Languages other than English in Tasmanian primary schools, 1996–1998: Teachers' perspectives on policy and implementation

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Declaration

I certify that this dissertation contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any institute, college or university, and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the dissertation.

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Abstract

Over the past thirty years, much research on primary level foreign language education has been conducted in the areas of language immersion/bilingualism and communicative methodologies, and little on the significant area of foreign language curriculum implementation. In fact, much of the literature existing on primary foreign language curriculum implementation is based on anecdotal evidence about what teachers have long "known" (Met & Galloway, 1992).

This study presents findings concerning foreign language curriculum policy implementation in the state of Tasmania, Australia in the 1990s. The Tasmanian Department of Education and the Arts (DEA) released its Languages other than English (LOTE) Policy in November 1995 (DEA, 1995a), responding to national and international trends in delivering foreign language curriculum programs at primary level. The focus of this study is on both Policy intentions and primary LOTE teachers' perceptions of Policy intentions. It also traces Tasmanian primary LOTE teachers' reports of how districts and schools were implementing the Policy and how teachers themselves negotiated a new curriculum area.

A conceptual framework based on the work of Fullan (1991a) and Kallós and Lundgren (1979) structured the data within existing theories of curriculum policy implementation. Utilising both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods, data were assembled to create a picture of models of implementation in schools and teachers' practices and beliefs about the policy/practice nexus.

The findings show that many components suggested by the research literature as necessary in language policy are evident in the Tasmanian LOTE Policy. Three key components characterised the "intended" Tasmanian LOTE Policy: a guaranteed eight-year pathway of study for students; "team" delivery by the LOTE specialist with the generalist class teacher; and provision of information technology hardware and software for teacher and student use. School and classroom implementation of the Policy was through semi-specialists, visiting, and peripatetic teachers delivering communicative-based language and culture programs, supported by generalist class teachers, as intended by Policy. Reasons for LOTE teachers implementing programs as they did, and issues for teachers implementing curriculum change, are discussed.

This study contributes to an understanding of how LOTE curriculum policy is constructed in practice. It is significant for policy developers who match intended curriculum with operationalised curriculum for evaluation purposes.

Conclusions are drawn about the factors influencing teachers' negotiation of the policy implementation process. Recommendations are made regarding further research, establishing which policies and practices can assist teachers to continue to meet the challenge of curriculum implementation.

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Berlayar dengan nakoda,
berjalan dengan yang tahu,
berkata dengan yang pandai.
Indonesian proverb

Acknowledging and thanking all individuals involved with the final presentation of this thesis is best undertaken with the help of this Indonesian proverb.

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List of abbreviations

AACLAME	Australian Advisory Council on Languages and Multicultural Education
AEF	Asia Education Foundation
ALLC	Australian Language and Literacy Council
ASC	Asian Studies Council
AUSLAN	Australian Sign language
CDE	Commonwealth Department of Education
CDEET	Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training
COA	Commonwealth of Australia
COAG	Council of Australian Governments
CO.AS.IT	Italian Assistance Cooperation Association
DEA	Department of Education and the Arts
FECCA	Federation of Ethnic Communities' Councils of Australia
MCEETYA	Ministerial Council for Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs
NALSAS	National Asian Languages and Studies in Australian Schools
PLIE	Priority Language Incentive Element
PLSE	Priority Language Support Element
TEC	Tasmanian Education Council

1

Overview of the study

1.1 Introduction

Nina bobo, o nina bobo
Dalam ayunan puaslah kau tidur
Dalam ayunan puaslah kau tidur
Kalau tidak tidur digigit nyamuk

Indonesian lullaby

nen nen kororiyo okororiyo

bo-ya yoiko da nenneshina

Japanese lullaby

Parents all over the world pass on language to their children in various ways and the lullaby, a soothing song to send children to sleep, can be one strategy that adds to a child's early language development. Language acquired through such means can be considered to have been acquired naturally. Infants and young children observe the language behaviours of significant others around them and copy those language models through imitation (Williams, De Gaetano, Harrington, Sutherland & ALERTA Staff, 1985, p. 12). These natural methods within first language acquisition can only rarely be repeated for second language acquisition, for example in bilingual contexts, where there is "use of two (or more) languages" (Cummins & Corson, 1997, p. xi).

For the majority of learners wanting to acquire a second language, a more formal, structured method is adopted, often in classroom settings. Research evidence exists to support arguments that childhood learners will be superior in terms of ultimate language attainment compared with older learners when learning a

second language and equally that adult starters can achieve high levels in classroom settings (Krashen, Long & Scarcella, 1982; Snow, 1983; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Quinn, 1993). Resulting from this research are controversial debates about the optimal age to start second language learning (McLaughlin, 1992; Stern, 1991). Consequently, strategies for teaching second languages and ways to ensure appropriate models of program provision remain under scrutiny.

Researchers constantly question whether the teaching methods and program models are naturalistic and/or authentic (Dunlop, Titone, Takala, Schrand, Lucas, Steele, Shohamy, Allen, Olshtain, Spolsky, Krashen & Bialystok, 1991; Met & Galloway, 1992), whether more successful methodologies can be built, and whether teaching techniques effectively replicate models of first language acquisition, as in the context of the lullaby-singing parents referred to above. How schools make provisions for such foreign language education is in question. How teachers of foreign and second languages of primary-school-age children negotiate the factors impacting on curriculum implementation, and how they plan, design and implement language curricula in school classrooms is based on beliefs and attitudes formed during their lives (Tucker, Donato & Antonek, 1996). A closer look at such phenomena in the Australian context of primary level foreign language education, henceforth termed primary LOTE, follows.

This study examined and analysed the intentions of the Tasmanian Department of Education and the Arts (DEA) for foreign language education[1] provision in Tasmania after 1995. The study also examined the models of primary LOTE provision in Tasmanian primary schools from 1996 and primary LOTE teachers' curriculum development and teaching strategies to implement LOTE programs in

[1] The subject of this research is foreign language education in primary schools. The term foreign language education will be used throughout this and subsequent chapters of this dissertation to denote the teaching and learning of foreign languages in generic contexts. For the specific Australian context, LOTE (Languages other than English) will be used: for the UK – MLPS (Modern Languages in the Primary School) or MFL (Modern Foreign Languages), and for the USA – FLES (Foreign Languages in the Elementary School).

the upper-primary grades in subsequent years, essentially providing an evaluation of policy implementation.

Early studies of policy implementation in the 1970s, such as the Rand Change Agent study (as cited in McLaughlin, 1998) found that adoption of a project did not ensure successful implementation and moreover, did not ensure its continuation. Successfully implementing a new curriculum or policy is never easy for teachers—key players in implementation—especially as they are reported to regard themselves "mere puppets pulled by the strings of policy-makers" (Osborn & Broadfoot, 1992). It is potentially even more difficult to implement successfully in LOTE education, where generalist class teachers are called upon to support the work of specialist teachers teaching in the LOTE curriculum area.

Low (1999, p. 50) reported the "resurgence of interest in teaching foreign languages in primary schools . . . in the late 1980s and early 1990s" across the UK and a number of European countries. Following that trend, Australia is one country where, for more than ten years, the teaching and learning of LOTE in schools has been placed high on the educational agenda. Tracing government reports and committee findings on LOTE education shows that from the late 1960s Australia has placed LOTE on its list of national curriculum priorities. The major political parties led the Australian people to believe that trade and investment strategies would be enhanced if future generations of Australians understood the languages and cultures of, particularly, the Asia–Pacific region. This impetus was continually reinforced by the findings of successive reports and the work of bodies such as the Council of Australian Governments (COAG), the Asian Studies Council (ASC), the Asia Education Foundation (AEF) and the Australian Advisory Council on Languages and Multicultural Education (AACLAME). Coupled with an increased voice from the Federation of Ethnic Communities' Councils of Australia (FECCA) as it strove to ensure that languages other than English were included in school curricula, foreign language teaching was the centre of heightened interest among many educational pressure groups within the Australian community (Bostock, 1993). A much more detailed analysis of the local and national LOTE context occurs in Chapter 3.

The rhetoric is abundant on the need for nations to acknowledge cross-cultural interaction, which has increased as a result of globalisation through worldwide social, economic, scientific and political developments. Many governments recognise their duty to educate the next generations to be able to communicate (face-to-face or electronically) with speakers of other languages. Although English has become an almost necessary prerequisite for global communication (Pennycook, 1994), it is recognised by some social and economic commentators that cross-cultural communication and intercultural literacy are preferable for mutual understanding (Heyward, 1999).

On the periphery of the political arena, Australian educationists view the teaching and learning of languages other than English as a key learning area for inclusion in the curriculum. Strong evidence for this exists in the fact that LOTE has remained a Key Learning Area in the National Curriculum ever since the National Curriculum was developed (Australian Education Council [AEC], 1989; Curriculum Corporation, 1994a, 1994b; Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs [MCEETYA], 1999). It was from the time of the *National Policy on Languages* (Lo Bianco, 1987) that the "process of legitimising and normalising the study of languages for all students within schools" was declared (Centre for Curriculum and Professional Development, Murdoch University & Simpson Norris International, 1999, p. 15).

Tasmania introduced LOTE into its primary schools in 1996 in similar fashion to the practices initiated in other Australian states and territories (Berthold, 1991; Clyne, 1986). These initiatives followed significant recommendations about LOTE education contained in documents such as the Hobart Declaration (AEC, 1989) and *Asian Languages and Australia's Economic Future: A Report prepared for the Council of Australian Governments on a Proposed National Asian Languages/Studies Strategy for Australian Schools* (COAG, 1994). A Tasmanian LOTE Policy appeared in November 1995 (DEA, 1995a) and has subsequently been implemented incrementally in a significant number of Tasmanian government primary schools from Grade 3 level across the state. This

incremental implementation of the Policy was structured by guidelines and supported by appropriate curriculum materials (DEA, 1995b), two aspects that research indicates will promote effective implementation of new curriculum initiatives as is outlined later in Chapter 2.

David Marquand's work, *The Unprincipled Society: New Demands and Old Politics* acknowledged that teachers are key players in implementing the 'negotiated' national curriculum (1988). He argued that a curriculum is continuously constructed and reconstructed in an interlocking network of local (school level), regional (local/state government level) and national directives by teachers, principals and administrators. This contestation requires participants of any curriculum development project—that is, the aforementioned teachers, principals and administrators—to dialogue aims, processes, understandings and forms of practice (Elliott, 1998, p. 35), to construct and reconstruct, or to operationalise (Thornton, 1988) and deliver the curriculum. In the case of LOTE implementation in Tasmania, although there were stipulated directions about the implementation of foreign language programs, there were considerable variations in the ways districts, schools and teachers responded to the implementation process for primary LOTE education. As happened with other Australian states' implementation of LOTE curricula, the speed at which events occurred after the Tasmanian LOTE Policy was introduced caused some teachers unease (Elliott, 1998, p. 33).

Given the general complexity of the curriculum implementation process and the specific difficulties associated with the implementation of LOTE curriculum in primary schools, it is apposite that this area be researched. Hence the focus of the study set out in the following section.

1.2 Purpose of the study

This study investigated the initial translation of policy into practice of LOTE education in Tasmanian primary schools. Specifically, the focus was on an

examination and evaluation of the strategies used by both schools and the primary teachers to implement the new LOTE curriculum. The teacher's pivotal role in translating policy into practice has been the subject of previous studies, such as that of Berman and McLaughlin (1978), Saez and Carretero (1998) and Cohen and Ball (1990). This study aims to build on the knowledge gained from this previous research.

To examine and analyse the intended policy and subsequent implementation, the study used a multi-stage research approach using both quantitative and qualitative methods to answer the research questions. It looked at the way one state education system went about the process of delivery of LOTE curriculum, particularly focusing on the primary sphere. It explored:

- the intentions of the policy developers for LOTE education in Tasmania
- decisions made by districts and schools for LOTE Policy implementation
- the centrality of teachers' roles in implementation
- strategies used by teachers for LOTE program implementation
- teachers' perceptions of best primary LOTE practice
- teachers' consultation of curriculum guides
- factors such as resourcing, staffing and the role of information technology impacting on implementation
- how a revised approach may be considered for future policy implementation.

1.3 Research questions

The study addressed the following three research questions:

- According to the Tasmanian LOTE Policy (DEA, 1995a), how was LOTE intended to be implemented in Tasmanian primary schools?
- How was LOTE implemented in practice in Tasmanian primary schools? In particular, what strategies did primary LOTE teachers use to implement primary LOTE programs?
- Why did primary LOTE implementation occur as it did?

In order to situate the current study within a wider context, the following section describes the various processes undertaken to develop what is now known as the Tasmanian LOTE Policy. The history and characteristics of the LOTE Policy are described in order that the relevant background aspects can be placed against the conceptual framework of analysis introduced later within this chapter and developed in Chapters 2 and 3.

1.4 Context of the study

The processes and key events in the initiation and implementation stages of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy are prefaced by an historical sketch of international and local Australian initiatives concerning the development of LOTE policies. It will be shown that developments in Australia-wide LOTE policies strongly influenced the developments of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy.

1.4.1 International and national policies and initiatives

Language policies exist for many reasons such as the need to skill a workforce, to enhance a nation's trade prospects or to provide support for or disempower citizens, to name just a few. Dunlop et al. (1991) stated:

> Depending on their internal linguistic situation, the relative political power of different linguistic groups, views on language rights and language equality . . . states may choose to promote a policy of a unilingual, bilingual or multilingual society. (p. 554)

Most governments throughout the world have taken a stance on general language policy (Rubichi, 1995). It is the general language policies that play a "crucial role . . . for individuals, social groups, and states" and are "one of the major determinants of a nation's language teaching policy" (Dunlop et al., 1991, p. 554).

From the mid-1960s discussions concerning languages policy in Australia began to focus on knowing other languages and cultures. This culminated in the 1987 report *National Policy on Languages,* which highlighted various interest groups' recommendations of perceived benefits for the learning of other languages and a recognition of the learning of languages for social goals such as enrichment, economics, equality and external factors (Lo Bianco, 1987, p. 44).

The late 1980s and early 1990s saw the focus on the national, political agenda switch particularly from European languages to Asian languages and cultures (Asian Studies Council, 1988). The then Prime Minister Paul Keating had highlighted Australia's links with Japan (Barclay, 1993) and was a strong advocate for the development of language and economic ties with specific Asian countries. Government task forces were set up to examine Australia's relationships with Asian countries. In December 1992, the Council of Australian Governments discussed the importance of proficiency in Asian languages and an understanding of Asian societies to the enhancement of Australia's economic interests in the Asia–Pacific region (as cited in Centre for Curriculum et al., 1999, p. 15). This emphasis on Asian languages and studies still exists today (Barclay, 1993; KRT, 2000).

In Queensland, the Council of Australian Governments Report (COAG, 1994) became the basis for a National Asian Languages/Studies Strategy for Australian Schools and a key influence on the development of the Tasmanian LOTE policy. This report boasted being the sixteenth report prepared for governments over the last 25 years to concentrate on the need to "increase the number of Australians learning second languages in general and Asian languages in particular" (COAG, 1994, p. 17).

Significant among these reports were *Teaching of Asian Languages and Cultures in Australia* (Auchmuty, 1971), *Report of the Committee on Asian Studies to the Asian Studies Association of Australia* (FitzGerald, 1980), *National Policy on Languages* (Lo Bianco, 1987), and *Australia's Languages: The Australian Languages and Literacy Policy* (Commonwealth of Australia [COA],

1991). These reports examined Australia's place in Asia, the teaching of foreign (especially Asian) languages in the Australian curriculum, and the link between LOTE and first language English literacy. These reports also recommended that increased funding be made available to support a teaching of languages in all educational sectors. The Council of Australian Governments report (COAG, 1994) called for specific national and state government intervention to allow these curriculum changes to occur (COAG, 1994).

Another report in Australia, the Nicholas Report (Nicholas, Moore, Clyne & Pauwels, 1993), made particular comment about the implementation of LOTE into primary schools and recommended the establishment of "properly constituted Language Policy Implementation Committees whose role it is to oversee, refine and evaluate the implementation of the language education policies that have been articulated" (Nicholas et al., Recommendation 7, 1993). The report argued that these implementation committees should hold ultimate responsibility for a new jurisdiction setting up a LOTE curriculum, before devolving control to districts, clusters and schools. Such committees were also to be responsible for promotion of "the development of mechanisms and guidelines that foster district-based provision and planning of language programs" (Recommendation 11), and the facilitation of meetings (Recommendation 12).

Australian policies and policy documents, such as the *National Policy on Languages* (Lo Bianco, 1987), the Leal Report (Leal, Bettoni & Malcolm, 1991) and *Australia's Languages: The Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (Commonwealth of Australia, 1991) clearly stated that teacher proficiency in the target language should be made a high priority in order to enhance successful implementation of programs.

All reports noted too, that LOTE teacher certification is currently becoming an issue for various jurisdictions. A recommendation of the Nicholas Report (Nicholas et al., 1993, Recommendation 27) was that teachers of LOTE would have final tertiary level majors in the target LOTE or equivalent, would have completed a number of study hours in LOTE pedagogy, would have

practicum experience and would have achieved spoken and written proficiency statements in the target language.

Finding that language skills are especially economically significant in Australia's relations with Asia, the Council of Australian Governments report (COAG, 1994, pp. i–xix) recommended, among other things, that:

- Japanese, Mandarin Chinese, Indonesian and Korean teaching be expanded and monitored (p. v)
- 25% of the Commonwealth's Year 12 students be encouraged to study a second language by 2006 and that 15% should learn a priority Asian language (p. ix)
- 60% of Year 10 students should study a priority Asian language (p. x)
- all students should achieve specified levels according to agreed proficiency scales (pp. x–xi).

Specifically for primary languages study, the Council of Australian Governments report (COAG, 1994,
pp. i–xix) recommended that:

- governments endorse Year 3 as the most appropriate starting age for the study of a second language (p. xiii)
- instruction should be approximately 2.5 hours per week for Years 3–10 and 3 hours for Years 11–12, resulting in a total of 800 hours for Years 3–10 and 1040 hours for Years 3–12 (p. xiii).

To help achieve these hours the Council of Australian Governments report suggested that there be some regular LOTE programs, some other LOTE programs implemented as partial immersion courses, and that a number of scholarships be financed to enable a limited number of students to undertake in-country (Year 13) courses (p. xvii).

Regarding staffing, the same report (COAG, 1994) recommended that teacher training be implemented to address standards of LOTE teaching competencies and proficiencies (p. xiv). The Council of Australian Governments was to find the funding necessary to train LOTE teachers: a 50% contribution allocated by

the States, matched by a 50% contribution by the Commonwealth (COAG, p. xix).

Whether this curriculum reform in the guise of the Council of Australian Governments report (COAG, 1994) was "done in the interest of creating a truly enlightened citizenry" who were all bi- or multi-lingual, rather than a strategy to address questions of national interest directly (Eisner, 1993, p. 38) has been debated by Scarino (1998, p. 12) with her claims that economic rationale appears strongly in national and local statements, along with a shift in emphasis away from European languages to the study of Asian languages.

The education departments of Australia's States and Territories gradually developed policies for LOTE education, discussed in further detail in Chapter 3. By 1994, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, New South Wales, the Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory all had compulsory elements within their LOTE policy statements, incrementally including primary students in this compulsory curriculum area (Heinzman, 1997; Muir, 1994). Like Tasmania, Western Australia recommended LOTE programs, but had no mandated element.

The Tasmanian LOTE Policy released in 1995 was very much in line with those being released by other States and Territories, and all were closely aligned with the details released in the Council of Australian Governments report (COAG, 1994). Developments that led up to the release of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy in November 1995 are outlined in the next section.

1.4.2 Tasmanian LOTE policy and initiatives

Tasmania began official LOTE program implementation in government primary schools in 1996 as was intended and documented in the Council of Australian Governments report (COAG, 1994, p. xv). Table 1 summarises the developments in the process of Tasmanian LOTE Policy formulation to November 1995.

The Tasmanian Minister for Education and the Arts sought the advice of the Tasmanian Education Council (TEC) in early 1993 requesting comment on the compulsory teaching of LOTE in Tasmanian schools in the form of a

Discussion Paper (TEC, 1993). This was based on the fact that Tasmania had been a signatory to the Hobart Declaration that lists "a knowledge of languages other than English as one of the common and agreed national goals for schooling in Australia" (AEC, 1989).

Six key documents provided a background for the Tasmanian Education Council's LOTE Discussion Paper in 1993: *National Policy on Languages* (Lo Bianco, 1987), *Study of Languages other than English in Tasmanian Secondary Schools and Colleges: A Policy Statement* (Tasmanian Education Department, 1987), *Australian Language Levels Guidelines* (Scarino, Vale, McKay & Clark, 1988a, 1988b, 1988c, 1988d), the Hobart Declaration (AEC, 1989), *Australia's Languages: The Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (COA, 1991) and *Framework for the Curriculum from Kindergarten to Year 12* (DEA, 1993). All documents set out the case for inclusion of LOTE education in the Tasmanian school curriculum, the early documents advocating a secondary school start (Lo Bianco, 1987, p. 130) and later documents alluding to an early start in primary schools (COA, 1991).

Table 1: Developments in the formation of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy, to November 1995.

Year	Developments in the formation of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy
1987	*National Policy on Languages* published (Lo Bianco); *Study of Languages other than English in Tasmanian Secondary Schools and Colleges: A Policy Statement* (Tasmanian Education Department) produced.
1988	Development and publication of *Australian Language Levels Guidelines* (Scarino et al., 1988a–d): guidelines for teachers on all aspects of planning, designing, implementing, assessing and evaluating languages other than English and ESL programs.
1989	*Hobart Declaration on Schooling* (AEC, 1989); National Curriculum is developed. LOTE is one of 8 Key Learning Areas. Curriculum guideline documents to be developed and published.

Year	Developments in the formation of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy
1991	Tasmania's 8 education districts established, each administered by a District Superintendent: school-based decision-making instituted, resulting in a devolution of authority for schools.
1991	Priority Language Support Element (PLSE) funding available: representing Commonwealth support of 14 languages.
1991	Appearance of *Australia's Languages: The Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (COA, 1991).
1991	Interim LOTE Policy released by the Curriculum Services Branch of the Department of Education Tasmania for discussion and comment (Robinson, 1992).
1992	District support for LOTE teachers' inservice seminars, workshops etc. (Robinson, 1992). Priority Language Incentive Element (PLIE) funding: Commonwealth support for the 10 remaining languages (from original 14 PLSE languages) after the 4 Asian languages receive their own National Asian Languages and Studies in Australian Schools (NALSAS) funding.
Early 1993	Tasmanian Minister for Education and the Arts sought help of the Tasmanian Education Council [TEC], a community advisory body to the state Government, to produce a Discussion Paper seeking comment on the compulsory teaching of LOTE in Tasmanian schools. LOTE Discussion Paper, 15 April 1993. (See Harrington, 1993.)
1993	Appearance of DEA's *Framework for the Curriculum from Kindergarten to Year 12.*
July 1993	Tasmanian Education Council reports on LOTE to the Minister: 19 recommendations (TEC, 1993)
February 1994	Publication of Rudd Committee report (COAG, 1994): availability of funding to states with current LOTE policies (B. Muir, pers. comm., 26 October 1999).
1994	Publication of the Curriculum Corporation's LOTE *Statement* and *Profile* (Curriculum Corporation, 1994a & b) along with Statements and Profiles for each of the other 7 key learning areas.
September 1994	Consultation sought regarding the development of Tasmanian LOTE education policy.
August 1995	Announcement that Cabinet had agreed to LOTE programs for Years 3–10, along with guaranteed funding package, in Deputy Secretary Education, G. Harrington's memorandum, 18 August, 1995.

Year	Developments in the formation of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy
September 1995	Publication of *Implementation of the DEA LOTE Policy: Tasks to be carried out prior to the start of Term 1, 1996* (Educational Programs Branch, 1995a).
24 November 1995	Tasmanian LOTE Policy (DEA, 1995a)
December 1995	DEA releases details of LOTE Implementation Plan for 1996 from M. Salier, memorandum, 11 December, 1995 (DEA, 1995c).
Term 1 1996	Appearance of *Working with Statements and Profiles: Learning Area Direction Statement LOTE* (Educational Programs Branch, 1995b).

Having consulted stakeholders in schools, as well as parent and professional organisations, the July 1993 *Report to the Minister for Education and the Arts on Languages other than English (LOTE)*, (TEC) outlined 19 recommendations. A LOTE policy was to be formulated which, among other things, stated that:

- provision of full support for LOTE be added to the compulsory curriculum for most Tasmanian children between Grades 5–8 as per directions seen in the National Curriculum (AEC, 1989)
- implementation be carried out "rationally" in order not to "crowd" the curriculum
- teacher proficiency be a priority
- introduction of such a policy be above kindergarten level
- continuity and articulation issues be considered, applying guaranteed pathway for LOTE study throughout a child's primary and secondary schooling.

According to the (then) Principal Curriculum Officer for the LOTE key learning area (B. Muir, pers. comm., 26 October 1999), it was the Council of Australian Governments report (COAG, 1994) which was the turning point and which created the urgent need within the Tasmanian Department of Education and the Arts to define a LOTE policy from the beginning of 1994.

As Australia has had over 25 years of producing reports and policies on language study at a national level, Tasmania joined with other states and territories to release a LOTE policy that showed agreement with the national trends of wanting to create a globally-oriented (particularly Asia-literate) society. The media rhetoric described Australia as a European-styled nation in the Asian geographical region (Barclay, 1993). The new LOTE policy in Tasmania in 1995 was part of the continued infatuation of national policy developers with an emphasis on languages and literacy, carving the new 'globally-aware' Australia a niche in the region at the end of the twentieth century.

Against a background of national initiatives in language policy, the (then) Department of Education and the Arts in Tasmania announced in August 1995 that Cabinet had "agreed to the implementation of the Languages other than English Program (LOTE) in schools for years 3 to 10 as endorsed by the Committee of Australian Governments and outlined in the report *Asian Languages and Studies in Australian Schools* (*sic*)" (Harrington, 1995). At that same time, a guaranteed funding package was announced to implement the program over a seven-year period. The resulting Tasmanian LOTE Policy (DEA, 1995a)—an eight-page document—set out visions and aims for the outcomes of LOTE education in the state, as well as responsibilities of personnel for the period until 2007. It is not unlike other policies, having characteristics such as "ideologies for organizing authority" as symbolic functions, also providing or reflecting "ideologies about the organization of authority" as described by Elmore and Sykes (1992, p. 187), an issue explored further in Chapter 2.

Until this time, LOTE was implemented in several Tasmanian primary schools in an ad hoc manner. Modern foreign language education was a curriculum option in Tasmanian state secondary schools for at least half of the 20th century. However, concerning policy for primary-aged students, little documentation was readily at hand. Muir (1993, p. 23) mentioned the 1960s primary French experiment in Tasmania, where, due to there being no primary to secondary pathways, or facilitation for ease of transition from primary to secondary programs, "students' love of language learning . . . was soured".

There was also the project to teach second languages in Tasmania in primary schools in the 1970s (O'Byrne, 1976). A planned project to implement primary French programs under the guidance of the Education Department, it suffered problems of staffing and articulation with high school programs. Yet nowhere is there mentioned a policy for LOTE education at primary level. Implementation had been undertaken according to the various procedures of the individual schools who could resource the programs within their own budgetary constraints, and some with the added budgetary and staffing assistance of clusters or districts. Robinson (1992) reported being overwhelmed at the efforts of many school communities and districts in delivering such a wide range of LOTE programs of varying frequency and duration in primary schools throughout the state.

The 1995 Policy was an implementation guide, and provided brief descriptions of intended outcomes and responsibilities of personnel (see Appendix A).

The Tasmanian LOTE Policy provided:

- a rationale for LOTE study. These reasons mirrored those found in other Australian states and overseas policies (see further detail in Chapter 3), including mention of balanced child cognitive and conceptual development, increased possibilities of inter-cultural understandings, communications and career prospects.
- details about which languages would be offered. The four pathway languages are French, German, Indonesian and Japanese, providing a European/Asian balance. There are also supported languages (Italian, Korean, Spanish, Modern Standard Chinese and Aboriginal languages), Auslan and community languages.
- goals for student learning outcomes. These include the following targets for 2007:

  60% of students in Year 10 will be studying an Asian LOTE

  40% of students in Year 10 will be studying a European or Aboriginal language or Auslan

  15% of Year 11 and 12 students will be studying an Asian language

10% of Year 11 and 12 students will be studying a European or Aboriginal language or Auslan (DEA, 1995a, p. 2).

It was also stipulated that "LOTEs will be taught to standards of language proficiency consistent with the LOTE Statement and Profile", referring to the Curriculum Corporation's national curriculum publications of 1994 (1994a, 1994b), and that:

- key outcomes would include cultural understandings as a priority for student learning. These were to be achieved by students linking the learning of the LOTE itself with specific socio-cultural background material. The LOTE Policy requires that "some of the cultural understanding components associated with LOTE offered by their school [be included] within their Studies of Society and the Environment program" (DEA, 1995a)
- logistical details were to be considered. These details noted the expected collaboration between primary schools, secondary schools and colleges in a cluster which provide a guaranteed pathway for students continuing with a language
- particular amounts of study time were to be dedicated to this LOTE study; 2.5 hours per week between Year 3 and Year 10 (i.e. a possible total of 800 hours)
- an indication that curriculum materials and other resources would be made available to schools
- "an increasing number of teachers would be trained in a LOTE" (p. 3) and that teachers would receive professional development
- details would be included concerning roles and responsibilities for primary class teachers, secondary SOSE teachers, the LOTE teachers, principals, district superintendents, the Director of Educational Programs and the Director of Education Planning (see Appendix A).

Italian, Auslan, Modern Standard Chinese and Spanish were designated as "supported" languages. The Italian community, including teachers of Italian and other stakeholders, had been concerned about the status of Italian in the state's developing LOTE Policy for a number of years (Di Benedetto, 1990). CO.AS.IT, the Italian Assistance Cooperation Association that funded the Italian

programs in the Hartz district (surrounding Hobart) from 1997, signed an agreement with the Minister for Education in March 1999 to plan shared funding details until 2003.

According to the Policy, with the eight "pathway" years of language study, Tasmanian students would have the potential to achieve a level of proficiency in speaking, reading and writing in a language other than English (DEA, 1995a). This is very much within the guidelines of what was proposed in the national planning for second language proficiency through the Council of Australian Governments report (COAG, 1994). Schools and districts were to select their LOTE according to the pathway provisions. The LOTE programs were referred to as "on-line" programs, indicating a government-funded program.

As a consequence of there being no detailed stipulation of exact, detailed primary LOTE teacher competencies in Tasmania or documents advocating models of best practice, the Department's LOTE Policy directives do not list standards for best primary LOTE teaching practice. This is currently being developed in Tasmania as per the LOTE Learning Area Plan to be found at:
<http://www.discover.tased.edu.au/lote/policy/plan2001.htm>.

In summary, the details of the national and state contexts into which the Tasmanian LOTE Policy implementation appeared describe a situation that was adequately funded and heavily dependent on national guidelines and trends. Tasmania was the final state or territory to undertake such LOTE curriculum implementation and the Principal Curriculum Officer maintained contact with LOTE curriculum implementation officers from most other states and territories to gather relevant information and experience to be able to inform the implementation of the Tasmanian Policy (B. Muir, pers. comm., 26 October, 1999).

The following section describes a conceptual framework of curriculum innovation devised to underlie the examination of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy implementation in this study.

1.5 A conceptual framework

As noted in Sections 1.3 and 1.4, this study examined the implementation of a specific Tasmanian LOTE curriculum policy and in particular, focused on the models for delivery and teaching practice that evolved through the district, school and teachers' negotiation of this policy implementation. The framework for the conceptualisation of the study of schools and LOTE teachers negotiating LOTE policy implementation consists of four elements:

- curriculum policy initiation, implementation and continuation
- teachers enacting policy
- teachers' decision-making and negotiation of curriculum implementation
- teachers' perceptions and beliefs as key factors in teachers negotiating curriculum change.

These elements formed the basis for analysis of data collected during the course of this study (see Figure 1). Analysis of the elements in the framework allows comment to be made on the success or otherwise of this LOTE curriculum implementation.

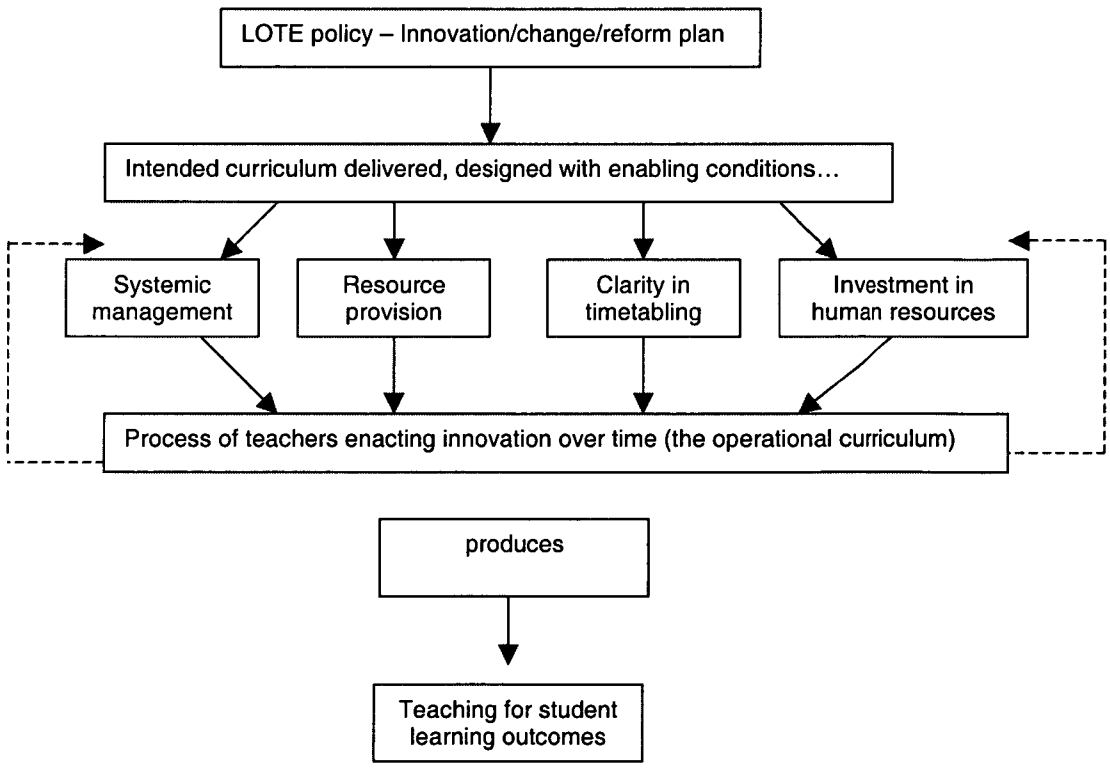

Figure 1: A conceptual framework for LOTE teachers enacting curriculum policy innovation (adapted from Fullan, 1991a; Fullan & Park, 1981; Kallós & Lundgren, 1979; Miller & Seller, 1985; and Thornton, 1988).

