teaching approach alienated many students from foreign-language study, but explained that her choice of approach was dominated by:

"...the requirements of the Schools Board and the necessity of providing students who may wish to continue at H.S.C. with a reasonably adequate basis for further work."

It is interesting to note that in many cases emphasis on conversational skills was not seen to provide students with a 'reasonably adequate basis for further work'.

Courses and Materials: The lack of adequate resources with which to teach foreign languages was a major concern for a small number of teachers. One problem in this regard lay in finding a course which was directly applicable to teaching a particular foreign language (2) at junior secondary level. Another area of dissatisfaction was the perceived need to use:

"...a mixture of text-books as most text-books are either too old-fashioned and

have been around for years so are dated in content; or are so "Americanized" it's sickening; or are too audio-visual orientated so really should be used with all the A-V equipment etc;..."

A suggested solution to the problem of inadequate or unsuitable materials was the introduction of a standard text in all schools. One school had a number of books to choose from, but they were all regarded as useless by the current teacher, who also expressed dissatisfaction with the French audio-visual course, "En Avant".

It is interesting to note that this teacher did not request that the Schools Board or the Education Department adopt the function of selecting a course, a decision currently made by teachers. Rather, it was suggested that meetings be organized for foreign-language teachers to discuss various courses that had been used in the classroom. It was hoped that such meetings would make future decisions on the purchasing of courses and books more informed:

"It seems in the past that teachers have just ordered books "for the sake of it" rather than looking carefully at them. As a result we have sets and sets of useless books."

Insufficient Time: Many teachers complained about the insufficient amount of time that had been allowed for foreign-language teaching. In each case where this factor was mentioned, lack of time was offered as a major reason for the continued emphasis on written skills and the understanding of grammatical concepts.

"As we shall never have sufficient time to attain high levels of proficiency in the spoken foreign language, understanding of grammar enables the motivated foreign-language student to improve his/her range of spoken language."

It should be noted that while nearly all teachers emphasized the importance of grammar rules in their teaching programme, many explained that they did not teach grammar in 'the old tradition'. The 'old tradition' was, in these cases, clearly understood to be the formalist approach as defined by Rivers (1968, pp.1-3),

"...[sic].. I certainly do not teach Grammar in the old tradition, but I believe grammatical concepts and their understanding is absolutely vital to the handling of any language."

It seems, therefore, that not all teachers mean the same thing when they are talking about grammar and grammar teaching. A feature, common to many, however, was the distinction drawn between 'grammar teaching' and conversation, oral work or 'real-life' activities:

"I believe that students going on to H.S.C. foreign language study are well prepared for that, since what is required is grammatical knowledge. It is the other students (the majority) who are disadvantaged by having to follow the heavy grammar programme of the School Certificate course, since there is not enough time for conversation, dramatization and other "real-life" methods of teaching."

This teacher's pedagogic approach is, it seems, influenced to a greater extent by the perceived prerequisite knowledge for Higher School Certificate study, than the needs and wishes of the majority of students. What is regarded as adequate preparation for Higher School Certificate study is a 'heavy grammar

programme'. This teacher acknowledged that her manner of teaching disadvantaged the majority of her students.

Shortage of time and/or the poor distribution of foreign-language lessons in the school time-table seems to be a major influence on the approach chosen by teachers in the classroom. Shortage of time means that the 'essential elements' of foreign-language study only can be taught. What constitutes an 'essential element', however, was seen to be defined not only according to teachers' professional ideologies but also, and often more importantly, by the perceived requirements of the education system. Thus some teachers indicated that they were teaching elements of foreign-language study which were essential under their current occupational circumstances, but were neglecting to teach other elements which were essential according to their professional ideologies. Thus one teacher could use the seemingly paradoxical phrase: 'supplementary essentials'.

"Insufficient and badly time-tabled, time allowed in some year groups, making it impossible to cover course and give pupils supplementary essentials such as enjoyment, and their oral skills suffer because of this lack of time for conversational communication. Also, cultural aspects not treated as fully as would be liked. Lack of continuity because of poor time-tabling means progress is retarded, but no other subject in the secondary school curriculum requires the same IDEAL allocation of time as do languages. Therefore the problem seems insoluble."

It would appear that two working conditions, shortage of time and poor lesson distribution, prevented her from teaching

foreign languages in an enjoyable way. Presumably, for such a teacher, the work of methodologists and other foreign-language teaching 'experts', would be largely irrelevant if no notice were taken of the powerful pedagogic influence of these two working conditions.

A particularly graphic account was given of the difficulties that are sometimes faced because of the poor timetabling of foreign-language classes. A class was scheduled for the first period on Monday mornings and a double period on Fridays, causing the teacher to complain:

"Last term because of holidays and activities, I missed them for five weeks straight! Therefore we virtually accomplished nothing in term one. It knocked their motivation considerably."

Another saw her junior secondary pupils for only one ninety-minute session per week.

Insufficient time or the poor distribution of foreign-language lessons in the school timetable seem to be major influences on teaching style. It would, therefore, seem to be important that writers of foreign-language moderation tests, syllabi, external examinations, methodologies, and journal articles which are generally critical of foreign-language teachers, acknowledge the existence and importance of these influences when criticising present techniques and recommending new ones.

"The best approach is not what I am doing - I haven't got quite enough time to do that. Ideally you should be able to take your time a bit more than I do."

It must be remembered that some teachers were satisfied with their time allocation and could consequently make pedagogic decisions independent of considerations of time, but one aim of the research has been to provide evidence in support of the hypothesis that institutional conditions or circumstances influence teachers' pedagogic styles. In this light the factor of time seems, in many cases, to be of considerable importance.

The Principal: Ultimate control over the formation and

timetabling of classes in Tasmanian educational institutions lies with the school or college Principal. Foreign-language teachers were well aware of the important role that the Principal has to play in regard to foreign-language study.

"The situation of languages here depends largely on the attitude of the Principal of the school, to be honest."

In cases where foreign-language teachers felt they had the support of the Principal, this support was clearly perceived as fundamental to the continued viability of the foreign-language subject area:

"School policy often has a very large adverse influence on the teaching of foreign languages. At my present school the Principal is quite determined that all pupils coming into the school should have some experience of a foreign language - in most cases for two years. This makes our task quite a lot easier."

"Language teaching needs the understanding and backing of the Principal above all, who will then provide the support in materials and staff."

Teachers who indicated that they had total control over the choice of teaching approach, usually commented that they had the support of the Principal. One teacher pointed out that she could strongly promote foreign-language study precisely because she was the school Principal.

Thus Principal support was highly valued by foreign-language teachers. Where this support was lacking, the situation was often explained as one where the administration of the school was guided by pressures from without the institution. It was generally understood that Principals have to allocate funds fairly and that they have to be seen to be responsive to community pressures:

"The Principal is faced with the need to teach, or have taught, pupils who need training as distinct from an education....."

Some teachers enjoyed the support of the Principal and others did not. What was clear, however, was that the Principal of the school or college plays an important role in the decision-making process with regard to methods and materials in foreign-language education. Most teachers argued that teacher autonomy in this regard was a myth.

This chapter has considered the pedagogic influences on teachers, which come directly from the school or college environment. Other pressures on teaching style, from within the educational system, but from outside the school or college, were also regarded by many teachers as important.

4. THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

A range of systemic pressures were identified, which were felt to be serious obstacles to the promotion of foreign-language study in Tasmania. Many teachers commented that areas within the education system, such as university, Higher School Certificate and School Certificate requirements, and the Education Department placed limitations on the effectiveness of their work. Each of these perceived sources of influence was mentioned by only a few teachers. While it was generally agreed that systemic pressures played an important part in the determining of teacher strategies in the classroom few teachers indicated the same areas of concern. This is not to suggest that teachers do not share common areas of concern with regard to systemic pressures.

The following areas were seen by some to bring considerable pressure to bear on the foreign-language teacher in the classroom:

1. One teacher, who felt that foreign-language teachers in Tasmania were fortunate to have a 'rather supportive Education Department', was very angry about the University of Tasmania's response to the requests from teachers of Indonesian:

"The Indonesian teachers have for years pushed for the introduction of Indonesian at Tas. Uni. Without offering the course at Tas. Uni. I believe the Uni. is deliberately squashing this growing foreign language in secondary schools."

2. Some complained about the University indirectly, by commenting on the influence on their teaching of the

perceived requirements for entry to and completion of Higher School Certificate foreign-language study.

"Perhaps HSC/tertiary requirements should be liberalized to allow a great deal more flexibility "lower down". It just might slow down the attrition rate...!"

"If we wish to equip our pupils to be able to study at H.S.C., then we are forced to do the traditional!"

Others were more specific:

"The HSC requirements are such that the students have to do a fair bit of literature. In the oral, examiners always lean on students with literature. Even though the emphasis at Uni. is on literature it is rather unrealistic/unfair to stress this aspect... Confine literature to uni. and we may have more chance of bringing students to a realistic useful level of language."

"Attempting to do level III Japanese in one year means that the students have to cover much more grammar than could be reasonably expected. Consequently their speaking and listening skills are not very good."

3. Much concern was expressed about the standard required at grade ten.

"A foreign language in the junior school should be a fun experience. Unfortunately I feel this is too often marred by the demands of the standards required by the school certificate at the end of grade ten. This is unrealistically high, and a major cause of declining numbers in the senior classes - and spoils the enjoyment of the subject at all levels."

Another problem at the grade ten level was the Moderation Instrument or the Practice Moderation Test which is designed as a measure of comparability of standards in Tasmanian secondary schools.

"Moderation does not work. It's laughable. School A does two years of German, School B does four, School C does maybe one year. School A uses "Sprich Mal Deutsch", the next school uses

"Vorwärts"... School-based assessment has got to

 come."

Complaints about this test were typical of those expressed by a teacher from a school with a high enrolment of children from lower socio-economic backgrounds. Pupils in these schools were felt to be disadvantaged because of:

- "a) Heterogeneous classes in grade seven with a wide ability range and large numbers of low ability pupils. This means that the major emphasis is on oral work, culture and games. Any attempts at theoretical grammar (apart from simple structures) prove fruitless, even disastrous (as I have learnt from experience!).
- b) Grade eight time allocation - To fit in a wide range of options, pupils can only have two fifty minute lessons in their optional subjects. (Some schools have double this time!)
- c) Grade nine and ten - Finally, smaller classes and a reasonable time allocation but pupils are already well behind and 'cramming' must begin. Pupils question the heavy workload and amount of homework they have in comparison with other subjects. How can schools reach a common standard when some have almost half the time allocation of others and different teaching conditions?"

Another teacher, who raised the same problems, explained:

"Under these circumstances, I concentrate on basics and leave it to H.S.C. to improve fluency in conversation."

It is interesting to note that 'basics' were seen to exclude even basic conversational skills.

4. A general complaint, which expressed the shared view of many foreign-language teachers, was addressed to all those areas 'higher up' in the education system, including HSC, the University, the Schools Board and the

Education Department:

"I don't believe we should be dictated to, standard-wise, from above. We can only do what we can in the time available and if that is not acceptable, there will not be any foreign-language students continuing in the near future. Support needs to be given to language teaching, not prescriptive course restrictions."

It is not being suggested here that every foreign-language teacher in Tasmanian schools and colleges works under the combined pressure of all these systemic demands and restrictions. A few teachers felt that they worked under no undue pressures at all and taught precisely as they wanted to teach. Many felt that they had to severely compromise their professional ideologies to their occupational circumstances.

The effects of these pressures were essentially seen to constitute the difference between the theory and practice of foreign-language teaching methodology. It is clear that, at a time of little perceived teacher autonomy in foreign languages, it is essential that systemic demands, prescriptions, restrictions and recommendations take into account the institutional and systemic pressures under which teachers work. One comment encapsulated the essential message of many:

"Don't try and impose from above a set of rules that are totally unacceptable to people without knowing what their situation is."

Many teachers perceived strong limitations on their professional autonomy and, therefore, felt that improvement and innovation were things which had to originate with those who

control some of the important decision-making areas of foreign-language education:

"It is unfair that the classroom teacher should have to beg the headmaster for a greater time allocation. The Schools Board should state the minimum number of hours required for School Certificate French; apparently they have refused to do this."

It was also pointed out that foreign-language teachers have had very little to say on the question of class sizes:

"We have been brainwashed into accepting classes of twenty etc as suitable. They are for example eminently unsuitable at grade seven level and onwards, preventing learning and eventually preventing foreign-language teaching."

Intervention on a national scale was hopefully mentioned:

"Every language teacher would welcome a new direction in methodology which would bring greater success in his/her work. But I must repeat the worn-out statement that I believe a lasting change in motivating students at senior high school level towards foreign-language studies will only be answered by a National Language Policy."

Until now, teachers' expressed views on institutional and systemic pressures have been considered. Many foreign-language teachers felt that their work was hindered by the limitations placed on it by a difficult, and, in some cases, hostile, institutional environment. The school or college may be seen as part of a larger educational system - a sometimes tightly, sometimes loosely associated social structure of which each section has the function of promoting institutionalized education. Many teachers felt that institutionalized education in Tasmania fails to promote foreign-language study as well as it

could, and at times directly provides disincentives for students to continue learning a second language.

If the institution and the system are seen as two tiers of the environment in which foreign-language teachers work, then the local community can be regarded as a third tier in the working environment of the foreign-language teacher.

5. THE COMMUNITY

Community attitudes to foreign-language study were grouped into three broad categories:

- i) those who support foreign-language study;
- ii) those who support the teaching of Asian and/or perceived community languages only;
- iii) those who disapprove of foreign-language study.

Many teachers indicated that they gained unqualified support for foreign-language study from only very few parents.

"I feel the position of F.L. is particularly vulnerable in the present economic climate as there is much parental and community pressure on students studying those subjects which will help them get a job. Often F.L. are considered (regrettably) a waste of time."

Community support was highly prized:

"Support of staff and parents make a great deal of difference to the success of languages in the school. Language teachers often work in isolation and they need a network of support."

Many saw lack of community support as a threat to their professional survival:

"....foreign-language teaching is a numbers game. Until grades 9 and 10, and even then, one is forced to motivate rather than teach

the real skills of the language.....For this reason, whenever mentioned in this survey, I've included parental support as a key issue."

The distinction made between motivation and 'real teaching' implies that they are mutually exclusive.

Some believed that community support for foreign-language study would substantially increase if languages other than French and German were offered in their schools and colleges.

"The languages generally being offered in high schools don't seem to relate to Australian life as Greek, Italian, Japanese or Indonesian would and I feel that students don't opt for foreign-language studies because they see no practical relevance to their lives. French and German seem somewhat more removed these days from Australian life than ever before."

"Grade eight kids are sick of languages, they don't see the relevance of it. We should teach Indonesian, Greek or Italian. They want to speak the language, therefore we need to offer more relevant ones."

One teacher expressed the view that the pressure for the offering of 'relevant' languages came from the Tasmanian Education Department:

"There seems to be quite a deal of pressure, emanating from the upper echelons of the Education Department, to put an end to the teaching of non-ethnic (to Australia) European languages (viz: French and German) in our schools."

A more common view attributed low interest in foreign-language study to something intrinsic to Australian culture:

"It seems a bit sort of part of the Australian character, you know, ordinary,

homespun Australian, to not really be interested in learning another language. Well perhaps we need to change the Australian....."

Such pressures on the foreign-language teacher, from within the school or college, the education system and the wider community of which that system is a part, could be expected to have some important consequences:

"The present career-oriented approach and the learning of subjects for utilitarian purposes counteracts the efforts by the foreign-language classroom teacher."

Many foreign-language teachers indicated that the pressures from within the school, the system and the wider community were sufficient to make them doubt the value of foreign-language teaching.

6. THE VALUE OF FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING

Doubt about the value of foreign-language teaching in Tasmania was expressed for the following main reasons:

- i) Some teachers questioned the value of foreign-language teaching under present circumstances.

"It is almost impossible for a teacher to generate enthusiasm about a foreign language when he/she, him/herself, is not quite convinced of its value for the vast majority of students. An approach which stresses more background/culture seems indicated."

"The highly motivated, imaginative teachers are slowly losing their enthusiasm - for good reasons." "One feels slightly guilty encouraging pupils to do a foreign language when they could gain a higher award on their School Certificate in another subject."

- ii) A feeling of depression about the future of foreign-language study in Tasmania was also evident:

"I virtually gave up teaching languages full-time, as I saw "the writing on the wall" once French and German lost their popularity. There was too much competition from other languages and other subjects."

"If the present trend of diminishing numbers continues I can see the French departments at H.S.C.'s and University drying up completely. It is time for a re-think. I feel depressed about my own work and future in the subject, but while the courses at H.S.C. and University remain virtually unchanged from those in use twenty years ago, I see no hope for revitalizing the course."

"Language teachers are dedicated and they work in spite of...nearly always and I think it is the most depressed lot of teachers you'll come across because they know their own futures and the future of their life's work is just drifting away."

Some doubted the value of foreign-language study as such, while others doubted the value of present teaching practices, and/or expressed concern about the continued viability of the subject area.

In Chapter Two research studies were cited (eg. Robinson, 1978) which also expressed concern about the value and continued viability of foreign-language study in Australian secondary schools and colleges. It was noted there that criticism of foreign-language teachers was not an uncommon reaction to the perception that foreign-language education in Australia and other countries suffered from some serious problems. While nearly all of the teachers who participated in the present study refused to accept such criticism when it was brought to their attention, pointing to the pressures under which they worked, some felt that many foreign-language teachers in Tasmania did teach badly.

7. FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING IN TASMANIA

Poor Teaching: A small number of teachers were strongly committed to the view that poor teaching on the part of many of their colleagues presented a major obstacle to the promotion of foreign-language education in Tasmania:

"The reason for the gradual decline in modern languages in this state is the inability of the more established teachers to promote a lively and enjoyable learning situation in the classroom. It is still regarded as an elitist subject and one only relevant to students of high intelligence."

"There is a significant difference between beginning foreign-language numbers and end of year numbers in some schools. And one of the main reasons for the drop out rate (it seems to me) is the subject of your questionnaire - poor pre-service preparation, poor teaching, poor courses etc."

"On the whole I'm of the impression that many foreign-language teachers are merely interested in preserving their professional interests only

- they are not interested in in-service courses, even when available
- they are self-opinionated and feel that there is nothing else to learn about teaching once they obtain their degree/diploma."

Some indicated that foreign-language teachers should be able to teach well, despite all external, professional pressures.

"Frankly, I deplore the stultifying, traditionally exclusive, 'grammar' approach to foreign-language learning. Foreign languages can and should reach all in some way, should be relevant and enjoyable, especially in the early years of learning. It is all about motivation and we language teachers, if we are worth our salt, should be able to find ways to motivate."

Notice again that motivation and the 'grammar' approach are regarded as mutually exclusive.

Others felt that external pressures had prevented any effective pedagogic change:

"We've gone right back to a prettied-up version of what I had when I was at school - endless exercises and translation."

How Foreign Languages Should Be Taught: Most teachers gave

some indication of how they taught foreign languages and what had influenced them in their particular approach. Those, who believed that improvement in the quality of teaching of their colleagues was basically all that was required to revitalize foreign-language education in Tasmania, gave an outline of the direction that such pedagogic development should take:

"...there seems to be an (unjustifiable) defeatist attitude towards the learning/teaching of foreign languages. At my previous school languages have "taken off" in unprecedented fashion, undoubtedly because of a concentrated effort on the part of everyone teaching foreign languages to use lively, modern, interesting ideas including "gimmicks" like prizes, language assemblies and certificates for good performances as well as, for example, Kaffee und Kuchen parties with genuine 'bought' continental cakes... Also good games bought in Germany and France e.g. the Ravensburger series and the use of appropriate T.V. programmes, videod. Personality and vitality of the teacher plays a great part (unfortunately, perhaps?). But many a child will take an option because of who is teaching it, and because of how they teach. Many think that a tape-recording of "Domenique" or Françoise Hardy and a game of "Simon Dit" or "Lotto" occasionally, constitutes the possible extent of modern, fun activities. Not so. It is very easy with a set course - traditional or audio-lingual - to settle into the text and little else. It is really good to take stock frequently and discard/add ideas and techniques. All this may be self-evident and

one would not wish to be unprofessional but I think a lack of imagination in teachers' techniques may be a real factor in the decline of foreign languages in schools. This is partly, of course, exacerbated by Tasmania's isolation which makes it harder for teachers and pupils but none of the problems are insoluble!"

"I feel that if languages are to flourish, they must be geared towards the "average" student and not just the academically gifted children. That is, to Grade 10, at least. (Otherwise numbers in classes become so small that even gifted children miss out). This would mean language teachers would have to be more realistic in their expectations of students and less insistent on grammatical correctness, especially in written work among slower students,

- place greater emphasis on languages as tools of communication
- stress every-day language in every-day situations
- use materials which are modern, attractive and which reflect students' interests
- meet in a workshop situation to invent short (3 minute?) dialogues or playlets that could be used dramatically in class to reinforce every-day vocab."

For some teachers one of the main values of foreign-language study was the possibility it provided for student participation.

"When I was at high school we might have sort of uttered a few words very meekly and hesitatingly, whereas I make sure that the kids say things - they have much more confidence than there used to be."

"If foreign languages are to increase tolerance - then community languages should be taught in a communicative way where the kids are able to have the chance of using the language."

Many teachers had definite ideas about how foreign languages should be taught, but felt that many professional pressures prevented them from teaching in the best possible way:

"If we are to encourage, by good teaching,

students to go on, and I think that's the way we ought to be trying to encourage them..... rather than trying to cajole them into doing the subject..... We really should be trying to teach them well and to do that, I think the methodology has got to be one of an oral type of approach basically, in the earlier years, teaching things that they are interested in and things that are useful maybe to them and just how to say, you know, just ask their ages and doing just little, simple dialogues and so on - that sort of thing, and then moving a bit later on where you've got a core, hopefully, of really dead-keen foreign-language students to push it further. But just by the nature of the timetable set-up, the slower academic kids in grades nine and ten, just, doing foreign languages is just not on. Really."

While it was commonly held that abstract grammar rules were too difficult for most students to cope with, many teachers felt that grammar teaching was very important. The interpretation of comments on this topic is made especially difficult because some teachers taught a lot of grammar rules because they felt this was an important part of foreign-language learning, while others did so only because they felt current circumstances demanded it. The question of grammar teaching is further complicated by teachers' various definitions of what such teaching entails. It was accepted with few exceptions that the learning of grammar is difficult and tends to considerably reduce student motivation:

"I start off with sort of a really general sort of cultural thing - a lot of slides, films, tape-work. Just trying to introduce vocab., as much vocab. as possible. At the same time, you know, showing them a bit of German life and Germany and so on. So, they find that - I find that a good way to draw them into it - and then I smother them with grammar (Laughter). You know, I teach all the - I teach, yeah, I go through all the tenses and, you know, the cases, and declension and,

you know, all that sort of thing..... I say 'smother them with grammar' - that's probably exaggerating a bit, quite a bit, no, I haven't lost any of them. Sometimes, you know, I will lose them for a lesson or two. So I've got to really, suddenly change, you know, like bringing in songs."

The Implementation of New Methods: In response to the question of how to successfully implement innovation in foreign-language teaching in Tasmania, it was generally agreed that teachers themselves needed to be at the centre of innovation because only teachers experience the professional pressures which may vary from school to school.

Many teachers called for a directional change in decision making.

"We are assuming or the matric are assuming that the students, when they reach them, will have done a certain amount of work, right? They will have covered a certain amount of work. What I'm saying is that I think that what should happen is in fact the other way round. Obviously we don't just play games with them for four years, but we get through what we can get through. Now I'm afraid that they're going to have to just get off their backsides and do some teaching when they get to matric. Sorry matric teachers, but that's the way I feel about it. And therefore, they, the matric teachers shouldn't have imposed on them, and this is what they will tell us, anything from, say, the university which says that when they end up at matric they should be at that particular standard. Because if they leave us too low, they'll never get there and the whole thing is just a.....But they're looking at it from the top down instead of from the bottom up. That's the problem."

Many, speaking of 'ivory towers', called for the establishment of channels of frank discussion between

foreign-language teachers and education administrators.

"The bulk of teachers are not, I can't think of the word. They are more down-to-earth sort of thing, and they feel as though any contact that there is has got to be done through such an official meeting, and the whole bit's got to be planned and there's got to be, you know, these hifalutin directives coming and floating about everywhere and, you know, bumph and rubbish, - where, in fact, the problem is a lot - it could be - if there's such a discussion as we're having now - is what's required. That's what's needed. But with other people, and then follow the thing on somehow."

Some pointed to the inadequacy of in-service seminars.

"I am refreshed by new methods of presentation shown at seminars, however, am frustrated that I can't apply the new ideas in my teaching practice because I am presented with the same old goals of reaching those same particular end-points of the Schools Board syllabus. Otherwise I'd be experimenting with group-work, tape-recorders and generally exploring all the new avenues that I could. But as I feel at the moment, I just have to keep pushing them."

8. CONCLUSION

The purposes of this chapter have been: to report on foreign-language teacher perceptions regarding the current teaching of foreign languages in Tasmania; to identify the sorts of pressures which are perceived to influence that teaching; to examine the effect of such pressures on teacher morale; and, to identify ways of providing foreign-language teachers with effective models of change in order to minimize the potentially detrimental effect of these conditions on the functioning and quality of foreign-language teaching and learning in Tasmanian

secondary schools and colleges.

The concern of the present chapter has essentially been with the views of the individual foreign-language teacher as she continues her work in an environment often perceived as hostile to her professional aims.

The conceptual framework, used to organize the data from interviews, letters and the end comments on questionnaires, was derived from the most frequently mentioned concerns of teachers, which fitted neatly into the three-tiered structure of the working teacher's professional environment: the school; the education system; the wider community.

The qualitative data was set against a background of much published criticism of foreign-language teachers which often failed to acknowledge important areas of sociological interest.

Finally, it should be remembered that the data for this chapter was gained from only about half the total study population. Comments selected for inclusion in the chapter were chosen because they encapsulated perceived problems or expressed a commonly held view. The intention was not to suggest that all foreign-language teachers in Tasmania agree with every complaint or view included in the present chapter. What is important is that foreign-language teaching practice seems to entail many issues which are often not given adequate consideration by education administrators and foreign-language theorists.

REFERENCES

- (1) Some taught less than ten foreign-language students, while some others taught about 150 students.
- (2) The language referred to in this case is not mentioned, in order to protect the teacher's anonymity.

CHAPTER TEN

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS.

INTRODUCTION

The purposes of this chapter are to summarize the perspectives adopted and the main findings gained in the present research. The summary will begin with a brief description of the traditional approach to the study of foreign-language teaching, before contrasting that approach with the one used in this thesis. The main research findings of the Modern Language Teaching Project will then be briefly discussed and the major implications drawn out. These considerations will lead to a number of suggestions for further research.

1. TRADITIONAL APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF FOREIGN-LANGUAGE ----- TEACHING -----

The study of foreign-language education has nearly always excluded a study of the dynamics of social or group interaction pertaining to foreign-language teaching. This would suggest that the interaction of the foreign-language teacher with colleagues, pupils and students, superiors within the educational hierarchy, and people in the wider community has little bearing on the way she teaches languages. Rather, it would appear that the development of foreign-language teaching style is purely a matter of consideration of psycholinguistic theory. For example, the authors discussed in Chapters Four and Five present the view that decisions on how to teach foreign languages are made on a calm, objective basis, where the main consideration is given to the

aims and needs of the students, and the merits of the methodological principles presented.

A second major feature of the traditional approach to the study of foreign-language teaching has been the criticism of teachers. Foreign-language teachers in Tasmania, mainland Australia, and other countries have often been severely criticized in professional journals for their alleged incompetence, apathy and mindlessness. Accusations refer to their teaching as catastrophic, hopeless, boring, elitist, conservative and reactionary (See Chapter Two).

The design of the research reported upon in this thesis was guided by the review of the related literature on foreign-language education, to the extent that much information was sought about how Tasmanian secondary-level foreign-language teachers taught, and whether they were apathetic and/or reactionary with regard to methodology.

The cyclic model of foreign-language teaching methodology where:

- (i) a given method is developed, fails to be implemented in the foreign-language classroom and is therefore modified on the assumption that defects in the method are responsible for the failure of its implementation; the perception of teachers as reactionary and incompetent is strengthened by teachers' rejection of new ideas, ignores the elements of

foreign-language teachers' professional and occupational socialisation which, as has been argued in this dissertation, can so seriously affect the development of their teaching style.

2. A SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF FOREIGN-LANGUAGE ----- TEACHING -----

In contrast to the traditional approach, summarized above, the present research was based on a review of the relevant literature on the sociology of education (See Chapter Three). This review presented much sociological evidence which lends support to the view that teachers develop their pedagogic styles in the light of the pressures of the social environments within which they work. The environments include the classroom, the school, the education system and the wider community, and the vast majority of the pressures from these sources were seen to be strongly conservative.

The research design of the questionnaire and the interviews were guided by the review of relevant sociological literature to the extent that one major aim of the research project was to identify the social influences on the development of the pedagogic styles of Tasmanian foreign-language teachers. Information was sought about these teachers' professional and occupational socialisation and the influences of this socialisation on their professional ideologies and teaching styles.

3. MAIN FINDINGS OF THE PRESENT RESEARCH

The present study has found that the development of foreign-language teaching style is formed with close reference to the social environment within which the foreign-language teacher works. This is not to say that psycholinguistic theory plays no role in the development of foreign-language teaching style, but is to argue that many foreign-language teachers face a range of pressures which are more influential in determining the way in which they teach than are the clearly articulated, theoretical recommendations of methodologists.

With regard to foreign-language teaching in Tasmanian secondary-level schools and colleges, virtually all of the foreign-language teaching methodology texts that these teachers have read totally ignore the social factors, such as reference group pressures, which effectively prevent the implementation of innovation in teaching style. Many of the teachers interviewed expressed concern that their professional theory was only distantly related to professional practice. In most cases this was not because teachers disagreed with the communicative tenets of modern methods, but because they felt the new ideas could not be implemented in their current occupational situation.

Currently in Tasmania, virtually the only sources of pressure to adopt more communicative methods are the negative grumblings of disenchanted parents who want their children to be able to converse in the foreign language, and the empirical-rational arguments published in "babel" and other

professional journals.

It has been shown in this study that many foreign-language teachers in Tasmanian secondary-level schools and colleges continue to use the key techniques of the traditional, cognitive approach. However, the vast majority of them support communicative aims and non-elitist views on foreign-language education. Many teachers explained that they were working under considerable stress because they felt that conservative pressures within the school and education system were preventing them from teaching in a way that would benefit the vast majority of their students.

The traditional, empirical-rational approach to innovation in foreign-language education seems to have been successful in attracting many teachers to communicative approaches to foreign-language teaching, in theory. In practice, few teachers indicated that they could effect sustained implementation of the new approaches because of a number of organizational difficulties such as timetabling and moderation instruments, and a number of less tangible pressures such as objectivist epistemologies which require a visible pedagogy.