As the curriculum policy is translated in the form of an implementation plan, four factors (systemic management, resource provision, timetable clarity and human resource investment) are considered to be enabling conditions (Clayton, 1993) for the delivery of curriculum. Those aspects are to be found in policy stipulations, particularly impacting on principals and the schools they run. From policy to practice, it is the teachers who operationalise (enact the implementation over a period of time) in classrooms, negotiating the variables. According to teachers' understandings of the innovation contextualised in an "up-close . . . professional community" (McLaughlin, 1998, p. 76), and teachers' decisions about method and content and their training and beliefs, teachers then plan and teach for student learning outcomes. This process is discussed in Chapter 2 in detail within a more extensive review of the research literature on curriculum change and implementation.

The conceptual framework shows that the factors inherent in implementing curriculum help channel policy into teaching practice for the achievement of student learning outcomes. This study is not concerned with the final product of student learning outcomes or curriculum experienced by the students. Rather it focuses on the factors affecting policy implementation and practice producing effective primary LOTE teaching; that is, the operationalisation of the curriculum policy (Thornton, 1988).

1.6 Significance of the study

Australia is not geographically situated in or around other English speaking countries apart from New Zealand. Nor are the majority of Australians tied culturally or linguistically to Asian nations. Yet it has been recognised since the early 1970s (Auchmuty Report, 1971) and more recently with *Australia's Languages: The Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (Commonwealth of Australia, 1991), that there is merit in educating Australian citizens to become

proficient in a second language and fostering linguistic and cultural ties with Asia.

This study examined how one state in Australia began to provide systematically for LOTE curriculum implementation. As mentioned in Section 1.2, this study examined specifically the models of provision and the role of the LOTE teacher in negotiating a particular curriculum innovation, as well as the teaching strategies utilised for introducing and delivering primary LOTE programs. Also examined are issues related to teacher implementation of policy.

With the production of data highlighting suitable primary LOTE education models and processes by which LOTE teachers deliver curriculum, policy planners and curriculum developers may be informed regarding the mechanisms and key factors recommended for successful LOTE policy implementation in primary schools. Particularly, the findings of this research will contribute to improving primary LOTE teacher curriculum decision-making, as well as improving the design and content of undergraduate LOTE method courses and professional development courses for in-service LOTE teachers, bringing "new meaning" to such courses (Beattie, 1995, p. 65). Thus the study is generally situated in the arena of curriculum policy evaluation research, or more specifically, in the area of primary LOTE curriculum implementation research. This focus in LOTE education has not been widely researched in Australia.

According to one group of researchers (Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery & Taubman, 1995, p. 15), the traditional field in curriculum research was curriculum development. Present in such curriculum development research was a "pressure to provide answers or solutions to the problems" (Pinar et al., p. 56). However, the reconceptualised field is now aimed at "understanding" the curriculum, which can be realised without the pressure to solve the problem. Curriculum research can "stimulate self-reflection, self-understanding, and social change . . . as much to provoke questions as . . . answer questions" (Pinar et al., pp. 56–57). This study captured the spirit evoked by Pinar et al. to provoke and answer questions that are relevant to the implementation of primary LOTE, mainly due to the

featuring of school and classroom data and knowledge "owned" by teachers.

Such research informs "the operating level of the system", looking at "what is taught and how" (Elmore & Sykes, 1992, p. 197) and responds to calls by researchers for a new type of curriculum policy research that focuses more strongly on the enactment of curriculum in schools and classrooms "to allow further promotion of higher-order thinking and learning for understanding" (Elmore & Sykes, p. 210). Also possible is the exploration of

> the relationship between curriculum policy and teaching practice by examining the implied or express models of teaching embedded in existing policies and by examining the relationship between inquiry versus policy-based conceptions of teaching (Elmore & Sykes, p. 210).

This study significantly captured data from teachers as they illuminated the role of the school in policy implementation. They also highlighted their own understandings of policy and the pivotal role they played when negotiating policy implementation at the classroom level. Teachers' construction and negotiation of the curriculum implementation process is not a static one. According to Weston (1979, p. 39) teachers negotiate curriculum development, "constantly working out their own understanding and relationship to the system".

In particular, this study explores classroom processes, providing a "window on practice" (Elliott, 1999, p. 1). These pictures produced are of teachers' pivotal roles in enacting curriculum, helping to "map implications for policy from fine-grained understanding of curriculum in the classroom" (Elmore & Sykes, 1992, p. 211). It is important, according to Gough (1999), that we become suspicious of policy. He said,

> To be suspicious of such devices does not necessarily entail rejecting them or ignoring them. They are significant cultural artifacts and quite possibly very useful as educational resources—but it is for us to "regulate" them, not vice versa (p. 64).

Through the process of examining the Tasmanian LOTE Policy context in detail, in turn examining the detail in a "suspicious" and critical way, ideas from such research findings can illustrate how LOTE policy and practice interact. Developments resulting from this study's recommendations may be "introduced systematically" (Ingram, 1993, p. 20) according to the Tasmanian Department of Education's future needs.

The findings of this study will add to what Scarino called for when she stated, "Policy development cannot proceed without monitoring implementation and the ongoing analysis of relevant data" (1998, p. 12). Reporting the findings through the teachers' voices allowed "fresh understanding about the range and scope of the professional expertise needed to teach the subject successfully throughout the primary sector" (Driscoll, 1999b, p. 27).

Further, this teacher-based research provides an answer to what Johnstone called for (1999b, p. 206) when he said there is a need for research to be further exploring "process factors"; that is, what takes place overtly and covertly when the language is taught, learnt and used. As well, Johnstone says, teachers should have an increased role in research, "particularly when this relates to their own practice", and research such as this study is a way in which "busy teachers . . . investigate aspects of their practice . . . thereby fostering a culture of professional reflection, exchange and communication that at present is hardly there" (p. 207).

"Important lessons for future curriculum, policy direction and implementation" (Hunter, 1999, p. 11) can be heard through research that gives teachers a voice. On a deeper level, Gitlin believes that voice is inherently political (Gitlin, 1992) and studies of teachers' voices can allow researchers to question what is taken for granted to guide future directions.

1.7 Limitations

The current research is a study of the case of LOTE curriculum implementation in primary schools in the state of Tasmania, Australia over a three-year period, 1996–1998, involving 40 primary LOTE teachers.

The models of implementation variously developed throughout the state over this period and the ways in which the primary LOTE teachers negotiated the implementation of curriculum policy may not apply to primary LOTE programs in other contexts (e.g., non-government programs in the state of Tasmania), to non-Tasmanian contexts, or to situations where second languages are taught in primary schools within immersion or bilingual programs.

1.8 Definitions

This study uses specific terms whose meaning may not be clear in the reader's mind, or which may be specific to the Australian and Tasmanian contexts. Terms frequently referred to in this dissertation are defined below: the remainder are found in Appendix B.

LOTE: Refers to Language(s) other than English education, and is the standard term found to describe modern languages or foreign languages study in the Australian context, similar to FLES (Foreign Languages in the Elementary School) in the US context and MFLPS (Modern Foreign Languages in the Primary School) in the UK context.

"On-line" LOTE programs: Tasmanian schools introducing a "guaranteed pathway" language were provided with an additional staffing allocation to deliver the program and funding to purchase resource materials. These schools are termed "on-line" schools. "On-line" does not, however, signify the commonly-used, contemporary term relating to links to the world wide web/internet. For "guaranteed pathway" language study, see Appendix A.

Specialist (LOTE) teacher: The teacher spends all his/her time teaching the subject specialism(s), as described in Alexander, Rose and Woodhead (1992).

Generalist class teacher: This is a term adopted from the UK context and describes the class teacher with responsibility to teach into, and coordinate, various parts of the curriculum as well as reinforce curriculum taught by specialist teachers (DES, 1978).

Semi-specialist teacher: Suggests a blend between specialist and generalist class teacher, such as a generalist class teacher with a LOTE subject specialty. Watkinson (1992) viewed the semi-specialist as the best option because they are teachers who are already part of the staff team, and yet have a subject-knowledge.

Visiting LOTE specialist teacher: A specialist LOTE teacher across two or more classes/grades in one school.

Peripatetic LOTE specialist teacher: A specialist LOTE teacher in more than one school.

Language-as-object model: The program focuses on the teaching and learning of the target language(s) (Victorian Directorate of School Education, 1995, p. 8).

Content-based model: A program in which a significant proportion of the curriculum is offered entirely through the medium of the target language(s) (Victorian Directorate of School Education, 1995, p. 8). It is "an approach to language instruction that integrates the presentation of topics or tasks from subject matter classes (e.g., math, social studies) within the context of teaching a second or foreign language" (Crandall & Tucker, 1990, p. 187).

Embedding: The generalist class teachers encourage "genuine communication" to take place using the foreign language in the primary classroom to conduct ordinary class routines (take the register, write the date, celebrate birthdays, send messages, etc.) (Sharpe, 1999, p. 179).

1.9 Outline of chapters

Having outlined the problem investigated in this study, identified the research questions and provided a contextual background for the study, it is now necessary to provide an overview of the following chapters of this thesis.

Chapter 2 analyses the related literature on curriculum policy and curriculum policy innovation and implementation, focusing not on curriculum models, but rather on various factors impacting on, enabling or inhibiting curriculum implementation. Focus is particularly on the implementation of the specific case of foreign language education curriculum in the primary sphere. The conceptual framework for the study is distilled from the review of the curriculum literature and presented in diagrammatic form.

Chapter 3 reviews the literature on foreign language education, looking at the evidence from research on policy and practice concerning models of delivery, teaching strategies and content choices.

The research methodology is presented in Chapter 4, which describes the research approach; outlines the research design; details the pilot study, selection of teachers, instrumentation, data collection and analysis; as well as discussing limitations of the methodology.

Chapters 5 and 6 report the findings of the study, structured by the three research questions. Findings are presented from the data, highlighting intended policy and operationalisation (policy into practice) stages. Data are sourced from the survey of primary LOTE teachers and case study data of three teachers.

Chapter 7 presents conclusions within the framework of the three research questions, implications and recommendations for future action as well as suggestions for further research.

2

Review of the literature on curriculum implementation

2.1 Introduction

> "Change is inescapable in education today" (Lortie, 1975, p. 214).

> "true innovations are not discrete or describable entities so much as they are gradual and wide-ranging processes that require time to steep" (Weiss, 1991, p. 118).

Inherent in the conceptual framework for this study outlined in Chapter 1 (see Section 1.5) are the two areas forming a theoretical basis for this study:

- research on curriculum policy, innovation/change and implementation
- research on, and practice in, primary LOTE education.

This chapter reviews the former, particularly the relevant literature on aspects of curriculum policy implementation and language curriculum implementation. A review of the literature on primary LOTE education highlighting the issues inherent in the pedagogy, the latter, follows separately in Chapter 3.

Curriculum policy, curriculum innovation/change and curriculum implementation are key areas relating to this study, an understanding of which highlights key aspects of policy into practice issues in Tasmanian LOTE education. Research into such areas is considered "arduous and complex" (Nisbet, 1975, p. 2; Spillane, 1999, p. 143), not surprisingly as "there are many different definitions of what a

curriculum is" (Lewy, 1991, p. 4). The area of curriculum studies covers many core dimensions of teaching, classroom tasks, patterns, roles and responsibilities of stakeholders and key players.

Michael G. Fullan, describes educational change as "socially complex" (1991a, p. 65). Yet on the other hand, he suggests it possesses an inherent simplicity, adding "implementation, whether it is voluntary or imposed, is nothing other than a process of learning something new" (1991a, p. 85). Whatever the definition or conceptualisation of the process, it is most important to find meaning in the complexities of change to better understand "the big picture" (1991a, p. xi). It is important to acknowledge such a complex yet simple process and that the multidimensionality of curriculum change involves changes in skills, practice and theory or conceptions (Joyce & Showers, 1988), in turn affecting all stakeholders in any educational context.

Fullan (1991a, pp. 47–48) classified stages/phases of change as threefold and labeled them thus:

- initiation, mobilisation, adoption
- implementation or initial use
- continuation, incorporation, routinisation, or institutionalisation.

Marsh (1992, p. 137–8), building on Fullan's ideas, added a fourth phase: an "orientation" or "needs" phase, because of the need to recognise that initiation begins with a perception of a "[d]issatisfaction, concern, or need . . . felt and expressed by one or more individuals who seek answers" to a problem, why the need has arisen and how it can be overcome.

"Policy-making" and "policy on curriculum policy-making" (Hughes, 1991, p. 137) is located within the initiation stage of curriculum change. Hughes distinguished between the two major types of policy. On the one hand there is policy on curriculum policy-making that specifies "who is to be involved and will establish the limits of their authority" (1991, p. 137). Within this is either a centralised or decentralised model of dissemination. Hughes refers to these models as:

- "center–periphery", emphasising the likelihood of a system characterised by efficiency and equity, or
- "school-based . . . periphery–periphery" to describe the likelihood of localism, diversity and local control (1991, p. 137).

On the other hand there is curriculum policy, which according to Hughes (1991, p. 137) "establishes the character of the curriculum, often specifying what must, should, or may be taught" or "the blueprint from which detailed objectives, teaching strategies, evaluation procedures, or whatever, are to be derived." Prior to the 1960s, curriculum policies were highly prescriptive, setting out guidelines with specific content, "official directives established as public policy through government legislation" (Hughes, 1991, p. 138). More and more, policies have become "general statements or suggestions" (Fullan, 1991a, p. 273), seen by Hughes (1991, p. 138) as "vague advice."

Policy being operationalised (Thornton, 1988, p. 310), or translated into practice—a concern of this study into Tasmanian LOTE Policy implementation—is evident in the phases of policy innovation/change where either schools and principals have made certain curriculum decisions or where teachers have refined policy details within classroom practices. Acknowledging that innovation/change is a process not an event, Figure 2 summarises the processes inherent within the initiation stage of curriculum innovation. The processes develop from a wider external focus through to a specific local focus.

Stage A:

Large-scale, externally-developed policy innovation developed due to the interplay between

economic, social and educational interests of pluralistic sponsors such as central administration, professional unions and community bodies, leads to

↓

Stage B:

Reports and other relevant directives and resources developed relating to policy, leads to

↓

Stage C:

Reports and directives taken up at **national** level, leads to

↓

Stage D:

Reports and directives taken up at **state** level, leads to

↓

Stage E:

Provided there is "school readiness" and plentiful resources there is

local level policy implementation

leading to outcomes of policy innovation through operationalisation and continuation.

Figure 2: Processes of initiation stage adopted for the Tasmanian case, adapted from Fullan (1991a, pp. 48–50).

Implementation follows the complex processes of initiation and, in turn, is sometimes followed by a longer period, termed continuation (Fullan, 1991a, pp. 47–48). Innovation and continuation stages are only tangentially referred to in this study. Rather it is local level implementation occurring at school level, and "what ensues in the classroom (the operational curriculum)" (Thornton, 1988, p. 310) or Stage E in Figure 2, which are the chief concerns in this research report.

In addition to the broad focus on curriculum implementation, this study concentrates on two of the three elements creating curriculum "consonance" (Thornton, 1988). They are intended curriculum, or that which the teacher is expected to teach, and the operationalised curriculum, or that which the teacher actually negotiates and teaches. The experienced curriculum, or curriculum which

is received, is not a concern of this study. Highlighting the intended and operationalised aspects of curriculum implementation is important, as innovations are rarely adopted in a pure fashion. That is, users and enactors modify the innovation in the process of implementation (Rogers, 1983, p. 17) according to local contextual needs and realities.

The sections of the literature review to follow in this chapter do not contain a comprehensive review of the research into curriculum implementation. This has been well documented in Hargreaves et al. (1998b) and Fullan (1991a, 1993). Rather this review seeks to highlight those variables which research has shown to affect implementation of curriculum policy, specifically LOTE curriculum policy relevant to this study.

2.2 Curriculum policy and curriculum innovation and change: A complex process

Curriculum policy research is the general location for more specific research literature to be found on initiation, implementation and continuation of curriculum innovations. One view of curriculum policy research (as defined by Elmore & Sykes, 1992, p. 189) forming the basis of the theoretical underpinning of the policy research in this current study, is that curriculum policy is constantly "characterised by a constant flow of problems, solutions, participants, resources and outcomes." There is a difference, firstly, between policy seen as goal-directed, instrumental, rational and linear and secondly, policy seen as being interactional, bargainable and non-linear. Schwab (1969) argued that the latter linear conception of curriculum is unviable, and preferred to view the research into curriculum policy innovation as a much more intricate and highly complex set of processes. More discussion of this issue follows in the paragraphs below.

The processes in curriculum policy implementation provide a framework for the translating of policy into practice. According to Fullan (1991a, p. 273), curriculum policy should represent a general framework rather than specifically detailed guidelines. The various models of curriculum implementation that have

been researched over the past forty years have not been discussed in detail. Brief mention is made only of the types of models that will later link to a discussion of suitable models for LOTE provision.

2.3 Models of curriculum implementation

There are many models of curriculum implementation. Saye (1998) summarised the decades of curriculum research prior to the 1990s as being:

- the technological 1960s research on curriculum, based on systematic development, dissemination and adoption of knowledge
- the 1970s research, where frameworks viewed curriculum innovation as "mutual adaptation"
- based on cultural or ecological perspectives which viewed values, norms and assumptions
- based on a personal perspective, placing importance on considering teachers' "careers, belief systems, and thinking about their practice" (Saye, 1998, p. 213).

It is not within the scope of this review to analyse the various aspects of these models in detail. This was undertaken by Miller and Seller (1985) and Waugh and Punch (1987) who reviewed the different emphases of the contemporary models of curriculum implementation. Suffice to state here that many models were formulated as lineal processes. That is, systems created policies, schools and teachers considered the policy guidelines then implemented the policy with the intention of students achieving learning outcomes.

Placing a question mark over the lineal models is research that suggests an impossibility of achieving such rational-lineal-scientific processes in curriculum policy implementation. In the late 1980s, Cohen and Ball's study into mathematics teachers' implementation of a new policy suggests that teachers pick up random bits and enact them "in variously interpreted permutations" (Cohen & Ball, 1990, p. 250). They found that policy is not delivered as a whole or in a

clear, lineal series of steps, as per policy reformers' intentions, even though the policy might recommend this.

Consequently Cohen and Ball (p. 252) asked how the mathematics teachers could "adopt the new policies if they held on to the old ones" suggesting more permutations of the curriculum implementation process than merely a series of straightforward steps. They identified that many of the mathematics teachers did change their practice, "but the frame for those changes was the pedagogy that had been pressed by the older policies." It appeared to be a process of teachers seeing how new policy fits with earlier initiatives. This research would suggest that curriculum models should therefore include acknowledgement of the past and not merely begin from the present. Models would best contain processes allowing teachers to make links between their past and present, allowing them to make meaning for curriculum development within their classrooms, encouraging them to believe they are committing themselves to the change.

Related to the mathematics teacher research above is the development of chaos and complexity theories involved in curriculum theory (Gough, 1999, p. 59). These theories also reject the lineal and homeostatic view of curriculum development. Gough argues:

> A homeostatic view of curriculum systems suggests that there is something intrinsically desirable about working in a state of stability and equilibrium, in much the same way that a means–ends (or process–product) model of curriculum development gives us a false sense of security when we achieve our ends (1999, p. 59).

In addition, it is asserted that curriculum implementation is subject to a "punctuated legitimacy" and that due to all the impacting factors, there will be "peaks and troughs" in implementation, making a lineal model impossible. From longitudinal research conducted at an elementary school over a period of almost 23 years, Gold (1999, p. 210) asserts that the implementation of educational innovation is subject to a "punctuated legitimacy": that is, over time, there is a "construction, erosion, loss, reconstruction, and maintenance" pattern to

innovation, producing both rapid organisational deep structural change and slower, steadier incremental change which "refines the transformation" (p. 193). Over the 23 years, "with every proposed and actual change, the legitimacy of policy was renegotiated, and to a lesser extent . . . teaching practice was also renegotiated" (p. 212). Implications for policy are that research should regard short-term studies as only "part of a complex pattern" of time and factors affecting change.

In order for stakeholders to negotiate non-lineal, chaotic and "non-rational" curriculum contexts, Patterson, Purkey and Parker (1986) suggest that strategic planning takes into account any external factors and any internal organizational conditions. Such strategic planning, they suggest, should also be medium or short range, rather than long range, and should utilise qualitative as well as quantitative data.

Similarly Louis and Miles (1990) advocate planning for curriculum models that start small and are evolutionary, which shift from leadership-domination in the early planning to shared control at later stages and which have "action preceding planning" and "multiple themes preceding mission statements."

It is the contention of this study into Tasmanian LOTE curriculum policy innovation and implementation that it is the non-linear and variable nature of the interplay between processes and factors inherent in curriculum policy that provide enabling conditions for successful or unsuccessful implementation.

In addition to views outlining the complexities of curriculum implementation, curriculum policy developers often adhere to a "center–periphery" (Hughes, 1991) model of curriculum implementation. A discussion of the positive and negative aspects of "top-down" and "bottom-up" models of curriculum implementation follows, as this dichotomy has particular relevance for the Tasmanian LOTE curriculum policy focus of this current study.

2.3.1 "Top-down" and "bottom-up" models of curriculum implementation

Discussions on curriculum innovation encompass both "top-down" and "bottom-up" reforms (Fullan, 1994; Sabatier, 1986). Top-down reforms describe "externally imposed" changes, usually prescriptive and political (McBeath, 1997, p. 51), and link to Hughes' "center–periphery" idea (1991). Fullan (1994, p. 1) described cases which have shown top-down strategies failing (also noted in Berman and McLaughlin, 1978), where districts imposed change with little bottom-up input, and took on projects for "opportunistic rather than for substantial reasons". Also cited is Corbett and Wilson's study from 1990 (in Fullan, 1994, p. 1) which found that top-down mandatory requirements in the particular curriculum innovation "narrowed the curriculum" and created adverse conditions such as diverting attentions and energies from more basic reforms, and worst of all, reduced teacher motivation. Top-down, government driven change rarely succeeds by itself as it needs enactors who are local, motivated, committed and skilled, to contribute from the bottom up.

Top-down initiatives are described as:

- "top-down, teacher-proof" (Solomon, 1999, p. 12) where information could pass directly from "professorial theory" to students, by-passing the teachers
- "top-down, cascade" initiatives, where decisions are taken at the top, with teachers involved in subject-matter training and decisions about inherent values. The "cascade" process is rarely successful, because the teaching is not effective after the quick-fix training, and also because teachers cannot change their values overnight.

"Bottom-up" changes are usually more humanistic and user-centred and can sometimes be "voluntarily sought" changes (McBeath, 1997, p. 51). Such changes have been termed "teacher-led" changes (Solomon, 1999, p. 13). Gambell (1994b) cites Maquire's Canadian study from 1989, which analysed how "Quebec's holistic elementary English language arts curriculum developed into a mandated curriculum from a groundswell grassroots movement of . . . teachers" who were discontented with existing curriculum directives. In that particular

case, bottom-up curriculum innovation eventuated in "action at the ministry of education" (Gambell, 1994b, p. 237), where top-down influences came into play and "[b]oth parties wanted a new curriculum direction."

Hughes (1991, p. 137) referred to the bottom-up model as a school-based, "periphery–periphery" model, with inherent "values of localism such as diversity, reliance on local knowledge, and acceptance of local control" as likely effects.

However, without top-down input, the bottom-up initiative may not be successful by itself. Taylor and Teddlie's study (1992), found no evidence of teacher collaboration in implementing a school-based management program. This grass-roots collaboration had to be present for the reform to be totally successful, with teachers collaborating for shared decision-making (Weiss, 1992).

Concerning top-down and bottom-up models, Fullan (1991a, p. 65) acknowledges that a "sophisticated blend of the two" works best and is essential to affect change. A top-down dissemination management tool is not to be recommended, rather a "two-way process", or an "optimal balance between centralized control and professional autonomy" (Osborn & Broadfoot, 1992, p. 138) is preferred.

> This would include initiation, decision making and support from administrators, on one hand, and awareness raising, joint ownership, collaboration and involvement from the users, on the other (McBeath, 1997, p. 50).

The result, according to Fullan (1994, p. 3) is that a mixture of both is often chosen. Planning to implement top-down and bottom-up occurs at the same time, "swinging" from one to the other as is necessary. It is seen as a "democratic curriculum initiative" (Solomon, 1999, p. 13). If a purely top-down process is chosen, "the reality . . . is . . . that top-down mandated change usually makes things worse" (McBeath, 1997, p. 52). The result can be undue confusion and stress on schools and teachers.

2.3.2 Dissemination and diffusion

Related to both Hughes "center–periphery/periphery–periphery" model of curriculum change and Fullan's "top-down/bottom-up" dichotomy are the terms dissemination and diffusion. Dissemination procedures—the top-down structures of a system spreading the official word on new policy throughout the schools—are often insufficient for teachers to achieve understanding alone: a dialogue needs to occur to achieve shared vision of the innovation (Carless, 1998, p. 356; McBeath, 1997, p. 43), otherwise negative perceptions and motivations towards the innovation can occur (Karavas-Doukas, 1996). McBeath (1997) looked at change management research such as that of Crandall, Bauchner, Loucks and Schmidt in 1982 and concluded that if "diffusion" processes are utilised—the spread of new ideas among teachers—instead of dissemination from the top and centre, teachers will quite readily attempt to implement the innovation, evaluate the results and express ownership of it.

Ideally, dissemination and diffusion practices are characterised by carefully developed and defined curricular/instructional practices; credible training and follow-up support; assistance from principals, district staff, external consultants; and attention to budgets, staffing and guideline writing (Snyder, Bolin and Zumwalt, 1992).

2.3.3 Subjective and objective realities of curriculum policy implementation

Early views of curriculum policy implementation identified the policy-makers as developers of policy, with schools and teachers identified as the point where policies are taken up and implemented (see Clandinin & Connelly, 1992, pp. 364–366). Such a vision does not reflect the realities of schools and the lives of teachers. As noted above in Section 2.2, implementing curriculum policy is a complex process that requires schools and teachers to either adapt, adopt or create appropriate responses to the implementation of policy. Research has indicated that there is wide variation in the way schools and teachers respond to policy initiations. Variables such as student input (Rudduck, 1991), human resource and materials support (Neil, Phipps & Mallon, 1999); the extent of parental and

community support (Fern, 1995; May, 1994), assessment requirements (Delandshere & Jones, 1999); and the beliefs of individual teachers (Borko & Elliott, 1999; Pahl & Monson, 1992) affect curriculum implementation.

Saye (1998, p. 211) lists a number of studies dating from the 1960s identifying such variables and how schools were resistant to curriculum innovations. These variations often reflect the "subjective reality" of the implementation. Clearly Saye's findings are that teachers can initially be concerned and fearful about how they would personally be affected by the change, then later concerned over goals and benefits of the change (Fullan, 1991a, p. 35). Schools and teachers may be unable to respond to the new policy initiatives because of inadequate resourcing and/or confusion about the intended purpose of the new policy. It is clear that curriculum policy implementation is unlikely ever to be an objective process. The only "objectivity" may rest in the beliefs of the systems that have initiated such policies (Fullan, 1991a, p. 37).

2.3.4 Curriculum policy as "strong" or "weak" framework

> In its simplest form, this policy–practice connection can be portrayed as a system in which curriculum emanates from authoritative sources, is influenced by the medium of school organization and established patterns of teaching practice, and results in certain effects on student learning (Elmore & Sykes, 1992, p. 192).

Curriculum policy-making exists between two polarities. One viewpoint stresses prescriptive implementation procedures and outcomes while the other establishes frameworks within which teachers may chose different implementation processes and outcomes. The high impact, prescriptive policy models are perceived by teachers as creating unnecessary tensions, as they often impose artificial structures on teaching and are too rigid (Elmore & Sykes, 1992). Some teachers may prefer low impact models which give them the opportunity to modify intended curriculum processes and outcomes, though the contemporary evidence is that educational authorities are seeking to impose more specific policy directives upon schools than was the case in previous decades. Research has reported

implementation issues arising with such prescriptive policy guidelines, such as the case of French language "communicative approach" course prescription in Luxembourg (Davis, 1994, p. 116); in the case of the mandated mathematics assessment (Delandshere & Jones, 1999); and in the case of Hong Kong's Target Oriented Curriculum (Carless, 1998).

Translating intent into action and outcomes frequently sees changes develop in the intended curriculum policy. To ensure that the policies are implemented as intended, curriculum policy-makers resort to specifying "strong" policy frameworks that they believe will ensure strong and successful implementation. Writers on change and development (Hargreaves, 1994, 1997; Kanter, 1985) suggest that successful implementation of change depends on overall sense of purpose and vision, the ability of leadership to communicate this sense of purpose to others and engage them, a climate of respect for those implementing change, strategies for action, and the capacity to seize opportunities (Alcorn, 1999, p. 1).

However, research reports also identified the fact that many curriculum policy frameworks are perceived as weak. For example, Cohen and Ball (1990, p. 253) found "weakly specified" curriculum policy frameworks in their study of mathematics curriculum innovations. Similarly, Kallós and Lundgren (1977, p. 16) looked at the Swedish case of the Läroplan (literally *teaching plan,* curriculum), which, according to these researchers was "a weak framing", providing no details for implementation. Fullan (1991a, pp. 79–80) also described a picture of a "weak framework" in general curriculum policy in the United States, noting that local school systems and external authority agencies provide curriculum policies characterised by "lack of role clarity, ambiguity about expectations, absence of regular interpersonal forums of communication, ambivalence" all of which combine "to erode the likelihood of implementation" along the lines intended by the policy-makers.

The "weak framework" label given to many curriculum policies may well have derived from the types of policy innovations which have been externally imposed, yet "designed... so that users can make modifications according to their perceptions of the needs of the situation" (Fullan, 1991a, p. 65). However, in

effect, this perceived weakness may give strength to the innovation, giving more ownership and flexibility to the personnel as they work, to implement the policy from a bottom-up perspective.

In fact, weakness may not be the correct terminology. Elmore and Sykes (1992, p. 186) refer instead to an "uncertainty": the term "uncertainty" is used to describe the fact that "policies are made with highly uncertain knowledge of their potential consequences." The expression "uncertainty" seeks therefore to provide a reason for any apparent "weakness" of policy and helps account for policy-makers and researchers having different perceptions of policy. For policy-makers, "policies appear to be tightly connected assertions of value and fact. From the perspective of the researcher, policies are more or less uncertain predictions, never to be taken at face value" (Elmore & Sykes, 1992, p. 187). Schools and teachers construct their own certainty from within a range of possible alternatives.

Whether it forms a strong, weak or uncertain framework, or is based on a subjective or objective reality, planned curriculum change is viewed as important (Elmore & Sykes, 1992, p. 185), as it can influence both the content (subject matter chosen) and process (method of delivery). The details of the intended changes are usually contained in the official curriculum statements or guidelines.

However, Fullan stated that curriculum guidelines in policy reform (1991a, p. 274), "are not . . . the actual curriculum materials to be used . . . [T]hey can go some distance in providing sources of ideas and activities, but they are not the intact curriculum for use." Fullan reported that many teachers do not utilise curriculum guidelines (1991a, p. 275). As an example he reported a British Columbian study where the majority of teachers did not consult the Curriculum Guide, with only around 25% of teachers reporting the guide having a significant impact on their teaching. The issue of whether teachers consult any curriculum guide at all, let alone whether it is a strong or a weak framework, is examined in this case study of LOTE policy innovation in Tasmania between 1996 and 1998. The evidence as to whether the policy is perceived as a strong or weak framework, with a top-down or bottom-up frame, disseminated or diffused, will be analysed later in Chapters 5 and 6.

2.4 Implementation of the curriculum innovation: Factors enabling or inhibiting implementation

Unplanned changes occur daily in teachers' busy schedules and it is outside the realms of this study to deal with unplanned change. However, planned change—in particular, politically motivated change—is the focus of this research (Fullan, 1991a, p. 27). It is system-driven and is usually accompanied by promises of "commitment of leaders", human resource and materials assistance.

The following discussion draws on the existing research to indicate the factors that are known to affect curriculum implementation of planned change. These factors are also termed "enabling conditions" for implementation (Clayton, 1993). They are "a complex pattern of complementary, overlapping and interrelated factors" (1993, p. 45) and will be examined under the following themes: systemic management structures (including resource provision), clarity in timetabling and investment in human resources.

2.4.1 Systemic management structures and resource provision

An educational system introducing a curriculum innovation will instigate strategies, procedures or structures to facilitate the innovation. According to Clayton (1993), the system should manage the innovation, including the development of:

> a task or mission orientation; lateral as well as vertical communication; the ability to recognise and resolve conflict; lack of buck-passing; constructive use of valid negative feedback relating to the innovation; and, open discussion and modification of organisational culture, norms, objectives and policies, where the innovation calls these into question (p. 4).

Management structures impact on the success or otherwise of innovation. Goal setting lends itself to measurable progress with the frequent assessment of

progress instituted by management (Pratt, 1999, p. 187). Implementing change in a gradual and flexible manner is yet another management strategy affecting the success or otherwise of an innovation found in the literature (Clark, Scarino & Brownell, 1994).

As described earlier in Section 2.3.2, the management practice of dissemination—how the theories and practices of the innovation are spread through the system—can support or hinder the implementation of a curriculum initiative to a great extent (McBeath, 1997). One particular dissemination practice, attending to budgets, is characteristic of a system attending to adequate resource provision and is another factor in the issue of perceived success of implementation. Pratt's study of educational change (1999, p. 188) noted that resources in the form of monetary funding and materials allowed change to be enacted. It is acknowledged that merely making funds available to a program will not ensure success, but funds, in addition to the presence of the other factors listed above, may make the change more likely to occur. There is more chance that innovation will be successful if support, involvement and evaluation structures are in place alongside the innovation itself. Oftentimes innovation has failed due to active support being less than adequate (Nisbet, 1975, p. 8).