4. SOME IMPLICATIONS OF THE CONSERVATIVE SOCIAL PRESSURES ON ----- FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHERS -----

For many Tasmanian foreign-language teachers the change in professional ideology achieved by foreign-language teaching methodology in the past has not effectively changed their

teaching style, but has greatly increased their professional anxiety and feeling of guilt, despondency and disillusionment.

The information gathered in this research project is inadequate to allow foreign-language teachers to respond to the criticism mentioned earlier by arguing that the assertions are insubstantial. What can be claimed on the strength of this study is that there is evidence which supports the view that much of the criticism is misdirected and unfair. As was mentioned earlier many Tasmanian foreign-language teachers share the communicative, progressive and innovative ideologies of methodologists and critics. However the teachers, not the critics, have to work under the combined conservative pressures from within their schools, colleges and educational systems, and in a wider community which is often perceived as hostile to the notion of foreign-language education.

It would be appropriate for critics of foreign-language teachers to gain an understanding of these perceived conservative pressures so they can discuss them and defend or challenge teachers' perceptions in this regard. For example, a very constructive piece of criticism may be the identification of a perceived conservative pressure, followed by the argument that the given pressure need not have a conservative effect on teaching style.

With regard to foreign-language teaching methodology, the conclusion is reached that the relationship between professional ideology and professional practice in the vast majority of

teachers examined is problematic. That is, a change in ideology does not necessarily lead to a change in teaching style (Keddie, 1975). It is this change in foreign-language teacher behaviour in the classroom which should be the ultimate aim of all methodologists - not just change of teachers' professional views.

Innovators in the field of foreign-language education may be more successful in their attempts to implement new approaches in schools and colleges if they take account of the conservative pressures identified in the present study, for example: Higher School Certificate and Schools Board requirements; the decision-making powers of the Principal; insufficient time for foreign-language study; and, the need to maintain control over pupils' behaviour in the classroom.

It is hoped that a new model of research into foreign-language teaching, where the foreign-language teacher is given expert help to implement proposed innovations, would prove much more successful in Tasmania where innovative ideas in the field are generally welcome (Whiteside, 1978, p.108). Sociological theories discussed in Chapter Three give some indication of the guidance from which foreign-language teachers could benefit.

5. SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Further study of foreign-language education using a sociological perspective is likely to be of value in identifying the occupational pressures in the working and professional environments of foreign-language teachers in other Australian states and other countries. Such study may replicate the conceptual framework of this dissertation by considering the professional and occupational socialisation of teachers and how pressures from these sources combine with teachers' professional ideologies and consideration of theory to form the basis of their teaching style. More narrowly-defined sociological perspectives on foreign-language teaching may reveal valuable information about the nature of foreign-language teaching and foreign-language education in general. For example, such approaches might include:

- i) the in-depth study of foreign-language pupils (i.e. their views on language learning; the contents of their workbooks, etc);
- ii) an examination of tests and the reasons why some kinds of tests are used more frequently than others;
- iii) participant-observer research (i.e. focussing on pressures on the foreign-language teacher from within the classroom and staffroom);
- iv) parental views on foreign-language education;
- v) a close examination of decision-making in foreign-language education in order that pressure for change can be directed to the most effective areas

within the education system;

- vi) a close examination of teachers' reactions to certain text or course books in order to gain insight into teachers' professional views as well as their textbook needs;
- vii) the study of the social environments of the primary and tertiary sectors of foreign-language education.

The study of foreign-language education in these and other directions may help to bridge the gap between theory and practice in the field and replace the traditional, cyclic model of research into foreign-language teaching with a progressive, linear model which will lead more directly to a form of language education which pupils, teachers, educationists and methodologists will find satisfactory and rewarding.

REFERENCES

AND

APPENDICES

REFERENCES

- Allen, E.D. and Valette, R. (1972), Modern Language Classroom
Techniques A Handbook, New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

- Anweiler, O. (1982), "Russifizierung durch Unterricht: Fakten und
Hypothesen", International Journal of the Sociology of
Language Language, No. 33, pp.41-51.

- Asher, J.J. (1981), "Fear of Foreign Language", Psychology Today,
Vol. 15, No. 8, pp.52-59.

- Assistant Masters Association (1979), Teaching Modern Languages
in Secondary Schools, London: Hodder and Stoughton.

- Association of German Teachers of Victoria (1981), Szene,
Jahrgang I, No.5.

- Australian Academy of Humanities, First Report of the Committee
on Foreign Languages (1975), Survey of Foreign Language
Teaching in the Australian Universities (1965-1973) ,

Canberra: Australian Academy of Humanities.
- Australian Council for Education (1980), Social Futures in
Australia and the Implications for School Practice,

Ballarat: A.C.E.
- Bancroft, D. (1965), Problems of Teaching French in Australia,
babel, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp.17-20.

- Banks, O. (1974), "The Sociology of Education", Forum of
Education, Vol. 17, No. 1, pp.4-7.

- Banks, O. (1977), The Sociology of Education, London: B.T.
Batsford.

Beare, H. (1982), "The image of education: coming to terms with the new marketplace", *The Tasmanian Teacher*, No. 5, pp10-12.

Berger, P.L. (1977), *Invitation to Sociology A Humanistic Perspective*, Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Bernbaum, G. (1977), *Knowledge and Ideology in the Sociology of Education*, London: The Macmillan Press.

Bernstein, B. (1975), "On the Classification and Framing of Educational Knowledge". In Young, M.F.D. (Ed.), *Knowledge and Control*, London: Collier-Macmillan, pp.47-69.

Biggs, J.B. and Collis, K.F. (1982), *Evaluating the Quality of Learning The SOLO Taxonomy (Structure of the Observed Learning Outcome)*, New York: Academic Press.

Boomer, G. (1977), "Models of Collaboration". In Gill, M. and Crocker, W.J. (Ed.), *English in Teacher Education*, University of New England, pp.51-67.

Bostock, W. (1975), "The Boundary Between Languages and the Social Sciences", *babel*, Vol. 11, No. 1, pp.14-18.

Bowker, E. and Triffitt, G.B. (1965), "Berlin International Congress on Modern Foreign-Language Teaching", *babel*, Vol. I, No. 1, pp.3-12.

Branson, J. (1980), "Sociology and the Sociology of Education in Australia", *The Australian and New Zealand Journal of Sociology*, Vol.16, No.2, pp.8-15.

Brooks, N. (1964), *Language and Language Learning*, New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.

- Burke, C.J. (1963), "Measurement Scales and Statistical Models".
In Marx, M.H. (Ed.), Theories of Contemporary Psychology,
New York: The Macmillan Company, pp.147-159.
- Burstall, C. et al. (1974), Primary French in the Balance,
Slough: National Foundation for Educational Research.
- Cameron, M.B. (1970), "Modern Language Teaching". In Butcher,
H.J. and Pont, H.B. (Eds.), Educational Research in Britain
2, London: London University Press, pp.82-106.
- Cameron, W.G. and Hannah, W. (1981), "Adaptive Schools and the
Nature of Support Services", Unicorn, Vol. 7, No. 1,
pp.62-72.
- Campbell, N.H. (1972), "Editorial", The Tasmanian Journal of
Education, Vol. 6, No. 1, p.1.
- Carlson, R.O. (1964), "School Superintendents and the Adoption of
Modern Maths". In Miles, M.B. (Ed.), Innovation in
Education, New York: Columbia University Press.
- Carroll, J.B. (1963), "Research on Teaching Foreign Languages".
In Gage, N.L. (Ed.), Handbook of Research on Teaching,
Chicago: Rand McNally, pp.1060-1100.
- Caspari, I. (1976), Troublesome Children in Class, London:
Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (1983), "New Methods in Perspective", TESOL
News, Vol. 6, No. 3, pp.29-35.
- Chamberlain, A. (1975), "The Great God Literature", babel, Vol.
11, No. 1, pp.27-30.
- Chamberlain, A. (1980), "French Language Teaching in the 1980s:
Pragmatism or Revolution?", babel, Vol. 16, No. 2, pp.11-17.

- Chase, C.I. (1976), elementary statistical procedures, Tokyo:

McGraw-Hill Kogakusha.
- Chastain, K. (1971), The Development of Modern Language Skills:

Theory to Practice, Philadelphia: CCD.

- Chomsky, N. (1965), Aspects of the Theory of Syntax, Cambridge,

Massachusetts: M.I.T. Press.
- Cicourel, A.V. and Kitsuse, J.I. (1978), "Educational Decision
Makers". In Beck et al., Toward A Sociology of Education,

New Brunswick: Transaction, pp.197-205.
- Claydon, L., Knight, T. and Rado, M. (1979), Curriculum and

Culture, Sydney: George Allen and Unwin.

- Clyne, M.G. (1982), Multilingual Australia, Melbourne: River

Seine Publications.
- Clyne, M.G. (1983), "An Immersion Program in Australia", babel,

Vol. 18, No. 1, pp.6-15.
- Collard, L.N. (1975), "The Great Australian Apathy", babel, Vol.

11, No. 3, pp.41-43.
- Committee of Enquiry into Education in South Australia (1982),
Education and Change in South Australia, Adelaide: Education

Department.
- Committee on Secondary Education (1977), Secondary Education in

Tasmania, Hobart: Education Department of Tasmania.

- Commonwealth Department of Education (1982), "Towards a National
Language Policy", Education News, Vol. 17, No. 12, pp.13-15.

- (1980), Core Curriculum for Australian Schools: What it is and

why it is needed, Canberra: Curriculum Development Centre.

Crittenden, B. (1981), "The Identity Crisis in Secondary Education", *The Australian Journal of Education*, Vol. 25, No. 2, pp.146-165.

Curtis, S.J. and Boulwood, M.E.A. (1977), *A Short History of Educational Ideas*, Slough: University Tutorial Press.

Davies, I. (1975), "The Management of Knowledge: a Critique of the Use of Typologies in the Sociology of Education". In Young, M.F.D. (Ed.), *Knowledge and Control*, London: Collier-Macmillan, pp.267-288.

Dayan, F.E. (1958), "Modern Language Teaching in Tasmania's High Schools", *babel*, No. 9, pp.16-19.

Dayan, F.E. (1968), "Aims and Objectives in Modern Language Teaching. The Ideal and the Practicable", *The Tasmanian Journal of Education*, Vol. 2, No. 6, pp.210-213.

Dayan, F.E. (1971), "New Rules of Matriculation and the Teaching of Foreign Languages in Tasmanian Schools", *The Tasmanian Journal of Education*, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp.11-12.

Degenhardt, M.A.B. (1982), *Education and the Value of Knowledge*, London: George Allen and Unwin.

Delamont, S. (1976), *Interaction in the Classroom*, London: Methuen.

Department of Education Research Branch Report (1977), *The Teaching of Modern Languages in Australian Schools 1975*, Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.

Diller, K.C. (1978), *The Language Teaching Controversy*, Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Education Department of Tasmania (1968), The School in Society,
Hobart: Government Printer.

Education Department of Tasmania (1981), White Paper on Tasmanian
Schools and Colleges in the 1980s, Hobart: Education
Department of Tasmania.

Eggleston, J. (1977), The Sociology of the School Curriculum,
London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Eltis, K.J. (1975), "1975-84 A Decade of Decision for Language
Teachers - Can We Change the Scene?", babel, Vol. 11, No. 1,
pp.19-22.

Eltis, K.J. (1978), "Languages for What...? An Optimistic View",
babel, Vol. 14, No. 3, pp.4-18.

Esland, G.M. (1972), "Innovation in the School". In Seaman, P.
et al., (Ed.), Innovation and Ideology, Bucks: The Open
University Press, pp.99-124.

Esland, G.M. (1975), "Teaching and Learning as the Organization
of Knowledge". In Young, M.F.D. (Ed.), Knowledge and
Control, London: Collier-Macmillan, pp.70-115.

Evetts, J. (1973), The Sociology of Educational Ideas, London:
Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Fairbairn, K. and Pegolo, C. (1982), Foreign Languages in
Secondary Schools Report No. 1 A Statistical Background
Report on Foreign Languages in Queensland Secondary Schools,
Research Branch, Department of Education, Queensland.

Farber, J. (1970), The Student As Nigger, New York: Pocket Books.

Fielding, A.J., Cavanagh, D.M. and Widdowson, R.E. (1977),
Teacher Training: Anticlimax to Education?, Wollongong:
University of Wollongong.

Forsyth, E. (1968), "Conserving a Nation's Language Resources: An American Tale With An Australian Moral", The Australian Journal of Education, Vol. 12, No. 2, pp.113-124.

Foster, L.E. (1981), Australian Education A Sociological Perspective, Sydney: Prentice-Hall of Australia.

Fradd, S. (1982), "Bilingualism, Cognitive Growth and Divergent Thinking Skills", The Education Forum, Vol. XLVI, No. 4, pp.469-474.

Freudenstein, R. (1979), "Paedagogische Reformen in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland und Ihre Auswirkungen auf den Fremdsprachenunterricht", Modern Languages, Vol. LX, No. 1, pp.101-111.

Gardner, P.L. (1975a), "Attitude Measurement a Critique of Some Recent Research", Educational Research, Vol. 17, No. 2, pp.101-109.

Gardner, P.L. (1975b), "Scales and Statistics", Review of Educational Research, Vol. 45, No. 1, pp.43-57.

Gelman, M. (1962), "Why Learn Foreign Languages?", babel, No. 21, p.24.

Goode, W.J. and Hatt, P.K. (1952), Methods in Social Research, Tokyo: McGraw-Hill Kogakusha.

Goodenough, W.H. (1966), Cooperation in Change, New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Gusfield, J. and Riesman, D. (1978), "Styles of Teaching". In Beck, J. Jencks, C., Keddie, N. and Young, M.F.D. (Eds.), Toward A Sociology of Education, New Brunswick: Transaction, pp.307-315.

Halsey, A.H., Floud, J. and Anderson, C.A. (1961), Education, Economy and Society; a reader in the sociology of education,
New York: Free Press of Glencoe.

Hamers, J. (1981), "The language question in Belgium", Language and Society, No. 5, pp.17-20.

Harmesen, A. (1981), Draft Statement - Foreign Languages,
Unpublished.

Hasan, R. (1978), "Some Sociological Considerations in Second Language Teaching". In Ingram, D.E. and Quinn, T.J. (Eds.), Language Learning in Australian Society, Melbourne: Australia International Press and Publications, pp.50-62.

Hawkins, E. (1981), Modern Languages in the Curriculum,
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hawkins, E. (1982), "A language curriculum for the 1980s", Modern Languages, Vol. 63, No. 2, pp.83-96.

Heberlein, T.A. and Baumgartner, R. (1978), "Factors Affecting Response Rate to Mailed Questionnaires: A Quantitative Analysis of the Published Literature", American Sociological Review, Vol. 43, No. 4, pp.447-462.

Hill, I.L. (1968), "Latest Trends in Foreign Language Teaching", The Tasmanian Journal of Education, Vol. 2, No. 5, pp.151-157.

Hill, I.L. (1972), "Foreign Languages in Tasmania: Where Do We Stand?", The Tasmanian Journal of Education, Vol. 6, No. 1, pp.2-7.

Hill, I.L. (1978), Modern Language Teaching in Tasmania, Hobart: unpublished.

Hill, I.L. (1980), "Teaching a Reading Passage - Intensive Exploitation", Newsletter of the M.L.T.A.T., December, pp.11-16.

Hill, I.L. (1981), "Multiculturalism and Foreign Language Teaching", Newsletter of the M.L.T.A.T., June, pp.18-25.

Hornsey, A.W. (1975), Handbook for Modern Language Teachers, London: Methuen.

Hoy, W.K. (1968), "The influence of experience on the beginning teacher", School Review, Vol. 76, No. 3, pp.312-323.

Hoyle, E. (1970), "Planned organizational change in education", Research in Education, Vol. 3, May, pp.1-22.

Hoyle, E. (1972), Problems: A Theoretical Overview, London: The Open University Press.

Hoyle, E. (1977), "How does the curriculum change?". In Hooper, R. (Ed.), The Curriculum: Context, Design and Development, Edinburgh: Oliver and Boyd, pp.375-398.

Hughes, P. (1972), "Changes in Primary Curriculum in Tasmania". In Simpkins, W.S. and Miller, A.H. (Eds.), Changing Education Australian Viewpoints, Sydney: McGraw-Hill, pp.125-132.

Hunt, F.J. (1978), "The School". In Hunt, F.J. (Ed.), Socialisation in Australia, Melbourne: Australia International Press and Publications, pp.57-78.

Hunt, J.A. (1962), "Modern Language Teaching in Tasmania", babel, No. 20, pp.5-7.

Hunt, J.A. (1972), "Modern Language Teaching in Tasmania, 1971: A Statistical Report", babel, Vol. 8, No. 2, pp.15-19.

- Illich, I. (1977, orig. 1971), Deschooling Society,
Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Ingram, D.E. (1972), "Priorities for Language Teaching", babel,
Vol. 8, No. 3, pp.3-9.
- Ingram, D.E. (1973), "Comprehensive Preparation for the Foreign
Language Teacher", babel, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp.18-21.
- Ingram, D.E. (1974), "Beyond Audiolingualism - a Linguistic and
Psycholinguistic View", babel, Vol. 10, No. 1, pp.9-15.
- Ingram, D.E. (1976), "Focus on use - The British Challenge to
Language Teaching", babel, Vol. 12, No. 3, pp.3-9.
- Ingram, D.E. (1977), "Language Teaching in the Pluralist Society
- The Challenge for Teacher Educators", babel, Vol. 13, No.
1, pp.9-18.
- Ingram, D.E. (1979), "The Case for a National Language Policy in
Australia", babel, Vol. 15, No. 1, pp.3-16.
- Ingram, D.E. (1980a), "Languages and the Core Curriculum", babel,
Vol. 16, No. 3, pp.4-19.
- Ingram, D.E. (1980b), "To See, To Speak: Participate: Community
Involvement in Language Teaching", Unicorn, Vol. 6, No. 3,
pp.276-283.
- Ingram, D.E. (1982), Submission on Aspects of a National Language
Policy, Brisbane: AFMLTA.
- Ingram, D.E. (1983), "Foreword", babel, Vol. 18, No. 1, pp.4-5.
- Ingram, D.E. and Quinn, T.J. (Eds.) (1978), Language Learning in
Australian Society, Melbourne: Australia International Press
and Publications.

Interim Committee for the Australian Schools Commission (1973),
Schools in Australia, Canberra: Australian Government

Publishing Service.

Ingvarson, L. (1982), "Some Effects of the Teacher Development
Program in Victoria", The Australian Journal of Education,

Vol. 26, No. 1, pp.86-98.

Jackson, P.W. (1968), Life in Classrooms, New York: Holt,

Rinehart and Winston.

Joint Committee of the Australian Linguistics Society and The
Applied Linguistics Association of Australia, The Place of

Languages In A Core Curriculum, Melbourne: Monash

University.

Jordan, A.W.S. (1970), "The Second Language Revolution", The

Tasmanian Journal of Education, Vol. 4, No. 3, pp.89-90.

Joy, B. (1981), "Erste Schritte Zu Kommunikativen
Fremdsprachensyllabussen in der High School". In Klieme,
R.B. (Ed.), Fifth National Conference For Teachers of

German, Anthologie, Hobart: Goethe Institute.

Joy, B. and Cohen, G. (1980a), "The German Disconnection", babel,

Vol. 16, No. 1, pp.3-17.

Joy, B. and Cohen, G. (1980b), "Responsibility of University
Language Departments in the Training of Future Language
Teachers", Unicorn, Vol. 6, No. 3, pp.269-275.

Just, F.P. and Scott, S.J. (1968), "The Fallacy of Teaching From
Within", babel, Vol.4, No. 1, pp.2-4.

Kaplan, R.B. (1978), "Language and Learning", babel, Vol. 14, No.

2, pp.4-9.

- Karabel, J. and Halsey, A.H. (1977), Power and Ideology in Education, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Keddie, N. (1975), "Classroom Knowledge". In Young, M.F.D. (Ed.), Knowledge and Control, London: Collier-Macmillan.
- Kelabora, L. (1976), "Teachers of Bahasa Indonesia and Their Qualifications: A Case Study of Victoria, Australia", babel, Vol. 12, No. 3, pp.19-26.
- Kellermann, M (1981), The Forgotten Third Skill, Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Kelly, L.G. (1976), 25 Centuries of Language Teaching 500 B.C. - 1969, Massachusetts: Newbury House.
- Kennedy, J. (1980), "Primary School French in Ulverstone", Newsletter of the M.L.T.A.T., July, p.16.
- Kerr, A. (1972a), "Language Teaching in N.S.W. 1962-1971", babel, Vol. 8, No. 2, pp.3-8.
- Kerr, A.H. (1972b), "Innovations in Language Teaching 1962-71 with Particular Reference to N.S.W. Secondary Schools". In Simpkins, W.S, and Miller, A.H. (Eds.), Changing Education Australian Viewpoints, Sydney: McGraw-Hill, pp.268-277.
- Ketchell, R. (1978), "Teaching Languages Other Than English - Some Teacher Perceptions of Their Task", babel, Vol. 14, No. 1, pp.24-27.
- King, R.C. (1974), "Innovation in the Curriculum: A Case Study of Open Education". In Musgrave, P.W. (Ed.), Contemporary Studies in the Curriculum, Sydney: Angus and Robertson, pp.77-92.

- King, R.C. (1977), "Inertia: The First Problem in Changing Direction". In Fielding et al., (Eds.), Teacher Training: Anticlimax to Education?, Wollongong: University of Wollongong, pp.266-273.
- Klieme, R. (1982), "Nationale Deutschlehrerkonferenz in Australien", Zielsprache Deutsch, No. 1, pp.31-32.
- Knowles, F.E. (1982), "Foreign Languages - What do we expect?" Modern Languages, Vol. 63, No. 2, pp.97-103.
- Kreindler, I. (1982), "The Changing Status of Russian in the Soviet Union", International Journal of the Sociology of Language, No. 33, pp.7-39.
- Labovitz, S. (1967), "Some Observations on Measurement and Statistics", Social Forces, Vol. 46, pp.151-160.
- Labovitz, S. (1970), "The Assignment of Numbers to Rank Order Categories", American Social Review, Vol. 35, pp.515-524.
- Lacey, C. (1977), The Socialization of Teachers, London: Methuen.
- Lawton, D. (1977), "Preparations for Changes in the Curriculum". In Hooper, R. (Ed.), The Curriculum: Context Design and Development, Edinburgh: Oliver and Boyd, pp.444-464.
- Leal, R.B. (1977), "Foreign Languages and Teacher Training". In Fielding, A.J. et al. (Eds.), Teacher Training: Anticlimax to Education?, Wollongong: University of Wollongong, pp.193-197.
- Lippitt, R., Watson, J. and Westley, B. (1958), The Dynamics of Planned Change, New York: Harcourt Brace and World.

Littlewood, W. (1981), Communicative Language Teaching: An Introduction, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Littlewood, W.T. (1982), "The Changing Role of the Teacher in the Foreign Language Classroom", The British Journal of Language Teaching, Vol. 20, No. 1, pp.5-8.

Lortie, D.C. (1977), Schoolteacher A Sociological Study, Chicago: Chicago University Press.

Lozanov, G. (1978), Suggestology and Outlines of Suggestopedy, Sofia: Institute of Suggestology, New York: Gordon and Breach, Interface.

Luxenberg, S. (1978), "All The Class A Stage", Change: The Magazine of Higer Learning, Vol. 10, No. 1, pp.30-33.

Madge, J. (1975), The Tools of Social Science, London: Longman.

Mallinson, V. (1953), Teaching A Modern Language, London: William Heinemann.

Matz, A. (1965), "Current Language Teaching Practice in the U.S.A.", babel, Vol. 1, No. 2, pp.16-18.

Maus, H. (1971), A Short History of Sociology, London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Middleton, M. (1982), Marking Time Alternatives in Australian Schooling, Melbourne: Methuen Australia.

Mifsud, A. (1973), "Individualized Foreign Language Objectives - The First Steps", babel, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp.9-12.

Mills, C.W. (1977), The Sociological Imagination, Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.

Modern Language Teachers' Association of Queensland (1977), "A Case for Modern Languages", *babel*, Vol. 13, No. 3, pp.18-27.

Morrish, I. (1975), *The Sociology of Education An Introduction*,

London: George Allen and Unwin.

Morrison, A. and McIntyre, D. (1975), *Teachers and Teaching*,

Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Moser, C. and Kalton, G. (1973), *Survey Methods in Social Investigation*, London: Heinemann Educational Books.

Muckle, J. (1981), "The Foreign Language Lesson in the Soviet Union: Observing Teachers at Work", *Modern Languages*, Vol. LXII, No. 3, pp.153-163.

Muir, B. (1976), "The First National Conference of Modern Language Teachers 1976", *babel*, Vol. 12, No. 2, pp.34-36.

Musgrave, P.W. (1973), *Knowledge, Curriculum and Change*,

Melbourne: Melbourne University Press.

Musgrave, P.W. (Ed.) (1974), *Contemporary Studies in the Curriculum*, Sydney,: Angus and Robertson.

Musgrave, P.W. (1975), *The Sociology of Education*, London:

Methuen.

Musgrave, P.W. (1980), "The Sociology of the Australian Curriculum: A Case Study in the Diffusion of Theory", *The Australian and New Zealand Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 16, No. 2, pp.15-19.

Musgrove, F. and Taylor, P.H. (1969), *Society and the Teacher's Role*, London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

- McArthur, J. (1981), The First Five Years of Teaching, Canberra:
ERDC Report No. 30, Australian Government Publishing
Service.
- McCallum, P.M. (1972), "What Price A Modern Language Policy for
the Seventies?". In Simpkins, W.S. and Miller, A.H. (Eds.),
Changing Education Australian Viewpoints, Sydney:

McGraw-Hill, pp.295-299.
- McGregor, S. (1982), "Don't Settle for the Soft Options",
Cosmopolitan, October, pp.111-112.

- Moser, C.A. and Kalton, G. (1973), Survey Methods in Social
Investigation, London: Heinemann Educational Books.

- Nash, A.T. (1981), "Waging War on Monolingualism", Peals, May

- O'Byrne, V. de R. (1976), Foreign Languages in Tasmanian
Government Schools, Hobart: Education Department of

Tasmania.
- O'Kelly, G.J. (1982), "Jesuit Schools and Language Study", ACES
Review, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp.12-14.

- Oppenheim, A.N. (1973), Questionnaire Design And Attitude
Measurement, London: Heinemann.

- Ozsoy, K.L. (1973), "Bilingualism in Australia", babel, Vol. 9,

No. 2, p.35.
- Palmer, F. (1972), Grammar, Harmondsworth: Penguin.

- Palmer, H.E. (1917), The Scientific Study and Teaching of
Languages, London: George G. Harrap and Company.

- Palmer, H.E. and Redman, H.V. (1932), This Language Learning
Business, London: George G. Harrap and Company LTD.

- Partington, J. (1978), "The Problems Lie Elsewhere", Modern
Languages , Vol. LIX, No. 1, pp.102-104.

- Peart, G.J. and Dodson, H.L. (1979), The Induction of Beginning
Teachers Into The Tasmanian Education System, Hobart:

Education Department of Tasmania Research Branch.
- Pepper, R. (1972), "In-Service Training and the Thomas Carlton
School, Peckham", Forum, Vol. 14, No. 2, pp.50-51.

- Pirkis, B. (1982), "Mr Inspector Neale: His Reports and
Thoughts". Paper given at the Twelfth Annual Conference of
the Australian and New Zealand History of Education Society,
Hobart: University of Tasmania.
- Politzer, R.L. and Weiss, L. (Undated), The Successful
Foreign-Language Teacher, Philadelphia: Centre for

Curriculum Development.
- Power, P.G. (1981), "Aspects of the Transition from Education
Student to Beginning Teacher", The Australian Journal of

Education, Vol. 25, No. 3, pp.288-296.

- Presidents's Commission on Foreign Language and International
Studies (1980), "Strength Through Wisdom: A Critique of U.S.
Capability", Modern Language Journal, Vol. 64, No. 1,

pp.9-57.
- Quinn, T.J. (1972), "Foreign-Language Teaching and the Radical
Reform of Education". In Language Teaching Problems and

Solutions?, Bundoora: Centre for the Study of Teaching, La

Trobe University School of Education, pp.67-80.

Quinn, T.J. (1974), "Some Social and Psychological Dimensions of a Foreign-Language Curriculum", babel, Vol. 10, No. 1, pp.3-8.

Quinn, T.J. (1981), "What Should We Expect of Community Language Programmes?", babel, Vol. 17, No. 1, pp.36-47.

Rado, M. (1972), "A Profile of Future Modern-Language Teachers", babel, Vol. 8, No. 1, pp.3-7.

Rado, M. (1974), "The Role of Sociolinguistics in a Modern Language Syllabus", babel, Vol. 10, No. 1, pp.16-19.

Rassias, J.A. (1972), "Why We Must Change", Association of Departments of Foreign Languages Bulletin, Vol. 3, pp.9-13.

Reid, I. (1978), Sociological Perspectives on School and Education, London: Open Books.

Report of the Committee on (1976), The Teaching of Migrant Languages in Schools, Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.

Report of the Interim Committee for the Australian Schools Commission (1973), Schools in Australia, Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.

"Report on the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages" (1957), babel, No. 6, pp.25-27.

Reus-Smit, K.C. (1975), "General Studies: A Study of Curriculum Innovation Through the Sociology of Knowledge". In Edgar, D.E. (Ed.), Sociology of Australian Education: A book of readings, Sydney: McGraw-Hill, pp.261-270.

Richards, C. (1974), "The Schools Council - a critical examination", Universities Quarterly, Vol. 28, No. 3, pp.323-336.

Richardson, E. (1975), Authority and Organization in the
Secondary School, London: Macmillan.

Richardson, J.P. (1979), "Nonverbal Communication in the Teaching
 of Foreign Languages", babel, Vol. 15, No. 1, pp.23-32.

Rivers, W.M. (1964), The Psychologist and the Foreign-Language
Teacher, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Rivers, W.M. (1965), "The Colorado Experiment in Audio Lingual
 Teaching", babel, Vol. 1, No. 2, pp.19-20.

Rivers, W.M. (1968), Teaching Foreign-Language Skills, Chicago:

 The University of Chicago Press.

Rivers, W.M. (1981), Teaching Foreign-Language Skills, Chicago:

 The University of Chicago Press.

Robin, S.S. (1965), "A Procedure For Securing Returns to Mail
 Questionnaires", Sociology and Social Research, Vol. 50,

 pp.24-35.

Robinson, G.L. (1978), Language and Multicultural Education An

Australian Perspective, Sydney: Australia and New Zealand

 Book Company.

Robinson, J. (1963), "Teaching Foreign Languages - What is the
 Ultimate Purpose?", Education (N.S.W.), Vol. 44, No. 3, p.5.

Robinson, J. (1964), "What is the Ultimate Purpose of Teaching
 Foreign Languages?", Esprit and Geist, Bulletin No. 5,

 pp.3-6.

Robinson, P. (1981), Perspectives on the Sociology of Education

An Introduction, London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

- Rodwell, G. (1982), "The Dalton Plan: Experiments in Curriculum Innovation in Tasmanian Schools, 1919-1939". In Australian -----
and New Zealand History of Education Society Twelfth Annual -----
Conference Proceedings, Hobart: University of Tasmania.