According to the work of Rogers (1983), the change developed by the system introducing the innovation can be viewed as having certain "attributes" to enable change to occur:

- relative advantage, where enactors are able to envisage an advantage to their situation should they adopt the innovation
- compatibility, where enactors are able to envisage that the processes involved in the adoption of the innovation are compatible with many of their current teaching processes, and thus may be able to be "mutually adapted"
- simplicity, where enactors prefer change processes free of complexities
- trialability, where enactors can envisage the incremental nature of the innovation, enabling a trialing process to proceed
- observability, where enactors have opportunities to explore the possibilities and to observe the processes in action in classrooms other than their own.

Clayton (1993) adds "ownership" to this list of attributes, whereby enactors seek opportunities to exert some "ownership" over the processes of change they will be experiencing.

2.4.2 Clarity in timetabling and consideration of "frame" factors

Related to educational systems providing organised administrative/management strategies and adequate funding is the factor of timetabling and consideration of "frame" factors.

Provision of a clear timetable for implementation is a key factor in successful curriculum implementation (Pratt, 1999) and has been shown in the research literature to be important in the translation of policy into practice. Guskey (1990, p. 12) reviewed the research literature, and found teachers have little enough time for implementation, let alone continuation before a new innovation is introduced. He says, "[f]or the majority of teachers, the first year is a time of trial and experimentation" and time is needed for teachers and students to adjust.

Kallós and Lundgren's work (1979), reporting a number of their own and others' studies, had acknowledged the time factor as a key consideration. They report time as being one of the most concrete aspects of teaching and learning known to impact on what teachers and students do.

The time consideration in implementation is, according to Kallós and Lundgren (1979, p. 24), one of the "frame" factors in implementation. Other "frame" factors are teaching objectives and sequence, and amount of content units (adapted from Lundgren, 1972, as cited in Kallós & Lundgren, 1979, p. 26). "Frame" factors are different from other "teaching process variables" (Lundgren, 1972, as cited above) that impact on curriculum implementation. Teaching process variables are listed as the content of the curriculum, the activity designed for the teaching and learning of the curriculum, and the different individuals involved in the implementation.

When considering "frame" factors and "teaching process variables", systems can, in Pratt's words, "benefit from designing the implementation of innovations with a clear timetable that aims to institutionalize the innovation before initial enthusiasm and interest begin to fade" (1999, p. 189).

2.4.3 Investment in human resources

Added to systemic management and clarity in timetabling is the role of personnel and their human qualities, considered within the research literature as necessary for successful innovation (Clayton, 1993). Smylie (1996, p. 10) suggests that change "is best achieved not by regulation, but by developing the knowledge, skills, and commitments of teachers and by creating supportive conditions" for them easing into change. Whether it is traits of leadership (Drucker, 1985) or championship (Willard, 1991), Clayton (p. 5) found that it is the personal qualities and contributions of individuals and their ability "to stimulate, engage and empower an organisation" which are critical factors in successful curriculum implementation. Particular roles and their impact are described below.

A key role for innovation is to be played by the District Administrator, according to the research of Fullan (1991a, pp. 191–214). The role of the person or persons in this position can "lead change . . . provide resources, training . . . focus on . . . changes in the culture . . . [and] monitor the process" (pp. 212–213).

Teachers and principals with a vision or motivation are also "essential to generate the effort and energy necessary" (McLaughlin, 1998, p. 72) to enable change. Negotiating and coping with change, planned and unplanned, is an everyday occurrence for most teachers and principals. Those changes occur in the content of what is to be taught and the methods by which it is taught (Hopkins & Stern, 1996, p. 502) as well as in systemic procedures and daily events in managing behaviour and facilitating the achievement of desired student learning outcomes. As teachers need and take on new skills and teaching strategies, they also practise former ones (p. 503).

A certain passion and dedication is required specifically of teachers and principals (Pratt, 1999, p. 191). Their presence or absence in the curriculum change process can be viewed as necessary; but without resources, systemic management, achievable time limits and cooperative personnel, inspirational teachers and principals may not be enough to implement change successfully. "Principals' actions serve to legitimate whether a change is to be taken seriously . . . and [to] support teachers both psychologically and with resources" (Fullan, 1991a, p. 76). Teachers and principals must be involved in the curriculum innovation process from the start.

The principal plays a key role in curriculum innovation and implementation and can, in some circumstances, act as gatekeeper—inhibitor or facilitator of change (Fullan, 1991a, p. 11). From research on whole school change over a long period, Gold's findings were that the principal "learned to translate new ideas and policies into comparatively non-threatening actions, to encourage innovation by providing emotional, intellectual, and financial support to individual teachers and by discouraging anti-innovation norms" (1999, p. 212).

Principals or teachers involved in enacting the change consciously or unconsciously consider the attributes of the change in regard to benefits or otherwise of adopting the innovation as described in Section 2.4.1. Study of the teacher's role, which research has shown becomes a very important part of innovation and implementation processes, can illustrate the challenges of implementing innovations (Saye, 1998). It is particularly the teacher's role in curriculum innovation that becomes the focus of a more detailed discussion of views in the literature below.

2.4.3.1 The key role of teachers in curriculum policy implementation

Teachers are at the heart of educational improvement. Any benefits that accrue to students as a result of educational policies require the enabling action of teachers (Hopkins & Stern, 1996, p. 501).

It is a focus of this study to view the pivotal role of the teacher in negotiating curriculum processes and their key role in the eventual success or otherwise of the innovation. The following factors will be discussed as the framework for examining teachers' implementation of the intended curriculum change:

- teachers' understanding of the innovation
- teachers' decision-making
- teachers' training and qualifications for their understanding of their roles
- teachers' beliefs about and attitudes towards the particular reform
- teachers working in "up-close" contexts (McLaughlin, 1998) with other teachers.

2.4.3.1.a Teachers' understanding of the curriculum intention affecting the curriculum negotiation process

The literature variously mentions the need for teachers to have some level of understanding of the innovation before successful change can occur (Nisbet, 1975, p. 4–5; Ridley, 1990). Teachers who are familiar with the intended key reform themes behind the proposed change have been found to consider the innovation in a positive light and reform their practice according to policy (Spillane, 1999). Given the opportunity to seek understanding, teachers' fears and uncertainties are often alleviated.

How a teacher negotiates change after deciding its worth, is, according to Spillane (1999), linked to differences in teachers' "zones of enactment"[2]. Different understandings will eventuate in various ways for the different teachers enacting the innovations. Even though they are exposed to the same policy documents, teachers will have a different approximation of the basis of the reformer's proposals. Allowing teachers to explore their "zones of enactment" allows them initial understandings of these elements. This is imperative, Spillane argues, for successful implementation (1999, p. 157).

2 Spillane defines a zone of enactment as a space where the reform initiatives mobilised by the school system interact with the world of practitioners and practice (Spillane, 1999, p. 159).

Noddings and Enright (1983, p. 182) view teacher understanding of the innovation in another way. They term this as a "sympathy" for the innovation: teachers develop opinions, sensations, and feelings about the change. "Sympathising" with the innovation would surely include teachers having a certain degree of understanding and seeing the relevance of theories for their own contexts. Unless teachers have sympathy with the innovation, adoption does not seem likely.

As well, teachers should be involved with the innovation from the outset in the true sense of "bottom-up" curriculum reform discussed in Section 2.3.1. Teachers are one of the groups of stakeholders most likely affected by the change and therefore the group with the deepest insights to be able to "take into account the real influences on . . . [their] professional motivation and practice" (Osborn & Broadfoot, 1992, p. 150).

2.4.3.1.b Teachers' decision-making strategies affecting the curriculum negotiation process

Teachers make decisions about course goals, subject content, teaching methodologies, resources and assessment or evaluation strategies, which affect curriculum implementation, and in turn, affect student learning outcomes. A model of the influences on the teachers' decisions about planning and teaching the curriculum is described in the research of Elmore and Sykes (1992, p. 204). According to this research, three groups of factors affect teacher decision-making:

- content decision-making, regarding time allocation, topics to be covered, groupings of students and standards of achievement
- influence of policy instruments, regarding objectives, syllabi, curriculum guides, and policies about student testing, student placement, textbooks, time allocation, teacher qualifications
- sources of policy strength, regarding prescriptiveness, consistency, authority and power (Spady & Mitchell, 1979, as cited in Elmore & Sykes, 1992, p. 204).

These three groups of factors, according to Elmore & Sykes (1992), affect teachers' decision-making processes, how teachers negotiate curriculum implementation and how teachers cope with, and enact change.

Oberg (1991, p. 303) examined teacher decision-making and grouped decisions about the ends and means of education into five major types. They are decisions on:

- curriculum goals, or the ends or ends-in-view toward which educational activities are directed, usually viewed as curriculum aims or behavioural objectives
- curriculum content, related to the subject matter, often but not always discipline based, which are used as the vehicle for achieving curriculum goals
- learning experiences, focused on what learners are intended to do as a means of moving toward curriculum goals, also including teaching or instructional strategies, methods, or organization of instruction
- resources (print, non-print, human), which are the means through which content is displayed to learners (The combination of learning experiences and resources may be referred to as the learning environment.)
- evaluation, also termed assessment, or a judgement about the value of the degree and type of learning that has taken place.

The setting out of these types of teacher decisions into categories, as per Elmore and Sykes'(1992) and Oberg's (1991) work, highlights the complexity and variety of impacting factors on teacher decision-making. Logically, a high degree of inter-relatedness must exist between the factors, yet this is not suggested by either Elmore and Sykes (1992) or Oberg (1991). The teachers' complex decision-making task is further complicated as the types of decisions are linked to teachers' planning. The teacher's pre-service and in-service training should prepare them for the decision-making task involved in good teaching, and this is discussed in more detail in the next section.

2.4.3.1.c Teacher training and teaching qualifications affecting the curriculum negotiation process

The extent and level of teacher training and of employer emphasis on formal teaching qualifications may affect teachers' implementation of the curriculum. In terms of language teaching, Carless' (1998, p. 365) research with language

teachers concluded that teachers may find more success and have more positive attitudes towards the curriculum innovation when their:

- academic and professional training is higher
- proficiency in the language is higher
- attitudes towards both teaching and the innovation is more positive
- desire for self improvement and professional development is stronger.

A system that supports the teacher at the classroom level, by monitoring and ensuring adequate training and acknowledgement of qualifications, is more likely to implement any new curriculum policies successfully (Carless, 1998, p. 366).

In fact, Carless (1998, p. 355) reports on Verspoor's study from 1989 which noted that four elements need to be present for teacher training to support language program implementation: in-service training, systems for teacher supervision and support, adjusted content of programs to suit teachers' own levels and provision of improved working conditions or professional development opportunities to encourage motivation and commitment. Clearly emerging through Carless' study is the call for training to be ongoing.

As well, because of the "human" and "individual" element providing variables for every context, the teachers' beliefs, perceptions and attitudes impact on curriculum implementation. This is discussed in the section below.

2.4.3.1.d Teachers' beliefs, perceptions and attitudes affecting the curriculum negotiation process

Teachers' beliefs about curriculum and related "personal knowledge" (Clandinin & Connelly, 1991, p. 129) impact on teachers' negotiation of curriculum and decision-making processes. Teachers' beliefs comprise both their theoretical knowledge and practical knowledge (Clandinin & Connelly, 1991, p. 129), and are a part of their personal practical knowledge: the trusted, day-to-day knowledge that allows teachers to intuitively "know" about their implementation of curriculum. A teacher, complete with beliefs, attitudes, skills and motivations, is encouraged to see him- or herself at the centre of a dynamic process in the classroom (Schon, 1983; Schulman, 1987; Pollard & Tann, 1993): a classroom full of planned and unplanned changes. A teacher, in a "cycle of experience",

who reflects and reformulates new pedagogical knowledge (Kolb, 1984) will implicitly be operationalising intended curriculum changes. Teachers' beliefs change as their practice demonstrates which curriculum changes are successful or unsuccessful.

Beliefs, complete with assumptions, are the basis of a teacher's values about education and curriculum. Teacher's beliefs need to be clear as they underpin any planning and act as a "screen for sifting valuable from not-so-valuable learning opportunities" (Fullan, 1991a, p. 42).

Once firmly established, beliefs are difficult to change and to change a teacher's beliefs is an involved process. Teachers selectively choose information that either confirms or refutes and challenges their beliefs, even to the point of distorting the evidence to fit (Archer, 1999, p. 1–2).

Change may not be successful if teacher confusion arises because of the changes in beliefs. What Pajares (1992, p. 307) found to be necessary for teachers are clear conceptualisations of the change, careful examination of key assumptions involved with the change, consistent understandings and adherence to precise meanings of the change, and proper assessment and investigation of specific belief constructs surrounding the change (Pajares, 1992, p. 307).

Teachers' beliefs and resulting attitudes affect their behaviour in curriculum decision-making and enacting policy and classroom teaching (Carless, 1998, p. 354). Carless states that "when teachers' attitudes are congruent with the innovation, then they are likely to be positively disposed towards its implementation" (p. 354).

Other research into curriculum policy implementation concluded that teachers have their whole life history on which to build their current teaching. Beliefs, values and knowledge from their personal and professional histories are already in existence before teachers embark on new ways, and that "the classroom slate is never clean . . . teachers must work with residues of the past" (Cohen & Ball, 1990, p. 251). Cohen and Ball's conclusions (p. 252) were that although policy

planners could create edicts with policy that cost them relatively nothing, the opposite is true for teachers.

> [T]eachers and students cannot ignore the pedagogical past, because it is their past. If instructional changes are to be made, they must make them . . . Teachers construct their practices gradually, out of their experiences as students, their professional education, and their previous encounters with policies designed to change their practice . . . they must come to terms not only with the practices that they have constructed over decades, but also with their students' practices of learning and the expectations of teachers entailed therein (Cohen & Ball, 1990, p. 252–253).

For teachers to maintain partial ownership of the curriculum they "operationalise" (Thornton, 1988) in their classrooms, it is necessary for them to make an explicit acknowledgement of the importance of their "independent contributions" (Cohen & Ball, 1990, p. 253), beliefs and attitudes formed during their past teaching experience. In Cohen and Ball's study, mathematics teachers could not simply "abandon old knowledge and practices in one moment and produce brand-new approaches to instruction in the next" (p. 254). The mathematics teachers adopted parts of the reform, and interpreted and enacted them in light of what they knew and could do, as well as what they believed they must do.

Fullan (1991a, p. 43) believes it is the policies and the many contextual variables appearing during teachers' personal and professional life histories and the relationships among them which impact on curriculum innovation. He stated, "How these subjective realities are addressed or ignored is crucial for whether potential changes become meaningful at the level of individual use and effectiveness" (p. 43). It is possible, according to Fullan (p. 40) for teachers to change "on the surface" without specifically understanding the innovation, as found in the research of Bussis, Chittenden and Amarel (1976). Similarly it is possible for teachers to "translate innovative ideas to conform with their own style of teaching" (Shannon, 1990; Wagner, 1991).

Clearly, teachers' beliefs, perceptions and attitudes impact on curriculum implementation. These three impacting factors are built up through the process of teachers experiencing events over a lifetime as has been shown by Lortie (1975); by Butt and Raymond (1987) concerning teachers' collaborative autobiography; by Connelly and Clandinin (1985) concerning teachers' personal practical knowledge; by Schubert and Ayers (1992) concerning teacher lore; and by Goodson (1988) concerning studying teachers' lives.

In much of the research on teachers' beliefs, there is "a notion . . . that to understand our lives and our experience of curriculum, we must interpret and share that experience" (Pinar et al., 1995, p. 555). This brings to the fore contemporary research on teachers as members of significant networks of professional colleagues. Teacher collegiality will be discussed in the section below as a further enabling condition for curriculum implementation.

2.4.3.1.e Teachers working with other teachers: The importance of "up-close"contexts affecting the curriculum negotiation process

The issue of teachers relating to and collaborating with other teachers is also a "critical variable" impacting on curriculum implementation mentioned by Fullan (1991a, p. 77), with opportunities provided for teachers to function together to be able to deliver the curriculum cohesively for their students.

Collegiality—that is, a teacher's ability and responsibility to work and interact with others to attain goals (Fullan, 1993; Lortie, 1975; and Nias, 1998)—has been examined in the curriculum negotation literature. Lortie stated: "Collegial responsibility would require that working teachers come to trust one another—to be ready to put more of their fates into their colleagues' hands" (Lortie, 1975, p. 236–7). The development of this collegiality is "contingent on the supportive attitudes of school administrators or district officials" (McLaughlin, 1998, p. 72). Hargreaves (1994) states the need for compatibility among teachers before professional discourse can occur.

Adopting a stance to underline the importance of this collegiality for curriculum implementation, McLaughlin (1998) states that a "social systems" viewpoint about individual teachers should be utilised as the basis for implementation research and advocates a change to focus on the group. Most critical, according to McLaughlin (p. 80) are teachers' professional relations; thus his suggestion that a focus on the teachers' "up-close context" is most suitable and may in turn affect student learning outcomes.

According to McLaughlin (1998) a social systems frame to develop and view curriculum innovation would contain such features as:

- increased opportunities for professional dialogue
- reduction of teachers' professional isolation
- a rich menu of embedded opportunities for learning and discourse
- professional development opportunities connected to meaningful content and change efforts
- restructured time, space and scale within schools (p. 80).

Appending the terms "up-close" teacher professional learning communities to the phenomenon of teachers' formation of dissemination or diffusion groups, McLaughlin (1998, pp. 76–81) describes how teachers are "learning together, reflecting together, [and] examining student work together". He advocates that framing research with this understanding will highlight teachers operating in either strong or weak "up-close" contexts. Strong communities have "a strong . . . culture . . . [and a] clear frame for practice" and weak communities are characterised by "traditional norms of individualism, conservatism and presentism . . . characterized by professional isolation and a lack of shared sense of practice." Research to determine the nature of a curriculum change context would be framed in this way.

Other research found evidence of teachers' preferences for working together. Teachers who attempt to understand curriculum issues through shared meanings is the essence of Little's research (1981, as cited in Fullan, 1991a, p. 78). Little's study, looking at work practices in six urban schools in the USA, found that:

- teachers talk about their practice, their students and the inter-relationships between teaching and learning
- teachers and administrators observe other teaching models and talk about this
- teachers and administrators plan, design, research, evaluate and prepare materials together.

This was corroborated by the research of Crookes and Arakaki (1999, p. 6), who found that "inter-teacher communication" or teachers' personal networks of communication provided necessary sources of ideas. With interpersonal communication, networking and shared understandings in evidence among teachers and their "up-close" contexts (McLaughlin, 1998) of teaching colleagues, the school community is likely to be more receptive when implementing new curriculum policies.

Policy-makers assume that when implementing a new curriculum, teacher learning and change in beliefs and practices will take place, as highlighted in Section 2.4.3.1.d. McLaughlin (1998, p. 81) advises that this does not occur successfully when teachers undertake innovations alone. Rather, "teachers who enjoy supportive out-of-school learning communities such as those advanced by subject area networks and professional organizations" (p. 81) and operating in strong, united communities, are more likely to affect the change successfully.

> When teachers have no up-close community in which to wrestle with the new frames for teaching and learning assumed by reformers, classroom consequences likely will signal only superficial change, if any change is evident at all (McLaughlin, 1998, p. 82).

In summary, as has been shown in Sections 2.4.1 to 2.4.3, teacher–colleague collaboration is only one factor in the complex process of change. Teachers and principals must contend with the unpredictable planned or unplanned nature of change. Unless there is clarity in this planned change, problematic situations such as "overload, unrealistic time-lines, uncoordinated demands, simplistic solutions, misdirected efforts, inconsistencies and underestimation of what it takes to bring about reform" (Fullan, 1991a, p. 27) can occur and affect the curriculum implementation process.

Providing resources can often help solve the problems experienced by personnel during initiation and implementation, especially providing resources for teachers to network, creating the difference between successful innovation or otherwise (Fullan, 1991a; McLaughlin, 1998).

The factors impacting on curriculum innovation and implementation presented above show a complexity for curriculum policy implementation which must be taken into account if policy developers wish to achieve successful and continued implementation. However, after examining the research literature, it appears that the complexity intensifies with the specific case of LOTE education as will be described in Section 2.5 below.

2.5 The implementation of LOTE curriculum innovation

While there is a substantial amount of research on the "whys and wherefores" of LOTE learning, including the methods, approaches and age-related research, little has been written on the specific factors affecting LOTE curriculum implementation, although an article by Dunlop et al. (1991, pp. 553–569) summarised factors affecting the policy of teaching foreign languages. Those factors, summarised from the findings of the research of Lewis and Massad (1975) and Carroll (1975) include:

- the amount of time given to language study
- students' attitudes and aspirations as regards the language being studied
- teachers' competence (as perceived by themselves) in the foreign language
- use of foreign language in the classroom.

Although not specifically focused on enabling conditions (Clayton, 1993) for language curriculum implementation, Met and Galloway's lengthy chapter (1992) on research in foreign language curriculum reviewed several issues affecting foreign language education. However, subsequently to Met and Galloway's review, this review of the literature has isolated a number of relevant studies on

curriculum implementation located in the area of foreign language curriculum, also in the related area of bilingual/second language education.

The justification for the citing of research on second language learning as well as foreign language learning follows. Some authors distinguish between foreign and second language learning. Dunlop et al. (1991, p. 553) describe foreign language learning as being where the language learned "is not the mother tongue" and the language is taught formally in a school or other organisation. They describe second language learning as being where the language is a language of instruction in the organisation or "where that language is used as a lingua franca internally in a country" (p. 553). Although there are differences between the foreign and second language learning, most importantly as there is an essential difference of the language context in which each occurs, similarities exist. White (1988, p. 7) explored the distinction between the two (in the context of modern language teaching and English language teaching) and pointed to "the parallels, contrasts and overlap, which characterize these two different traditions" and the "many signs of coming together" (p. 10). The parallels exist due to the many issues that both foreign language teaching and second language teaching have had to confront, most significantly, "the provision of language teaching across a wide ability range and the problems associated with mass provision of a foreign language" (p. 10).

Moreover, White states, "since the 1950s, both foreign language teaching and second language teaching have been subject to the same influences from theory and research on applied linguistics." Thus, many of the theoretical and practical controversies that preoccupy second language teaching specialists now also concern foreign language teaching colleagues (White, 1988, p. 10).

Another reason for the justification of citing second language research in this literature review on LOTE (foreign language) education is that according to language acquisition theory, language learning requires learner skilling in four macro-skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Language learners must usually make progress in all four skills. White adds, "although professionally and socially there are still two traditions, intellectually and practically they have come

to occupy common ground" (p. 10). Even though much of the research discussed below belongs to the second language teaching tradition, it will be considered for the purposes of this review as generic language curriculum implementation.

2.5.1 Models of LOTE curriculum implementation

Generic models for curriculum implementation were referred to above in Section 2.3, highlighting the evidence that curriculum innovation is unlikely to be a linear event and thus questioning the validity of viewing curriculum through lineal models. Focusing particularly on models suitable for language curriculum implementation, researchers have varying views on which model best suits the implementation of a new language curriculum.

At this point it is important to state that it has not been the intention of this study to focus on models suitable for language curriculum development. Language curriculum models and language curriculum design are complex, due to the nature of the complexities of the language learning process. Rather the focus has been on complexities evident in language curriculum implementation due to the complex nature of factors or "enabling conditions" (Clayton, 1993) for successful implementation to take place, and these are discussed in detail below.

2.5.2 Factors enabling LOTE curriculum implementation

There are factors, or enabling conditions, specifically related to the language curriculum implementation process which will be discussed according to Rogers' (1983) taxonomy; attributes of the innovation; adequacy of the resources available; the nature of the organisation/organisational characteristics; and qualities of the individuals, particularly the school principals and language teachers. These factors, isolated in the research literature in Section 2.4, will now be discussed in relation to language curriculum implementation below.

2.5.2.1 Attributes of the innovation enabling LOTE curriculum implementation

Language curriculum policies can possess attributes which in turn can offer a range of opportunities to the teachers and other staff who will enact or adopt the

innovation, as discussed earlier in Section 2.4.1. Language teachers will look to the policy stipulations to estimate whether there is relative advantage in their adoption of the change, as well as compatibility, simplicity, trialability, observability (Rogers, 1983), and ownership (Clayton, 1993) possibilities.

An example of research highlighting a language teacher who assessed the attributes of a language curriculum, Shannon's study (1990) documented a Spanish language teacher of nine gifted and talented 8th graders in a Spanish translation class in the 1987–1988 school year in Connecticut, implementing a bilingual curriculum. The "intended" curriculum was inappropriate for this teacher and he expanded the content and explored his own preferences and expertise with the Spanish language, to enable his students to "develop their linguistic heritage" (Shannon, 1990, p. 235). The adapted, or operationalised curriculum he developed, "brought Spanish out of the trenches and into the classroom" (p. 235) to become compatible with school needs and student interests. The innovation had been unattractive to the Spanish teacher and he saw advantage in making changes to the language curriculum rather than merely adopting the new curriculum.

Another consideration concerning the attributes of the innovation is that because the context is a language innovation, there are inherent cultural and contextual factors. Therefore a second layer of factors impacts on language curriculum implementation, superimposed on the attributes mentioned by Rogers (1983) and Clayton (1993), and creates a specific context for the implementation. Teachers of language who realise that there are cultural considerations behind the adoption of language curricula know about the specific language attributes and can consequently be more informed about the innovation.

2.5.2.2 Adequacy of the resources available enabling LOTE curriculum implementation

Research evaluating language programs has often highlighted inadequacies in the resources made available for implementation (AACLAME, 1993; ALLC, 1996; Commonwealth of Australia, 1991; Commonwealth Department of Education

[CDE], 1986; Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training [CDEET], 1988).

One particular issue highlighted in such research concerns teachers maintaining their proficiency levels in the target language. Teachers of languages are expected, due to the changing nature of language itself, to continue to maintain their levels of proficiency to keep up with trends in spoken and written forms of the target language. There is therefore more of an urgency for the provision of language teacher education, placing pressure on systems providing resource and training funding. Specifically for foreign language program implementation, Crandall and Tucker's research (1989) reported on "content-based" foreign language programs experiencing problems due to lack of resources for planning, pre-service and in-service training to bring teachers to high levels of proficiency, and for curriculum development.

2.5.2.3 The nature of the organisation: "System" characteristics enabling LOTE curriculum implementation

The culture and norms of an organisation or educational system are likely to affect the successful implementation or otherwise of a new language curriculum. Organisations (systems) can be described as having one or more of the following types of culture:

- a club or power culture, where a centralised network of management occurs
- a role culture, where management is carried out according to roles and job descriptions
- a task culture, where an organisation functions through roles which are stipulated
- a person culture, where particular people describe their own roles

(Handy, 1978).

Handy added that organisations are made up of a mixture of cultures, but the mix is important in determining the success of implementing a new language curriculum.

The culture of the system is also related to the "top-down, bottom-up" dichotomy mentioned earlier in Section 2.3.1 (Fullan, 1991a). If it is a system encouraging bottom-up adoption of policy such as described in the research of Hopkin, Hopkin, Gunyuz, Fowler, Edmison, Rivera and Ruberto (1997), there may be more likelihood of successful implementation. Findings of their research were that after designing a user-friendly curriculum guide for third-grade language classrooms at the Dhahran Academy in Saudi Arabia, the trickle-down or top-down system did not work. The grade three teachers involved in the study implemented changes to operate in a bottom-up fashion, agreeing on aspects such as emphasis on collaborative dialogue, a focus on learning, supply of professional resources and allowing time for undertaking research as base-line factors they considered important in implementation.

More important, according to Brown (1994) than the top-down or bottom-up dichotomy is a "tight" and "fully supported" systemic structure that is necessary for language curriculum implementation. Brown reported on the Glastonbury, Connecticut and Hinsdale (Illinois, USA) elementary foreign language programs, which survived because of district-level mentoring of language teachers working with young children. "There was a designated language supervisor in both communities, a person whose responsibility it was to see that the program was well articulated"
(p. 170). Brown concludes that the infrastructure necessary in a tight and fully supported program includes

- school administrators, parents and policymakers . . . educated about the need for or value of the programs
- a national information campaign
- development of materials and new delivery systems for language programs;
- recruitment of candidates for elementary language teaching
- teacher preparation for working with elementary students, curricula and materials
- funding sought through public advocacy

(pp. 174–175).

These findings are corroborated by the work of Breen, Briguglio and Tognini (1996), whose research underlined the necessity to "prepare the ground" before implementation; Applebee (1997, p. 29) whose research underlined the necessary monitoring of quality and quantity and relatedness of language material; Lindholm (1990) who found that a minimum of six years of instruction "embedded" and "integrated" into the primary curriculum is necessary; and Wiley and Hartung-Cole (1998) who found that a low anxiety yet challenging environment which encourages and supports risk-taking should be negotiated by the system.

Australian research at the beginning of the 1990s—which involved a survey of teachers, 36 per cent of whom were LOTE teachers—found 76 per cent of respondents agreed that insufficient resources had been allocated by their respective systems for foreign language education. Teachers believed that infrastructure to support foreign language programs was "thin and not well prepared" (Reark Research, 1995, as cited in ALLC, 1996, p. 122), with subsequent effects on implementation, such as teachers' perceptions that they were "being pressed into LOTE by Principals" (ALLC, 1996, p. 122). "Top-down" systemic management is presumably overwhelming for teachers who made comments on pressures being experienced in implementation (p. 121).

A planning group, established early in the initiation phase to reinforce the tight and organised nature of the innovation, is suggested by Curtain and Pesola (1994, pp. 253–254) to provide representation and relevance to the innovation. The group should be concerned with issues of philosophy, goals, staffing, budget, resources including teaching space, support of existing staff, choice of language(s), scheduling, curriculum [syllabus], integration, articulation, building public relations, assessment and sharing experiences and ideas. Research by Met and Rhodes (1990) corroborates these findings. Met and Rhodes add that planning be included for access and equity, extended sequence, instruction, materials, evaluation, professional development, school and community support and culture in order to achieve successful implementation.

In the Scottish primary foreign language implementation (Low, Duffield, Brown & Johnstone, 1993), such support came in the form of a tutor-trainer, an extra full-time member of staff from the secondary school, to help with the foreign language implementation. This secondary school foreign language teacher was later able to help ease the students' transition into high school programs. Also commenting on the Scottish MLPS programs, Tierney (1999, p. 54) noted that Development Officer positions were also created, with their task to visit the primary schools during the implementation phase and "find out how things [were] progressing in the classroom," reporting on practice to the policy initiators in central office.

The system provides language programs with a variety of support from the community as well as central government. However, it is the language teachers who are the most significant impacting factors in language curriculum implementation as will be discussed in the section below.

2.5.2.4 Qualities of the individuals involved enabling LOTE curriculum implementation

Alongside the formation of a planning group as outlined in the section above, there is a body of research underlining the importance of parents and the wider school community contributing to the curriculum implementation process.

Some systems have sought the perceptions of the wider local community to obtain support for curriculum innovation. In their study of the implementation of a primary LOTE program, Fortune and Jorstad (1996) found that parental support is an important factor in the success of primary foreign language programs. This outcome is reinforced by findings from a US study in the early 1990s, evaluating a three-year pilot project to teach Japanese to all K–5 students at a Pittsburgh elementary school, in a program where students learned Japanese for 15 minutes per day, five days per week from a specialist teacher. The results show strong positive correlation between childrens' awareness of parental encouragement for language study and their attainments in Japanese (Donato, Antonek & Tucker, 1994). In a subsequent study, Donato, Antonek and Tucker (1996) term the school community appropriation of such programs as achieving an "ambience" and view the findings from the attitudinal data—that all stakeholders were

satisfied with the FLES program—to be integral to the perceived success of FLES programs (p. 523).

These findings on parental and community support were also found by Clyne, Jenkins, Chen, Tsokalidou and Wallner (1995, p. 3–4) in their research on primary level programs of Mandarin Chinese, Modern Greek, German and Italian in ten schools and on secondary German programs in two schools in Victoria, Australia over a two-and-a-half-year period. The background community are often a source of home native speaker communities who are available as a resource to the program. Another finding was that in schools teaching Chinese, home background students (students with Chinese family origins) had better listening comprehension skills than other students. In the schools teaching Greek and Italian, students were more successful when they utilised resources from the home community.

As well as considering a language planning group and parent groups as important factors in language curriculum implementation, the literature reports school principals as being major factors in determining success or otherwise of language curriculum implementation.

2.5.2.4.a The principal's role in enabling successful LOTE curriculum implementation at school level

The principal's understanding of the language curriculum innovation is paramount. MacDonald and Courtland's (as cited in Courtland, 1994a) research produced findings emphasising the need for the principal to understand the theoretical frameworks of language curriculum innovation. In fact, further research findings (as cited in Courtland, 1994a, pp. 258–259) describe five areas of responsibility for principals involved in language curriculum innovation:

- credibility, referring to how others will perceive the principal, whether he/she is a role model, willing to engage and take risks in the language
- commitment, enhancing credibility, where the principal invests self, energy and time to the language innovation

- climate, where principals encourage positive language learning environments throughout the physical areas in the school and in the attitudes, resources, time and space
- support, principals providing support for, and encouraging stakeholder involvement in, implementing the language innovation
- communication, the principal opening up all communication channels between all stakeholders (district, parents etc.) in order that shared understandings of the innovation occurs.

Principals, with attributes, personal behaviours and character traits such as those listed above, are instrumental in creating a strong school culture and community, as discussed above in Section 2.4.3, and as McLaughlin (1998) deemed necessary for successful curriculum implementation.

Highlighting the key belief that principals may play a role in affecting foreign language policy implementation are a limited number of studies. In 1993 Lyman (1993) sent a questionnaire examining principals' interest in foreign language issues to 573 school principals in Texas public elementary schools with 371 completed and returned. Findings were that principals have high expectations of such foreign language elementary school programs; principals are optimistic about such programs; and that female principals have stronger attitudes towards, and proficiencies themselves in, a foreign language than their male counterparts. School size or location did not affect the results obtained.