- Russon, A. and Russon, M.A. (1966), Advanced German Course, -----
Suffolk: Longmans.
- Schatzman, L. and Strauss, A.L. (1966), "A Sociology of Psychiatry". In Seaman, P., Esland, G. and Cosin, B. (1972), Innovation and Ideology, Bucks: The Open University Press, -----
pp.61-72.
- Scott, J.G. (1978), "The Scott Committee's Report", The Tasmanian -----
Teacher, Vol. 28, February, p.3.

- Seaman, P., Esland, G. and Cosin, B. (1972), Innovation and -----
Ideology, Bucks: The Open University Press.

- Shipman, M.D. (1967), "Theory and practice in the education of teachers", Educational Research, Vol. 9, No. 3, pp.208-212.

- Shipman, M.D. (1969), "Order and innovation in schools", New -----
Society, Vol. 14, 18 December, pp.976-978.

- Shipman, M. (1972), "The Role of the Teacher in Selected Innovative Schools in the United Kingdom". In Seaman, P., Esland, G. and Cosin, B. (Eds.), Innovation and Ideology, -----
Bucks: The Open University Press, pp.112-126.
- Shipman, M.D. (1975), The Sociology of the School, Aylesbury: -----
Longman.
- Siegel, S. (1956), Nonparametric Statistics For The Behavioural -----
Sciences, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Siliakus, H.J. (1972), "The Training of Teachers for the Audio-Lingual Method", *babel*, Vol. 8, No. 3, pp.19-21.

Simkin, K. and Moore, H. (1978), "Comparisons May Well Be Odious: A Case Study In A Bilingual Teacher Education Programme", *babel*, Vol. 14, No. 2, pp.19-26.

Simpson, I.H. (1979), *From Student to Nurse*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Smit, J. (1956), "The Training of Foreign Language Teachers in the Netherlands", *babel*, No. 2, pp.51-53.

Smith, P.D. (1970), *A Comparison of the Cognitive and Audiolingual Approaches to Foreign Language Instruction*, Philadelphia: The Centre for Curriculum Development.

Smith, R. (1979), "Myth and Ritual in Teacher Education". In Pusey, M.R. and Young, R.E. (Eds.), *Control and Knowledge*, Canberra: The Australian National University Press, pp.97-123.

Smolicz, J.J. (1976), "Is the Australian School an Assimilationist Agency?". In Browne, R.K. and Magin, D.J. (Eds.), *Sociology of Education A Source Book of Australian Studies*, Melbourne: Macmillan, pp.141-150.

Solchanyk, R. (1982), "Language and Education in Soviet Schools", *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, No. 33, pp.113-118.

Spicer, A. (1981), "The Early Teaching of Modern Languages: The British Experience", *babel*, Vol. 17, No. 1, pp.4-17.

Staines, J.W. (1972), "Resistance to Change in Australian Education". In D'Urso, S. (Ed.), *Critical Writings On Australian Education*, Sydney: John Wiley and Sons, pp.154-164.

Stern, H.H. (1981), "Immersion Schools and Language Learning",
Language and Society, No. 5, pp.3-6.

Stilman, G., Stilman, L. and Harkins, W. (1972), Introductory
Russian Grammar, New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Strevens, P. (1978), "The Nature of Language Teaching". In
Richards, J. (Ed.), Understanding Second and Foreign
Language Learning, Massachusetts: Newbury House, pp.179-203.

Taylor, W. (1969), Society and the Education of Teachers, London:
Faber.

Terrell, T.D. (1982), "The Natural Approach to Language Teaching:
An Update", Modern Language Journal, Vol. 66, No. 2,
pp.121-132.

Thomas, A.R. (1976), "The Innovative School: Some Organizational
Characteristics". In Browne, R.K. and Magin, D.J. (Eds.),
Sociology of Education A Source Book of Australian Studies,
Melbourne: Macmillan, pp.216-234.

Thomson, P. (1980), "The German Disconnection - a Reply", babel,
Vol. 16, No. 2, pp.4-10.

Tisher, R.P. et al. (1979), Beginning to Teach Volume 2,
Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.

Travers, R.M.W. (Ed.) (1973), Second Handbook of Research on
Teaching, Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company.

Triffitt, G.B. et al. (1976), Foreign Languages in Tasmanian
Government Schools, Hobart: Education Department of
Tasmania.

Triffitt, G.B. (1977), "The Scott Committee's Report: Some
Critical Observations", The Tasmanian Teacher, Vol. 27,
November, pp.6-7.

Triffitt, G.B. (1980), "The Future of Foreign Language Education in Tasmania", Newsletter of the M.L.T.A.T., July, pp.18-23.

Triffitt, G.B. (1981), "Diversity in Foreign-Language Offerings", Newsletter of the M.L.T.A.T., November, pp.9-16.

Triffitt, G.B. (1982), "Towards an Australian National Language Policy The Educational Dimension". In Young, K. (Ed.), National Language Policy Conference, Hobart: Ethnic Communities Council of Tasmania, pp.1-8.

Tucker, G.R. (1978), "The Implementation of Language Teaching Programs". In Richards, J. (Ed.), Understanding Second and Foreign Language Learning, Massachusetts: Newbury House, pp.204-214.

Valette, R.M. (1967), Modern Language Testing A Handbook, New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Varnava, G. (1975), Mixed-Ability Teaching in Modern Languages, London: Blackie and Son LTD.

Warnock, M. (1977), Schools of Thought, London: Faber and Faber.

Warriner, H.P. (1980), "Foreign Language Teaching in the Schools - 1979: Focus on Methodology", Modern Language Journal, Vol. 64, No. 1, pp.81-87.

Weare, C. (1982), "Rose Bay High School Languages Report", Newsletter of the M.L.T.A.T., July, pp.10-11.

Webb, D. (1974), Teaching Modern Languages, London: David and Charles.

Welch, I.H. (1977), "The Teaching of Asian Languages in Australia", babel, Vol. 13, No. 1, pp.3-5.

Wheeler, J.A. (1973), "Individualization and Foreign Language Learning", babel, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp.3-8.

Whiteside, T. (1978), The Sociology of Educational Innovation,
London: Methuen.

Whitton, D.J. (1972), "Modules for Foreign Language Teaching",
babel, Vol. 8, No. 3, pp.25-26.

Worsley, P. (1978), Introducing Sociology, Harmondsworth:
Penguin.

Wringe, C. (1976), Developments in Modern Language Teaching,
London: Open Books Publishing.

Wykes, O. and King, M.G. (1968), Teaching of Foreign Languages in
Australia, Hawthorn: Australian Council for Educational
Research.

Young, K. (Ed.) (1982), National Language Policy Conference,
Hobart: Ethnic Communities Council of Tasmania.

Young, M.F.D. (1975a), Knowledge and Control, London:
Collier-Macmillan.

Young, M.F.D. (1975b), "The ideology of educational research",
The Times Higher Education Supplement, 17 January, 1975.

Young, R.E. (1980), "The Controlling Curriculum and the Practical
Ideology of Teachers", The Australian and New Zealand
Journal of Sociology, Vol. 16, No. 2, pp.62-70.

Young, R.E. (1981), "A Study of Teacher Epistemologies", The
Australian Journal of Education, Vol. 25, No. 2, pp.194-208.

Zajda, J.I. (1976), "Russian Studies in Australia", babel, Vol.
12, No. 1, pp.30-32.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE TO FOREIGN-LANGUAGE
TEACHERS IN TASMANIAN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

Strictly Confidential



MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING PROJECT

(A project of research on foreign language teaching in
Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges)

**CENTRE FOR EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF TASMANIA**

STRICTLY CONFIDENTIALMODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING PROJECTInstructions

- (a) For each question where choices are provided choose the appropriate answer and circle the number which corresponds to it. Please circle only (I) one number unless instructed. For example:
- Is your classroom suitable for modern language study?
- Yes.....(I)
- No.....2
- (b) For other questions please answer in the spaces or boxes provided or according to the specific instruction given for that question.
- (c) Please answer all questions. Where appropriate write N/A for "Not Applicable."
- (d) Space is provided on the last page for you to include any further information or comments you would like to add.
- (e) "Secondary level" in this questionnaire indicates grades 7 - 12, that is, from the beginning of high school up to and including H.S.C..
- (f) For the purposes of this questionnaire please regard Latin as a modern language.
- (g) Please regard junior secondary as grades 7 and 8; senior secondary as grades 9, 10, 11 and 12.

Ref. No. 1-
Card 4SECTION ONE

We would like to commence by obtaining some information from you about certain aspects of your personal background.

1. What is your age in years?

20-241
25-292
30-343
35-394
40-445
45-496
50-547
55-598
60-649
65 +10

5

2. What sex are you? Female.....I
- Male.....2

6

3. In what type of school(s) do you work? (You may circle more than one number.)

Community or Matriculation College.....	I
Non-government Secondary School or College.....	2
High School.....	3
District High School.....	4
Other (please specify).....	5
.....	

7-11

4. In which region of Tasmania is your school located?

North-West.....1

North.....2

South.....3

12

5. Is your school in a.....

City (Hobart, Launceston, Devonport, Burnie).....1

Country Town.....2

Other (please specify).....3

13

.....

6. Please give the total number of years that you have taught modern languages.
(Please round to the nearest whole year.)

Less than one.....1

One.....2

Two.....3

Three.....4

Four.....5

Five.....6

Six to ten.....7

Eleven to fifteen.....8

Sixteen to twenty.....9

Twenty-one and over.....10

14

7. What is your mother tongue?

English.....1

German.....2

Dutch.....3

French.....4

Indonesian.....5

Japanese.....6

Italian.....7

Russian.....8

Serbo-Croat.....9

Mandarin.....10

Other (Please specify).....11

.....

15

8. Have you visited a country where the language(s) you teach are spoken as the native tongue?

Yes.....1

No.....2

16

9. If so, how long were you there? (If more than one country and/or language are involved, please indicate your longest visit.)

less than one year.....1

about one year.....2

about two years.....3

about three years.....4

more than three years.....5

17

10. What is your occupational status?

- principal.....1
- vice-principal.....2
- S.M.....3
- full-time teacher.....4
- part-time teacher.....5
- other (specify).....6
-

18

11. Which grades do you teach? (You may circle more than one number.)

- Primary.....1
- Junior high school.....2
- Senior high school.....3
- H.S.C.....4
- Adults.....5

19-23

12. Please indicate if you teach.... (You may circle more than one number.)

- (a) French.....1
- (b) German.....2
- (c) Other European language(s)
(Please specify).....3
-
- (d) Asian language(s).....4
(Please specify).....
-
- (e) Other languages.....5
(Not English).....
-

24-28

SECTION TWO

In this section we are interested in obtaining information about your experiences as a language student, and in comparing these experiences with your present teaching practice.

13. On average, how often do you use the target language in the classroom?

- (a) At junior secondary level
- Always.....1
- Mostly.....2
- As often as native language....3
- Occasionally.....4
- Rarely.....5
- Never.....6
- (b) At senior secondary level
- Always.....1
- Mostly.....2
- As often as native language....3
- Occasionally.....4
- Rarely.....5
- Never.....6

29

30

14. On average, how often do your students use the target language in the classroom?

(a) At junior secondary level.

Always.....1
 Mostly.....2
 As often as native language.....3
 Occasionally.....4
 Rarely.....5
 Never.....6

31

(b) At senior secondary level.

Always.....1
 Mostly.....2
 As often as native language.....3
 Occasionally.....4
 Rarely.....5
 Never.....6

32

15. On average, how often was the target language used in the classroom by your teachers, when you were a pupil at secondary level?

(a) At junior secondary level.

Always.....1
 Mostly.....2
 As often as native language.....3
 Occasionally.....4
 Rarely.....5
 Never.....6
 Can't remember.....7

33

(b) At senior secondary level.

Always.....1
 Mostly.....2
 As often as native language.....3
 Occasionally.....4
 Rarely.....5
 Never.....6
 Can't remember.....7

34

16. On average, how often was the target language used in the classroom by pupils when you were a pupil at secondary level?

(a) At junior secondary level.

Always.....1
 Mostly.....2
 As often as native language.....3
 Occasionally.....4
 Rarely.....5
 Never.....6
 Can't remember.....7

35

(b) At senior secondary level.

Always.....1
 Mostly.....2
 As often as native language.....3
 Occasionally.....4
 Rarely.....5
 Never.....6
 Can't remember.....7

36

17. If your teacher(s) did speak in the target language, was this at a level that you could understand?

Always.....1
 Mostly.....2
 Sometimes.....3
 Never.....4
 Can't remember.....5

37

18. How often do you require your pupils to memorise vocabulary lists for tests?

(a) At junior secondary level.

Most lessons.....1
 Once or twice a week.....2
 Once or twice a fortnight.....3
 Very seldom.....4
 Never.....5

38

(b) At senior secondary level.

Most lessons.....1
 Once or twice a week.....2
 Once or twice a fortnight.....3
 Very seldom.....4
 Never.....5

39

19. How often were you required to memorise vocabulary lists for tests?

(a) At junior secondary level.

Most lessons.....1
 Once or twice a week.....2
 Once or twice a fortnight.....3
 Very seldom.....4
 Never.....5
 Can't remember.....6

40

(b) At senior secondary level.

Most lessons.....1
 Once or twice a week.....2
 Once or twice a fortnight.....3
 Very seldom.....4
 Never.....5
 Can't remember.....6

41

20.	Were the vocabulary lists.....	
	Bilingual.....1	42
	Target language only.....2	
21.	If you use vocabulary lists, are they.....	
	Bilingual.....1	43
	Target language only.....2	
22.	On average, how often do you explain grammatical rules?	
	(a) At junior secondary level.	
	Most lessons.....1	
	Once or twice a week.....2	
	Once or twice a fortnight.....3	
	Very seldom.....4	44
	Never.....5	
	(b) At senior secondary level.	
	Most lessons.....1	
	Once or twice a week.....2	
	Once or twice a fortnight.....3	
	Very seldom.....4	45
	Never.....5	
23.	On average, how often would your teacher(s) explain grammatical rules when you were a pupil at secondary level?	
	(a) At junior secondary level.	
	Most lessons.....1	
	Once or twice a week.....2	
	Once or twice a fortnight.....3	
	Very seldom.....4	46
	Never.....5	
	Can't remember.....6	
	(b) At senior secondary level.	
	Most lessons.....1	
	Once or twice a week.....2	
	Once or twice a fortnight.....3	
	Very seldom.....4	
	Never.....5	47
	Can't remember.....6	
24.	Was the target language ever used to explain these rules?	
	(a) At junior secondary level.	
	Always.....1	
	Mostly.....2	
	Sometimes.....3	
	Not often.....4	
	Rarely.....5	
	Never.....6	
	Can't remember.....7	48

- (b) At senior secondary level
- Always.....I
- Mostly.....2
- Sometimes.....3
- Not often.....4
- Rarely.....5
- Never.....6
- Can't remember.....7

49

25. How often do you require your pupils to write grammar exercises?

- (a) At junior secondary level.
- Every lesson.....I
- Several times per week.....2
- Once a week.....3
- Once a fortnight.....4
- Very seldom.....5
- Never.....6

50

- (b) At senior secondary level.
- Every lesson.....I
- Several times per week.....2
- Once a week.....3
- Once a fortnight.....4
- Very seldom.....5
- Never.....6

51

26. How often were you required to write grammar exercises?

- (a) At junior secondary level.
- Every lesson.....I
- Several times per week.....2
- Once a week.....3
- Once a fortnight.....4
- Very seldom.....5
- Never.....6
- Can't remember.....7

52

- (b) At senior secondary level.
- Every lesson.....I
- Several times per week.....2
- Once a week.....3
- Once a fortnight.....4
- Very seldom.....5
- Never.....6
- Can't remember.....7

53

Please indicate which of the following types of grammar exercise best describes the exercises you were most familiar with as a student. You may circle more than one number.