In Australia, ten years after the initial establishment of the first primary LOTE programs in Victoria, Martin (1991) found that principals exerted profound impact on primary LOTE implementation. She found that principals themselves believed that there was full justification of LOTE programs in primary schools. Within the qualitative data gathered from principals, she found they believed that LOTE programs made curriculum offerings more interesting, providing an enrichment of educational experiences for students (p. 46). Similarly, the research of Breen et al. (1996), looking at the interview evidence from 21 teachers of primary LOTE in Western Australia, found that these teachers had determined the principal's role in program implementation to be a crucial one. Principals'

positive or negative attitudes towards foreign language education in primary schools consequently affected program implementation.

However, as was found in the general curriculum implementation research literature, it is the language teachers who play a pivotal role and who are the "central figure in the teaching/learning process acting as resource person, evaluator, and facilitator in the classroom" (Olshtain, 1991, p. 551) that can help create enabling conditions for effective implementation to take place at school and classroom level.

2.5.2.4.b The teacher's role in enabling successful LOTE curriculum implementation

Alexander, Rose and Woodhead (1992) identified four types of primary teachers: the generalist class teacher; the generalist/consultant; the semi-specialist; and the specialist. The variety has occurred due to it being unreasonable "to expect one teacher to cope unsupported with the depth and width of the modern curriculum" (House of Commons, 1986: para. 14.76) without specialisation in roles enabling wider role definition and position description.

Regarding foreign language curriculum innovation, the literature reports the existence of three groups of teachers as being important. The first group are the generalist class teachers who are instrumental in the implementation process due to their key support role and their regular contact and management of the primary curriculum for their class (DES, 1978). The second group are the semi-specialists, described by Watkinson (1992) as generalist class teachers, but with a subject-specialisation. The third group are the specialist foreign language teachers who usually have no generalist classroom pedagogy training.

There are many virtues of a language program that utilises the generalist class teacher for active support of the program. According to British research (DES, 1978, para. 8.41), the generalist class teacher "can readily adjust the daily programme to suit special circumstances" and can coordinate and reinforce work done in other subject areas, due to the fact that the teacher and the children are

together for a long time and get to know each other in a variety of teaching and learning circumstances" (Thomas, 1990, p. 158).

Research by Donato et al. (1996) highlighted generalist class teachers' attitudes as being an important factor in their support of foreign language programs. They looked at such support through the analysis of attitudes of eight generalist class teachers toward a primary Japanese program. Over time, the generalist class teachers' attitudes to Japan changed in a positive way. This was due, among other things, to them observing increasing student interest in the lessons being delivered.

Some generalist class teachers involved in MFLPS education in Britain reportedly attempt to integrate foreign language material with, and to embed the foreign language in (Boyes, 1993; Pignatelli, 1993), other content areas during the remainder of the week, using short, easily-remembered phrases.

A specialist teacher would ideally have expert subject knowledge and specialist training in delivering subject-specialist teaching (Shulman, 1984). Yet it is the label "specialist" in current educational discourse that has "effectively undermined" (Campbell, 1992; Thornton, 1995) the status and professional ability of primary teachers: with generalist class teachers being asked to accept that the specialist is somehow more "special" than the generalist.

However, the argument is strongest for a semi-specialist to be involved in program implementation. This is highlighted in recent British research (OFSTED, 1997). The research found "pupils taught by semi-specialists achieved higher standards than those in lessons taught by non-specialists" (para. 3). Other research underlining the importance of achieving a blend of class and specialist teaching found that the specialist teacher is "too isolated from the rest of the children's programme . . .[and therefore] too fragmented" (DES, 1978, para. 8.43). Instead, a semi-specialist, also having class teacher responsibilities, may combat the fragmented curriculum by coordinating the whole program. Yet the idea of generalist class teachers wearing "multiple hats" and becoming semi-

specialists hints that the responsibility of being semi-specialist can be overwhelming (Webb, 1994, p. 54).

In a Scottish study, Low, Brown, Johnstone and Pirrie (1995) analysed the specific responsibilities for the generalist class teacher. Teachers interviewed perceived that the generalist class teachers and semi-specialist teachers have a primary responsibility for linking the foreign language material into the primary curriculum in conjunction with the specialist teacher. Findings were that generalist class teachers believed their role was to support, helping slower students, managing practical activities and using a modest level of the language in between visits of the specialist foreign language teacher. The regular class teacher was comfortable using English, helping students learn the foreign language.

Related research has LOTE teacher collegiality as its focus. Research findings on foreign language teacher collegial reflection highlighted its impact as an enabling condition for successful implementation. Driscoll (1999b, p. 37–39) conducted research on the teaching of French in two districts in England. The collaborative planning of the generalist class teacher and specialist teacher, according to Driscoll, was complementary. The specialist teachers planned the controlled language activities according to long-term objectives and the generalist class teachers worked "in the present" with classroom activities and management. It was not clear, however, how the "team" of teachers, that is, the specialist and generalist class teachers, went about the process of reflection or whether there was opportunity for them to acknowledge these beliefs about their roles explicitly.

The role cultivated by the generalist class teacher along with the specialist teacher can, depending on circumstance and context, be a positive or negative contributing factor to the LOTE program. It appears that specialist teachers' nurture of students and cultivation of a warm and productive professional relationship with these generalist class teachers should further enhance successful implementation. Yet not all research findings show generalist class teacher support free of problems. The study by Low et al. (1995, p. 181) found the

generalist class teacher's initial enthusiasm declined, with "disappointment that their language competence had not improved more."

Attention will now turn specifically to focus on the specialist LOTE teacher as having a key role to play in the implementation of policy, as was discussed at length in a major Australian study entitled *Language Teachers: The Pivot of Policy—The Supply and Quality of Teachers of Languages Other Than English* (ALLC, 1996).

2.5.3 LOTE teachers enabling curriculum innovation

All teachers involved with the adoption of curriculum policy influence and impact on the implementation, whether specialist or semi-specialist teachers of the language or generalist class teachers supporting the LOTE program (Low, Duffield, Johnstone, Brown & Bankowska, 1993). Examining this influence and analysing the impact necessitates the consideration of key elements of good LOTE practice and effective LOTE teaching. It must be acknowledged here, however, that the term "good practice" is loaded with value judgements and influenced by many impacting factors (Murphy, Selinger, Bourne & Briggs, 1995, p. 66) and may be meaningless unless context, purpose or group is clearly defined.

The sections below, Sections 2.5.3.1 to 2.5.3.3, will look at the following aspects of influence on effective teaching or good practice: language teacher beliefs and attitudes; language teacher proficiency levels (both in content and pedagogy); language teacher generic teaching capabilities; and language teacher capacity for critical reflection.

2.5.3.1 LOTE teacher beliefs impacting on curriculum innovation

It was established earlier in Section 2.4.3.1.d that curriculum implementation is affected by teachers' beliefs and attitudes, products of their personal and professional histories. Much research has appeared recently concerning the impact of language teacher beliefs on teacher planning and classroom practice (Al-Sharafi, 1998; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Francis, 1995; Gatbonton, 1999;

Horwitz, 1985; Mangubhai, Dashwood, Berthold, Flores & Dale, 1998; Peck & Westgate, 1994; Richards, 1998; Roberts, 1998; Wallace, 1991).

According to Nicholls (1983, p. 4), teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the intended policy, and possible changes which may occur in those attitudes and practices, are important factors in curriculum implementation. This is further highlighted in the work of Crookes and Arakaki (1999) who stated that research in the teacher beliefs and cognition area is impacting on English language teaching theory and practice (p. 1).

There is evidence that teachers' decisions tend not to be based on thoughtful application of a body of professional knowledge acquired during teacher preparation courses, in-service days, or post-graduate study. Rather, decisions are based on deeply held beliefs about teaching that were formed when teachers themselves were students, or, as beginning teachers, assimilating the attitudes and behaviours of their more experienced colleagues (Pajares, 1992). Crookes & Arakaki (1999) conducted research with a group of ESL teachers in the western USA, asking about their sources of teaching ideas. Data showed that "drawing on accumulated teaching experiences" (1999, p. 2) was the most popular response and showed teachers drawing on their "personal history of knowledge and information gained through trial and error" to determine which ideas would be most effective in the classroom.

Language teachers' attitudes, beliefs and assumptions are woven through their language teaching as language becomes inseparable from knowledge and belief systems. Perl and Wilson's (1986) investigation of six teachers' writing classes found teachers implementing the new writing approach to an extent, but experiencing difficulty in changing old approaches. One teacher participating in the research agreed that the new approach requiring the teacher to move out of centre-stage made it difficult to function other than in a teacher-centred way. Pahl and Monson (1992) conclude that "[c]hanging behaviours alone, decontextualized from a teacher's belief system, increases the probability that whole language will go the way of the maligned and failed reform efforts in our educational past" (p. 519).

Changing language teacher beliefs to adopt and adapt to new innovations proves difficult. Brindley's research (as cited in Parkinson & O'Sullivan, 1990, p. 116) suggested that aspects of the "learner-centred" curriculum now in vogue would hand some responsibility for learning to the learner; allow the learner to negotiate the curriculum, for example, as regards content, syllabus, materials, tasks; emphasise group work; utilise the teacher as one of many resources; and involve problem-posing tasks involving reflection and explanation. Language teachers, therefore, negotiating their roles as facilitators of learning, should change their behaviours to relinquish responsibility and step out of the total directive role. This change of beliefs, attitudes and behaviours is complex and cannot happen instantly, thus proving problematic.

The literature surrounding research on the impact of a teacher's proficiency in the target language and subsequent delivery becomes the focus for the next section.

2.5.3.2 LOTE teacher proficiency levels impacting on curriculum innovation

The research literature notes the many factors that are involved in the complex area of foreign language education (Met & Galloway, 1992; Curtain & Pesola, 1994). According to Olshtain (1991, p. 551), "[t]eachers need to be knowledgable not only in the target language which they teach but also in a wide variety of didactic methods . . . in evaluation, and in curriculum development." Satchwell added that "[g]roupwork and pairwork are essential if the children are going to make the most of the precious few minutes each week of foreign language talking time" (1999, p. 95) and the teacher should be familiar with such groupwork and pairwork strategies, especially for games. Consequently it is reasonable to expect that a foreign language teacher's training will include training in the language and culture; training for teachers to develop understandings of first and second/foreign language development; methodology for teaching foreign languages and literatures to children; and background studies on school curriculum, principles and practices, including knowledge of content areas and integration (Curtain & Pesola, 1994, p. 242–243). The following subsections highlight how language

teachers' proficiency in content and method have been suggested as impacting factors on curriculum implementation.

2.5.3.2.a LOTE teacher proficiency in content: Knowledge of target language

With the current emphasis on communicative language teaching methods (Met & Galloway, 1992, p. 861), the trends to "embedding" or integration and/or content-based instruction (p. 876) and exclusive use of the target language in the classroom (Peyton, 1997), there is a need for foreign language teachers to have "more than adequate" skills in the target language. Two decades ago there was a heralding of Canale and Swain's work (1980) listing four aspects to a language learner's "communicative competence"; grammatical competence; sociolinguistic competence; discourse competence; and strategic competence. The complex integrated processes involved in achieving a communicative competence such as that of a near-native speaker became apparent: Unlike teachers of curriculum areas other than languages curriculum, the language teacher must become proficient in the four macro-skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). If the foreign language teacher is viewed as an advanced learner in a classroom of novice learners, clearly the target language proficiency of the teacher is expectedly high. The primary school foreign language teacher often needs to be "skilled in thematic areas" in order to adopt content-based practices, and so teacher knowledge of the target language and culture is highly necessary for effective communication.

Not only are primary school foreign language teachers expected to be proficient enough to present the thematic material in the target language, all the while operating with multi-level ability learners in collaborative learning groups which are characteristic of the primary classroom, but they are also to facilitate learning with language specific to behaviour and classroom management. Theoretically, the high standard of language proficiency required for this facilitation role will allow a high amount of target language to be utilised. This level is expected in the macro-skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

As language learning involves the learning about a people and a society "behind" the language, a high proficiency in the target language will also presume a high degree of familiarity with the "social, political, historical, and economic realities" (Peyton, 1997, p. 2) of the target regions where the language is spoken.

All of the above is premised on the fact that language, culture and society are dynamic. Foreign language teachers will enter the profession with a proficiency and level of knowledge, and like many other curriculum areas, there is an expectation that they will "stay up to date" (Peyton, 1997, p. 2). "Regardless of the skills and knowledge that foreign language teachers possess when they commence teaching, maintenance and improvement must be an ongoing process" (p. 2).

Notwithstanding these strong claims for proficiency in the subject, other research states that "to focus solely on teachers' subject knowledge could effectively detract from all the other elements required to be an effective teacher" (Dunne & Wragg, 1994, p. 8). The claim is that subject knowledge is just one of many dimensions in effective teaching (Sammons, Hillman & Mortimore, 1995) and that it is the connections between subject-specialist knowledge and effective teaching, not teacher knowledge of the subject taught (OFSTED, 1997) which needs to be considered.

2.5.3.2.b LOTE teacher proficiency in theory and practice of teaching LOTE at primary school level

According to the literature, the teachers' proficiency in foreign language teaching methodology is an impacting factor in successful language curriculum implementation (Stern, 1991, pp. 572–3). The literature variously describes the "cycles" or "approaches" of foreign language teaching method, which have "been affected by theories of language, linguistics, and learning" (Dunlop et al., 1991, p. 556; Met & Galloway, 1992, p. 872). Driscoll (1999b, p. 37) stated that language teachers "had to make decisions about how best to manage the content, organise the activities, motivate the pupils, meet their needs and give them feedback all within a limited time which required considerable planning" (Driscoll, 1999b, p. 37).

Low (1999, p. 51) lamented the fact that "expertise in foreign languages teaching has largely been the domain of secondary specialist teachers . . . who have little experience and perhaps only meagre understanding of the primary school, its curriculum, pedagogy and learners."

Particularly for primary foreign language teaching methodology, which was introduced when pattern-drilling and mechanical language learning strategies were current in the mid part of the twentieth century, Stern concluded that there needs to be the development of more "worthwhile linguistic and cultural content of true educational merit . . . [involving] children in interesting language-related activities" (1991, p. 573), mirroring the general philosophy of the primary curriculum. The generic knowledge and skills of a primary LOTE teacher who is able to monitor the program, recognise and select suitable activities, utilise age-suitable materials and eventually evaluate the program is necessary (Richards, 1998, p. 11). Thornton (1990, as cited in Thornton, 1998, p. 8) adds that in order to attain a credibility among colleagues, "subject specialists have to be good, generalist class teachers."

Problems in classroom implementation may occur if the teacher is not methodologically "aware". Gambell and Newton's 1989 study (as cited in Courtland, 1994b) of teachers implementing a whole language approach over a two-year period showed differences between teachers' methods and strategies for evaluation due to teachers' lack of understanding of the theories behind the practice. Gambell and Newton termed this the "bandwagon phenomenon", "in that teachers were using whole language strategies, but did not appear to understand why they were using them" (p. 279).

In order to explore the research reports LOTE teachers' negotiation of methods and pedagogies, a discussion is included below of teachers' reflection processes that are integral parts of the teaching process.

2.5.3.3 *LOTE teacher reflection impacting on curriculum innovation*

Language teacher research has recently produced a number of studies advocating reflection as an important enabling condition for curriculum implementation (Pennington, 1993). According to Bartlett (1990, as cited in Richards, 1997, p. 215) reflection, or critical reflection

> refers to an activity or process in which an experience is recalled, considered, and evaluated, usually in relation to a broader purpose. It is a response to a past experience and involves conscious recall and examination of the experience as a basis for evaluation and decision-making and as a source for planning and action (Bartlett, 1990, as cited in Richards, 1997, p. 215).

The process of reflection necessarily involves teachers "hunting assumptions" (Brookfield, 1995, p. 2) whereby assumptions are the taken-for-granted beliefs which have formed during a teacher's personal life experiences and professional career development. In turn, teacher beliefs therefore, variously alluded to in the research detailed in Sections 2.4 and 2.5, impact on teacher reflection.

A key aspect of language teacher reflection is, according to Courtland (1994b, p. 289) that teachers' beliefs should include a mindset that they too are learners of the language alongside their students. The basis of this assumption can be linked to work such as that of Clandinin and Connelly (1992, pp. 363–401) who discuss the multi-faceted role of the teacher as curriculum maker and teachers enacting change in three areas: beliefs, approaches and in their use/development of curriculum materials/resources (Fullan, 1991a, p. 39). An understanding of personal knowledge and the role of acknowledging beliefs in curriculum "draws our attention to the importance of reflection as a process through which practitioners can use general rules and principles as heuristics from which to reflect on their practice" (Clandinin & Connelly, 1991, p. 130).

Plans and intentions of policy-makers and curriculum developers rarely work out as intended (Crookes & Arakaki, 1999, p. 1), and a focus on teacher narrative and personal knowledge helps account for this (Clandinin & Connelly, 1991, p. 130). The system should also take into account and make provision for teachers to reflect on (Richards, 1997) and acknowledge their beliefs and assumptions in the process of negotiating curriculum (Clandinin & Connelly, 1991). Fullan (1991a, p. 74) points out that the "immediate past history" of teachers is important in predicting and understanding individuals' and groups' responses to particular innovative programs. Connelly and Clandinin refer to this history as personal narrative (1997). Systems encouraging teachers to explicitly acknowledge their personal narratives in negotiating new curriculum changes is strongly suggested. To provide teachers with this explicit method of acknowledging their own personal and professional histories in the education process, is to emphasise the bottom-up nature of curriculum innovation, a guarantee that some aspects of curriculum innovation are being influenced by the teachers who in turn are the ones to enact change.

Oftentimes teacher reflection can occur within the "up-close" context, that is, reflection among language teaching colleagues. Gambell (1994b, pp. 249–251) summarised the research findings on factors influencing change in language curricula, when looking at strategies for successful implementation. He listed these as:

- networking, or teachers communicating and cooperating about their teaching
- options for involvement, that is, choice in the degree and type of their involvement in the language curriculum innovation
- coaching, or teachers modelling and reflecting with other teachers, developing one-to-one relationships (also corroborated by the work of Scarino et al., 1988a–d, p. 11)
- action research, requiring teachers to articulate research questions based on their own teaching
- problem solving, teachers working collaboratively on theory and research.

Yet reflection may not be the first active strategy adopted by teachers to source teaching ideas and undertake curriculum decision-making. Crookes and Arakaki's (1999) research with a group of ESL teachers in western USA, found that "[r]eflection . . . may have sometimes taken second place" (p. 7) to other strategies used by those teachers who based their ESL teaching ideas on their personal histories of knowledge and their accumulated teaching experiences (p. 2). What the teachers "knew" from their "habitualized patterns of thought and action" (Floden & Clark, 1988, as cited in Crookes & Arakaki, 1999, p. 7) helped them solve immediate teaching idea problems.

Whether the Tasmanian system made provision for primary LOTE teachers to reflect, recall, consider and evaluate their LOTE teaching experiences (Richards, 1997, p. 215) and explicitly acknowledge values and knowledge by themselves or within the wider collegial network is to be determined in the findings of this study later in Chapters 5 and 6.

2.6 The punctuated legitimacy of language curriculum implementation

The concept of punctuated legitimacy fits with the concept of the transition curve (Adams, Hayes & Hopson, 1976, as cited in Breen et al., 1996, p. 38). Teachers experience different phases of change, identified as immobilisation, denial, feeling incompetent, acceptance, testing out, search for understanding, and integration (Breen et al., 1996, p. 39). The various phases can be seen to be peaks and troughs of teachers' acceptance of change. Teachers move through each phase as they weigh up the personal costs and benefits of change. Moving through each phase, sometimes quickly and sometimes reverting to previous phases, is necessary if teachers are to achieve continuation/incorporation/routinisation/ institutionalisation (Fullan, 1991a, p. 47).

With the many and varied factors impacting on the system, the context and the teacher as described in the sections above, it is clear that a diagrammatic

representation of the interlocking processes will be a complex one. This representation is presented in Section 2.7 below.

2.7 Framework for analysis of LOTE curriculum implementation

Developed from a review of the literature on language curriculum policy implementation is Figure 3, presenting a framework that brings together the variables discussed above to form the basis for analysis of data in the case of primary LOTE curriculum implementation in Tasmania, 1996–1998 later in Chapters 5 and 6.

Key aspects of this framework show an intended LOTE curriculum policy, which is initiated and made ready for adoption and implementation with a "flow through" from the transition line to implementation. The framework also shows how change can occur and at any stage there can occur a re-design and re-consideration of events after receiving input from any key enactor. This represents the interactional, bargainable and non-linear characteristics of policy implementation noted earlier in Section 2.2 (Elmore & Sykes, 1992). Fullan (1991a, p. 48) also described the implementation process as "not a linear process but rather one in which events at one phase can feed back to alter decisions made at previous stages, which then proved to work their way through in a continuous, interactive way". "Enabling conditions" add to or detract from the impact of implementation. Schools, principals and teachers operationalising the language curriculum involves a negotiation of the variables.

Particularly highlighted in this study are the policy aspects in the first instance, and subsequently the importance of the "up-close" contexts, teacher training issues and teacher beliefs impacting on implementation due to those factors making this Tasmanian study an individual case, where specific local conditions apply (Crandall, Eiseman & Louis, 1986, p. 45).

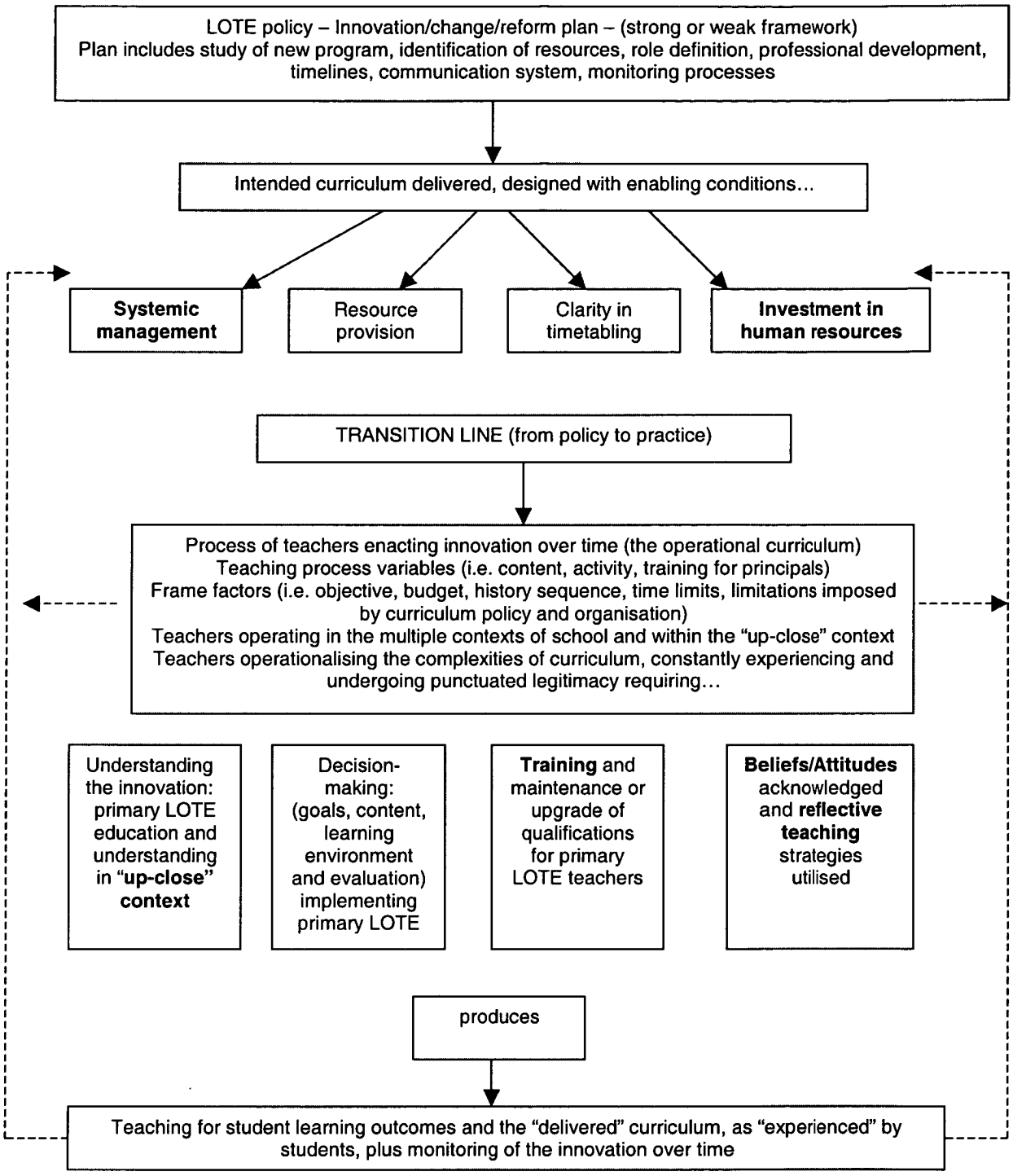

Figure 3: A conceptual framework for LOTE teachers enacting curriculum policy innovation (adapted from Fullan, 1991a; Fullan & Park, 1981; Gold, 1999; Kallós & Lundgren, 1979; McLaughlin, 1998; Miller & Seller, 1985; Oberg, 1991; and Thornton, 1988).

2.8 Summary

In summary, a review of the literature has shown that curriculum change is implemented "in the complex, and often conflicting historical, interpersonal and ideological contexts of the individuals and organizations involved in the process of change" (Paris, 1989, p. 3).

Also highlighted in the sections above was research suggesting that a number of characteristics of policy will add to, or detract from, successful curriculum implementation. Similarly there are factors in teaching practice shown to be necessary for successful LOTE policy implementation, although Clayton (1993) warned against viewing this list of enabling conditions as a "shopping list or recipe . . . merely requiring a check that . . . factors are present" (p. 5) and Crandall et al. (1986, p. 45–46), advised that these not be viewed as hard and fast rules, but rather as suggestions.

The system introducing the innovation should first facilitate the design of a policy on curriculum policy-making and subsequently design a curriculum policy per sé to contain a plan which will allow an initial tight management followed by incremental involvement by enactors. Clear and incremental change should also involve benefits for enactors. Provision should be included for teachers, the key enactors, to benefit from training and resources and opportunities to explore their own and colleagues' practices and beliefs. With this process in place, teachers are then free to design long-term, age-appropriate language curricula for individual students' needs.

"Fidelity" (Fullan, 1991a), that is enactors implementing curriculum "true" to policy stipulations, will be not be a measure utilised in the analysis stages of this research into primary LOTE curriculum implementation. Rather, the findings on how and why the primary LOTE teachers negotiated curriculum in the ways they did will help answer the research questions set out earlier in Chapter 1, Section 1.3.

The following chapter, Chapter 3, examines the particular case of LOTE policy and LOTE education practice and discusses the findings from the literature review about primary LOTE education models of practice, especially primary LOTE teachers' choices regarding content and methodologies in best LOTE teaching practice.

3

Review of the literature on foreign language education policy and teaching practices

3.1 Introduction

In Chapter 2, selective literature was reviewed concerning curriculum policy and language-specific factors impacting on curriculum implementation. These were placed within a conceptual framework to indicate subsequent data analysis procedures of this study.

The major purpose of Chapter 3 is to examine and review foreign language education policy and teaching practice. In Section 3.2, the review will provide a summary of issues concerning the best way to frame foreign language policy. Highlighted in Section 3.3 is best practice for (especially primary) foreign language program implementation.

An examination of the literature on policy and practice of foreign language education in this chapter, particularly primary foreign language education, allows later evaluation in Chapters 5 and 6 of these findings against the Tasmanian context.

3.2 Foreign language education policy: A review of the literature

It is, according to Dunlop et al. (1991, p. 554), a nation's general language policy that is "one of the major determinants of a nation's language teaching policy". Birckbichler (1994) mentioned factors other than a nation's language policy affecting specific language education policy formulation such as

> the increasing influence of outside forces such as politicians and business leaders, poor communication between high-level policymakers and practitioners, the paradox of national curricular and standardization efforts and local and state restructuring movements, and the diversity of policies governing teacher education (p. 177).

Language education policy may variously institute language education programs that, according to Spolsky (1991, p. 583):

- extend and improve the variety of language that a child brings from home, also termed "mother tongue education, vernacular education, language arts education, teaching of reading and writing"; or
- add another variety of language for limited use, also termed "foreign language or classical language education"; or
- are for general use, also termed "bilingual education"; or
- replace the home language with another language immediately—"the home–school language switch, submersion, second language education", later—"transitional bilingual education", or temporarily—"immersion foreign language teaching".

This study looks at the second situation in Spolsky's list above; that is, the teaching of another language for limited use, or foreign language education, in the Tasmanian context, termed LOTE education.

3.2.1 Why? Why teach foreign languages and which foreign languages should be taught?

In 1987, Simon (1987, p. 27), a Senator from the State of Illinois representing the US Senate Sub-committee on Education, stated that "[i]t is not economics alone or the achievements of other nations that should be driving our interest in foreign language study." Yet Kubanek-German (1998, p. 199) believes that language education is almost always "initiated by acts of political will." Birckbichler (1994, p. 180) noted that policies for foreign language education have "generally emerged as reactions to external exigencies such as allocation of resources, political demands, and economic crises." In a further synthesis of the literature, Met and Galloway (1992, p. 853) add mention of "economic competitiveness" as a prime factor in "the renewed interest in foreign language education" in the United States of America. Researchers refer to these as "utilitarian applications" for foreign language study (p. 853). Rubichi, in his analysis of the language policies of over 40 countries, found the rationale for foreign language study is often strongly influenced by these utilitarian, geopolitical and economic factors (1995, p. 5). Commenting on the same issue concerning the European context, Low concluded:

> For some countries, such as Scotland, the main impetus was the advent of the single market in 1992 and the economic benefits which it was anticipated would ensue to those able to do business in more than one European language. For others, such as France and Italy, there was the added incentive of developing and promoting a growing sense of European identity based on cultural and linguistic diversity. For countries from the former Soviet bloc in eastern Europe such as Hungary and Croatia there was the desire to look westwards in both a cultural and economic sense (1999, p. 50).

A further examination of the literature shows that the justifications for the teaching of foreign languages vary greatly from country to country often influenced by prevailing economic, social and/or cultural factors, yet not always for utilitarian reasons. In the USA, the government was concerned about the lack

of foreign language ability among its citizens during various periods of recent history, which according to Lambert (1994), was taking place mostly within higher education contexts. In 1983, three major reports (as cited in Met & Galloway, 1992, p. 854) advocated that foreign language study begin at elementary school level. One report cited (p. 854), *A Nation at Risk*, placed foreign language and culture study at the same level of importance as the "basic" fields of English, mathematics, computer science, social studies and the natural sciences.

The USA's political will is that US society will be language-competent and their policy rhetoric reflects this (Tucker, as cited in Padilla, Fairchild & Valadez, 1990). FLES now has a place in the US elementary curriculum. The *Goals 2000: Educate America Act* placed foreign languages as part of the core curriculum "including English, mathematics, science, [and] foreign language" (Tucker, Donato & Antonek, 1996, p. 539). At the elementary school level these foreign language programs endeavoured to develop comprehension and the production of verbal communication skills, cultural awareness as well as offer instruction into other content areas (Cowell, 1990; Heining-Boynton, 1987).

Upon examination of the literature on foreign language education in Europe it appears that many European countries have "traditional reasons for the study of languages, such as . . . educational enrichment or enhancement"(Rubichi, 1995, p. 5). At the primary school level, European schools have varied aims in their language policies, encouraging the learning of more than one foreign language of the European Union to foster integration (Council of Europe, 1996) and cultural awareness. This "intercultural learning" features among the main objectives of primary foreign language education policy in Europe. The justification for taking such an approach is often couched in more personal terms, such as the formation of a child's identity, the reduction of ethnocentric thinking, and paving the way for an acceptance of the others (Kubanek-German, 1998, p. 200).

Regarding the issue of "which language", the reasons for choice of foreign language are various. Rubichi's analysis (1995) contains information that in countries where there is more than one national/official language, the choice of

the target foreign language is sometimes prescribed in policy. Belgium and Luxembourg have more than one official/national language and a number of different supported languages for study (Eurydice, 1992). Where compulsory, the foreign language programs in Europe are often English programs, English being the "global" language of economics and travel and thus often sought to enhance students' career options. English is compulsory for most students in Denmark, Greece, Spain, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria, Finland, Sweden and the Brussels-Capital Region in Belgium (European Commission, 1995, p. 38). The second most widely taught foreign language in Europe is French, above German, Spanish and Italian. This is true, too, of Northern Ireland secondary schools (Neil, Phipps & Mallon, 1999) and this system also offers Irish in a proportion of schools.

"Critical" languages, less commonly taught languages which are "highly critical . . . to best serve the economic and security interests" of a country, are also often chosen to be included in the education system (Samimy, 1994, p. 2). The USA reportedly changed its views on foreign language education after the launch of the Sputnik in the 1950s and began to value its citizens gaining a proficiency in non-traditional languages such as Japanese, Chinese, Russian, Arabic and Korean to assist the nation to face the rapid changing world situation more ably (Ging, 1994, p. 46).

Specific traditional languages are taught in US schools. Rhodes and Oxford's study reported that the "top four languages in elementary and secondary schools were . . . Spanish, French, German and Latin" (1988, p. 56). Currently the US Department of Education (Department of Education, United States of America, 1999) has stated that by 2005, 25 per cent of all public elementary schools will offer high-quality, standards-based foreign language programs in Spanish, Italian, French and German. Across the border in British Columbia, the 1994 Languages Policy (Reeder, Hasebe-Ludt & Thomas, 1997, p. 373–374) stated that a comprehensive kindergarten to Grade 12 language policy would recognise the official languages of Canada, Great Britain and France "and the growing number of other languages spoken by British Columbians."

In summary, the policy rhetoric reported in the literature reviewed above clearly shows the intentions of nations implementing foreign language education for utilitarian applications (Met & Galloway, 1992, p. 853). The aim is to advance the development of nations recognising the value of first language when it is English. When English is not the first language, the value of the "global English" language for political, economic and trade reasons is emphasised. In the case of foreign language education in primary schools, economics, increase in trade and boosting economies does not feature in the policy rhetoric. Policies from nations instituting primary level foreign language programs included views of child-focused, developmental (cognitive, linguistic, academic) reasons as being importantly fostered through the foreign language curriculum.

What the various nations regard as the most suitable age to begin foreign language study in education will be reviewed in the following section. (The discussion will not attempt any coverage of the cognitive theories supporting early language learning; rather it will focus on policy content analysis.)

3.2.2 When? At what age should foreign language be taught?

A much-debated issue in jurisdictions offering primary level foreign language education is that of the best age to begin this early foreign language education. Kubanek-German (1998) mentioned the European Commission's 1995 White Paper, *Teaching and Learning: Towards the Learning Society*, which set out the vision for citizens of Europe to be proficient in three languages, and "for foreign language learning to start at pre-school level", but this is only one of a few policy-type documents which advocates the pre-school level as an entry point.

Context is a key factor in a country's decision about when age level for inclusion of a foreign language in the curriculum. A country's social, economic and educational stance determines to a considerable extent when foreign languages are introduced in primary schools (Doye & Hurrell, 1997, p. 13). In Italy, Luxembourg, Finland and the German-speaking region of Belgium, students commence their studies at age seven or eight. Italy introduced primary foreign language education by law in the third year of elementary school for 8-year-olds

from 1985 (Weiss, 1991, p. 28). Four out of six countries in the Central and Eastern European Communities offer foreign languages to 10-year-olds (European Communities, 1997, p. 51).

In the USA, after the emergence of reports in the 1980s which suggested the nation's future would benefit with a citizenry proficient in a foreign language, a number of initiatives began. Met and Galloway (1992, p. 854) report the situation for early foreign language learning in the early 1990s thus: three states mandating foreign language study in grades K–8; all New York state schools making foreign language study available in grades 7–12 since 1988; Arizona state schools mandating foreign language instruction in grades 1–8; and North Carolina schools mandating foreign language study for all students in grades K–5. In the *Goals 2000: Educate America Act* (as cited in Tucker et al., 1996, p. 539) foreign language stipulations require outcome statements for students' competencies in foreign language skills at Grades 4, 8 and 12.

The majority of jurisdictions have chosen junior-mid primary (Rubichi, 1995, p. 20) as the key years to begin implementation of primary foreign language programs; countries taking the stance that "opportunities for employment, and business, travel and recreation" (Rubichi, 1995, p. 5) with other countries will only be accessible if is citizens possess a high proficiency in the language resulting from a long period of learning, beginning at an early age.

The reasons "why" foreign language learning is advocated and "when" is the best age as found in policy rhetoric above now combine with the "who" and "how" of foreign language policy in the following section.

3.2.3 Who and How? Roles and methods for participants in foreign language policy implementation

As was discussed in Chapter 2, policies that have sensibly and flexibly invested in human resources have more chance of success. Personnel in the "system" and the support those personnel provide to the teachers/enactors of change, as well as how they present the curriculum, have a key role to play in the success or otherwise of the innovation (Clayton, 1993).

Often policies include system guidelines to include statements on:

- the roles to be undertaken by the various personnel within the "system"
- language teacher proficiency levels and educational qualifications.

In the summary of language policy data from 40 countries, Rubichi states that there is an assumption that "investment in second language teaching will yield measurable results in terms of the ability [of students] to converse in that language" (1995, p. 13). However, exact details of foreign language policy from overseas as summarised by Rubichi (1995) do not include training specifications or details of specific roles for enactors: it is assumed, however, that teachers will be key enactors of policy implementation. Neither does Rubichi's summary make mention of whether the teacher is a specialist foreign language teacher, or a generalist class teacher or semi-specialist with foreign language teaching responsibilities, although his findings from the analysis of the foreign language policies suggest that investment in the provision of "qualified" teachers is an economic consideration in most countries (1995, p. 16).

In the literature search of documents from the USA, little evidence came to light regarding stipulations about the exact levels of qualifications and proficiencies of foreign language teachers. Birckbichler (1994) points to there being language proficiency standards, where teachers would need to provide evidence of "(1) personal development, basically comprising the skills gained from a strong liberal arts background; (2) professional development, or general and language specific teacher education courses and experiences; and (3) specialist development, namely, linguistic and cultural competencies" (Birckbichler, 1994, p. 187–188). Yet exact levels of proficiency in the target language are not widely evident.

As regards the "how" aspect of foreign language program delivery, Rubichi's summary of the language policies of 40 overseas countries found that there is relatively little mentioned regarding policy statements on program models or methods for primary foreign language program delivery or suggestions for approaches to be utilised. What exists are generic statements about "functional,

communicative" purposes requiring "communicative" and "integrated" foreign language teaching methods to be adopted by the teachers (1995, p. 20).

In summary, findings from the literature reviewed are vague regarding the "who" and "how to" foreign language program implementation guidelines, with only brief comments made about "linguistically proficient" and "qualified" teachers providing "communicative" language programs.

In a separate section below is a summary of the situation for LOTE provision in the policies of the seven other Australian states and territories at the time of the publication of the Tasmanian LOTE policy in November 1995. These data are provided in order to focus on the policy directives for foreign language curriculum implementation in the wider Australian scene, building on the picture presented above from the overseas data, and presenting further information as to what trends have shaped the Australian scene leading up to Tasmania adopting a LOTE policy in the mid-1990s.

3.2.4 A comparison of LOTE policy data from Australian states and territories current at 1995

Chapter 1, Section 1.4, reported that particular emphasis on LOTE education at the primary level came after the development of such documents as:

- the *National Policy on Languages* (Lo Bianco, 1987), the socially-just and equitable policy, where support of a wide variety of languages programs was encouraged
- the Hobart Declaration (AEC, 1989) where LOTE is mentioned as one of eight key learning areas for primary school curriculum
- the Council of Australian Governments report (COAG, 1994), where the NALSAS Strategy mentioned primary schooling as the starting place for (especially) Asian languages programs.

By the end of the 1980s the national scene for foreign language education was underpinned by such recommendations as summarised above. Various state and territory jurisdictions began outlining the policy intentions for foreign language

education in schools by releasing statements or policies on LOTE. Below is a summary (Table 2) of Australian state and territory LOTE policies/statements as at October 1995.

An analysis of Australian state and territory policies in Table 2 clearly shows that many reasons are listed within the documents of the seven other Australian states and territories for the inclusion of LOTE in the curriculum. These were reported in documents ranging from a 1-page brochure in the case of the Western Australian document (Education Department of Western Australia, 1995), to a 20-page document in the case of the New South Wales LOTE Languages other than English Strategic Plan consultation document (New South Wales Department of School Education, 1992). Social, intellectual, cultural and economic reasons appear in rapid succession in the policy rhetoric, aiming to provide rationales for LOTE to the wider community and perhaps also attempting to change the old mindset about foreign language for the "elite few." There are similarities with the reports about the US and UK/Europe policies, stating the benefits for both economic reasons, as well as cultural and linguistic outcomes.

Lo Bianco called (1987) for a wide variety of languages to be supported in all states and territories. As well, states such as New South Wales and Victoria with large Greek, Italian and Vietnamese populations had reason to include those languages as supported languages in the curriculum offerings. The case is similar for Aboriginal languages in Western Australia and the Northern Territory. However, the strong justification for LOTE learning in Australian states and territories was evident in government rhetoric emphasizing an Asian emphasis, and a focus on language knowledge to enhance Australia's economic future. This continues to be a government priority in the new century (Carson, 2000, p. 1). The Asian "push", encouraged by earlier reports summarised above, was translated into policy guidelines throughout the states and territories.

Table 2: Summary of details of Australian state and territory LOTE policies or statements current as at October 1995 (time of publication of Tasmanian LOTE Policy).

	Policy on roles & system guidelines for teacher understanding, training and development	Policy statement on target, aim of program grades taught and why?	Policy statement on ends, outcomes of courses	Policy statement on conditions (situations, structures, culture and environment	Policy statement on means & methods, timetabling etc.	Policy statement on decision-making, systemic management
LOTE Strategy Plan (Victorian Directorate of School Education, 1993)	Training and retraining of currently employed teachers will be given high priority, ensuring a high level of language proficiency. Priority be given to teachers with language qualifications. universities for provision of credit-bearing courses including technologies.	All P–10 students and 25% of Years 11–12 students with LOTE by 2000. LOTE is fundamental to students' understanding of how language works, how communication takes place and develops analytical skills and mental flexibility.	Nil.	Key languages: Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Modern Greek and Vietnamese, reflecting a balance of Asian and European languages. Also 5 languages for priority development, 9 languages of community significance.	Staged implementation of programs. Cluster arrangements and district networks established. Different considerations for background speakers.	Board of Studies to develop guidelines for syllabi and assessment strands.
Western Australian LOTE Policy (Education Department of Western Australia, 1995)	Teachers to be trained.	Years 3–10 by 2000, for communication; increased understanding of the nature/function of language; general knowledge; and knowledge of other languages and cultures.	Nil.	Aboriginal languages, Chinese, French German, Indonesian, Italian, Korean Japanese, Modern Greek, Spanish, Thai and Vietnamese mentioned.	Nil	Advisory teachers appointed to aid implementation.

	Policy on roles & system guidelines for teacher understanding, training and development	Policy statement on target, aim of program grades taught and why?	Policy statement on ends, outcomes of courses	Policy statement on conditions (situations, structures, culture and environment	Policy statement on means & methods, timetabling	Policy statement on decision making, systemic management
ACT Revised LOTE Action Plan (ACT Department of Education, 1994)	New teachers to have a post-Year 12 tertiary level LOTE major along with LOTE method and LOTE teaching practice. Principal has roles and responsibilities stipulated.	Years 3–6 by 2000. And incrementally in higher grades. Within a multicultural society, for identity, social justice and economic efficiency.	Majority of students to have achieved Level 3 from the LOTE Profile by the end of primary school.	French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Chinese, Modern Greek, and Spanish. (Supports Aboriginal languages, Korean and Thai.) 90 minutes per week by 2000: 150 minutes per week by 2006.	Cluster method, primary LOTE programs feeding into secondary programs with two schools staffed by the same LOTE teacher. Promotion of bilingual/partial immersion where possible.	LOTE Policy officer, responsible for providing advice to schools. Also one full-time Asian Education Foundation Officer.
Strategic Plan for Languages other than English (New South Wales Department of School Education, 1992)	Use of "adequate" supply of "suitably" qualified teachers by the system. Native speaker non-teachers to be trained and secondary LOTE teachers to be trained for primary.	Department recognises the importance of language study as an essential part of the curriculum.	Nil	Arabic, Chinese (Mandarin), French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Modern Greek, Russian, Spanish and Vietnamese. By 1996, 30% of primary students studying LOTE for 2 hours per week; 100 hours of one LOTE for one year compulsory in Years 7–10; after 1996, 200 hours. Years 3–8 by 2000. 25% of Year 12 studying LOTE by 2000.	Continuity of language study K–12 is established for students.	Large amount of detail on systemic support for appropriate curriculum materials and professional development support for the implementation K–12. Effective LOTE communication network established at all levels, through Retional Planning consultants and LOTE advisers.

	Policy on roles & system guidelines for teacher understanding, training and development	Policy statement on target, aim of program grades taught and why?	Policy statement on ends, outcomes of courses	Policy statement on conditions (situations, structures, culture and environment	Policy statement on means & methods, timetabling	Policy statement on decision making, systemic management
Queensland LOTE Statement (Department of Education, Queensland, 1991)	Teachers to meet language proficiency assessment standards.	Years 1–8 to experience LOTE programs by 2000, for students' intellectual, cultural and economic benefit.	Nil.	Chinese, French, German, Indonesian and Japanese, balance of Asian and European. Students to experience three continuous years of LOTE study.	Immersion model and telelearning method. Cluster method: secondary "visiting" teacher to primary schools, or specialist primary teacher. Qld developed materials to be used.	Language Advisors at LOTE Centre and LACU; Regional LOTE coordinators; local community; principals, professional education bodies and institutions to support LOTE.
Northern Territory LOTE Policy (Northern Territory Teaching Service, 1987)	Teacher qualifications, ASLPR 3. Teacher competencies in the language and training in the method.	All primary students to receive LOTE programs for educational, vocational and cultural heritage benefits.	Students to be regularly assessed to receive indications of their listening, speaking, reading and writing skills.	Aboriginal languages, Indonesian, Italian, French, German, Modern Greek, Japanese and Chinese. Gr. 6–7 students to receive 2 hours of LOTE per week over 2 years (160 hrs).	Teachers to determine the content of their own programs. Teachers to assess and report regularly.	Language advisory services provided to LOTE teachers on the same basis as for other subject areas.
Languages Policy (South Australian Education Department, 1992)	Criteria for the selection and promotion of language teachers will include proficiency both in language use and in language teaching. Department to support teacher professional development through inservice and advisory services here and overseas.	The ultimate goal for all students to have the opportunity at some time during their formal education to learn at least one language other than English for its educational and social value in a multicultural society.	Students to be allowed to learn for a sufficient length of time to enable them to reach initial proficiency in the language, with the ultimate aim of their achieving fluent, appropriate and accurate communication.	Not detailed in Policy, rather in the South Australian LOTEMAPP that year, a strategy for allocating a particular language to a particular cluster of schools, (1992, as cited in Djite, 1994, p. 48).	Integration of languages into other areas is desired, and cross-curricular study should be explored. Continuity of programs between primary and high school a priority.	Schools to ensure leadership and support. Clusters to cooperate. Schools and their communities make the decision to introduce a LOTE. The Education Department responsible for staffing continuity.

When comparing the policy directives for teacher qualifications and training between states, a variety of requirements is evident. Most state policies carried vague stipulations that teachers would be "trained" to meet standards. New South Wales guaranteed teacher training provision and the Northern Territory provided LOTE officers to help the implementation. Only Queensland stipulated the teaching methods that should guide implementation. The Australian Capital Territory was alone in its mention of specific roles and responsibilities for principals.

The level at which schools were to introduce LOTE is, according to the various states' policies, anything between Grades 3 and 6. Appearing earliest, the Northern Territory's policy mentions the primary entry point as Grade 6; New South Wales, Australian Capital Territory and Western Australia mention Grade 3 as the suitable entry points. The goals of Queensland and Victorian LOTE policies were for foreign language learning to be offered to all primary students by 2000.

As regards student learning outcomes, only the Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory made mention of students' skills and learning level outcomes according to the LOTE Profile (Curriculum Corporation, 1994b). Although Queensland's policy mentioned the "immersion" method of delivery (Department of Education Queensland, 1991), it is only the Northern Territory guidelines which stipulated LOTE teachers' full control over the decision-making for their programs. The Australian Capital Territory Policy made mention of the model of provision: Both the primary and secondary programs will be staffed by the same LOTE teacher (ACT Department of Education, 1994).

Concerning systemic administrative support of these LOTE programs, all state and territory systems have made provision for this to be realised through positions created in each jurisdiction, variously titled LOTE Adviser, LOTE Planning Consultant, LOTE Policy Officer or LOTE Coordinator.

3.2.5 Summary of findings from foreign language policy review

The above review of the literature on foreign language education policy suggests that at the time of publication of the Tasmanian LOTE policy (DEA, 1995a), most other states and territories of Australia and in fact, other nations around the world, were including foreign language study in the curriculum for junior to mid-primary level students and were mixed in the amount of explicit details in written policy guidelines. Although there was no evidence of one particular policy including all possible guidelines, there were various policies containing:

- roles for enactors (teachers) and definitions of teaching behaviours, although usually vague and broad-ranging, especially regarding the selection and training of teachers
- the target, including suitable program entry points
- ends (learning outcomes), including guidelines for measurement and evaluation (read also assessment)
- conditions (situations, structures, culture, environment including most suitable amounts of time to dedicate to instruction)
- means and methods for implementation, including suitable materials for use in delivery of the program
- the decision-making process guidelines, although again, vague and broad-ranging (global and local) (Cooper, 1989, p. 98; Spolsky, 1991, pp. 583–585).

The scope and format of these Australian and international policies differed one from another and variously covered:

- choice to students, re languages and time spent on learning, usually in much detail
- continuity and articulation issues, although only briefly mentioned
- only few stipulations of the kinds of language knowledge needed by learners
- an administration structure (for in-service education for teachers, syllabus and materials design), as this links to the funding and thus can be quite specific
- hazy links to evaluation and no links evident to research and development

(Dunlop et al., 1991, p. 555).

According to the policies, foreign language programs were to be implemented for utilitarian reasons, including an intention that the future generations be skilled with a foreign language proficiency, which in turn, may provide economic benefits and to skill people for job enhancement and travel purposes. Particularly for primary levels, the rationale mentioned in policies for foreign language learning rested on more child-focused, child-development reasons, the literature having mentioned links to culture and generic primary style learning methods.

To ascertain whether these trends are evident in classroom implementation and teaching practices within published research literature, the "why", "when", "who" and "how" of foreign language education practices are discussed in this following review of the literature of foreign language programs in practice below in Section 3.3.

3.3 Foreign language education in practice: A review of the literature

Research from the USA and UK (Dunlop et al., 1991; Low, Duffield, Brown & Johnstone, 1993; Met & Galloway, 1992) as well as research reported variously in Johnstone's reviews (1997a; 1997b; 1999a; 2000), has highlighted issues affecting foreign language program implementation. An "estrangement" between foreign language education policy development and classroom practice has been noted by these researchers and this becomes an issue underlying this study (Birckbichler, 1994, p. 178). Birckbichler mentioned the policymakers and their top-down management strategies and attitudes and "[t]eachers . . . [who] resent top-down approaches to policymaking, which excludes them from the decision-making process, and mistrust policies generated by individuals far removed from the classroom" (1994, p. 178).

Much of the literature examined in the following sub-sections is not based on research findings, but rather on anecdotal observations of teachers in their classrooms and the opinions of experienced foreign language teachers and other stakeholders across all levels of schooling (Bernhardt & Hammadou, 1987;

Wallace, 1991). In the particular case of foreign languages in the primary school setting, Met and Galloway's review of the research reports that many of the decisions taken about elementary school foreign language programs are based on what "[s]uccessful elementary school foreign language teachers have long *known* [italics added]" (1992, p. 873).

3.3.1 Why? Scope, aims and choices for primary level foreign language programs in practice

The findings from research on practice show a variety of reasons for schools and/or teachers to be implementing foreign language programs specifically at primary level. These reasons cover issues such as improving language skills, to sensitising students to different cultures. For example, Andreas' study (1994) found that in the southern Bavarian area of Germany there are three aims for foreign language programs in primary schools considered important to teachers: increasing skills in listening comprehension, enjoyment, and promoting an informed attitude to foreigners or foreign cultures. The second and third reasons are closely linked, says Kubanek-German (1998, p. 194). Enjoyment is often intended to blend in with a "sensitization", or developing language awareness to cultivate a respect and intercultural learning between people. These may be termed child-focused, or child-development reasons for implementing primary foreign language programs.

The rationale for early foreign language learning in Scottish schools (Low, Brown, Johnstone & Pirrie, 1995) was based on other factors, yet these factors could also be termed child-focused. According to the perceptions of primary foreign language teachers, who were surveyed regarding their beliefs about the aims of foreign language programs, students are able to develop their ideas and awareness about how language works, and achieve a "KAL" or "knowledge about language", sometimes termed metalinguistic awareness. Teachers reported that students:

- found early foreign language learning is fun, developing a positive attitude early toward the continued study of foreign languages
- excel at pronunciation in the foreign language

- have high scores on language arts and maths standard tests, improving in their listening, speaking, reading and writing skills
- show greater cognitive flexibility, creativity and divergent thinking
- learn that their own language is not the only language in existence
- have an improved self-concept and sense of achievement at school
- develop a sense of openness and appreciation of other cultures

and that these were good reasons for implementing primary foreign language programs. These findings are corroborated by the work of Lipton from the USA (1994) and Vilke from research in Croatian primary schools (1993b).

Similar to both UK and European scenarios described above, Australian research from the mid-1990s found that 96 per cent of teachers responding to a survey regarding the benefits of learning a LOTE at school perceived the possibility of students gaining "openness to other cultures and ideas" as beneficial (Reark Research, 1995, as cited in ALLC, 1996, p. 121). Fewer respondents suggested that foreign language learning "improves Australia's productivity and trade performance", a more utilitarian rationale as mentioned in Section 3.2 as being evident in language policy.

Regarding choice of foreign language, teachers of primary foreign languages are seemingly flexible and not locked into supporting one or other foreign language for political or economic reasons. Some Scottish programs reported being influenced by practical/logistical reasons in the choice of foreign language. Choice of foreign language fell back to decisions at cluster level, identifying schools "in the same geographical area associated with a local secondary school" so that all pupils in a given area would have had a similar linguistic experiences by high school entry (Tierney, 1999, p. 52).

As distinct from the policy stipulations highlighting the political/economic rationale for early foreign language learning, the small amount of research evidence from practice seems to suggest that teachers believe there are more important educational, personal and practical reasons for early learning and choice of foreign language than an emphasis on the possibility of economic and trade

growth which might eventuate from a citizenry proficient in the language of their government and trade partners. Whichever foreign language is chosen for whatever reason, researchers such as Met and Galloway (1992, p. 854) cannot deny there are benefits, and state:

> These personal benefits of foreign language learning that accrue to students may have different implications for curriculum development and instruction than do clearly utilitarian reasons for studying languages.

A discussion about how research has reported views from practice concerning the most suitable starting age for foreign language learning now follows.

3.3.2 When? Age at which foreign languages are being introduced in primary practice

The USA has included foreign language study in the elementary system for more than ten years, as was highlighted in the research literature on foreign language policy in Sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2. Rhodes and Oxford (1988) report on a 1987 survey by the Center for Language Education and Research (CLEAR) funded by the US Department of Education which found that "more than one-fifth (22 per cent) of the responding elementary schools . . . taught foreign languages in the 1986–87 school year" from 1416 elementary schools responding (a 54 per cent response rate) to the national survey. "Twenty-nine percent of the schools included grades K–6 or 1–6", as opposed to fewer schools teaching foreign languages in K–3 or 1–3 (Rhodes & Oxford, 1988, p. 53).

Starting age for foreign language programs in primary schools in Europe seems to be similar to findings from the policy literature as stated in Section 3.2. Occasionally foreign language programs are introduced at school entry (5–7 years), but usually at around junior-primary (7–9 years), although Driscoll (1999b) states that modern language provision in the UK begins at age eleven. Data appearing in the mid-1990s (European Commission, 1995, pp. 36–37) showed that the most common age level for introduction of foreign language programs appears to be around nine years of age for the majority of the Union's countries. Currently all member states of the European Union, except Ireland,

offer primary school foreign language education to some extent, although one report mentioned this being a relatively small proportion of students (European Commission, 1999).

Contextual issues necessitate foreign language programs being implemented at one grade level and not another. Although not based on research findings, Met and Galloway (1992) suggest two reasons for this junior-primary or mid-primary start in the USA. Firstly, there are "administrative" limitations/considerations in adding a foreign language to the curriculum offerings. Considerations such as "curriculum development, teacher availability, program model, language selected, and articulation" (p. 859) are important. Staffing the early year programs with qualified teachers is a drain on the human resource pool available, "the supply of qualified teachers [being] extremely limited" (p. 858). Driscoll (1999b) also notes the "insufficient teachers with appropriate expertise" to teach modern foreign languages in English primary schools. Beginning foreign language study at mid-primary does not require staffing such programs with large numbers of infants/early primary staff with a foreign language proficiency. A strong program of study beginning at mid-primary can feasibly continue on to later stages.

Foreign language curriculum materials development and availability is another related issue affecting the provision of foreign language programs in primary schools. Met and Galloway mention that foreign language curriculum materials suitable for the elementary years have not been commercially available in the past, although this situation is changing (1992, p. 858).

The choice of mid/junior-primary as the optimum entry point to the programs may be because, according to anecdotal evidence collected by Met and Galloway, the foreign language curriculum can be tied to the social studies and values curriculum beginning at this mid-primary level. As "many of the cultural goals of such foreign language programs are consistent with those of the elementary school social studies curriculum" (Met & Galloway, 1992, p. 859), educational planners can see the value of developing positive cross-cultural attitudes and "developing such attitudes as early as possible" (p. 859).

Also regarding mid-primary age levels as the suitable entry point for LOTE learning, by mid-primary stage, at around 8–9 years of age, the students have supposedly learned their first language to a satisfactory level to be able to build on both their knowledge of the foreign language and of their first language. Clyne et al. (1995, pp. 8-9) cite the existence of Australian and overseas research that has found the critical age for language learning is between 8–12 years. Thus mid- to late-primary would appear to be the optimum program entry point for the learning of foreign languages, when children are more able to cope with the various linguistic inputs in their school programs. The student at mid-primary level should supposedly have sufficient "strategic competencies" (Canale & Swain, 1980); that is, students have strategies in their language learning repertoire to be able to find more than one way to express an idea.

While it is not the purpose of this review to explore the growing literature on cognitive development theories and foreign language learning, there is evidence from the research that there are strong reasons in regard to a child's cognitive development that foreign language learning should begin earlier rather than later. Swain and Lapkin's research (1991) underlined strong reasons for instituting early foreign language programs. This research found that children who initially receive their education in their mother tongue learn a second language better and are academically more successful than those without solid foundations in their first language.

Findings from Australian research by Yelland, Pollard and Mercuri (1993) showed that one hour of Italian as a LOTE each week for six months was sufficient to provide the children with significant advancement in their English word awareness when compared to a group of children with no Italian studies. McLaughlin (1992, p. 1) summarised the "critical period" research concerning the brain flexibility of young children compared to adults, yet also cited as much research to prove the contrary (p. 3ff). There is no overwhelmingly convincing evidence that early language learning is more successful than learning during high school years or in adulthood.

With the child development focus behind the rationales of schools and beliefs of teachers implementing primary foreign language programs described from the research literature above, and schools beginning the programs at mid-primary due to practical reasons, teachers then decide how the foreign language will be taught in the primary schools as they undertake curriculum decision-making. What follows in the next section is a review of the literature about the teachers' roles in LOTE curriculum decision-making and how teachers deliver primary foreign language programs.

3.3.3 Who? Teachers delivering foreign language programs: Findings concerning best practice

Research concerning teachers implementing primary foreign language programs is not prolific. The following is a closer look at factors identified in Australian and overseas research as being key issues in teachers' practical implementation of foreign language programs.

Policy has variously stipulated that foreign language teachers would be trained and qualified (see Section 3.2.3). Similarly it is reported in the literature on classroom practice that the successful implementation of primary foreign language education programs hinges on the skills and knowledge of the specialist foreign language teachers (ALLC, 1996; Blondin, Candelier, Edelenbos, Johnstone, Kubanek-German & Taeschner, 1997; Breen et al., 1996; Low, Brown, et al., 1995).

It is assumed, first of all, that the teachers will aspire to undertake best practice in teaching. Although a definition of good practice is arbitrary and "simplifies what is really a complex holistic enterprise" (Barry & King, 1993), the literature from practice suggests that there are certain expectations specific to being a good foreign language teacher; more than possessing good personality traits, good instructional and interactional skills, good organisational skills and extensive, up-to-date knowledge as is outlined below.

As well as noting specific traits of a good primary teacher in any subject area, the researchers below identified the following specific traits for (primary level)

foreign language teachers: knowledge of elementary level instructional methods; an understanding of second language acquisition processes for young children; and, excellent command of the target language (Bernhardt & Hammadou, 1987; Brosh, 1996; Commins, 1996; Low, Brown, et al., 1995; Moskowitz, 1976; North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 1992; Satchwell, 1999; Tierney, 1999; Tucker et al., 1996; Wylie & Ingram, 1995). Also noted is that due to most jurisdictions providing few guidelines of good practice, procedures followed "tend to be based on the experience of teaching MFL in the secondary sector" (Driscoll, 1999b, p. 27).

Although possibly initially intended as a "tongue-in-cheek" reflection on primary foreign language teaching, Myriam Met's article, *Walking on water and other characteristics of effective elementary school teachers* (Met, 1989), likens the realities of primary school foreign language teaching to being as comprehensive as the list of traits above suggests. She argued that elementary school teachers need different knowledge than foreign language teachers at secondary level:

> Knowledge of curriculum development and of the evaluation, selection and preparation of materials is essential at the elementary level since the elementary [foreign language] teacher is frequently the program planner and curriculum developer (Met, 1989, p. 177).

Personal character traits seem all the more important in determining best foreign language teaching practice. Omaggio's work in the USA from the mid-1970s had advocated that effective language teaching is more closely associated with teachers who use personalised practice; that is, teachers who interact in a warm, caring and personalised manner with students in their lessons, creating a more person-centred, communicative environment (Boylan & Omaggio, 1976). Research findings from Australia also accentuated the personal side to teaching: The best foreign language teachers are adventurous; teach in a lively, motivated way; and display strong passion for the language (Breen et al., 1996, pp. 14, 62).

Teachers will reflect on what has worked for them as learners and in previous teaching experiences. They will adopt and adapt strategies for the context of their

current practice. Cray's study (1997), involved interviewing teachers in language classrooms regarding their perceptions of a language policy. She found that teachers relied on their own experience, their own preferences and students' preferences to plan their teaching activities, not necessarily the policy guidelines. Griggs (1998, p. 18) argued that language teachers teach "intuitively", using awareness of their "own true intentions as teachers" from beliefs and attitudes developed over a lifetime.

Bartlett's 1990 model of reflective teaching was adopted by So (1997) to suggest that good language teaching practice is where language teachers critically reflect on decisions about content and delivery of content, assumptions made in the teaching process and adapting and/or adopting alternative practices. So observed one teacher's classroom practices for a year and frequently talked about classroom practice with that teacher. According to So, if the teacher undertakes this explicit reflective practice (p. 585), better teaching is likely to occur.

Having enthusiastic and motivated foreign language teachers to complement and personalise foreign language programs is not only found in recent research. Over twenty years ago the research of Moskowitz (1976), determining characteristics of "outstanding" and "regular" foreign language teachers, discussed university students' and teachers' perceptions of exceptional teachers. Her findings highlighted the importance of non-verbal behaviours of foreign languages teachers in the classroom. Conclusions of this research were that foreign language teaching requires much more than proficiency in the target language. Her work questioned the theory that the "art of teaching" foreign languages can be "observed and described in the concrete terminology of specific behaviours" (Moskowitz, 1976, p. 157). As well as noting language-specific behaviours such as "drills are conducted rapidly," her research picked up on more personalised and crafted behaviours such as "the teachers often smile, praise and joke" (p. 157).

Other research has concluded that it is more than a teacher's non-verbal behaviours which characterises "outstanding" foreign language teachers. Brosh's (1996) findings from research conducted in Israel where 200 language teachers and 406 junior high school students were surveyed, found that the ideal model for

language teaching could be isolated as "knowledge and command of the language" and "the ability . . . to transmit knowledge in a way that is easy to understand and remember", although acknowledging at the same time that "teaching behaviours considered effective in one setting are not effective in the next" (pp. 130–133).

Clearly research on foreign language practice suggests that, as in any subject area, teachers' personal attributes are important for curriculum implementation. Specifically examined now in Sections 3.3.3.1 and 3.3.3.2 are the cases of LOTE specialist teachers and semi-specialist teachers.

3.3.3.1 Qualified, trained, specialist foreign language teachers necessary for implementation

There is an assumption by many educators that a "better qualified" or "trained" teacher will implement a more successful program than an untrained teacher. However, it is a concern found in research that foreign language teachers are not well qualified or that their training needs to continue (ALLC, 1996; Commins, 1996; Low, Duffield, et al., 1993; Nicholas et al, 1993; Tedick & Walker, 1995; Vilke, 1993b). The study by Rhodes and Oxford (1988, p. 55) found that only 26 per cent of the responding elementary schools in their national study of foreign language in the elementary schools reported that all their teachers were certified for foreign language teaching at the elementary level.

Similarly, in their study of 108 primary teachers and 41 secondary teachers of French, German, Spanish and Italian in Scottish schools, Low, Brown, et al. (1995) gathered questionnaire data finding many foreign language teachers' formal qualifications were end-of-school achievements gained more than ten years previously, and many had upgraded their foreign language or methodological skills during short courses. Admitting in the survey responses that these qualifications were not sufficient, teachers cited a need for more knowledge about primary methods, creative approaches to teaching, observing classes and preparation of materials.

When the model for implementation includes a secondary teacher being utilised in the primary sphere, there needs to be specific primary method training. In 1993 in Croatia, Vilke found that the majority of LOTE teachers are trained as secondary language teachers, but additional training was needed to improve their effectiveness in working with primary school children. British research (DES, 1983, para. 27) found that "teachers showed signs of insecurity in the subject being taught," with Thornton concluding that "some primary teachers lack the required knowledge base for teaching the whole curriculum" (1998, p. 10).

Recommendations to emerge from the Scottish pilot project (Low, Duffield, Brown et al., 1993) were for a continuation of the practice of using the secondary foreign language teacher to visit the primary school, pre-service training of intending primary teachers, and in-service training of primary teachers. Tierney's (1999) report on the ten years of primary foreign language education in Scotland provided further details of the Scottish MLPS teacher training programs. Teachers received 160 hours of training contact time spread over a twelve-month period to develop linguistic competence and pedagogical awareness and included a link to practice teaching sessions. Teachers' perceptions of the programme which provided outcome statements according to a competency framework, were positive (Tierney, 1999, p. 54).

A Thai study conducted by Stroupe, Shaw, Clayton and Conley (1998, pp. 20–24) reported on successful training programs for Thai second language teachers which provided:

- opportunities for trainees to feel comfortable with each other
- encouragement for trainees to reflect regularly on what they were learning
- ample time to work together, collaborating to share ideas
- demonstration of techniques and activities where trainees took the role of students
- demonstration of lesson-plan frameworks, giving trainees opportunities to trial in classrooms
- feedback, discussion and evaluation opportunities.

Adequate teacher preparation courses that have an accent on primary teaching methods as well as second language teaching methodologies are suggested in the literature as going part of the way to upgrade foreign language teacher training. A Western Australian report had suggested appropriate teacher preparation courses be established as well as adequate language program mapping as a basis for teacher supply planning and establishment of a language teacher register (Nicholas et al., 1993). Yet there is no evidence that this occurred.

It is apparent, therefore, that foreign language teachers believe more attention should be paid to their pre-service and in-service training and that successful training programmes for LOTE teachers should have the following characteristics:

- training in the foreign language itself, possibly through in-country experiences
- training in primary methods and child growth and development
- training in integration techniques and embedding strategies
- opportunities to reflect on practice, to network, to observe models, and to evaluate.