- Translation of sentences into mother tongue.....1
 Translation of sentences into FL.....2
 Completion of sentences.....3
 Transformation of FL sentences.....4
 (i.e. present to past, active to passive, etc.)
 Other (Please specify).....5

54-58

As a teacher of modern languages are you satisfied with your present level of language proficiency?

- Yes, definitely, thanks to the courses I have studied.....1
 Yes, definitely, but only since my visit abroad.....2
 Moderately.....3
 Not really.....4
 Definitely not.....5
 Other.....6

59

Looking back on your total experience as a modern language student, would you have preferred..... (Circle more than one number, if applicable)

- more practice in speaking the target language.....1
 more practice in writing the target language.....2
 more practice in reading the target language.....3
 more emphasis on grammar.....4
 more emphasis on foreign culture.....5
 other (please specify).....6

60-65

SECTION THREE

We would now like to ask you some questions about your professional background.

Have you completed a pre-service course on modern-language methodology?

Yes.....1

No.....2

66

If yes, at which institution, and in which year(s)?

<u>Institution</u>	<u>Year(s)</u>
T.C.A.E.....1	19
University of Tasmania.....2	19
Other Australian Institution	
Name?.....3	19
Overseas Institution	
Name?.....4	19
Other (Please specify).....5	19

67-68

32. Was the course valuable?

- Yes, very.....1
 Moderately.....2
 The theory only.....3
 The practice only.....4
 Undecided.....5
 Not really.....6
 The whole course was a waste of time.7

69

33. Please indicate which of the following Foreign-Language Education texts you have read.

<u>Author</u>	<u>Title</u>	
Brooks	<u>Language and Language Learning</u>	1
Hawkins	<u>Modern Languages in the Curriculum</u>	2
Hornsey (Ed)	<u>Handbook for Modern Language Teachers</u>	3
Palmer	<u>The Scientific Study & Teaching of Languages</u>	4
Palmer & Redman	<u>This Language Learning Business</u>	5
Rivers	<u>The Psychologist & the FL Teacher</u>	6
Rivers	<u>Teaching FL Skills</u>	7
Allen & Valette	<u>Modern Language Classroom Techniques</u>	8
Valette	<u>Modern Language Testing</u>	9
Varnava	<u>Mixed Ability Teaching in Modern Languages</u>	10
Webb	<u>Teaching Modern Languages</u>	11
Wringe	<u>Development in Modern Language Teaching</u>	12
Triffitt et al.	<u>Foreign Languages in Tasmanian Government Schools</u>	13
Others (Please specify).....		14
.....		
.....		

Ref. No. 1
Card 4

5-18

34. How often have you attended inservice modern-languages methodology courses since commencing your career as a language teacher?

- More than once a year.....1
 Once a year.....2
 Once every two years.....3
 Rarely.....4
 Never.....5

19

35. Do you feel that you need to be more informed about modern languages methodology?

- Yes definitely.....1
 Perhaps.....2
 Not really.....3
 No.....4

20

36. Are you a financial member of M.L.T.A.T.?

- Yes.....1
 No.....2

21

37. How often do you read "Babel"?

- Always.....1
 Often.....2
 Sometimes.....3
 Never.....4

22

38. How often do you read the M.L.T.A.T. Newsletter?

Always.....1
Often.....2
Sometimes.....3
Never.....4

23

SECTION FOUR

We now want to move on to obtain some information about working conditions.
This section deals with your school environment.

39. How many foreign - language students do you teach this year?

I-5.....1
6-10.....2
11-20.....3
21-30.....4
31-40.....5
41-50.....6
51-60.....7
61-100.....8
101-150.....9
151-200.....10

24

(Please indicate the total number of students you teach.....)

40. Over the past three years has the distribution of FL lessons in your school timetable in the school in which you now teach.....

Improved.....1
Remained much the same.....2
Worsened.....3
Unable to answer.....4

25

41. Methodologists often assume that teachers work in optimum physical conditions. Which of the following items, if any, represent the major disadvantages of your language classroom(s)? You may circle more than one number.

Too much noise.....1	Room used as thoroughfare by school population.....11
Overcrowding.....2	Use of room for FL study begrudged by staff.....12
Poor ventilation.....3	Room designed for other purposes, e.g. Woodwork, Biology, etc.....13
Poor lighting.....4	Room is dirty, e.g. poor cleaning, proximity to open drain etc.....14
Too hot.....5	Insufficient storage space.....15
Too cold.....6	Inadequate or unsuitable furniture.....16
Room in an isolated area.....7	Other.....17
No provision for use of A-V.....8
materials	
Insufficient supply of A-V materials.....9	
Insufficient display space.....10	

26-42

Yes, very much so.....I

Yes, but not a major problem.....2

Not really.....3

I have all the books, equipment etc. I need.....4

The status quo is not ideal but as good as can
be expected.....5

43

43. Which course-books, if any, are your pupils required to use? (Please indicate if books are used for junior, senior, or both levels.)

AuthorTitleLevel

(1)

(2)

(3)

(4)

44. Do you require that your pupils complete the grammar exercises in the course-book?

(a) At junior secondary level.

Yes, all of them.....I

Yes, as many as possible.....2

Yes, but only a few.....3

No, none at all.....4

Other.....5

44

(b) At senior secondary level.

Yes, all of them.....I

Yes, as many as possible.....2

Yes, but only a few.....3

No, none at all.....4

Other.....5

45

SECTION FIVE

In this section we seek some information about your foreign-language teaching colleagues; particularly those with whom you work or with whom you have worked in the past.

45. Please indicate your estimate of the total number of foreign-language teachers you have worked with in your teaching career.

Under 5.....I

6-10.....2

11-15.....3

16-20.....4

Over twenty.....5

46

46. Do the foreign-language teachers in your school teach in basically the same way that you do? (In the case of your being the sole foreign-language teacher at your present school, please refer to past experience).

Yes.....I

No.....2

47

7. Have other foreign-language teachers ever tried to influence you to teach in the same way that they do? You may circle more than one number.

Yes, by means of helpful suggestions.....1
 Yes, but only on request.....2
 Yes, but rarely.....3
 Yes, by direction or coercion.....4
 Never.....5

48-52

SECTION SIX

In this section we are interested in your views on FL education, from a more general perspective.

8. What do you regard as the main aim(s) of FL education?
 (You may circle more than one number.)

Fostering of international/racial understanding.....1
 Fostering of international/racial tolerance.....2
 Disciplining the mind.....3
 To facilitate direct communication with people from
 other countries.....4
 Vocational purposes.....5
 Improvement of Australia's trade and diplomatic
 relations with other countries.....6
 To provide insight into mother tongue.....7
 To increase pupils' cultural awareness.....8
 To promote pupils' intellectual development.....9
 Other.....10

53-62

9. On a scale of 1 to 4 (1 = most important; 4 = least important) please give your opinion of the order of importance of the following language skills.

	Writing	Aural Comprehension	Reading	Speaking
Ideally				
Currently at junior level				
Currently at senior level				

63-66

67-70

71-74

10. Now, if possible, show the order in which your pupils prize these skills.

Ref. No. 1-3
 Card 4

	Writing	Aural Comprehension	Reading	Speaking
Junior Secondary Pupils				
Senior Secondary Pupils				

5-8

9-12

51. Do you teach in the same way you were taught when you studied a foreign language at secondary level?

Definitely not.....1

Not really.....2

More or less.....3

Basically, yes.....4

Very much so.....5

13

52. Thirteen statements which people make about FL teaching are listed below. Put a tick in one box next to each statement to indicate whether you agree with it or not.

The successful FL teacher in my present position must:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Be fluent in the FL					
Have students of above average IQ					
Be able to explain grammar rules clearly					
Have natural teaching ability					
Have students who are prepared to do their homework					
Have suitable materials					
Have at least four hours per week of FL class					
Have homogeneous groups					
Be familiar with modern language methodology					
Be a native speaker of the FL					
Have a good imagination					
Have parental support					
Have dramatic flair					

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

53. Below is a list of statements about FL learning. Select five items which are most significant to you. Please write the appropriate codes in the panel provided at the foot of the list.

Successful FL learning requires:

- above average intelligence.....01
- high motivation.....02
- good FL teaching.....03
- completion of all tasks and assignments.....04
- the opportunity to visit a country where
the target language is spoken.....05
- much speaking of the FL.....06
- much writing of the FL.....07
- much listening to the FL.....08
- much reading of the FL.....09
- a good memory.....10
- other.....11

Please use codes.

At Junior level

--	--	--	--	--

27-31

At Senior level

--	--	--	--	--

32-36

54. In your present position is it possible to motivate, in most cases, those students who have little intrinsic interest in FL study?

- Yes.....1
- Sometimes (not in most cases).....2
- No.....3
- Not sure.....4

37

55. Should a FL component be included in the core curriculum?

- Yes, for one year.....1
- Yes, for two years.....2
- Yes, for three years.....3
- Yes, for four years.....4
- Yes, up to and including H.S.C. II.....5
- Yes, up to and including H.S.C. III.....6
- No.....7
- Other (Please specify).....8

38

56. Do any of the following constrain what you do in the FL classroom?
(You may circle more than one number.)

School Policy.....1
Other FL Staff.....2
Schools Board Requirements.....3
School Organization (e.g. timetable)....4
Other (Please specify).....5
.....

39-43

57. Are you required to spend more time than you want to on any of the following? (You may circle more than one number)

Conversation.....1
Essay writing.....2
Grammar.....3
Cooking/Dancing etc.....4
Translation.....5
Reading.....6
Written comprehension.....7
Aural comprehension.....8
Other (Please specify).....9
.....

44-52

58. To prepare pupils adequately for present H.S.C. and/or tertiary level FL study, should teachers devote more time to: (You may circle more than one number)

(a) In Grades 9 and 10.

Grammar.....1
Conversation.....2
Essay writing.....3
Literary analysis.....4
Translation.....5
Written comprehension.....6
Other (Please specify).....7
.....
.....

53-59

(b) At H.S.C. level.

Grammar.....1
Conversation.....2
Essay writing.....3
Literary analysis.....4
Translation.....5
Written comprehension.....6
Other (Please specify).....7
.....
.....

60-66

SECTION SEVEN

59. Is there any other information that appears relevant and which you would like to add to your answers or this questionnaire. If so, please comment below.

APPENDIX B

PILOT SURVEY TO FIFTEEN
TASMANIAN
FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHERS

STRICTLY CONFIDENTIALMODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING PROJECTInstructions

- (a) For each question where choices are provided choose the appropriate answer and circle the number which corresponds to it. Please circle only (1) one number unless otherwise instructed. For example:

Is your classroom suitable for modern language study?

Yes.....(1)

No.....2

- (b) For other questions please answer in the spaces or boxes provided or according to the specific instructions given for that question.
- (c) Please answer all questions. Where appropriate write N/A for "Not Applicable".
- (d) Space is provided on the last page for you to include any further information or comments you would like to add.
- (e) "Secondary level" in this questionnaire indicates grades 7 - 12, that is, from the beginning of high school up to and including H.S.C..

SECTION ONE

We would like to commence by obtaining some information from you about certain aspects of your personal background.

1. What is your age in years? (Please tick the appropriate box.)

20-24	<input type="checkbox"/>
25-29	<input type="checkbox"/>
30-34	<input type="checkbox"/>
35-39	<input type="checkbox"/>
40-44	<input type="checkbox"/>
45-49	<input type="checkbox"/>
50-54	<input type="checkbox"/>
55-59	<input type="checkbox"/>
60-64	<input type="checkbox"/>
65 +	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. What sex are you?

Female.....1

Male.....2

3. In what type of school(s) do you work?

Community College.....1

Matriculation College.....2

High School.....3

District High School.....4

Other (please specify).....5

4. Please give the total number of years that you have taught modern languages. (Please round to the nearest whole year.)

Less than one.....1
 One.....2
 Two.....3
 Three.....4
 Four.....5
 Five.....6
 Six to ten.....7
 Eleven to fifteen.....8
 Sixteen to twenty.....9
 Twenty-one and over.....10

5. What is your mother tongue?

English.....1
 German.....2
 Dutch.....3
 French.....4
 Indonesian.....5
 Japanese.....6
 Italian.....7
 Russian.....8
 Serbo-Croat.....9
 Mandarin.....10
 Other (Please specify).....11

6. Have you visited a country where the language (s) you teach are spoken as the native tongue?

Yes.....1

No.....2

7. If so, how long were you there? (If more than one country and/or language are involved, please indicate your longest visit.)

less than one year.....1
 about one year.....2
 about two years.....3
 about three years.....4
 more than three years.....5

8. What is your occupational status?

Full-time teacher.....1
 Part-time teacher.....2
 S.M.....3
 Vice-principal.....4
 Other (Please specify).....5
5

9. Which grades do you teach? You may circle more than one number.

Primary.....1
 Junior high school.....2
 Senior high school.....3
 H.S.C.....4
 Adults.....5

10. Please indicate if you teach...

- (a) Only French.....1
 (b) Only German.....2
 (c) French and German.....3
 (d) Other European language(s)
 (Please specify).....4
 (e) Asian language(s).....5
 (Please specify)
 (f) Other (Please specify).....6

SECTION TWO

In this section we are interested in obtaining information about your experiences as a language student.

11. Please list the languages, other than your mother tongue (s), which you studied at primary, secondary and/or tertiary level.

Language(s) you have studied (not mother tongue(s).)	Please tick to show number of years of study															
	At primary level						At secondary level						At tertiary level			
	one year	two years	three years	four years	five years	six years	one year	two years	three years	four years	five years	six years	one year	two years	three years	four years
French																
German																
Japanese																
Indonesian																
Latin																
Other																

12. Below is a list of language skills, objectives and activities. Select five items which gained the most attention when you were a student at secondary level, and the five which were dealt with least. Please write the appropriate codes in the panel provided at the foot of the list.

- Reading aloud.....01
 Grammatical explanations/analysis.....02
 Translation of sentences into FL.....03
 Translation of passages into FL.....04
 Translation of passages into mother tongue.....05
 Conversation.....06
 Oral pattern practice.....07
 Written comprehension passages.....08
 Aural comprehension passages.....09
 Essay writing.....10
 Literary analysis and appreciation.....11
 Memorization of bilingual vocab. lists.....12
 Other (Please specify).....13

- (a) Insert in the panel the five items to which your teacher(s) paid most attention when you were a student at secondary level.

(Please use codes)

--	--	--	--	--

- (b) Now please indicate the five items considered least important by your teacher(s).

(Please use codes)

--	--	--	--	--

- (c) In this panel insert the five items to which your lecturer(s) paid most attention when you were a student at tertiary level.

(Please use codes)

--	--	--	--	--

- (d) Now please insert the five items considered least important by your lecturer(s).

(Please use codes)

--	--	--	--	--

13. Which text-book(s) did your teacher(s) use at secondary level?

14. To what extent was the target language spoken in the classroom?

- (a) Use of target language by the teacher.

Always.....1
 Mostly.....2
 As often as native language.....3
 Occasionally.....4
 Rarely.....5
 Never.....6

- (b) Use of target language by the student.