Interestingly one more theme to be mentioned in this review that has received some attention in the research on best foreign language teaching practice is the issue of cultural awareness proficiencies of foreign language teachers. Australian and overseas research has found that this cultural proficiency was rated as extremely important by teachers and learners in discussions of their perceptions of effective foreign language teachers (Brosh, 1996; Griffiths, 1998). Driscoll (1999b) mentions that specialist foreign language teachers become another "resource in the classroom" (p. 45), especially with their cultural knowledge and expertise.

3.3.3.2 Semi-specialist LOTE teachers: A role for generalist class teachers

Another group of teachers are generalist primary class teachers who also play an important role in the delivery of primary foreign language programs and who are termed semi-specialists by Alexander, Rose and Woodhead (1992) because of their semi-specialisation in a subject area. Driscoll (1999b, p. 29) describes the

UK context where the generalist class teachers "may not have extensive subject knowledge," or linguistic knowledge, fluency or confidence, "but they do have a different kind of professional knowledge to bring to the task
. . . [so that] pupils across a wide ability range understand what is being taught, find meaning in the experience and are stimulated to learn."

According to Driscoll (1999b), generalist class teachers or semi-specialists have intimate knowledge of the primary classroom and usually have primary-specific pedagogic strategies. As well, the generalist class teacher is likely to know about each child's cognitive development, about their personalities and patterns of behaviour (Driscoll, 1999b, p. 46) that in turn can be an aid to curriculum decision-making and implementation.

The UK context distinguishes between specialist and generalist teachers and allows the semi-specialists, who have had in-service training in the foreign language, to implement the MFL curriculum. A specialist MFL teacher is not required to be present when these semi-specialist teachers deliver the MFL curriculum, as occurs in the Tasmanian context to be discussed in Chapter 5.

Surveying the myriad factors above which research suggests are necessary to produce an effective foreign language teacher, it is evident that teachers' proficiency and confidence in the classroom use of the target language is a key element for good practice, yet not the only element needed. To have received substantial training in the foreign language itself, its culture and teaching methodologies is also expected, though not necessarily guaranteed in many countries around the world. As well, a second group of teachers is necessary, according to the research literature on primary foreign language education practice: the generalist class teachers, sometimes the semi-specialists, who also play a role in implementation.

The final related section of the literature to be reviewed in this study is the findings from research on how teachers have negotiated the content and processes of implementing a primary foreign language curriculum. How teachers teach primary foreign languages is discussed below.

3.3.4 How ? Methods, approaches and strategies for primary foreign language teacher decision-making

Stern (1991, p. 574) mentions the difficulties primary level foreign language education has experienced over the second half of the twentieth century in its many attempts at consolidating a place in the curriculum. This relates to the interplay between the many and varied methods, approaches and strategies chosen by teachers to plan content and process for primary foreign language curriculum that are revealed in the following review of the literature.

3.3.4.1 Models of primary foreign language curriculum implementation

After reviewing the practices of foreign language education in the primary sphere in their multinational study, Doye and Hurrell (1997, p. 87) stated that there are various models being adopted to suit the varying contexts of education. These models included:

- integrated foreign language, where the foreign language is linked to other content from related subject areas and is not seen as a separate subject, also termed immersion (Met & Galloway, 1992, p. 857; Rhodes & Oxford, 1988, p. 54), and content-based program type in Australia (Victorian Directorate of School Education, 1995, p. 8)
- separate subject foreign language, language learning and authentic communication as the focus, also termed FLES* in the USA (Met & Galloway, 1992, p. 856; Rhodes & Oxford, 1988, p. 54), and language-as-object program type in Australia (Breen et al., 1996; VDSE, 1995, p. 8)
- linguistic and cultural awareness programs, endeavouring to make students sensitive to other languages and cultures, also termed FLEX in the USA (Met & Galloway, 1992, p. 856; Rhodes & Oxford, 1988, p. 54)
- programs systematically offered in the curriculum, permanently in the timetable and part of the core curriculum
- occasional teaching, block amounts of time devoted occasionally to foreign language, often as an option.

Doye and Hurrell's (1997) analyses of primary level foreign language education yielded equivocal results about the effectiveness of the different approaches which is consistent with the findings of other studies such as Adrain and Wilson (1997); Armstrong, (1994); Clyne et al. (1995); Donato, Antonek and Tucker (1996); Driscoll (1999b); Genelot (as cited in Blondin et al., 1997); and Vilke (1993b).

McColl (2000) mentions that some models are based on "inclusion" theories or allowing all students to experience foreign language programs during their schooling. These models are seen to track a school's "duty to provide students with a course suited to their learning needs" (McColl, 2000, p. 60). They combine a need to group learners, catering to individual differences, within the contextual specifics of individual schools. However, Thornton (1998, p. 6) found that "the generalist class teacher, teaching a fully integrated curriculum, may fit the image of primary practice but is rarely a reality . . . Rather than full integration, the dominant pattern has been 'basics' plus 'the rest,' with the former timetabled for the morning and the later [*sic*] taught as topic work, usually in the afternoons."

This finding is due to contextual variances representing such a huge impacting factor on implementation, and due, as Stern says (1991, p. 574) to context providing different answers to the questions of

- the time necessary to achieve proficiency
- the educational value of foreign language learning at any given stage of the curriculum
- the human and material resources needed to develop quality programs.

What research on primary LOTE practice has highlighted however, is that there are key issues that must be taken into account for effective implementation (Breen et al., 1996, pp. 87ff). Breen et al. termed these issues "crucial conditions," which include

- preparing the ground and initiating gradually
- making a language component of the School Development Plan

- providing a supportive context
- formally recognising the particular circumstances of the primary language specialist
- providing coordination and advice at the local level
- providing continuing professional development

(1996, pp. 87–90).

The exact role of the teacher differs in all model types mentioned above. A model can stipulate the teacher filling a "specialist, drop-in" role—usually a secondary modern foreign language teacher who "drops in" to deliver the foreign language curriculum alongside the generalist class teacher (Jenkins, 1987; Low, 1998). Also there are teachers who fill a "swap over" role: the foreign language teacher is a primary trained teacher with proficiencies and qualifications in the foreign language teaching in two or more classes, and swaps duties in other learning areas (Tierney, 1999, p. 54). Whether the teachers are "specialist peripatetic [itinerant] teachers . . . [or] a generalist who incorporates" foreign languages into the traditional primary curriculum (Driscoll, 1999b, p. 27) is context dependent.

Particularly regarding the issue of workload for peripatetic teachers, Lipton (1992a, p. 67) remembers new FLES curriculum innovation in the sixties where "teachers who were itinerant often taught more than 150 students each day, neither getting to know the students, nor being able to delivery satisfactory programs with such a heavy load." An attempt at reducing this student contact has occurred since that time in the US.

Many of the studies reviewed show how the delivery model best able to achieve the stated purpose, whether delivered by a specialist, a semi-specialist and whether peripatetic or not, is most importantly child-focused. That is, a primary school foreign language program should include progressive development and language building; visualisation and personalisation; learning through play; integrated/embedded features; peer teaching; a holistic approach; an oral interaction focus; reading and writing tasks; teaching based on themes; storytelling; a multi-sensory focus; cooperative discovery learning; games; and be complete with language repetition offering students frequent exposure to the

target language (Doye & Hurrell, 1997; Kubanek-German, 1998; Moore & English, 1998; Rumley, 1999; Satchwell, 1999; Shaaban & Ghaith, 1997; Strupeck & Watson, 1990; Tierney, 1999; Ytreberg, 1997, p. 29), all within a stress-free learning environment.

Studies on the teaching of culture in language programs point to the aims of communicative language teaching, where speakers communicate to make real meaning according to the cultural context for verbal communication between living individuals in real time (Fischer, 1996; Kramsch, 1993; Liddicoat, Lo Bianco & Crozet, 1999). Teaching about the target culture is highly recommended in the aims of the communicative teaching approach (Byram & Doye, 1999). It is a reflective language teaching and learning which is advocated, allowing the learners to focus beyond the language structures to the authentic cultural contexts in which the language is based. Yet it comes with a warning not to paint "the picture of the other culture in broad strokes" leaving the students learning a list of facts (Fischer, 1996, p. 76).

3.3.4.2 Teaching methodologies and teachers' decisions regarding delivery of primary LOTE programs

Miller and Seller (1985, p. 237) point to the fact that there is "a discrepancy in classroom practice from teacher to teacher," and a wide variance in teachers' basic teaching methodologies and pedagogic strategies. Although this may be true, a closer look at the literature on LOTE teaching practices shows certain trends for LOTE teaching strategies and teacher decision-making processes.

Met and Galloway's comprehensive review of foreign language curriculum (1992, p. 860) sees them place a notional divide through the literature, labeling one section of the literature to be that of "foreign language learning as grammatical competence" and the other section "foreign language learning as communicative competence." They point to these as being the two major issues concerning foreign language teaching methodology this century. It is a closer examination of these issues that allows an embarkation point for further study of LOTE teaching strategies.

The first half of the twentieth century was predominantly study of "language [as] grammar rules" (Met & Galloway, 1992, p. 860) where the learning of a foreign language is the memorisation of grammar rules, "verb conjugation, sentence diagramming, verbatim passage translation, and memorization of alphabetized vocabulary lists" (1992, p. 860). A "new orientation" appeared in the second half of the century, an approach "that focused curriculum on an ability to use, that is, to speak, other languages" (Met & Galloway, 1992), which in turn ushered in methods advocating language "functions . . . context, meaning, humanness, verbal and nonverbal forms [and] notions" (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983; Met & Galloway, 1992, p. 861). In essence, there was a "swing . . . from concentration on the form of the language . . . to attention on its content and an emphasis on meaning . . . and real intent to mean . . . and the unconscious acquisition of grammar" (Green, 1991, p. 576). An umbrella term coined to express these various functional methods was "the communicative approach."

It is not the intent of this review to examine the extensive literature on communicative foreign language education as a whole, rather to mention the umbrella term "communicative approach". These contemporary communicative approaches include variations such as the narrative approach (McQuillan & Tse, 1998), Total Physical Response (Vilke, 1993a), the whole language approach (Redmond, 1994), and many others cited in Curtain (1991, p. 324) and Lipton, (1994). However, what will be discussed at length in the following section is research evidence on how communicative programs are constructed by primary foreign language teachers utilising the content and process choices for primary foreign language program implementation within the various models of implementation.

3.3.4.3 *Teacher decision-making vis-à-vis program planning: Evidence from the research on practice*

It is acknowledged that not all practising teachers undertake explicit written planning procedures, yet it is strongly encouraged (Finocchiaro, 1983; Omaggio & Reiken, 1993; Snyder, Long, Kealey & Marckel, 1987) to include evidence of:

- setting of goals (short-term, long-term)
- selection of communicative materials, to include activities with relevant, meaningful vocabulary
- selection of teaching approaches
- lesson planning, to include motivational activities with observable student learning outcomes
- opportunity for students to practice
- design of testing/assessment procedures
- record keeping
- program and teaching evaluation.

As is discussed below, much evidence on primary foreign language teachers negotiating the planning of content and processes in the literature is based on the observations and opinions of teachers and researchers. Decisions for planning foreign language programs seem to focus on decisions about planning around themes or topics (Komorowska, 1997; Muir, 1999; Pesola, 1995; Ytreberg, 1997).

In a large Scottish study, Low, Duffield, Brown and Johnstone (1993) collected data on foreign language programs in twelve secondary schools and their 76 associated primary schools. In the lower grades they found the planning emphasis on whole class teaching was more prevalent than group, pair or individual work. Listening and doing were the foci for primary programs with speaking and writing kept for later years. This emphasis on listening and doing in the early grades is reinforced by the comments of Komorowska (1997, p. 55) whose observations indicated whole group planning for younger aged students learning foreign languages was best focused initially on listening and speaking, developing reading and writing skills later. Yet later work in Australia recommends planning for

multi-level teaching as is found in the work of Commins (1996), involving group work for multi-ability levels of learners.

Eclecticism is a criticism levelled at primary LOTE teachers by Martin (1991) in her Australian research on primary LOTE planning. Ten years after the initial establishment of primary LOTE programs in Victoria, Martin found that there were "difficulties entailed in and generally overcome in the curriculum organisation of the programs, and the need for some objective assessment of the language proficiency of the students" (p. 46). Teachers "used whatever worked or whatever they felt was necessary for their students at a given time" (p. 47).

This eclecticism was evident in the science curriculum innovation study of Saez and Carretero (1998, p. 28). They reported several eclectic-style characteristics of teachers regarding their planning and implementation strategies, including combining the reform with the old curricula "drawing on their experience with the reformed schemes from previous years"; "sometimes being closely committed to their environment, and at other times being only loosely connected"; "resorting to different styles of collaboration with parents"; sometimes using self-made curricular materials and other times "ignoring such sources"; and "promoting or discarding an integrated . . . approach." In fact, they reported the teachers' change of attitude towards the curriculum area and its educational role (1998, p. 31) as a result of the curriculum innovation. Saez and Carretero's conclusion was that "it could not be otherwise" than eclectic (1998, p. 28) as teachers have different backgrounds and "reform is in its initial stages" (p. 28).

Eclecticism, in turn, perhaps eventuates due to the process by which teachers reflect and plan, as discussed in Section 2.5 and the effect of the up-close contexts and the teachers' networks (Burton, 1997).

3.3.4.4 Teachers' decisions regarding resources

Turning to the resources used in teaching languages, Rhodes and Oxford's study in the USA found that 84 per cent of elementary schools responding to their national survey on elementary school foreign language teaching, reported the use

of teacher-made materials, and called for publishers to "start developing much needed textbooks and workbooks for the early grades" (1988, p. 56).

More than ten years later in the UK, Rixon (1999, pp. 126ff) reported on how teachers were utilising both commercially available resources and "locally devised and distributed tailor-made packages" (p. 126) for teaching modern foreign languages across the UK. These resources were accessed (sometimes made available by the jurisdiction) and utilised for the aims of having students develop a language competence, a cultural awareness and a language awareness, to use in class or for use in independent work.

In the Australian study looking at primary LOTE teachers' perceptions of LOTE program implementation, "[t]he most common immediate concern for most of the teachers was material resourcing" (Breen et al., 1996, p. 66). The research team in that study concluded that "resourcing appeared to become a matter of building upon what one already knew about and gradually integrating this into the language program" (p. 67). These Western Australian teachers mentioned their adoption of materials prepared in other Australian states (Queensland and South Australia) and their own creation of flash cards and personally collected materials (p. 66–67).

3.3.4.5 Teachers' decisions regarding assessment and evaluation

Research in the UK by Driscoll (1999b, pp. 27–49) reported findings from an ethnographic study "which featured two contrasting approaches to teaching French in the primary school". She reported "[a]ll teachers carried out continuous, informal assessment integrated into their teaching" (p. 40). Both the specialist foreign language teacher and the generalist class teacher took roles for assessing their students' learning. The specialist teachers were "particularly rigorous" (p. 40): They marked books, gave tests and homework. The generalist class teachers did not adopt such formal procedures. Driscoll reported that "they [generalist class teachers] believed that, because of the fun nature of the programme, formal assessment procedures were unnecessary" (p. 40).

Recent Western Australian research which looked at perceptions of 21 generalist class teachers who completed a training program to teach LOTE in the primary school found that the most frequently mentioned area of concern was assessment and evaluation (Breen et al., 1996, p. 85).

3.3.5 Issues related to LOTE curriculum implementation

Recent research has found that impacting on innovation and adoption of policy are such issues as extent and type of system implementation support; increase in teacher workloads; assessment; economic costs in terms of time and funds; fear of risk-taking, loss and anxiety; timetabling; aims; class sizes; choice of language; articulation with high school programs; shortage of time, funds and teachers; lack of quality materials; inadequate in-service professional development and training; and the personally threatening "opening-up of the system to outside appraisal or accountability" (DES, 1983; McLean, 1982, pp. 203; Morris, 1995; Ridley, 1990; Rhodes & Oxford, 1988; Shanklin & Rhodes, 1989, p. 60; White, 1988, pp. 114–115). Other research showing teachers' concerns for resource needs and resistance to change are clearly evident in the research literature (Ridley, 1990).

A study by Tucker et al. (1996) of 194 students learning Japanese and in-depth interviews with the Japanese teacher herself, is a further example of a recent study which has sought clarification of the many issues implicit in implementation of primary level foreign language programs. In this study, interviews with the Japanese teacher promoted a reflection of her first and second year of teaching. Clearly interspersed through her narrative comments were such issues as:

- the benefit of teachers' reflection processes
- the foreign language program's relationship to the wider school
- the second year of program implementation versus the first problematic year
- classroom behaviour management
- the benefits in the generalist class teacher's participation
- the weight of parents' opinions
- marginalisation of the foreign language in the curriculum.

Concern about students' grammatical competence in the target language is also an issue related to the language education field (Met & Galloway, 1992, p. 860ff). An Australian study (Mangubhai, Dashwood & Howard, 2000, p. 16) reported teachers' anxiety at not being able to teach grammar in a communicative classroom to the extent they would wish. US research too found that tensions exist for language teachers when deciding between getting students to communicate versus getting them to produce grammatically acceptable language (Gersten, 1999).

3.4 Summary of research findings concerning LOTE policy and practice

Foreign language education policy should recognise and contain statements on aims and scope of programs, suitable teaching methods, target learners, teacher training and ends or outcomes of programs. Language policy may variously include guidelines regarding choice of languages and time to be spent on learning; the importance of continuity of language study and articulation of language programs across levels of education; the kinds of language knowledge learners will need to have; an administration structure (for in-service teacher education, syllabus and materials design) including roles for enactors (teachers) and definitions of teaching behaviours; and links to research, development and evaluation.

The scope and format of Australian and international policies reviewed above differed one from another, and variously included a child-centred rationale to balance any political or economic utilitarian aims, goal and scope statements, role descriptions for implementers, qualification-level stipulations for teachers, models of provision options, student learning outcome statements and teaching methodology stipulations.

According to the policy directives examined above, foreign language learning has utilitarian and political/economic aims. Foreign language education policies in Australia and overseas made passing mention that there are "enrichment" benefits

for students learning foreign languages at the personal level, but strongly emphasised the wider perceived benefits of career enhancement and intercultural economic and political communication made easier if personnel have skills in a second language. In the case of Australia, Asian languages were recommended. More personal, child-focused reasons such as cultural awareness or intercultural learning become the aim of many primary foreign language policies.

Yet the majority of evidence from teachers' perceptions of primary foreign language practice suggested that there are benefits to a young child's personal and cognitive development with foreign language study from an early age. Child-focused, child-development reasons are variously cited in the literature as producing benefits for the child learner, such as providing learners with a knowledge about language.

The language policies advocated the junior to mid-primary level as entry points for early age foreign language learning for utilitarian and child-focused, child-development reasons, but the practice reported that junior/mid-primary entry points can also be made for practical/logistical reasons.

Provision of qualified foreign language teachers was suggested in many policies, but a key aspect was that it was an economic consideration (Rubichi, 1995). Policies reviewed made no mention of a role for the generalist class teacher. Policy variously reported that principals and specially trained officers should assist the trained teachers who implement best practice in primary LOTE education. But the practice reported that there is a role for the generalist class teacher and/or a semi-specialist. Systemic support supplied directly through principals and LOTE officers is irregular and complicated by funding issues.

In a small number of policies, communicative language teaching methods—specifically immersion strategies—are suggested. The aim is integration of foreign languages into the primary curriculum. Findings from practice suggest that this will only succeed when the communicative approaches are specifically child-focused and culture based, aided by a generalist class teacher who has an

understanding of and practical experience in primary pedagogy (or a semi-specialist).

Policy stated that teachers will be qualified in both the target language and foreign language teaching method and their qualifications upgraded by training measures should this be necessary to implement foreign language education policy. Yet, data from classroom practice suggested that the foreign language teacher's task of implementing policy requires more than high academic qualifications and good teaching skills. Teachers do not report feeling confident about their level of skills and knowledge (Breen et al., 1996) and research indicates a requirement for a teacher with current language knowledge and proficiency, a passion for the language and generic good teaching skills, including classroom management skills suited to primary level teaching. An ability to justify the existence of, or promote, the subject to the wider school community is also required.

Statements in policies regarding teacher decision-making are rare. There have been claims of eclecticism aimed at the primary foreign language teachers' decision-making and planning processes. Yet research has shown that teachers are increasingly undertaking a degree of systematic program planning, with an underpinning based on their personal and professional beliefs and attitudes, not always affected by policy guidelines.

The study of Tasmanian primary LOTE Policy implementation described in the following chapter, Chapter 4, was aimed at exploring the extent of evidence of all these impacting factors in the Tasmanian context, as well as to give a voice to primary foreign language teachers in Tasmania.

4

Research methodology

4.1 Introduction

During the period February 1996 to December 1998, sixty Tasmanian "on-line" government primary schools implemented LOTE programs. These three years constituted the initial implementation phase of what was a new curriculum policy directive for the Tasmanian Department of Education and consequently became the focus of this study. In order to better understand this implementation and answer the research questions, the researcher collected data to examine LOTE Policy and practice. The research questions to be answered were:

- According to the Tasmanian LOTE Policy (DEA, 1995a), how was LOTE intended to be implemented in Tasmanian primary schools?
- How was LOTE implemented in practice in Tasmanian primary schools? In particular, what strategies did primary LOTE teachers use to implement primary LOTE programs?
- Why did primary LOTE implementation occur as it did?

This chapter presents a description of, and rationale for, the two stages of the research. The processes followed allowed the researcher to collect data to address the above research questions. The stage reported first in Section 4.2.1 involved descriptive survey study research (Isaac & Michael, 1995, p. 50) with the use of a survey instrument to gather data from all primary LOTE teachers implementing "on-line" programs in Tasmanian primary schools. The stage reported subsequently in Section 4.2.2 was based on case study research methodology

(Isaac & Michael, 1995, p. 52) with the aim of obtaining observational and interview data to illustrate three primary Indonesian teachers' perceptions of implementation. It was not intended that the three cases be seen as best practice or exemplary programs; rather three examples of program implementation shedding light on trends in teachers' beliefs and the kinds of strategies teachers were using to implement programs. These data were supplemented by document analyses of relevant LOTE Policy documents.

The conceptual framework introduced in Chapter 1, and expanded and explained in Chapter 2, framed the data collection. Aspects within the framework, which were formulated during the literature review, provided the concepts around which the data collection instruments were planned and developed. The conceptual framework is repeated in Figure 4.

The key concepts considered during the stages of planning and design of data collection were:

- details of Policy, contained in the Policy document (DEA, 1995a)
- "system" management influence, including system planning for student learning outcomes, resource provision and human resources
- the primary LOTE teachers' decision-making as regards content and delivery strategies
- the primary LOTE teachers' understandings, beliefs and attitudes towards primary LOTE education
- training provided to primary LOTE teachers to maintain and/or upgrade their qualifications
- the primary LOTE teachers' interactions with the "up-close" community of other primary LOTE teacher colleagues.

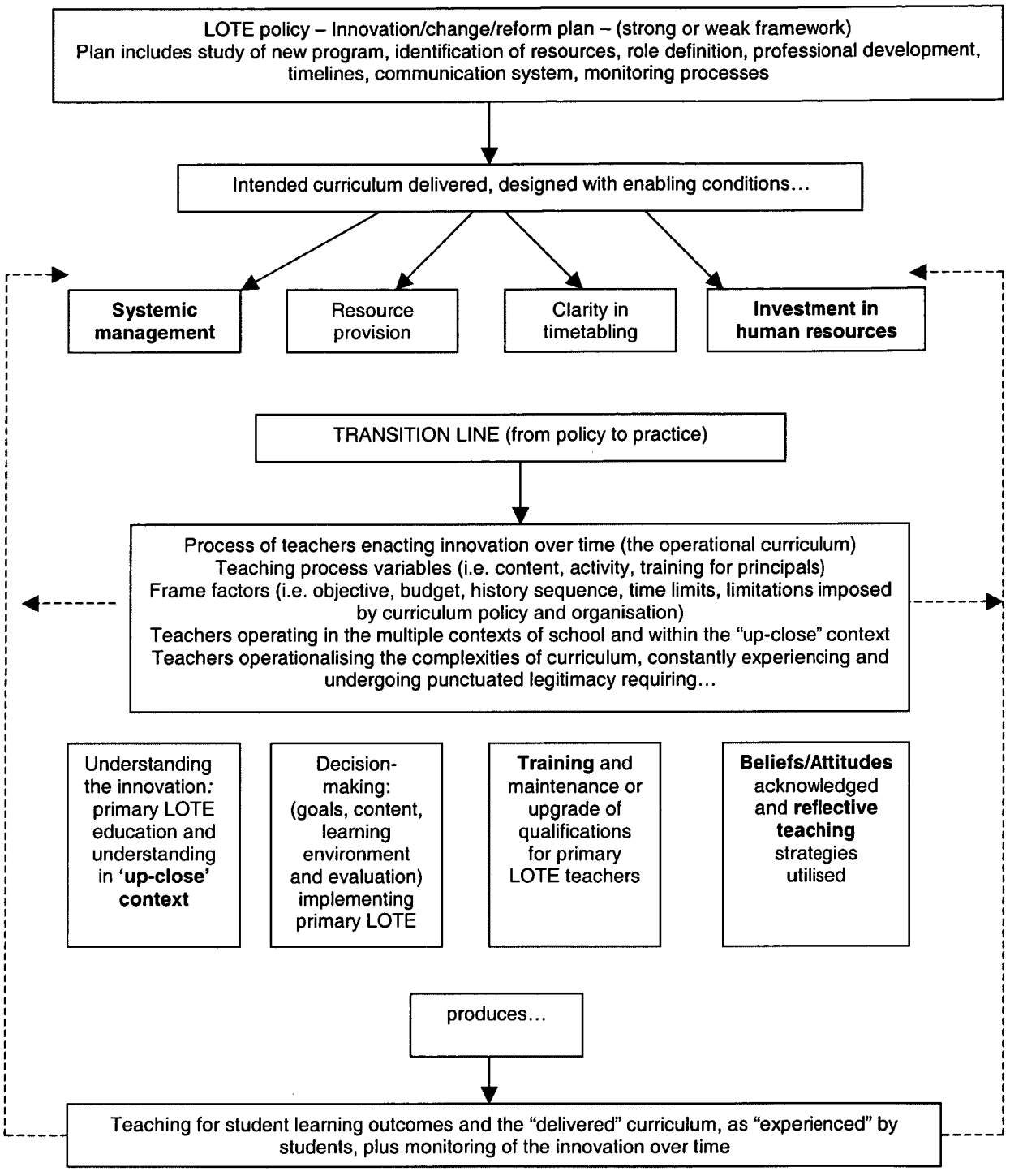

Figure 4: A conceptual framework for LOTE teachers enacting curriculum policy innovation (adapted from Fullan, 1991a; Fullan & Park, 1981; Gold, 1999; Kallós & Lundgren, 1979; McLaughlin, 1998; Miller & Seller, 1985; Oberg, 1991; and Thornton, 1988).

4.1.1 Ethical procedures

Following the maxim "respect for democracy, respect for truth and respect for persons" (Bassey, 1999, p. 73), ethical guidelines were drawn up in the early stages of this research. These guidelines helped define the researcher's actions and covered:

- the seeking of approval from authorities and from collaborating teachers
- ensuring the accuracy, confidentiality and anonymity of data
- secure storage of data (hard and electronic copies).

Recognising that the observation and interviewing of three primary LOTE teachers would perhaps involve them "opening up" and divulging confidential information, the following considerations, as listed by Patton (1990, p. 356) were kept in mind as general underpinning rules of conduct:

- promises were kept (transcripts of interviews were forwarded for comment and an interim report on findings was distributed for all teachers participating in the research—letter to respondents, dated 18 May 1999—see Appendix N)
- risks were assessed, and at no stage were the collaborating teachers put in an ethically difficult position at having confided aspects of their experiences of primary LOTE implementation
- confidentiality was ensured and honoured
- statements of informed consent were obtained from the three teachers participating in the second part of the study
- clear indications were provided to teachers as to how the case study data would be utilised in the final reporting process.

In accordance with the regulations for enrolled students in Research Higher Degrees at the University of Tasmania, an application was made to the University of Tasmania Ethics Committee in late 1996 for approval to conduct an investigation involving human participants (see Appendix C). An Information Sheet, containing specific detail about the nature and scope of the study, was provided to the three LOTE teachers who then signed the Statement of Informed Consent, agreeing to participate in the investigation, understanding they

could withdraw at any time without prejudice (Appendix D). They also agreed that research data gathered for the study may be published provided the report was clear that their identities could not be established. Approval was granted to conduct the study in a letter from the Chair of the University Ethics Committee (Human Experimentation) in early 1997 (see Appendix E).

Similarly, an application for permission to conduct research in Tasmanian Government Schools was submitted to the Department of Education and the Arts through the Superintendent (Professional Development) in late 1996. On 13 November 1996, permission was granted by the Deputy Secretary (Education) to conduct this research (see Appendices F and G).

For the survey, anonymity was guaranteed and the surveys were not identifiable. Files (hard and electronic copies) containing the demographic and attitudinal data of respondents were kept in secure, locked filing cabinets and in secure, locked files on the researcher's personal computer.

Cover letters explained the purposes of the study to both principals and LOTE teachers and reassured respondents that confidentiality was guaranteed and results of the study would be made available (see Appendices I and J).

To ensure anonymity, a pseudonym was given to each of the three Indonesian teachers participating in the research. Once observational and interview data were obtained during the data collection phase, transcripts of every interview were shown to the three teachers.

Finally, once these interview data were written up into narrative form, these "stories" were shown to the three teachers seeking their approval to use excerpts of the stories in the report of the findings.

During the whole process, copies of observational and interview data existed in both hard and electronic format. These were stored both in secure, locked filing cabinets in the researcher's office and in secure, locked files on the researcher's

personal computer. These data will remain in this format for a period of five years (as per University of Tasmania requirements) at which point hard-copies of data will be shredded and electronic data files will be converted to storage on a single CD-ROM and remain in the researcher's locked storage cabinet.

4.2 Conducting the study

The phenomenon forming the focus of this study was the implementation phase of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy (DEA, 1995a). In particular, the focus was the teachers' negotiation of this curriculum implementation process and how they taught LOTE in Tasmanian government primary school classrooms in grades 3–5 during the initial three years of the policy implementation. To examine this phenomenon, data were collected from all Tasmanian "on-line" primary LOTE teachers through a survey and from detailed studies of three primary Indonesian teachers. The quantitative and qualitative methods and the data analysis procedures for both methods are described in Sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 below.

4.2.1 The survey

The researcher collected survey data from the total population of primary LOTE teachers throughout Tasmania through a census survey (Rosier, 1997, p. 154). These survey data were collected to provide generalised descriptive data concerning primary LOTE implementation throughout the state based on the three research questions guiding the study. Data collected showed the impact of, and issues surrounding, policy implementation.

4.2.1.1 Survey data collection

The survey instrument was designed in two parts. The first explored the following areas identified in the literature review:

- LOTE teacher understandings of Policy
- LOTE teacher decision-making

- LOTE teacher perceptions of best practice
- LOTE teacher beliefs and visions for primary LOTE education

and was based on an "attitudes" type of survey instrument (Rosier, 1997, p. 157), measured "by setting out a range of statements on a topic, and asking the respondents to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statements" (Rosier, 1997, p. 157) (see Appendix H). Table 3 lists the items contained in the first part of the survey.

Table 3: Issues in primary LOTE education distilled from the literature.

Item	Statements
1	I feel I am a competent primary LOTE teacher.
2	I teach LOTE the same way I was taught my first LOTE/foreign language.
3	Within my primary classroom I believe I have mastered the LOTE I teach.
4	Learning a LOTE is beneficial for all students.
5	Looking at all of the classes where I teach, I would say that the class teachers totally support my LOTE teaching.
6	My LOTE program is a success.
7	My LOTE program is fully supported by the whole school.
8	Teaching primary LOTE has required me to add new teaching techniques to my teaching repertoire.
9	I understand about the majority of procedures and strategies in my LOTE planning.
10	I am clear about assessment and evaluation procedures for primary LOTE.
11	The environment I create in my LOTE lessons is an enriching one.
12	My students use their LOTE in the LOTE classroom most of the time.
13	In my classroom I place great emphasis on students' demonstration of acquired learning.
14	Overall, during LOTE lessons, I place greater emphasis on students' written than spoken outcomes.
15	I am fully conversant with the aims and the content of the LOTE policy.
16	I agree totally with the aims and the content of the LOTE policy.
17	I believe that in reality, the most effective way of meeting the needs of students learning LOTE is to provide a specialised LOTE teacher who teaches nothing else but LOTE in a number of schools.
18	I utilise the information technology package provided to "on-line" LOTE programs as much as possible.
19	After my LOTE lessons I reflect on everything I do to improve my teaching.

Respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement or otherwise (strongly agree, somewhat agree, disagree, not applicable) with the 19 items. The use of a survey was a convenient method for the researcher to gather data from the population of Tasmanian teachers implementing primary LOTE programs in "on-line" government primary schools. The decision was made to adopt what was essentially a 3-point attitude scale (strongly agree, somewhat agree, disagree)

in order to provide an initial quantitative "feel" for each item. Issues were able to be explored in more meaningful and qualitative terms with analysis of an open-ended response section in the survey. The open-ended question was added to each item within each theme where teachers could add further written comments to expand upon their responses to the "attitude" Likert items (Alden, 1998).

The second part of the survey included a further 23 items seeking demographic data from respondents and was based on a "background/characteristics" type of survey instrument (Rosier, 1997, p. 157), seeking "a range of personal, social, economic and demographic measures that are typically used as explanatory variables in research on educational outcomes" (p. 157) (see Appendix H). These items were pre-coded to allow statistical analysis at a later stage.

Likert items, open-ended responses and demographic data representing these teachers' personal data and perceptions formed "data items" (Bassey, 1999, p. 85) and were stored, each with a locatable reference.

4.2.1.1.a Piloting the draft survey

The draft survey was piloted within a two-week time frame with the three Indonesian teachers who had agreed to participate in the stage of the research reported in Section 4.2.2. This trialing of the survey instrument allowed "revising the structure or wording of the survey" (Rosier, 1997, p. 157) and allowed "the opportunity to check that the respondents understand the meaning of the questions or statements" (Converse & Presser, 1986, cited in Rosier, 1997, p. 157), as well as ensuring adequate reliability and validity checks.

These LOTE teachers not only responded to the survey items, but also commented on the structure and format of the survey itself, providing important insights which were used to revise the draft document. Initially Items 15 and 16 comprised one item, Item 15. However, the pilot data (teachers' reactions to the item) highlighted the fact that the two aspects may elicit different responses. Thus a decision was made to separate the two items as Items 15 and 16.

4.2.1.1.b Survey distribution procedures

Surveys were distributed to fifty primary LOTE teachers implementing "on-line" LOTE programs in the sixty Tasmanian government primary schools in August 1998. Surveys were mailed to the Principals of the "on-line" primary schools, with a cover letter advising principals of the study and requesting them to pass the survey on to the LOTE teacher in the school (see Appendix I). Another cover letter to the LOTE teachers themselves was appended to the survey pages, explaining the aims of the research and requesting their cooperation in completing the survey (see Appendix J). A large, stamped, self-addressed envelope was included for the completed responses to be returned to the researcher.

Not all of the responses having been received by the nominated date two weeks later, a reminder letter was sent to the primary principals and LOTE teachers (see Appendix K). This reminder letter introduced the research again (due to the anonymous nature of the surveys, the researcher did not track which surveys were received and a reminder letter was sent to the complete list once again), and reminded those who had not responded that surveys would continue to be accepted. This elicited the return of further surveys over a period of two months. Only two teachers requested second surveys, not being able to explain the disappearance/loss of the original.

4.2.1.1.c Response to survey

Figure 5 shows the gender of respondents to the survey.

A response rate of 80% was recorded, which is a high response rate for surveys. Forty teachers, 83% female (n = 33) and 17% male (n = 7) responded to the survey. Eleven primary LOTE teachers chose to identify themselves to the researcher.

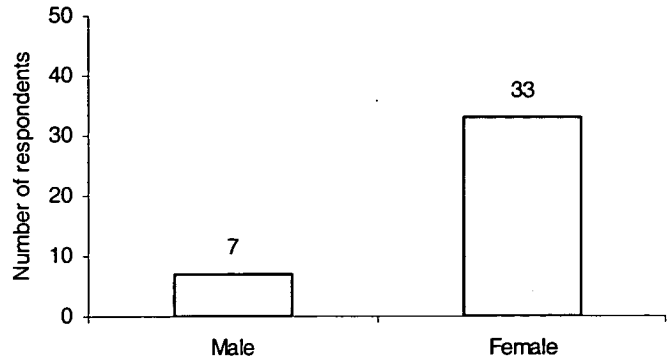

Figure 5: Number of respondents replying to the survey by gender ($N = 40$).

4.2.1.2 Data processing

After collection of the survey data, these data were prepared, checked and verified using the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* [SPSS] (SPSS Inc., 1999) procedures and processed for subsequent analysis (Rosier, 1997, p. 159).

The data were first analysed using the Frequencies program. These descriptive data were examined and the results of this examination are presented in Chapters 5 and 6.

To test whether the first 19 items of the survey instrument could be reduced to a smaller number of scales, the SPSS Factor program using the oblique rotation was run. Unfortunately, the produced factors could not be meaningfully interpreted for subsequent data analyses, so it was decided not to identify any scales from these 19 items. Correlational analyses were made of background data, but no significant correlations were found among variables, which was unexpected. Correlations of background variables were conducted against each of the teaching variables in turn, as follows:

Variable A:	LOTE Model of Provision (semi-specialist; semi-specialist visiting; visiting; peripatetic; other; none)
Variable B:	Teacher's LOTE teaching qualifications
Variable C:	LOTE currently taught by the teacher in the primary context
Variable D:	Teacher's strong agreement with statement "I feel I am a competent primary LOTE teacher"

Variable E: Teacher's strong agreement with statement "Teaching primary LOTE has required me to add new teaching techniques to my teaching repertoire"

Variable F: Teacher's strong agreement with statement "The environment I create in my LOTE lessons is an enriching one"

Variable G: Teacher's strong agreement with statement "My students use their LOTE in the LOTE classroom most of the time"

Variable H: Teacher's strong agreement with statement "I believe that in reality, the most effective way of meeting the needs of students learning LOTE is to provide a specialised LOTE teacher who teaches nothing else but LOTE in a number of schools"

Variable I: Teachers in either rural or urban contexts.

As well, the following correlations were analysed:

- LOTE teacher's perception of their reflective nature with their self judgement of teaching competence;
- LOTE model of provision with parent support;
- LOTE teacher qualification levels and parent support;
- LOTE teacher's experience teaching primary LOTE and parent support;
- Location of LOTE program (urban or rural) and parent support;
- LOTE teacher's agreement or otherwise with aims and content of policy and parent support;
- LOTE teacher's emphasis of demonstrations of acquired learning and parent support

Cross tabulations were made on these variables:

- Teachers' self-judgements of their competence at primary LOTE teaching with their perceptions that they learned their first LOTE with a cultural component
- Teachers' indication of a belief they create an enriched LOTE learning environment with indications of having learned their first LOTE from a native speaker or not

The open-ended written responses were transcribed and responses were manually coded according to key terminologies and descriptors that were mentioned in the teachers' responses as per this alphabetical list:

Ad = Administration; A = Assessment;

B = Benchmarking; BM = Behaviour management;

C = Cultural; CL = Cultural Literacy; Cl = Classroom; CLT = Communicative; Cur = Curriculum;

CT = generalist class teacher;

DCF = daily classroom functions;

Ex = Experimental;

F = Funding;

G = Grammar teaching; Gl = Global;

I = Integrating; IC = in-country experience;

KAL = Knowledge about language;

L = Language; LT = Lack of time; LP = Lack of Proficiency; Li = Listening;

Mat = Materials; M = Methodology; ML = Multi-level;

N = reference to own personal narrative; NN = near native competency;

P = Planning; Pm = primary methodology; Pr = Principals; Ps = Parents;

Rd = Reading; R = Reflection process; Rep = Reporting;

S = Secondary; Sp = Specialist; Sp = Spoken;

T = Technology; TC = Teacher centred; Tco = Teacher Collaboration/networking; Ts = Tests;

Vi = Viewing; V = Vocabulary;

Wr = Written

The coding allowed similar responses to be compared to explore further the themes vis-à-vis the research questions.

To identify the "punctuated legitimacy" (Gold, 1999) alluded to in the literature reviewed on curriculum change in Chapter 2, further manual coding of the open-ended responses to the survey response items was undertaken.

The researcher read and re-read all written responses throughout the 40 surveys for each of the 19 response items. Knowing that teachers are renowned for framing their life situations with the use of metaphor (Cameron & Low, 1999, p. x; Taylor et al., 1984, p. 5), there was a simple surface identification and description of all possible instances of similes, idioms and metaphors in a "first trawl" through the data (Cameron & Low, 1999, p. 116). These were then "examined from the perspective of the discourse context, including likely knowledge and assumptions of participants" (p. 116). The researcher then worked through survey data recognising the semiotic value of the language (Henning, 2000, p. 8) in teachers' use of metaphors. Using an "informed intuition," that is, knowing about the people and area studied (Low, 1999, pp. 49–50), the researcher set up identification criteria specific to "peaks and troughs" categories, following the Transition Curve theory cited in Breen et al. (1996).

4.2.2 Further research procedures

Data were also collected from three teachers of Indonesian programs in "on-line" government primary schools. As far as was possible, the study of three primary Indonesian teachers was undertaken in "natural conditions" (Brown & Dowling, 1998, p. 166) and the "interactional phenomena", characteristic of case studies, were examined in their own context (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995, p. 316).

The researcher adopted a number of roles in order to undertake studies of the teachers (Stake, 1995), primarily becoming an evaluator, assessing the merits of the programs and perceptions of the primary LOTE teachers. Simultaneously, other roles fulfilled included consultant, providing advice at interview periods, and narrator, working with the teachers' biographies.

As discussed in Chapter 2, teachers play a pivotal role in enacting policy (Fullan, 1991a), and reliable collection of data from teachers can portray accurate pictures of processes in their daily work. Bassey (1999, p. 1) claimed that such research procedures allow "a prime strategy for developing educational theory which illuminates educational policy and enhances educational practice." The three teachers studied provided information about "a unique picture of the implementation of . . . curriculum as well as of innovations in particular contexts" (Saez & Carretero, 1998, p. 29). Thus, the study of these primary LOTE teachers in their schools while implementing the Tasmanian LOTE Policy may be later used by policy developers to develop new theory and evaluate existing practices (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995).

To select the teachers, the prime requirement was that the schools were receiving the "on-line" funding package and within a cluster of schools offering the guaranteed pathway for language learning (DEA, 1995a). The teachers were chosen because of the target language being Indonesian, a language in which the researcher is proficient. This proficiency meant the researcher had access to the language of the classroom and therefore access to more of the teachers' planning and curriculum delivery procedures. The three teachers were from urban

Tasmanian schools in the first year of official LOTE curriculum implementation in government primary schools, thus representing individual perspectives and perceptions of initial LOTE curriculum implementation. Selection was not made in order to represent teacher similarities or differences in implementation.

Aspects of this research were:

- establishment of links to the chronological documenting of events from the initiation stage (the lead-up years 1994 and 1995, through the formulation of the LOTE Policy in October 1995 (see also Chapter 1, Section 1.4.2)
- a focus on, and description of, three primary LOTE teachers, key players in the implementation of the Tasmanian LOTE policy, including their curriculum delivery, their beliefs about foreign language teaching and learning, their perceptions and stories, all of which capture a "richness" in the situation (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995, p. 317)
- the detailing of the relationship and involvement of the researcher and the cases (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995, p. 317).

4.2.2.1 Three cases of primary LOTE provision

As Carless found (1998, p. 357) in his work on English teachers enacting new policy, qualitative research methods are particularly suited to curriculum innovation research (Werner & Rothe, as cited in Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery & Taubman, 1995, p. 59) where descriptions of situations and the links between situations and the larger context are implied. A case is studied in depth along with observation and interview (Stenhouse, 1988, p. 49) to allow the researcher and collaborating teachers to visit and revisit implementation issues over a period.

In this way, time is available for both participant and researcher to build up a clearer picture of the data that will inform the research. Such was the intention of this researcher using the data from three primary Indonesian teachers to illuminate the survey data concerning teachers implementation of primary LOTE programs in Tasmanian schools. Evaluative studies like this are intended to provide curriculum decision-makers with clear information to enable policies to be judged or amended (Stenhouse, 1988, p. 49).

The three collaborating Indonesian teachers were Sandy (Teacher 1), Rhonda (Teacher 2) and Jodie (Teacher 3).

4.2.2.1.a Data collection using qualitative methods

The techniques utilised to obtain data from the three teachers involved:

- **observation** (non-participant observation) of primary LOTE teachers in action in classrooms, noting observable LOTE teaching behaviours which attend to the teaching and learning of the language macro-skills (listening, viewing, speaking, reading and writing)
- **interviews** with the three primary LOTE teachers, deconstructing the LOTE teaching procedures which were recorded during observation sessions, and allowing these teachers to reflect on the meanings of these observations according to their beliefs and attitudes towards primary LOTE education
- **document analysis from Policy and planning documents** available to teachers implementing primary LOTE programs which were evident as support documents in this primary LOTE teaching.

Analyses of these three sources of data have allowed the researcher to establish findings about how primary LOTE teachers have negotiated curriculum innovation. Those three data collection methods will be explained further in the following sections.

4.2.2.1.b Observations of primary LOTE teachers' behaviours

With a major objective of this research being to explore how primary LOTE teachers were translating LOTE Policy into practice, it was necessary to collect interview data about their classroom practices. However, some doubt was placed upon interview data reliably providing information about practice, as research has found that in some contexts there is a "discrepancy between teachers' classroom practices and their expressed attitudes" (Karavas-Doukas, 1996, p. 193).

Consequently in this study of primary LOTE teachers, the collection of classroom data about teachers' observable teaching behaviours allowed information to

be collected regarding classroom practice procedures. Systematic observation of classroom activities and interactions provided an accurate description of selected features focused upon by the researcher (Croll, 1986, p. 9). When interviewed, subsequent to the observation of classroom practice sessions, the three primary LOTE teachers and researcher had tallies of behaviours to allow reflection and analysis, enabling statements about teaching practices to be made by both teacher and researcher.

The "sensitizing concepts" orienting and underpinning this observation, classified by Patton (1990, p. 217) into five dimensions of approaches to observations included:

- the role of the researcher as "onlooker"
- overt observations, where staff and students know that observations were being made and who the observer was
- full explanation of the purpose of the observations to the three collaborating teachers, necessitating only partial explanation of the purpose of the observations to the students in the primary LOTE classrooms who were interacting with the teachers
- long-term, multiple observations, which took place over a period of months
- neither narrow nor broad focus; rather a focus on elements of primary LOTE teacher behaviours which represented more than observing one component of the classroom, yet not the entire range of activities and phenomena.

An observation schedule, entitled "Event sampling observation" and an accompanying Tally sheet (see Appendices L and M), were developed to record teachers' LOTE teaching behaviours. The observation schedule was based on categories representing types of behaviour observed (Simon & Boyer, 1970, p. 6). The types of "expected" primary LOTE teaching behaviours were a blend of the following classes of teaching behaviours (p. 7): activity, content and sociological structure.

The schedule design was gleaned from a review of the literature (see Chapter 3) and also informed by variables noted by Croll (1986, pp. 20–33), the

Flanders' Interaction Analysis Categories (Simon & Boyer, 1970; also cited in Croll, 1986, pp. 39ff and in Moskowitz, 1976, p. 139), and the Foreign Language Interaction (FLint) system designed by Moskowitz (Simon & Boyer, 1970).

Firstly, the language teaching activity was coded in the schedule focusing on "recording the activities in which people are engaged" (Simon & Boyer, 1970, p. 13). Secondly, the content was coded focusing on "what is being talked about" (p. 13). Thirdly, the sociological structure was coded focusing on determining "who is talking to whom . . . the number of people interacting" (p. 14).

Teachers in "communicative" LOTE classrooms were "expected" to be demonstrating teaching behaviours which catered to the listening, speaking, viewing, reading and writing behaviours of their students (Curriculum Corporation, 1994b; Met & Galloway, 1992; Vale, Scarino & McKay, 1991). These skill categories complemented what the researcher had found in Flanders' dichotomy of teacher talk and pupil talk (Simon & Boyer, 1970) and the FLint system with its inclusion of non-verbal dimensions (Simon & Boyer, 1970), and were thus included in the design of this primary LOTE teacher behaviour observation schedule.

The systematic observation procedures involved in utilising this observation schedule and designed by the researcher to classify phenomena concerning primary LOTE teacher classroom behaviours were explicit in their purposes, rigorous in their definition of categories, rigorous in their criteria for classifying phenomena into categories and produced data in quantitative form (Croll, 1986, p. 5).

The observational data were collected in two stages:

- observation of teaching behaviour and (tally) coding of the observable teacher behaviours at 20-second intervals
- noting descriptions of the teachers' behaviours between the predetermined 20-second tallying/coding time limits (a form of "memoing" as mentioned in Miles & Huberman, 1984).

Figure 6 illustrates the procedure for the recording of observable primary LOTE teacher behaviours, a procedure which was repeated every 20 seconds during (mostly) 45-minute LOTE lessons.

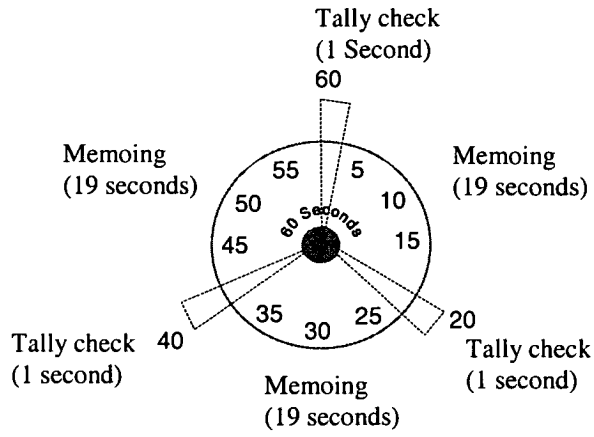

Figure 6: Observation tally procedure

The instrument was designed to quantify and describe the main behaviours of the LOTE teacher in the LOTE classroom at regular intervals during class time. Percentages for each behaviour were easily calculated soon afterwards. These main behaviours were:

- listening; where the researcher observed that the teacher is listening to students
- speaking; where the researcher observed that the teacher is either speaking questioning, speaking answering, speaking explaining, speaking praising, or speaking consolidating
- viewing; where the researcher observed that the teacher is showing a visual cue to students, allowing students to view language learning materials
- reading; where the researcher observed that the teacher is reading with or reading to or reading silently to him/herself
- writing; where the researcher observed that the teacher was writing on the board, writing on students' work or checking written work samples.

The 48 different categories of teacher behaviours shown in Appendices L and M eventuated from combining the broader categories of LOTE teaching macro-skills isolated from the literature review (listening, speaking, viewing, reading and

writing) with notes on interlocutors and the locations of the teachers when they were teaching, for example the teacher was observed working alone, working with individuals, in small groups or in whole class situations. Also recorded and specified were other activities likely to be encountered in the primary LOTE classroom, for example singing, dancing, watching a video.

General remarks were also noted on the physical classroom environment, materials and resources used, mood of class, pupil mobility around room, interruptions, and nature of tasks. These data were taken in summary form, also termed "memoing" (Miles & Huberman, 1984, p. 69), in between the 20-second behavioural tally checks.

4.2.2.1.c Piloting the observational instrument

For a period of three weeks during the pilot phase of the research, the researcher tested the observation schedule in Sandy's classroom. Initially the observation schedule was developed to collect data at 60-second intervals. Soon after the pilot began, the interval was reduced to 30 seconds, then 20 seconds. The more frequent tally checks produced richer data showing a fuller picture of the multi-faceted nature of primary LOTE teaching. Along with the tally check at these points in time, the researcher also kept a running record of qualitative observational notes on, for example, use of resources, seating patterns, task-related observations, class mood and the presence/absence of the generalist class teacher—the "memoing" mentioned in the previous section.

This piloting involved developing familiarity with the use of the instrument, improving the reliability of the data and ensuring that the data recorded were valid representations of the classroom activities. The reliability and validity checks were undertaken after the LOTE lessons whereby the researcher firstly reviewed the data and secondly discussed the meaning of the data with the teacher. It is believed, as the categories were behaviourally defined, the observational data were reliable and validly represented the teacher behaviours that are one focus of this study.

Once the researcher had developed skill with the use of the observational schedule and was able to collect reliable and valid data, the observational data were collected from the classrooms of the three teachers during scheduled LOTE class times, usually following the same class through the three 45-minute classes each week. These sessions were nominated by the teachers participating in the study.

Table 4 shows the number of observational sessions undertaken for Sandy, Rhonda and Jodie.

Table 4: Total number of observation sessions for Sandy, Rhonda and Jodie.

	Teacher 1 Sandy	**Teacher 2 Rhonda**	**Teacher 3 Jodie**
No. of lessons observed	20	12	3
Observation period	(Pilot) Nov. & Dec. 1996 (Main study) June to Sept. 1997	July to Sept. 1997	Oct. & Nov. 1997

The most observations were made in Sandy's LOTE lessons. This included the pilot period when the researcher trialed the observational instrument. In the case of Jodie, the number of observations was specifically restricted. Jodie later confided that her anxiety in being observed was the reason for this restriction.

Data from the observations were stored as separate data items, like the survey data, each with a locatable reference.

4.2.2.1.d Using the observational instrument in classrooms

The observation data were collected using the following procedures.

- Initial written notes were recorded upon beginning each observation session. These included teacher and school code (teachers and schools given a pseudonym to protect their real identities), date, time, topic, number in class by gender, and number of years class had studied LOTE. The researcher conducted observations on the demographic items while the class were settling in to the lesson. The researcher sat towards the back of the classroom

with a clear view to the LOTE teacher, who was usually moving around groups during the main activity or exercise in the lesson.

- The researcher tracked the behaviours of the LOTE teacher according to the coding/tally checks at the intervals prescribed. The tallies were made on pre-prepared schedule A4-size sheets (see Appendices L and M). The researcher utilised a digital wrist-watch programmed to beep at 20-second intervals and recorded the tally against the behaviour(s) at that time indicator. This audio beep signal allowed the researcher to continue to watch the teacher's behaviours without having to "watch the clock."
- Explanatory notes in the form of descriptive data, also termed "memoing" or adding "reflective remarks, marginal remarks" (Miles & Huberman, 1984, p. 69) were written in between the 20-second tally-check times.
- As the teachers moved to the next classroom, the researcher used the time needed to travel between classrooms to check on lesson details and seek clarification on related aspects of each lesson with the teachers.

At the end of each lesson, the result of the data collection was a tally of LOTE teaching behaviours with accompanying descriptive notes/memos.

4.2.2.1.e Analysis of observational data

Croll (1986, p. 8) notes that systematic observational research can show "statistical regularities in patterns of behaviour and interaction" and should be further investigated. In precisely this manner, the tally data collected from observing the three primary LOTE teachers in action in their classrooms were applied immediately to allow the researcher and LOTE teacher to reflect on the procedures and activities in LOTE classrooms. These tally data provided stimulus material to structure the semi-formal interviews that followed each observation session. In this way, the reporting of the event allowed researcher and teacher to come to an understanding of the meaning of the events (Croll, 1986, p. 8).

During the data analysis phase it was concluded that the main goal of using the observational data to stimulate interview questions had been achieved.

A remaining use for the tally data would be to indicate similarities or differences in the teachers' LOTE teaching behaviours. Later a decision was made to report three key phases of the teachers' behaviours during their respective LOTE units of work: data recorded at the beginning of the unit of work; data recorded at the mid-point in a LOTE unit of work; and data recorded at the end of the unit of work. The differentiation of these three periods in a LOTE unit of work would allow a clearer picture of LOTE teaching behaviours over the period of a unit of work.

Data from the "memoing" procedure (described in Section 4.2.2.1.b), that is, the descriptive observational notes taken between the 20-second tally checks of LOTE teacher behaviours, were coded after a content analysis and sorted into chronological order. This content was organised into themes following the themes highlighted in the survey instrument including:

- LOTE teacher understandings of Policy
- LOTE teacher decision-making
- LOTE teacher perceptions of best practice
- LOTE teacher beliefs and visions for primary LOTE education.

Reflection about the data items led to analytical statements of emerging trends being made (Bassey, 1999, p. 85) which further represented issues inherent in primary LOTE implementation.

4.2.2.2 Interviews with primary LOTE teachers

Upon completion of observation sessions, or at a convenient time soon after, the researcher conducted interviews with the teachers, with the aim of presenting the collaborating teachers with observational data on their own lessons. Being "at-a-glance" tallies, these data needed no transcribing, and could immediately present the teachers with information on how they were teaching LOTE. These data formed the bases for teachers' replies to questions relating to classroom practices. The researcher sought the opinions of the LOTE teachers to comment and to pursue various themes about delivery of primary LOTE programs. Interview details are included in Table 5 below.

Table 5: Details of interviews with LOTE teachers.

	Teacher 1 Sandy	Teacher 2 Rhonda	Teacher 3 Jodie
Number of interviews	11 (6 – pilot, 5 – main study)	6	4
Interview period	Nov. – Dec. 1996 and July to Aug. 1997	July & Aug. 1997	Oct. & Nov. 1997

4.2.2.2.a Structure of interviews with LOTE teachers

Interview sessions with the LOTE teacher took place as soon after the day's lessons as possible: no more than four days ever elapsed between end-of-observation and interview. Interviews took place in various places. Sandy's interviews took place in the senior teacher's office and in the preparation room adjacent to the classrooms. In Rhonda's case, interviews took place in the school library and in Jodie's case, in the classroom itself or in a quieter corner of the staff room.

An open-ended, semi-structured interview took place between the researcher and teacher, with a "general interview guide approach" underpinning its structure (Patton, 1990, p. 280). In essence, a set of issues, drawn, in this case from both the literature review and the observational sessions, were outlined to the collaborating teacher before interviewing began. Such a procedure involved presenting issues in no particular order "and the actual wording of questions to elicit responses about those issues . . . not determined in advance" (p. 280). This interview guide helps keep the focus of what is usually a limited interview timeslot. Participating teachers reported gradually feeling at-ease with the conversational, friendly tone of these sessions.

According to Patton (1990, pp. 290–295) there are six types of questions to be asked at interview, corresponding to the type of content intended as the focus. These question types are behaviour/experience questions, opinion/values questions, "feelings" questions, knowledge questions, sensory questions and background/demographic questions.

Initially the questions posed to the three teachers were structured according to the background type (Patton, 1990, p. 292) to allow the researcher to locate the teacher in the context being portrayed in the research report. There were questions from the following types of content: behaviour/experience (for example, "If you wanted to tell someone a story about the video-role plays, where would you begin?"); opinion/values (for example, "So you're telling me that teacher proficiency in the LOTE is a necessity?"); feelings (for example, "So on a ranking from positive to negative, where would you feel that the general consensus about your Indonesian would be?"); knowledge (for example, "How do you plan for gender difference?"); and sensory (for example, "Do you remember language play?"). The questions were sufficiently open-ended to allow the teachers to take the interview along the track they wished to pursue. (For a complete listing of all questions posed to the three teachers, see Appendices O, P and Q.)

Framing the interviews were the thematic areas formulated during the review of the relevant literature (see especially Breen et al., 1996). These included:

- teachers' understanding of LOTE policy
- teaching foreign languages according to the macro skills (listening, speaking, viewing, reading and writing)
- the essence of teachers' styles of communicative language teaching
- the essence of teachers' visions for the role of culture in language teaching
- related language aspects, such as planning/scaffolding for student learning outcomes, assessment, resource and materials use
- general educational issues, such as planning for gender differences, learning styles

- models of implementation of primary LOTE programs and related issues, such as networking, support mechanisms, accountability, marketing/advertising programs, policy and choice of LOTE
- teachers' own personal and professional stories and evidence or not of reflection.

These interviews were audio-taped. Audio-tapes and hard-copy transcripts of interviews were stored in secure filing cabinets and the electronic versions were located in secure files on the researcher's personal computer.

4.2.2.2.b Analysis of interview data

Audio taped interviews with Sandy, Rhonda and Jodie were transcribed and these transcripts were read and reread by the researcher. During the readings, the researcher looked for themes and patterns. A set of themes emerged from the categorising of data in the interviews, following the procedures suggested by Bassey (1999, p. 70ff) and Gerston (1999, p. 44). Themes isolated from an initial analysis of the teacher interview data are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Themes isolated in teachers' interview data.

Themes	
LOTE teacher decision-making	Teacher planning procedures and strategies for primary LOTE
	Teacher assessment and evaluation of primary LOTE programs
	Teachers' perceptions of student use of LOTE in class
	Teachers' perceptions of students' demonstration of acquired learning
	Teachers' emphasis on language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing)
	Teachers' familiarity with information technology provision for funded LOTE programs
LOTE teacher understandings of policy	Teachers' familiarity and extent of agreement with LOTE policy aims and content
LOTE teacher perceptions of best practice	Teachers' feelings about best model for primary LOTE implementation
	Teachers' first foreign language learning experiences

	Teachers' creation of beneficial primary LOTE learning environment
	Teachers' perceptions of their own mastery of the foreign language
	Teachers' perceptions about the success or otherwise of their LOTE teaching
	Teachers' perceptions about support they receive in teaching primary LOTE
	Teaching techniques and style for primary LOTE
LOTE teacher beliefs and reflection practices	Teacher competence/confidence in teaching primary LOTE
	Teachers' opinions about the value of learning a foreign language
	Teachers' reflection procedures for their LOTE learning

Each of those themes was placed within the four broader categories addressed in the survey instrument.

4.2.2.3 Document examination

The third data source available to the researcher to enable collection of evidence about primary LOTE Policy implementation was the documents available to the teachers implementing policy.

These documents were grouped into three categories:

- policy documents, including the Tasmanian LOTE Policy (DEA, 1995a) and the LOTE Directions material (Department of Education, Community and Cultural Development, 1998), official Tasmanian Department of Education letters, administrative reports and memoranda from files
- planning documents, including the adapted Western Australia Syllabus for Indonesian (Education Department of Western Australia, 1994b)
- teachers' teaching references and teaching materials/resources.

4.2.2.3.a Analysis of documents

The content of the above-mentioned policy documents were read and reread, then themes categorised in preparation for adding to the descriptive data in the writing-up of the findings in the same fashion as for interview data described in Section 4.2.2.2.b.

The data from the document examination and evaluation were stored in separate data items, each with a locatable reference.

4.3 Overview of data analysis

Data from the multiple aspects of this study were analysed according to different techniques as follows, represented in a conceptual framework. An adaptation of the framework of Bassey (1999, p. 85) became the basis for the framework developed for this study (see Figure 7).

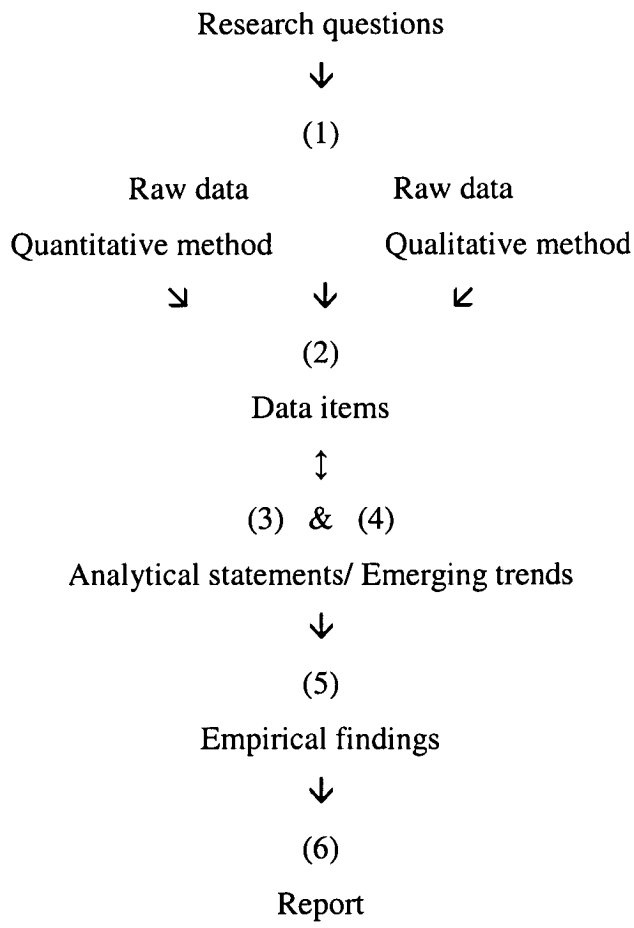

Figure 7: Overview of the data processing for this study (adapted from Bassey, 1999).

Research questions lead to collection of raw data (1) through quantitative (survey) and qualitative (observation, interview and document examination) research

methods. Raw data (2) were stored in what is termed data items, each with a locatable reference. Reflection about the data items lead to the development of draft analytical statements with the researcher constantly visiting and revisiting the data items (3). The draft analytical statements were tested against the data items, and amended or discarded as necessary (4). When the process was complete, the analytical statements were re-expressed as empirical findings (5). The empirical findings lead to this report (6).

The analytical statements referred to above could also be termed emerging trends, as per Saez and Carretero's work on innovation in science curriculum (1998, p. 32). The emerging trends were "those processes of innovation and change which were pointing at new, possible designs in the . . . curriculum." These trends emerged in the short- and mid-term, and were likely to be able to continue to identify aspects of the LOTE implementation. Similar to the emerging trends in the Saez and Carretero study (p. 32), the types of trends for this LOTE study were type of integration developed in the LOTE curriculum implementation, priority given to the students' interests, a teaching approach attempting to tie in with the students' interests, and "social applications and social repercussions" of LOTE education.

4.4 Reliability, validity and trustworthiness

Reliability and validity are considered "vital concepts in surveys" (Bassey, 1999, p. 74). As an alternative to the terms reliability and validity, Lincoln and Guba (1985, cited in Bassey, 1999, p. 75) put forward the concept of trustworthiness for qualitative research. Trustworthiness is ensured if the research has included the following factors in the research process (Bassey, 1999, pp. 76–77): prolonged engagement, persistent observation of issues, data checking with sources, triangulation, testing of the emerging work against the analytical statements, challenge of certain aspects by a "critical friend", detailed written account, and keeping a well-ordered case record.

In this study, reliability, validity and trustworthiness were ensured according to the following procedures.

In studying the three primary LOTE teachers, the researcher spent a prolonged period with these teachers (11 weeks with Sandy; 6 weeks with Rhonda and 5 weeks with the self-confessed, more nervous Jodie) to ensure prolonged engagement. This allowed the researcher to be immersed in the context and issues and to build up a trust between herself and the collaborating teachers.

During the data collection periods, the researcher was able to maintain a persistent observation of emerging issues when observing and interviewing the collaborating teachers. "[S]alient features" (Bassey, 1999, p. 76) of the issues emerged and were "unpacked" and discussed with the teachers in an attempt to achieve a shared understanding of their behaviours and reflections. As another guarantee of validity, the audio-tape of the interview was reviewed immediately after the interview to uncover whether the interview made sense, to ascertain that the audio agreed with the written notes, and also to ensure the tape had functioned properly. Areas of vagueness or unclear audio (Patton, 1990, p. 353) were uncovered and checked against written notes.

As stated earlier in Section 4.1.1, transcripts of every observational and interview session were shown to the three primary LOTE teachers initially, and again when the interview data were written up into a narrative style. This checking of data with the sources ensured that opportunities were provided for the LOTE teachers to acknowledge the records stated what they wanted to say.

The researcher made every attempt to fine-tune the observation process with regular time checks to record LOTE teaching behaviours of teachers. The pilot stage of the study allowed the researcher to gain confidence with the use of the instrument and improve the reliability of the data that were collected.

The unavailability of baseline data was a concern, as no other study had set out to achieve the same results as this observation process. Consequently the researcher

endeavoured to double-check with the methods suggested in a similar LOTE teacher behaviour observation schedule (Spada & Frohlich, 1995), particularly as regards coding methods.

Triangulation was also instituted to validate the research. Data from different sources (document analysis, observation and interview) were brought together in an attempt to "strengthen confidence" (Bassey, 1999, p. 76) in the research.

Testing the emerging work against the analytical statements about the raw data proceeded throughout both the data collection and analysis phases of this research. Within the official University of Tasmania doctoral program, the researcher's academic supervisor took the role of "critical friend" (Bassey, 1999, p. 76) to question the research procedures and methods from the start in order to bring academic rigour to the study.