Always.....1
 Mostly.....2
 As often as native language.....3
 Occasionally.....4
 Rarely.....5
 Never.....6

15. If your teacher(s) did speak in the target language, was this at a level that you could understand?

Always.....1
 Mostly.....2
 Sometimes.....3
 Never.....4

16. How often were you required to memorise vocabulary lists for texts?

Most lessons.....1
 Every week.....2
 Once a fortnight.....3
 Very seldom.....4
 Never.....5

17. Were the vocabulary lists....

Bilingual1
 Target language only.....2

18. On average, how often would your teacher(s) explain grammatical rules?

Most lessons.....1
 Every week.....2
 Once a fortnight.....3
 Very seldom.....4
 Never.....5

19. Was the target language ever used to explain these rules?

Always.....1
 Mostly.....2
 Sometimes.....3
 Not often.....4
 Rarely.....5
 Never.....6

20. How often were you required to write grammar exercises?

Every lesson.....1
 Several times per week.....2
 Once a week.....3
 Once a fortnight.....4
 Very seldom.....5
 Never.....6

21. Please indicate which of the following types of grammar exercise best describes the exercises you were most familiar with as a student. You may circle more than one number.

Translation of sentences into mother tongue.....1
 Translation of sentences into FL.....2
 Completion of sentences.....3
 Transformation of FL sentences.....4
 (i.e. present to past, active to passive, etc.)
 Other (Please specify).....5

22. As a teacher of modern languages are you satisfied with your present level of language proficiency?

Yes, definitely.....1
 Moderately.....2
 Not really.....3
 Definitely not.....4

23. Looking back on your total experience as a modern language student, would you have preferred...
(circle more than one number, if applicable)

more practice in speaking the target language.....1
 more practice in writing the target language.....2
 more practice in reading the target language.....3
 more emphasis on grammar.....4
 more emphasis on foreign culture.....5
 other (please specify).....6

SECTION THREE

We would now like to ask you some questions about your professional background.

24. Have you completed a pre-service course on modern-language methodology?

Yes.....1

No.....2

25. If yes, at which institution, and when?

<u>Institution</u>	<u>Year</u>
University of Tasmania.....	19.....1
Other Australian Institution	
Name?.....	19.....2
Overseas Institution	
Name?.....	19.....3
Other (Please specify).....	19.....4

26. Please indicate which of the following texts you have read.

<u>Author</u>	<u>Title</u>
Brooks	<u>Language and Language Learning</u>1
Hawkins	<u>Modern Languages in the Curriculum</u>2
Hornsey (Ed)	<u>Handbook for Modern Language Teachers</u>3
Palmer	<u>The Scientific Study & Teaching of Languages</u>4
Palmer & Redman	<u>This Language Learning Business</u>5
Rivers	<u>The Psychologist & the FL Teacher</u>6
Rivers	<u>Teaching FL Skills</u>7
Allen & Valette	<u>Modern Language Classroom Techniques</u>8
Valette	<u>Modern Language Testing</u>9
Varnava	<u>Mixed Ability Teaching in Modern Languages</u>10
Webb	<u>Teaching Modern Languages</u>11
Wringe	<u>Development in Modern Language Teaching</u>12
-	<u>Foreign Languages in Tasmanian Government Schools</u>13
Others (Please specify).....14
.....
.....

27. How often have you attended inservice modern-languages methodology courses since commencing your career as a language teacher ?

more than once a year.....1
 once a year.....2
 once every two years.....3
 rarely.....4
 never.....5

28. Do you feel that you need to be more informed about modern languages methodology?

yes definitely.....1
 perhaps.....2
 not really.....3
 no.....4

29. Are you a financial member of M.L.T.A.T. ?

Yes.....1
 No.....2

30. How often do you read 'Babel'?
- Always.....1
Sometimes.....2
Never.....3
31. How often do you read the M.L.T.A.T. Newsletter?
- Always.....1
Sometimes.....2
Never.....3

SECTION FOUR

We now want to move on to obtain some information about working conditions. This section deals with your school environment.

32. How many foreign - language students do you teach this year?
- 1-5.....1
6-10.....2
11-20.....3
21-30.....4
31-40.....5
41-50.....6
51-60.....7
61+.....8
- (Please indicate exact number.....)
33. Are you satisfied with the distribution of foreign language lessons in your school timetable?
- Very satisfied.....1
Satisfied.....2
Undecided.....3
Not satisfied.....4
Very dissatisfied.....5
34. Which of the following items, if any, represent the major disadvantages of your language classroom(s)?
You may circle more than one number.
- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Too much noise..... 1 | Room used as thoroughfare |
| Overcrowding..... 2 | by school population..... 9 |
| Poor ventilation..... 3 | Use of room for FL study |
| Poor lighting..... 4 | begruddged by staff.....10 |
| Too hot..... 5 | Room designed for other |
| Too cold..... 6 | purposes, e.g. Woodwork, |
| Room in an isolated | Biology, etc.....11 |
| area..... 7 | Room is dirty, e.g. poor |
| No provision for | cleaning, proximity to |
| use of A-V..... 8 | open drain etc.....12 |
| materials | Other (please specify).....13 |
| | |
35. Does your school provide adequate audio-visual materials for foreign language study?
- Yes.....1
No.....2

36. How often do you use audio-visual equipment?
- Very often.....1
 Every week.....2
 Occasionally.....3
 Rarely.....4
 Never.....5
37. Is the effectiveness of your teaching limited by the poor provision of audio-visual materials and/or equipment?
- Yes.....1
 No.....2
38. Which text-books, if any, are your students required to use?
- | Author | Title |
|--------|-------|
| (1) | |
| (2) | |
| (3) | |
| (4) | |
39. Do you require that your students complete the grammar exercises in the set text?
- Yes, all of them.....1
 Yes, as many as possible.....2
 Yes, but only a few.....3
 No, none at all.....4

SECTION FIVE

In this section we seek some information about your foreign-language teaching colleagues; particularly those with whom you work or with whom you have worked in the past.

40. Please indicate the total number of foreign-language teachers you have worked with in your teaching career.
- Under 5.....1
 6-10.....2
 11-15.....3
 16-20.....4
 Over twenty.....5
41. Do the foreign-language teachers in your school teach in basically the same way that you do? (In the case of your being the sole foreign-language teacher at your present school, please refer to past experience.)
- Yes.....1
 No.....2
 Don't know.....3
42. Have other foreign-language teachers ever tried to influence you to teach in the same way that they do?
- Yes.....1
 Yes, but rarely.....2
 Never.....3

43. In this section we are interested in your views on FL education, from a more general perspective.

What do you regard as the main aim of FL education?

- Fostering of international/racial tolerance.....1
 Disciplining the mind.....2
 To make overseas travel more enjoyable.....3
 Vocational purposes.....4
 Improvement of Australia's trade and diplomatic
 relations with other countries.....5
 To provide insight into mother tongue.....6
 Other (Please specify).....7

44. Which of the following language skills do you regard as the most important for your students to develop? You may circle more than one number.

- Writing.....1
 Comprehension.....2
 Reading.....3
 Speaking.....4

45. Which language skill do your students prize most?

- Writing.....1
 Comprehension.....2
 Reading.....3
 Speaking.....4

46. Do you teach in the same way that you were taught when you studied a foreign language at secondary level?

- Definitely not.....1
 Not really.....2
 More or less.....3
 Basically, yes.....4
 Very much so.....5

47. Thirteen statements which people make about FL teaching are listed below. Put a tick in one box next to each statement to indicate whether you agree with it or not.

The successful FL teacher must:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Stongly Disagree
Be fluent in the FL					
Have students of above average IQ					
Be able to explain grammar rules clearly					
Have natural teaching ability					
Have students who are prepared to do their homework					
Have suitable materials					
Have at least four hours per week of FL class					
have homogeneous groups					
be familiar with modern language methodology					

Be a native speaker of the FL					
Have a good imagination					
Have parental support					
Have dramatic flair					

48. Below is a list of statements about FL learning. Select five items which are most significant to you. Please write the appropriate codes in the panel provided at the foot of the list.

Successful FL learning requires:

- above average intelligence.....01
- high motivation.....02
- good FL teaching.....03
- completion of all tasks and assignments.....04
- the opportunity to visit a country where the target language is spoken.....05
- much speaking of the FL.....06
- much writing of the FL.....07
- much listening to the FL.....08
- much reading of the FL.....09
- a good memory.....10

Please use codes

--	--	--	--	--

49. Some authors suggest that the FL classroom should be an active, noisy place, where students are encouraged to move around the room in response to FL commands. Students should be made to use the FL in games, plays or conversation every lesson. The days of the quiet, ordered FL classroom are, or should be, over.

What is your reaction to these views?

- Strongly agree.....1
- Agree in theory, but the situation would probably soon get out of hand.....2
- Unsure.....3
- This view has some merit but reflects the thinking of academics who have little insight into the reality of the classroom.....4
- Totally disagree in theory and practice.....5
- Other (Please specify).....6
-
-

50. Do you think that it is possible to motivate, in most cases, those students who have little intrinsic interest in FL study?

- Yes.....1
- No.....2
- Not sure.....3

51. Should a FL component be included in the core curriculum?

- Yes, for one year.....1
- Yes, for two years.....2
- Yes, for three years.....3
- Yes, for four years.....4
- Yes, up to and including H.S.C.11.....5
- Yes, up to and including H.S.C.111.....6
- No.....7
- Other (Please specify).....8
-

52. Are you happy with the present assessment procedures?

- Yes, very.....1
- Yes, moderately.....2
- Not really.....3
- Not at all.....4

53. If not, do they require you to spend too much time on:
(you may circle more than one number.)

- Conversation.....1
- Essay writing.....2
- Grammar.....3
- Cooking/Dancing etc.....4
- Translation.....5
- Reading.....6
- Comprehension exercises.....7
- Other (Please specify).....8
-

54. To prepare students adequately for H.S.C. and/or tertiary level FL study, should the teacher devote more time to:

- Grammar.....1
- Conversation.....2
- Essay writing.....3
- Literary analysis.....4
- Translation.....5
- Written comprehension.....6
- Other (Please specify).....7
-
-

SECTION SEVEN

55. Is there any other information that appears relevant and which you would like to add to your answers or this questionnaire? If so, please comment below.

APPENDIX C

LETTERS TO PRINCIPALS
AND TEACHERS



The University of Tasmania

CENTRE FOR EDUCATION
Department of Teacher Education

Box 252C, G.P.O., Hobart,
Tasmania, Australia 7001

Telephone: (002) 202101

Cables 'Tasuni'

Telex: 58150 UNTAS

LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS IN PILOT SURVEY

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING PROJECT

A short time ago I contacted you and asked for your co-operation in a research project on the teaching of modern languages in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges. The research is essentially concerned with an examination of modern-language teaching methodology in the light of teachers' perspectives and experiences.

The study has direct relevance to the improvement of pre- and in-service education of language teachers in this state, and to influencing the policies of the Education Department as they specifically relate to modern-language teaching.

The project has the full support of Mr. Adrian Harmsen, Supervisor of Foreign Languages, and Mr. Ross Butler, President, Tasmanian Teachers' Federation (please see the letters attached).

Please find a copy of the first draft of the questionnaire enclosed. This draft is being sent to fifteen teachers only. The answers, comments and criticisms received will provide valuable feedback for the design and wording of the final draft of the questionnaire which will be sent to our secondary level colleagues throughout the state.

I would very much appreciate it if you would indicate:

- how long it took you to complete the questionnaire
- whether the questions were interesting or boring
- whether you were satisfied with the range of optional answers
- whether the appearance of the questionnaire could be improved
- whether the phrasing of some questions was ambiguous
- whether the questions were arranged in the right order
- whether other questions should be included.

In short, all criticism is very welcome. It is much better that imperfections be revealed at this stage, rather than after the final draft has been disseminated.

Please note, you will not be asked to respond to the final draft of the questionnaire as well.

All responses will be treated in strictest confidence. In no circumstances will any individual or school be identified to any other individual or school or employing authority.



The University of Tasmania

CENTRE FOR EDUCATION
Department of Teacher Education

Box 252C, G.P.O., Hobart,
Tasmania, Australia 7001
Telephone: (002) 202101
Cables 'Tasuni'
Telex: 58150 UNTAS

The questionnaire carries an identification number. This will be used to ensure that those who return the questionnaire will not be sent a reminder.

If you have any questions about the project I will be happy to answer them by mail or telephone ((002) 202101, extn 577). Again, I would like to stress that any comments or criticisms that you would care to make, would be greatly appreciated.

Thank you for your most valuable and generous co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

Evert Jansen
Modern Language Teaching Project



The University of Tasmania

437

CENTRE FOR EDUCATION
Department of Teacher Education

Box 252C, G.P.O., Hobart,
Tasmania, Australia 7001

Telephone: (002) 202101
Cables 'Tasuni'
Telex: 58150 UNTAS

LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

3rd September, 1982

Dear

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING PROJECT

I write to inform you of a questionnaire which will shortly be sent to all teachers of languages other than English, in Tasmanian schools and colleges.

The project has the full support of the Education Department and the Tasmanian Teachers Federation (please see letters attached).

Data from questionnaires will provide essential information for the research which I am currently undertaking at the University of Tasmania. The aims of the research are to discover, as accurately as possible, how languages are being taught in Tasmanian schools, and to isolate the major variables which influence teachers in their choice of method. This knowledge should give insight into such areas as: the effectiveness of the pre- and in-service methodology courses currently available; the provision of materials in schools; and, teacher perceptions which may hinder or promote change. The ultimate aim of the research is to improve the quality and quantity of modern-language education in this state.

To this end it would be greatly appreciated if you would support the study and encourage your staff to respond to the questionnaire. It is, of course, appreciated that the final decision to take part in the study is completely up to themselves.

If you have any queries about the project I will be happy to discuss them with you by mail or telephone (002) 202101 extn 577.

With many thanks for your valuable co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

Evert Jansen
Modern Language Teaching Project



The University of Tasmania

CENTRE FOR EDUCATION
Department of Teacher Education

PRE-QUESTIONNAIRE LETTER TO STUDY POPULATION

Box 252C, G.P.O., Hobart,
Tasmania, Australia 7001
Telephone: (002) 202101
Cables 'Tasuni'
Telex: 58150 UNTAS

Dear

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING PROJECT

I write to request your co-operation in providing information for a research study whose findings are of direct relevance to improving the work of modern language teachers in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges.

The research is, in essence, an investigation into how modern languages are taught in Tasmania and why teachers adopt the particular teaching approaches that they do.

Much work has been done in the field of modern language teaching methodology. Very little, however, is as yet known about what influences teachers in their choice of teaching method. This research is essentially concerned with examining aspects of the professional and occupational development of today's teachers, with particular regard to the way that they were taught modern languages, their professional training and their working conditions.

Although the main focus of the study is modern language teaching, the findings are likely to be useful for research into other subject areas, such as English. Information gathered for this study is also likely to assist in the evaluation and improvement of preservice and inservice training programmes.

This research comes at a time when there is a growing awareness of the significance of modern language study in the preparation of individuals for full membership of a multicultural, multilingual society.

For too long methodologists and commenters on modern language teaching have ignored the practising teacher. I, therefore, seek your support for the study since the success of the research, and the validity and usefulness of the results, will largely depend on the active co-operation of all teachers.

Within the next few weeks you will receive a questionnaire by mail. All data will be treated in strictest confidence. It will be coded onto I.B.M. cards to be used in group comparisons only. In no circumstances will any individual or school be identified to any other individual or school or employing authority.

If you have any questions about the project I will be happy to answer them by mail or telephone ((002) 202101, extn 577); and I hope, in any case, that you will use the space provided in the questionnaire to express your own (anonymous) opinions.

Please turn over.

With many thanks for your anticipated support and co-operation,

Yours sincerely,

Evert Jansen
Modern Language Teaching Project



The University of Tasmania

CENTRE FOR EDUCATION
Department of Teacher Education

Box 252C, G.P.O., Hobart,
Tasmania, Australia 7001

Telephone: (002) 202101

Cables 'Tasuni'

Telex: 58150 UNTAS

COVERING LETTER TO STUDY POPULATION

Dear

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING PROJECT

A short time ago I wrote to ask you for your co-operation in a research project on the teaching of modern languages in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges. The research is essentially concerned with an examination of modern-language teaching methodology in the light of teachers' perspectives and experiences.

The study has direct relevance to the improvement of pre- and in-service education of language teachers in this state, and to influencing the policies of the Education Department as they specifically relate to modern language teaching.

The project has the full support of Mr. Adrian Harmsen and Mr. Ross Butler (please see the letters attached).

A copy of the questionnaire mentioned in my last letter is now enclosed, and I would be most grateful if you would complete and return it to me as soon as you can, if possible within a week. A stamped, addressed return envelope is provided for your convenience.

The success of this research depends on the participation of all those to whom this questionnaire is sent. Your individual contribution is important so please give your response without consultation with others.

I would like to emphasize that all data will be treated in the strictest confidence. It will be coded onto I.B.M. cards to be used in group comparisons only. In no circumstances will any individual or school be identified to any other individual, school or employing authority.

The questionnaire carries an identification number. This will be used to ensure that those who return the questionnaire will not be sent a reminder.

I hope you find the questions interesting to answer. Please do not hesitate to write or telephone me on (002) 202101, extension 577, if you have any questions.

Thank you for your most valuable and generous co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

Evert Jansen
Modern Language Teaching Project



FIRST REMINDER TO
STUDY POPULATION

Box 252C, G.P.O., Hobart,
Tasmania, Australia 7001
Telephone: (002) 202101
Cables 'Tasuni'
Telex: 58150 UNTAS

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING PROJECT

You will recall that I wrote to you about three weeks ago to seek your co-operation in a current research project being undertaken on the teaching of languages other than English in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges. Shortly afterwards you were sent a copy of a questionnaire and a stamped addressed envelope in which to return it.

Your completed questionnaire has not yet been received (although it may of course still be in the mail). The validity of the results of this research project depend as much on the completion of each questionnaire as on the information contained in them, and so I am writing again to ask for your assistance in completing and returning the questionnaire.

May I reassure you that all information will be treated in the strictest confidence, and that I will be pleased to discuss this, or any other aspect of the project, by mail or telephone (002) 202101, extn2577. Please reverse the telephone charges if you wish.

Your co-operation in completing and returning the questionnaire, in the stamped addressed envelope provided, will be greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Evert Jansen
Modern Language Teaching Project



SECOND REMINDER TO
STUDY POPULATION

Box 252C, G.P.O., Hobart,
Tasmania, Australia 7001
Telephone: (002) 202101
Cables 'Tasuni'
Telex: 58150 UNTAS

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING PROJECT

Over the past few weeks I have written to you, and sent a copy of a questionnaire (with a stamped addressed envelope for return), in connection with a research project currently being undertaken on the teaching of languages other than English in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges. I write again to ask for your co-operation in this project.

Foreign-Language teachers in various other countries and in Australia have been severely criticized in books, reports and journals. However, very little research has been done on the problems and experiences of practising teachers. The participation of every individual to whom a questionnaire has been sent is essential if the results are not to be misleading.

This study has the approval of the Director-General of Education, the Supervisor of Foreign Languages and the President of the Tasmanian Teachers Federation because they believe that the information gained will be of real value in helping to gain a better understanding of foreign-language teaching in this state. I enclose a copy of letters from the Supervisor of Foreign Languages and the Teachers Federation which indicate their support for the project.

I assure you that the information you provide will be entirely confidential, and that the results will be published in anonymous and summary form. In no circumstances will any individual or school be identified to any other individual, school or employing authority.

In case you have misplaced the original questionnaire and envelope that were sent to you, another copy of the questionnaire and stamped addressed envelope for the return of the questionnaire are enclosed for your convenience. Please contact me by mail or telephone (002) 202101, ext 2577 if you would like to discuss any aspect of the project. Reverse the telephone charges if you wish.

Your co-operation in contributing to the research by completing and returning the questionnaire is essential to its ultimate success and usefulness and will be greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Evert Jansen
Modern Language Teaching Project

Address all communication
to the General Secretary.



32 Patrick Street,
HOBART, 7000.
Telephone : 34 9500

30th June 1982.

OPEN LETTER TO TEACHERS IN RECEIPT OF A QUESTIONNAIRE RELATED TO THE
MODERN-LANGUAGE TEACHING PROJECT CONDUCTED BY MR. EVERT JANSEN.

Dear Colleague,

I have had discussion with Evert Jansen about his research project and believe that his work will result in a significant contribution to the progress of the study of modern languages in our schools and colleges.

I am mindful, of course, of the daily pressure on teachers' time, but I would like to recommend strongly Mr. Jansen's research study and urge you to assist him by completing and returning his questionnaire.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "A. Ross Butler".

(A. Ross Butler)

PRESIDENT.



EDUCATION DEPARTMENT HOBART

TELEPHONE 30 8022 G.P.O. BOX NO. 169B 7001

140 Bathurst Street, Hobart, 7000

IN REPLY PLEASE QUOTE.

FILE NO.

IF TELEPHONING OR CALLING

ASK FOR

16th July, 1982.

To all teachers of modern languages

Dear colleague,

Enclosed is a questionnaire sent to all teachers of modern languages in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges.

The questionnaire was drawn up by Evert Jansen, formerly President of the Northern Branch of the M.L.T.A.T. Evert is a graduate of the University of Tasmania, taught German and English at Alanvale College for three years, and is at present studying for a Master's degree at the University.

Evert's thesis deals with the teaching of Foreign Languages in Tasmania. To enable him to present an accurate picture of the present situation, your co-operation in answering the questionnaire would be greatly appreciated.

The information collected will prove of interest to all teachers of Foreign Languages, and may lead to greater teacher involvement in decision making.

Yours sincerely,

Adrian Harmsen,
SUPERVISOR OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES.

APPENDIX D

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY POPULATION

APPENDIX D

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY POPULATION.

INTRODUCTION

The argument has been developed that educational researchers need to understand the nature of problems within the local working environment of teachers if theory is to be effectively translated into classroom practice. To this end the purpose of this appendix is to provide a descriptive basis for the detailed analysis of the study population, so that some understanding may be gained of the career patterns, concerns and professional behaviour of the teachers surveyed.

The first part deals with details of the age, sex, occupational experience and professional status of the 118 respondents to the questionnaire.

The second section considers evidence of regional and sexual disparity of professional status in Tasmania. Age and sex distribution of teachers in the three regions are also discussed. It is noted that in all three regions very few males appear in the younger age-groups as classified in the questionnaire. Also in each region, females are proportionately underrepresented (1), at the senior levels of Senior Mistress/Master, Vice-Principal and Principal.

Thirdly, the appendix looks at age and sex distribution in the four types of educational institution: state colleges; non-government schools and colleges; state high schools; district

high schools. State colleges, high and district high schools, are administered by the Tasmanian Education Department. Non-government schools and colleges are privately owned and administered institutions which are often associated with church denominations as diverse as Roman Catholics, Calvinists and Quakers.

In conclusion, the appendix summarizes the major demographic and promotion trends among foreign-language teachers in Tasmania, and discusses the main implications of these trends.

1. FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHERS IN TASMANIA

i) Age.

Fifty-seven point six per cent (68) of the 118 respondents were under the age of thirty-four. Eighty-three point nine per cent (99) were forty-four years or younger. Sixty point two per cent (71) had taught foreign languages for six years or more.

If the normal teaching career is seen to span from the end of tertiary training at age twenty-one, to retirement at age sixty-five for men and sixty for women, a period of up to forty-four years, then it is interesting to note that over 80 per cent were still in the first half of their professional career.

The vast majority of Tasmanian, secondary level, foreign-language teachers began teaching in the 1960s or later, a period which witnessed the rapid comprehensivisation of high schools in Tasmania, and the

consequent questioning of aims and styles in the foreign-language subject area (Supra, Chapter Two, p.15).

ii) Experience.

Seventy-nine point seven per cent (94) indicated that English was their mother tongue, but, interestingly, 85.6 per cent (101) had visited a country where the language(s) they taught are spoken as the mother tongue. Of those who had made such a visit, 54.2 per cent (64) had stayed for less than one year.

Foreign-language teachers in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges form a young, but not inexperienced group of people, who have generally gained further target language experience by travelling abroad.

iii) Sex.

Seventy-two point nine per cent (86) of respondents to the questionnaire were female.

iv) Occupational Status.

Two point five per cent (3) of the study population were Principals; 2.5 per cent (3) were Vice-Principals, and 16.1 per cent (19) had Senior Mistress/Master status. Thus 21.2 per cent (25) were in senior positions. Sixty-two point seven per cent (74) were full-time teachers, and 14.4 per cent (17) were employed on a part-time basis.

All three Principals were male. One Vice-Principal was male and 42.2 per cent (8) of the nineteen in the Senior Mistress/Master group were male. Females comprised 72.9 per

cent of the study population, but filled senior positions in only 53.2 per cent of the cases. Thus male foreign-language teachers in Tasmanian secondary schools and colleges are more likely to gain promotion status than females.

2. REGIONAL COMPARISONS

Twenty-one point two per cent (25) of the respondents worked in the North-Western region of Tasmania; 25.4 per cent (30) in the North; and, 53.4 per cent (63) in the South.

1.1 Age-Group and Sex Distribution in the Three Regions

In the North-West, in the twenty-nine and under age-group, there were eleven females and no males. In the Northern Region, in the twenty-nine and under age-group, there were nine females and no males. In the South, in the twenty-four and under age-group, were nine females and no males. In the twenty-five to twenty-nine year age-group, in the South, there were ten females and one male.

The total number of respondents from all three regions, aged twenty-nine or under, was forty, of which all but one were female. This researcher is aware of two other male foreign-language teachers who are in this age-group. Both are employed in Tasmanian secondary colleges - one participated in the pre-test to the Modern Language Teaching Project, and the other is the researcher himself.

1.2 Distribution of Professional Status

a) The North-West.

None of the Principals or Vice-Principals worked in the North-West region of Tasmania. There were six respondents of Senior Mistress/Master status in this region; 50.0 per cent (3) were female. Of the seventeen full-time teachers, however, only 23.5 per cent (4) were male. Males, who formed 23.5 per cent (4) of the full-time unpromoted teaching staff, comprised 50.0 per cent (3) of senior level foreign-language staff.

b) The North.

The Northern Region had two Principals, both of whom were male. Of the two Vice-Principals in this region, one was male and one female. Of the three teachers at S.M. level, only one was female. At full- and part-time teacher level, eighteen respondents were female and only five were male.

In other words, 50.0 per cent (5) of the male respondents from the Northern Region were in promotion positions, while only 10.0 per cent of females (2) had been promoted. Thirty per cent (3) of males held Principal or Vice-Principal status, compared with 5.0 per cent (1) of females. This disparity of professional prestige exists in a region where 66.7 per cent (20) of respondents were female.

c) The South.

The Southern Region had one Principal (male), and one Vice-Principal (female). Seven females and three males had

gained S.M. status; this is the only region where female senior staff outnumbered male senior staff. However, even here, the female representation at senior staff level was only twice that of the males', while 78.6 per cent (33) of the full-time teaching staff in this region were female. The female part-time teachers outnumbered their male counterparts by 85.7 per cent (6) to 14.3 per cent (1).

Of the twenty-five respondents from the North-West, 24.0 per cent (6) held promotion positions. Twenty-three point three per cent (7) of the thirty respondents from the Northern Region had gained promotion status. And 19.0 per cent (12) of the sixty-three Southern Region respondents held S.M. status or above.

The study showed that, with regard to professional status, the Southern Region is slightly disadvantaged, in the sense that a lower proportion of foreign-language teachers in the Southern Region of Tasmania had gained promotion status, in comparison with the other two regions.

Sexual disparity of prestige was evident in each region. In the North-West 16.7 per cent (3) of females had reached senior status, compared with 42.9 per cent (3) of males. The Northern Region had 10.0 per cent (2) of females in senior positions, compared with 50.0 per cent (5) of males. In the South 16.7 per cent (8) of females had senior status, compared with 26.7 per cent (4) of males.

3. TYPE OF SCHOOL

Cross-tabulations were gained of respondents' age and sex, and the types of schools in which they worked. The vast majority (77.1 per cent) of respondents worked in city schools, 21.2 per cent in Country Towns and one teacher in a mining town and one on King Island.

i) State Colleges.

In State Community and Matriculation Colleges there was an underrepresentation of teachers in the 20-24 years age-group. This group comprised 14.4 per cent (17) of the study population, but only 4.5 per cent (1) of those who worked in the colleges. The 40-44 years age-group also comprised 14.4 per cent (17) of the total study population, but was well represented in state colleges with a figure of 22.7 per cent (5). The 55-59 years age-group, which formed only 8.5 per cent (10) of the total, comprised 13.6 per cent (3) of teachers in state colleges.

The representation of females in state colleges was almost proportionate with the representation of females in the total study population. Sixty-eight point two per cent (15) of respondents employed in state colleges were female, and 31.8 per cent (7) were male.

ii) Non-Government Schools and Colleges.

The sex distribution of the twenty-five teachers in non-government schools and colleges almost exactly followed the pattern of the total study population; that is, 72.0 per

cent female and 28.0 per cent male.

Age patterns in non-government institutions were interesting. Only 4.0 per cent (1) of the teachers in non-government schools and colleges were under the age of twenty-nine. This compares with a total study population figure of 33.9 per cent (40). Conversely, non-government institution figures for the 40-44 and 55-59 years age-groups were almost double the total figures, with 28.0 per cent (7) and 16.0 per cent (4) respectively.

iii) State High Schools.

Age patterns in high schools closely followed the total study population model. The percentage of the high school population under the age of twenty-nine was 36.9 (24), compared with 33.9 (40) per cent of the total study population.

Of the sixty-five teachers in high schools, 75.4 per cent (49) were female. This shows a small overrepresentation of females in this type of school; compared with a 4.7 per cent underrepresentation of females in state secondary colleges.

iv) District High Schools.

State District High Schools had a very high representation of young teachers. Fifty per cent (7) of the respondents from these schools were in the 20-24 year age-group. A further 21.4 per cent (3) were in the 25-29 year age-group. Only 14.3 per cent (2) of teachers in this type of school

were above the age of thirty-four.

Of the fourteen respondents from District High Schools, 78.6 per cent (11) were female. This corroborates the view that young, female teachers are the ones most likely to be sent to country schools.

4. CONCLUSION

The findings of the present quantitative study show that, with regard to the Tasmanian secondary level foreign-language teaching profession, females are underrepresented in promotion positions. Fifteen point one per cent (13) of female foreign-language teachers, and 37.5 per cent (12) of male foreign-language teachers had gained promotion status.

This situation may change because of the small number of young male teachers in the foreign-language teaching profession in Tasmania. It is evident that, unless there is a sudden influx of male teachers, the professional group in Tasmania, for better or worse, will see the dwindling of its male population. This is particularly the case in the North-West of the State, where there was only one male respondent under the age of thirty-four.

Young foreign-language teachers in Tasmania tend to find employment in State High Schools and District High Schools. This is particularly so for young, female teachers. State Secondary Colleges and Non-government Schools and Colleges employ very few young foreign-language teachers.

These findings show that the Tasmanian Education Department

and Non-government employers promote male foreign-language teachers more often than their female colleagues, and older more often than younger teachers. This situation may lead to some dissatisfaction in a professional group which is predominantly young and female.

REFERENCES.

- (1) The use of this term is based on the assumption that a proportionate representation of a given sub-group, such as females or young teachers, in a given professional status or type of school, is an even representation. It therefore follows that less than a proportionate representation is an underrepresentation, and more than a proportionate representation is an overrepresentation.