Measures to institute interrater reliability were implemented during the research period. Although it must be acknowledged that "[e]ven where two or more observers agree about the purpose of their observation and description," two researchers' reports on identical settings and events "are still likely to differ to some extent" (Croll, 1986, p. 4). The researcher had a co-researcher undertake several observation sessions working with video footage of primary German lessons to attempt to establish that the Primary LOTE Teacher Behaviours Event Sampling Schedule (described in Section 4.2.2.1.d) was a reliable data collection instrument (Horton-Stephens, 1997). The Schedule was an attempt to describe the primary LOTE teacher behaviours removing the subjectivity that occurs when individuals describe events (Croll, 1986, p. 4). A "uniformity between observers" utilising the same data collection instrument (Croll, 1986, p. 6) was sought, attempting to eliminate the subjectivity.

Data were able to be generalised from the survey stage of the research to later highlight qualitative data collected in other stages.

Overall, this study sourced data through quantitative and qualitative methods.

Reliability and validity were ensured through the survey method and trustworthiness was ensured through the processes undertaken with the three primary Indonesian teachers.

4.5 Methodological assumptions and method limitations

Risks in the utilisation of survey method, as adapted from Isaac and Michael (1995, p. 137), include:

- a tapping of the perceptions and attitudes of cooperative respondents
- an artificiality in results due to respondents feeling special or unnatural
- a proneness to agree with positive statements
- tendencies for respondents to give consistently high or low ratings
- favorable or unfavorable responses due to the identity or characteristics of the researcher.

The study of the three teachers' contexts and behaviours presents comprehensive illustrations of the various characteristics of primary LOTE teachers implementing primary LOTE programs, yet representativeness may be deemed questionable (Hopkins & Stern, 1996, p. 503). This study of primary Indonesian teachers is "particularly vulnerable to subjective biases" (Isaac & Michael, 1995, p. 52) especially due to the researcher having interacted with Sandy, Rhonda and Jodie at local and state-wide LOTE professional development seminars and thus having had opportunities to interact in other contexts apart from this study.

Nonetheless, the detailed data from the three teacher studies are balanced with the representative survey data, providing both the rich illustrations of specific contexts and the more generalised statistical findings.

4.6 Summary of research approach

Data have been collected to answer the various research questions. In summary these approaches were by utilisation of strategies from:

- survey method, to access perceptions from a representative number of teachers about key primary LOTE issues
- further research methods, both to access observational and interview data representing perceptions from three of those teachers involved in the first-hand implementation of primary LOTE programs in "on-line" schools, and also to access the intended policy guidelines through a document analysis.

Table 7 highlights how each data set answered the research questions.

Table 7: Overview of data sets related to research questions.

Research question 1 **According to the Tasmanian LOTE Policy, how was LOTE *intended* to be implemented in Tasmanian primary schools?**		
Data set	**Item**	**Analysis**
Documents published at time of Policy publication (n = 7)	Policy, LOTE Implementation Tasks, Implementation of DEA Policy: LOTE, Supplementary Information on LOTE, LOTE Directions Statement, Circular Memo to Principals, Syllabus documents	Document analysis
Survey—Likert item responses	LOTE teacher understandings of policy—15, 16	Frequency, Cross-tabulation (years teaching, rurality, 3 cases vs. remainder)
Survey—open-ended responses		Themes in surface lexical items, plus semiotic value of the language used
Interviews (3 teachers)	Interviews	Themes in surface lexical items, semiotic value of language used
Research question 2 **How was LOTE implemented *in practice* in Tasmanian primary schools?**		
Sub-question 1 **What particular strategies did primary LOTE teachers use to implement primary LOTE programs?**		
Data set	**Item**	**Analysis**
Survey—Likert item responses	LOTE teacher decision-making—2, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 18	Frequencies, Cross-tabulations (gender, language, teacher training, 3 vs. rest, LOTE, rurality)

Survey—open-ended responses		Themes in surface lexical items, plus semiotic value of the language used
Classroom observation		Frequency tallies of teacher behaviours
Interviews (3 teachers)	Interviews	Themes in surface lexical items, semiotic value of language used
Research question 3 Why did primary LOTE implementation occur as it did?		
Data set	**Item**	**Analysis**
Documents	Australian Language Levels Guidelines National Profile plus Policy documents (above)	Document analysis
Survey—Likert item responses	LOTE teacher perceptions of best practice—1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 11, 17 LOTE teacher beliefs—4, 19	Frequencies, Cross-tabulations (gender, language, years teaching, rurality, qualifications)
Survey—open-ended responses		Themes in surface lexical items, plus semiotic value of the language used
Classroom observations (researcher's incidental notes)		Themes in surface lexical items, plus semiotic value of the language used
Interviews (3 teachers)	Interviews	Themes in surface lexical items, semiotic value of language used

Emerging trends highlighted were:

- type of implementation developed for LOTE
- priority given to the students' concerns and learning styles
- a teaching approach attempting to tie-in with the students' interests
- "social applications and social repercussions" of LOTE education.

Application of a data analysis to the data sets is reported in the findings of this study outlined in Chapters 5 and 6 following.

5

Results, Part A: Analysis of policy and system/school implementation

5.1 Introduction

Building on the previous chapters, which outlined the contextual background, the research framework and the methodology used to collect data, the results of the study are now presented in Chapters 5 and 6. Focus is on the key aspects of Tasmanian LOTE Policy implementation between 1996 and 1998.

Data sets sourced in Chapters 5 and 6 include the state-wide survey of Tasmanian "on-line" primary LOTE teachers, studies of three implementing LOTE teachers and a document analysis of relevant LOTE policy documents. The data analysed in the sections of the two results chapters below portray (a) intended policy (Research question 1): how the Tasmanian LOTE policy was intended to be implemented at system level, and (b) implementation (Research question 2): how the schools operationalised policy and how teachers perceived and negotiated policy to deliver primary LOTE programs in Tasmanian government primary schools between 1996 and 1998. There is an exploration of teachers' curriculum decision-making and classroom practice through presentation of data from interviews and observational sessions with the three collaborating primary LOTE teachers who participated in the study. The chapter also takes a system/management focus. It also answers in part the third research question, concerning reasons why primary LOTE implementation occurred as it did.

What follows in Section 5.2 is the presentation of demographic data collected to enable a more detailed account of the context to be established. A discussion of various other Policy aspects then occurs in Sections 5.3 and 5.4. In Section 5.3, the Policy itself is deconstructed and comment is made on Policy intention. Particularly in Section 5.4, the teachers' perceptions of the system management of Policy are discussed. In Section 5.5 is a discussion of advantages and shortcomings of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy identified during the Policy analysis, with issues synthesised from information found in the literature reviews of Chapters 2 and 3.

In the final section of Chapter 2, Section 2.7 were descriptions of the characteristics of curriculum policy and aspects of curriculum policy-making which, if initiated, may ensure successful curriculum policy implementation. Listed as well, were the particular aspects of foreign language curriculum which impact on curriculum implementation, as underpinning the following analysis of findings in Chapters 5 and 6 is the assumption that LOTE curriculum implementation will bring specific elements or issues into consideration, which may not be evident in other subject areas. Highlighted at the end of Chapter 2 was an explanation that the basis for examination will specifically be through teachers' understandings of the innovation, teachers' reliance on a network of colleagues in the "up-close" context, teacher training measures and teacher beliefs.

Preceding the presentation of the research findings, however, is the presentation of demographic data.

5.2 Demographic data—survey respondents

Demographic data from the survey are now presented to provide a broader overview of the context. After the release of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy in November 1995, the Department of Education and the Arts, the seven education districts, the schools and the teachers were all instrumental in operationalising primary LOTE practice for "on-line" programs from early Term 1, 1996. By the

time of the survey stage of this study, some teachers had been implementing "on-line" primary LOTE programs for two years in a variety of models of provision.

Fifty teachers were surveyed in total. These were the total number of "on-line" primary LOTE teachers in Tasmanian government primary schools in 1998. Other primary LOTE programs were in existence, but were not in receipt of the official departmental "on-line" funding described in Chapter 1. Forty of the fifty teachers (80% response rate) replied to the survey.

Teachers responded to the survey from the (then) seven education districts in Tasmania, with most representation from the Hartz district (which includes the state capital, Hobart) in the south of the State. Of the respondents, 58% have always lived in Tasmania and 73% have always taught in Tasmania. Females represented 83% of respondents ($N = 33$).

Ninety per cent had taught primary LOTE for between 1 and 6 years, while 8% had taught primary LOTE between 15 and 26 years.

The highest teaching qualification of 38% of respondents was a Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of Teaching degree. Graduate Certificate or Graduate Diploma qualifications were held by 23% of respondents, while 13% indicated they had masters degrees. Regarding their highest LOTE teaching qualification, 28% of respondents had achieved a proficiency competency rating of ISLPR 2 or 3[3]. Others held a Graduate Certificate or Graduate Diploma (LOTE related) (18%) or a University major in the study of a LOTE (20%) or ISLPR 1 or Tasmanian Certificate of Education Stage 4 in a LOTE (23%).

Respondents were asked to explain any travel to, or courses attended "in-country" for their LOTE teaching. Eighty per cent indicated they have travelled to the target country where the LOTE they teach is spoken.

[3] ISLPR 2 or ISLPR 3 (Ingram & Wylie, 1995) were ratings mentioned by respondents and referred to the underlying feature of the Tasmanian Department of Education's Graduate Certificate in Education, LOTE award (see Glossary for further description).

Of the primary LOTE teachers responding, 48% were implementing Indonesian programs, 20% were teaching French, while 25% were teaching Japanese. Only two teachers were implementing Italian programs and one was implementing a German program. Forty per cent of respondents were teaching the first LOTE they learned, as compared to 55% who have learned a new LOTE that they are now teaching. One respondent acknowledged being a native speaker of the LOTE.

Sixty-eight per cent of respondents learned their first LOTE at school. Fifteen per cent learned their first LOTE in a teacher in-service program. Forty-five per cent had their first LOTE taught to them with a cultural component in the program while 48% indicated that this was not so for them during their own LOTE study.

Seventy-three per cent of respondents indicated that between one and six classes learn LOTE with them every week. Twenty per cent indicated that between seven and twelve classes learn LOTE with them per week. Eighteen per cent of respondents taught over 250 students per week and three per cent taught over 400 students per week (n = 1). Only 10% of respondents taught less than 50 students per week.

Eighty-three per cent of respondents were not taught their first LOTE by a native speaker. Seventy per cent learned their first LOTE from female LOTE teachers.

The demographic data presented above describe a context of mostly female primary LOTE teachers with relatively little LOTE teaching experience. However, most of these teachers had travelled to the target country, and approximately half had learned the LOTE recently and were teaching multiple classes per week of "on-line", language-as-object LOTE programs. A brief cameo portrait now follows of the background of three teachers who collaborated in the second phase of the study, where personal interviews took place alongside observation sessions as described in Chapter 4.

The three teachers provided information about their perceptions and beliefs on policy and practice. The stories of these three "trailblazers" or "pioneers"

(Schlechty, 1993) of primary LOTE teaching in Tasmania are stories of competent and professional teachers in their first attempts teaching LOTE. They are teachers attempting to make other countries and people come alive for the students in their classes, as was found in the "emerging trends" aspect of the data analysis procedures (see Section 4.6). (Their portraits are sub-headed with a metaphorical statement, which encapsulates their "vision" for teaching primary LOTE.)

5.2.1 A "portrait" of Sandy: Preparing students to "take the train"

Sandy is a primary LOTE teacher with approximately twenty years teaching experience, the past five of which have seen her involvement with primary LOTE teaching in northern Tasmania.

Sandy's primary school years were characterised by a dominance of English. She described her early years as a time with no LOTE influences from relatives or friends from other overseas backgrounds. It was at high school that Sandy learned French, her first language other than English. According to her, there was nothing particularly memorable about her four years of high school French except classes with a predominance of female students electing to study the language (Sandy, Pilot Interview 1, 22/11/96).

During her training to become a Physical Education teacher Sandy's vision for teaching was formed. She recalled, "My supervising teacher . . . taught me a lot in those early formative years: that you need flexibility if things aren't working" (Sandy, Pilot int. 3, 26/11/96). Sandy maintained that flexibility and quality were underlined in the Physical Education sphere, but have carried through her LOTE teaching style to the present day.

After four years of tertiary study, Sandy married and taught Physical Education for eight years. She became a mother to three girls that has provided her with first-hand practice at first language teaching. She has imparted her love of singing and playing language games to her children (Sandy, Pilot int. 2, 25/11/96).

Sandy made a career change from secondary Physical Education to teach primary LOTE. She explained in her reflection, "I must admit that I have always viewed those people who were bi- or multi-lingual to be extremely clever. As a young person I knew that having another language would be advantageous to travelling, which was something I really wanted to do, but I never thought I'd make a career out of it!!" (Sandy, Written reflection, 1997, p. 1).

Sandy eased into LOTE teaching initially. She studied Indonesian at the time her third child was born. She began teaching Indonesian at her daughter's school and explained her initial attempts thus: "So, not having any formal classroom primary experience at all, and no LOTE background . . . except poor French at high school . . . I thought I might have a go at this" (Sandy, Pilot int. 1, 22/11/96).

Her first teacher of Indonesian at night school was a non-native speaker, but had a "terrific . . . enthusiastic" teaching style. "She'd . . . joke, and gave us things to remember, like um, *hitam* [black]. How do you remember it? Because when you *hit'em*, they go black!" (Sandy, Pilot int. 3, 26/11/96).

Gaining experiences using the foreign language in the country where the language is spoken has helped Sandy to create her vision for LOTE teaching. She travelled through Indonesia and Malaysia in the late 1970s. After learning Spanish in an Adult Education course she travelled through Europe and the Mediterranean in the early 1980s. Knowing French and Spanish allowed her to read signs and menus while travelling (Sandy, Pilot int. 2, 25/11/96).

Sandy became more animated as she recounted her experiences using French when travelling in France. With four years of "schoolgirl French" behind her, she wanted to test her French skills. She remembered being at the train station in Nice and wanting some information on how to leave the city. She explained, "There was this guy sitting behind the counter and I tried my schoolgirl French. Well! He wouldn't have a bar of me! He just . . . totally ignored me! . . . I tried a little English and a little French . . . I was sort of losing my confidence very badly at that stage. And he was still really rude and he kept shaking his head . . . I thought, We'll try one more time. I went back to this guy, and he had me in tears . . . Not a

nice experience . . . my self confidence was just blown away . . . I thought, All those years—four years! It got me nowhere much!" (Sandy, Pilot int. 2, 25/11/96). Relating this experience was clearly bringing back feelings of frustration. Sandy stated that if she had known more about the French culture, then perhaps she would have coped with the situation better.

In Sandy's view of LOTE teaching and learning, the language structures allow the learner to be able to speak, but the "essence" for Sandy lies in the culture—the foods, the lifestyles, the leisure (Sandy, Written reflection, 1997, p. 1). She said of her own teaching style, "My approach is one of cultural awareness as much as possible, and lots of gesturing—the kids will guess what's going on sooner or later. I want to give them the opportunity to realize their world is not so insular, that the similarities probably outweigh the differences" (p. 2). She maintained that her negative experience in France made her aware of "how not to do it . . . It's probably affected the way I do things now" (Sandy, Pilot int. 2, 25/11/96).

Sandy's teaching style developed as she developed as a secondary Physical Education teacher. Sandy stated that her LOTE teaching style, like her teaching of Physical Education, is "moving and changing . . . keeping things bubbling, on the boil . . . [a] 'doing' sort of thing" (Sandy, Pilot int. 2, 25/11/96). She admitted her LOTE style tends to be physical and noisy. "I am used to being outside and noisy, so I panic if my room is totally silent—I like a healthy buzz, and keep reminding myself that LOTE is after all about talking and communicating" (Sandy, Written reflection, 1997, p. 2). In theory and in practice, Sandy is preparing students to take that "metaphorical" train, reminiscent of her own time exploring real language in France.

At the time of data collection, Sandy was participating in further levels of language study. Sandy was enrolled in the Department of Education's professional development program for LOTE teachers, commonly called the ISLPR course. During the period of this study, Sandy was attending to tasks that would see her finally achieve a competency standard at ISLPR 2 for Teaching Competencies in Indonesian. The researcher has attended a course to allow her to rate speakers of Indonesian according to the ISLPR general Indonesian

proficiency scale and the Teaching Indonesian scale, and would concur with this rating for Sandy's general proficiency[4].

Sandy had many opportunities to dialogue LOTE issues with LOTE teacher colleagues. She represented her school at weekly LOTE cluster group meetings and at the district meetings of the "on-line" group of primary LOTE teachers. As well, she represented the north of the state at the larger statewide primary LOTE group meetings. She met with other LOTE teachers at the weekly professional development Graduate Certificate course seminars.

During the data collection period Sandy met as many as 14 classes and 350 students per week in two schools. Throughout the data collection period, the researcher made the general observation that Sandy's program was a welcome part of the curriculum. A series of 11 interviews with Sandy took place between November 1996 and September 1997.

5.2.2 A "portrait" of Rhonda: "Treading softly", teaching a quality primary LOTE program

Rhonda is a primary LOTE teacher with approximately twenty years teaching experience, the past five of which have seen her involvement with primary LOTE teaching in northern Tasmania.

At the time of data collection, Rhonda taught Indonesian at a government primary school in northern Tasmania which had come "on-line" at the beginning of 1996. Rhonda was half-time generalist class teacher and half-time "mobile" LOTE teacher, perhaps also able to be termed a semi-specialist (Watkinson, 1992, cited in Thornton, 1998, p. 7). She worked with the "on-line" Grade 3 and 4 programs and the existing Indonesian preparation programs for Grades 5 and 6, part of this school's strategy for articulation with the high school LOTE programs.

[4] According to the ISLPR *General Proficiency Version for Indonesian* (Ingram, Wylie & Woollams, 1995), the researcher would rate Sandy at Level 1+ or 2 for the four macro-skills, as her use of Indonesian was characterised by both utilising the language for transactional purposes and personalised language of Basic Social Proficiency standard.

First of two children, Rhonda was born and lived in England for the first decade of her life. She remembered life in a family whose members were fully accepting of foreign language study and whose members saw the value and relevance of knowing other languages. Her paternal grandfather was an accomplished linguist, travelling on the continent between the wars with his work. Her parents too, had some abilities in the languages of Europe. Recounting her first memories of LOTE, she remembered a family holiday to Wales. She mentioned that in her bookcase is a *Welsh in a Week* book, "full of phrases like 'May I close the [train] carriage window' and other unlikely items" (Rhonda, Written reflection, 1999, p. 1).

Rhonda stated that life in a small English village was "quite insular". There were no foreign languages offered at Rhonda's primary school. Her high school language learning provided experiences with French and German. Unfortunately Rhonda was unable to try out her languages in authentic contexts until her trip through Europe approximately five years after graduating as a primary school teacher in Tasmania. Trying out her French, German and Italian in those countries made her realise the importance of other languages "to function outside the country" (Rhonda, Interview 1, 17/7/97).

In the early nineties, after about ten years primary generalist class teaching experience, Rhonda participated in a two-week Indonesian intensive, immersion summer school on Tasmania's east coast. Entering the new school year after that summer school, Rhonda mentioned that her work with primary LOTE in the classroom became determined and focused. She also poured much of her effort into "awareness-raising . . . with parent groups in the school" (Rhonda, int. 1, 17/7/97). Her efforts were sufficient that the need arose for her to develop a school LOTE policy.

Rhonda maintained that her work in that school and local community helped her win a scholarship to Indonesia to attend a four-week in-country intensive Indonesian language course for a summer period. "I've been continuing my study ever since . . . I've got to the point where the more I know, the more I realise I

don't know" (Rhonda, int. 1, 17/7/97) she explained, describing her continued study of both the Indonesian language and LOTE methodology courses.

Rhonda later travelled through Indonesia. She said it "was good to be there as a tourist, not just studying" (Rhonda, int. 1, 17/7/97). Using the language in authentic contexts, she said, is important to her vision of what foreign language learning can be.

At the time of data collection, Rhonda maintained that "having fun" was the basis of her program. She said, "I do try at times to remember that there's got to be fun and pull myself up quite sharply at times when I realise I'm getting bogged down" (Rhonda, int. 1, 17/7/97).

Rhonda's cool, professional attitude was highly visible as she moved between classes with her pile of teaching resources, "treading softly" (Rhonda, int. 4, 14/8/97) in other teachers' classrooms, caring to provide quality primary LOTE programs. She reported an enjoyment of the place she has crafted for herself in the school. Her semi-specialist focus of classroom and LOTE teaching was clear. She confessed, too, a hope that her LOTE teaching would provide her an opportunity to continue to travel.

Like Sandy, Rhonda's general proficiency level in Indonesian was judged by the researcher to be at ISLPR 1+ or 2 for listening, speaking, reading and writing[5]. A series of six interviews took place during the data collection period, July and August 1997.

[5] During the data collection period the researcher observed Rhonda's Indonesian to be between Transactional Proficiency and Basic Social Proficiency of Level 2 (Ingram et al., 1995).

5.2.3 A "portrait" of Jodie: Conveying an "irresistible" country, language and people

Jodie is a primary LOTE teacher with approximately twenty years teaching experience, the past two of which have seen her implementing primary LOTE programs in a school in northern Tasmania.

Jodie is a quietly spoken generalist class teacher[6], also fulfilling the role of a semi-specialist at a government primary school in northern Tasmania that came "on-line" with a LOTE program at the beginning of 1996.

Jodie's role implementing primary LOTE during the first year of implementation was to teach Indonesian LOTE in two classes: teaching her own class and swapping to another class for a 45-minute period. During 1997 however, Jodie was the sole LOTE teacher in this school and she was released from her own class to allow her to meet with the Grade 3 and 4 classes for two 45-minute periods each, plus teaching Grades 5 and 6 for their Indonesian language awareness program.

Jodie was happy to tell her story, although admitted being nervous about the interviews. As discussed in Chapter 4, this resulted in fewer interviews, compared to the other two teachers. She explained, "I feel as if I really am testing the waters this year and a lot of these questions I am asking myself and I don't have the complete answer yet" (Jodie, Interview 2, 27/10/97).

Jodie's study of languages at school did not go beyond Grade 10. She explained, "I didn't follow languages through, because at that stage . . . I didn't think I had much talent in languages. I was just making Bs [grades] . . . and I was concentrating on other things" (Jodie, int. 1, 20/10/97). She maintained that as a

[6] During the observation period the researcher was able to rate Jodie's proficiency according to the *ISLPR General Proficiency Version for Indonesian* (Ingram et al., 1995) as between 1- and 1 (Minimum Creative Proficiency) for speaking and between Levels 1 (Basic Transactional) and 2 (Basic Social) for listening, reading and writing.

language learner she needed a lot of repetition. "If I could just learn in my own time, eventually I seem to get there. It 'clicks' one day", she said (Jodie, int. 2, 27/10/97). School LOTE programs didn't afford her the luxury of spending time on the learning of the LOTE.

After graduating from Teachers College and teaching for "quite a few years," she had the opportunity to learn conversational Indonesian. She explained that her interest in other cultures made her take the challenge. Again she found the learning experiences "fun." Her teacher was a native speaker of Indonesian and she particularly remembers being fascinated by the personal stories, similar to those of her French and German teachers years earlier. She felt that learning foreign languages has given her wider, global perspectives, "it made me aware of the big wide world" (Jodie, int. 1, 20/10/97).

Through this course and networking with other teachers, she found out about, and was awarded, a scholarship for an in-country language and culture program in Indonesia. Jodie was thankful for an opportunity to study Indonesian language "in-country". She explained, "it's very irresistible, once you actually go to a country and listen to the language in context, and people encourage you . . . with the very few words that you do know, it just creates a real . . . hunger for you to come back and learn so much more" (Jodie, int. 1, 20/10/97).

Jodie emphasised her belief in an in-country experience for a language learner's development as "very important". She admitted to having learned a lot, "seeing places, going to places and observing the people and trying to understand what it is about people that makes the way they think" (Jodie, int. 1, 20/10/97). Particularly interesting for Jodie were the more sensitive issues, "such as religion."

The in-country experience was the motivation that kept Jodie interested. Without this in-country experience she believed that her general teaching would contain a particular bias of the world. She stated that in her teaching she tries to recreate Indonesia for her children, such as "sounds of the marketplace . . . [peoples'] mannerisms" (Jodie, int. 1, 20/10/97). According to Jodie, every LOTE teacher

should experience an in-country program because it motivates them (20/10/97). Jodie returned to Tasmania and followed on with more language courses, until she attained Stage 4 [the Tasmanian Certificate of Education matriculation stage], "which is really where I am now" (20/10/97) she said.

Jodie expressed a mixture of emotions, both satisfaction and despair, at having changed roles: from being purely a generalist class teacher to becoming a semi-specialist and mixing the roles of classroom and LOTE teaching. At one point she said, "it's got me out of . . . a rut" (Jodie, int. 4, 18/11/97). And on another occasion she confessed, "the stage that I'm at in my career, you . . . get to that level where you feel reasonably confident and this is, like suddenly you've got the trainer wheels on again. And I don't know whether I really am enjoying that feeling, to be honest. Sometimes I don't enjoy it" (Jodie, int. 2, 27/10/97). Stating that she was being completely honest, Jodie said, "sometimes its a degree of uncertainty too." She likened her situation in her first year of LOTE program implementation as a feeling of "going out on a prac. [*sic*] teaching session" (27/10/97). Overall, she maintained that the career side-step has been good for her, "going around visiting different classes, it's been good for me" (27/10/97). How to "do justice" to both her class teaching and LOTE, she reported, is her "biggest worry" (Jodie, int. 4, 18/11/97).

Primary LOTE teaching has been a journey for Jodie. She concluded about her LOTE teaching, "I know I've got to turn the corner, but I'm not really sure . . . what will be round the corner" (Jodie, int. 2, 27/10/97). At the end of the previous year, Jodie felt that her program hadn't gone too badly. Yet the uncertainty was "setting out and not knowing where, exactly where you're going" (Jodie, int. 3, 12/11/97).

A series of four interviews took place with Jodie concerning the implementation of the Tasmanian LOTE policy, October to November 1997.

During interviews with Sandy, Rhonda and Jodie, three of the primary LOTE teachers in "on-line" government school LOTE programs, there were opportunities for them to explain their own experiences of foreign language

learning and aspects of their current LOTE teaching. Provision of the demographic and teacher data above has provided the background for a discussion of the general findings to take place following in Section 5.3.

5.3 According to the Tasmanian LOTE Policy, how was LOTE *intended* to be implemented in Tasmanian primary schools from 1996?

The Tasmanian LOTE Policy Statement was launched in November 1995 (DEA, 1995a). Like some other foreign language education policies analysed in Chapter 3 (see section 3.2), the six-page document set out a scope and sequence, rationale, goals for student participation, learning standards and teacher training. Also set out, and again similar to some of the foreign language education policies analysed in Chapter 3, were the types and extent of support that would accompany implementation, as well as stipulations of responsibilities for teachers and departmental staff.

5.3.1 Scope and sequence of LOTE implementation

The DEA intended that children in Tasmanian Government schools would have the opportunity to learn a LOTE during both their primary and secondary school years (DEA, 1995a, p. 1). The Policy statement read, "Children in Tasmanian Government schools have the opportunity to learn French, German, Indonesian or Japanese between Years 3 and 10" (DEA, 1995a, p. 1). The situation was similar (in fact compulsory in certain contexts) in other Australian states and territories (NT, QLD, WA, ACT and NSW), as was evident in the policies reviewed in Section 3.2.4.

5.3.1.1 Specified languages and a guaranteed pathway for LOTE study: Continuity and articulation with future secondary programs

There was an intention to guarantee that children in Tasmanian Government schools could access French, German, Indonesian or Japanese programs between Years 3 and 10 (DEA, 1995a, p. 1). The Policy statement included this paragraph:

> Languages with a guaranteed pathway are languages which are guaranteed to be taught from Year 3 through to Year 10 in a primary school and its associated high school (or through a district high school) and secondary college. This means that, to ensure continuity, a child studying a LOTE at the primary level will have access to the same LOTE at the associated secondary and senior secondary schools/college (DEA, 1995a, p. 1).

"[C]ontinuity of learning" was intended by including a requirement in the Policy statement that "a LOTE taught in a primary school must also be available at that school's associated high school and secondary college subject to demand" (DEA, 1995a, p. 3). This was a key component of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy not found in any other policy of other Australian states and territories at the time. The Queensland Policy mentioned three continuous years of LOTE learning and the NSW Policy mentioned continuity K–12. However, the term "guaranteed pathway" was not a term found elsewhere in the policy literature. During seminar sessions offered to specialist LOTE teachers and generalist class teachers during the early years of initial implementation, the Principal Curriculum Officer for LOTE remarked that guaranteeing pathways was a strength of this curriculum policy and different to Tasmanian LOTE policies of the past in that regard (B. Muir, pers. comm., 17 April, 1996).

The DEA noted that community languages, Aboriginal languages or AUSLAN would be encouraged if funded by "individual grants" (DEA, 1995a, p. 1), or where funding could be sourced in local contexts.

Although not a research question in this study, the choice of French, German, Japanese and Indonesian for the Tasmanian Policy comes to the fore. The literature reviewed in Chapter 3 had highlighted the fact that jurisdictions choose foreign languages often due to regional considerations, for example, "critical" languages in the USA (Samimy, 1994, p. 2). Foreign languages found "traditionally" in the curriculum were also favoured in the USA (Rhodes & Oxford, 1988, p. 56). A combination of these two reasons may have been considerations in Tasmania's choice of the four "pathway" languages. More

likely, according to the Principal Curriculum Officer LOTE at the time, was the impact of the Council of Australian Governments report (COAG, 1994) on the formulation of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy (B. Muir, pers. comm., 26 October, 1999).

Regarding the most suitable age for students to begin their study of a LOTE, Tasmania and the majority of jurisdictions interstate and overseas (Rubichi, 1995, p. 20) chose junior to mid-primary level to begin foreign language education in schools. Unlike Tasmania and the other states and territories of Australia where LOTE programs were to begin at Grade 3, it was only the states of Queensland and Victoria which intended foreign language education to be available in early childhood education.

The Tasmanian Policy was somewhat similar to policies elsewhere in Australia in the mid-1990s regarding specified LOTE and guaranteed pathways.

5.3.1.2 Non-mandated LOTE

Although LOTE was a strongly supported key learning area in the national curriculum of Australia, it was not intended to be a compulsory key learning area in the Tasmanian Government school curriculum offerings (DEA, 1995a, p. 1). Schools, in collaboration with other cluster schools and colleges in each District, would decide whether and which LOTE would be taught (p. 3). Tasmania's Policy statement used the phrase, "students will have the opportunity" to learn a LOTE, expressing the DEA's strong support for the inclusion of LOTE in the curriculum, yet not a mandate.

This differed from the situation in the Northern Territory where the Policy stated that all primary students would learn a LOTE, and also to the situation in Victoria, Australian Capital Territory, Western Australia and Queensland, where LOTE was to be in the curriculum offerings of selected primary grades by the year 2000. Similarly, the literature reviewed in Chapter 3, Section 3.2.1 highlighted the different contexts of many overseas education systems where second or foreign language education from primary level was compulsory.

5.3.2 Rationale for LOTE programs in the Tasmanian curriculum

According to the curriculum policy literature reviewed in Chapter 2, it can be advantageous if a task or mission orientation (Clayton, 1993, p. 4) is factored into the organisational characteristics for policy implementation. The literature reviewed in Chapter 3 showed foreign language education policies had variously included utilitarian reasons for foreign language education in the curriculum, stating the likelihood of enhanced political, economic and trade opportunities for a country's standing in the global arena with a citizenry competent in a second language (Met & Galloway, 1992, p. 853).

The opening paragraph of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy Statement (DEA, 1995a, p. 1) offered a rationale not too dissimilar to that found in the literature reviewed. The Policy's "mission orientation" stated:

> Learning a language other than English (LOTE) is an important part of a child's education and is one of the eight learning areas that constitute a balanced curriculum. LOTE learning includes both language components and cultural understanding components. LOTE learning is not compulsory but is strongly supported and encouraged within the overall curriculum. Children in Tasmanian Government schools will have the opportunity to learn French, German, Indonesian or Japanese between Years 3 and 10. There will be a guaranteed pathway from primary to secondary to senior secondary level, within a cluster of schools, for learning one or these four languages. (DEA, 1995a, p. 1)

Added to these statements was a *Rationale* (DEA, 1995a, p. 2) which expanded on the mission orientation of the Policy Statement, alluding to those utilitarian reasons for foreign language study at school and Tasmania's place in a national and global context. Listed in the Rationale were the reasons behind early LOTE learning and benefits to children who study a LOTE in their primary years. Mentioned were "Australia's future relations with Asian countries" (p. 2) and the "economic and trade implications for Australia [should students seek] job prospects in a broad range of careers" using their LOTE (p. 2). However, the

Policy statement also listed more child-focused perspectives among the reasons for early LOTE learning: For equity, "it is important that Tasmanian children are able to access the same learning opportunities as students in other States" (p. 2) and also for a child's cognitive and conceptual development. LOTE learning may also increase students' awareness "of language in general and their first language in particular" (p. 2).

The DEA stated that "[l]earning a Language other than English (LOTE) is recognised as being an important part of a child's education, and is one of the eight learning areas that constitute a balanced curriculum" (DEA, 1995a, p. 1). The DEA based their evidence on the authority of LOTE policies and reports which had been developed in other states and territories, and stated,

> All States and Territories recognise LOTE as being one of the eight learning areas for which national statements and profiles have been compiled and it is important that Tasmanian children are able to access the same learning opportunities as students in other states (DEA, 1995a, p. 2).

Rubichi (1995) reported that similar statements were found in the overseas policies with policy rationale for primary level foreign language education including views about child-focused, developmental (cognitive, linguistic, academic) reasons for the study of a foreign language.

Not evident in other reviewed foreign language policies in Australia or overseas, except in the case of the ACT that mentioned social justice learning outcomes, were specific equity and inclusion statements. Equity issues were addressed in the Tasmanian Policy statement with the noting of the provision of LOTE for all children and "many children who have difficulties with learning or have intellectual disabilities" (DEA, 1995a, p. 2).

Attempting to add strength to the Policy statement, the DEA noted four particular benefits of LOTE learning for young Tasmanians. According to the LOTE Policy, LOTE learning can:

- enhance a child's cognitive and conceptual development and their awareness of English
- provide the child with a greater understanding and tolerance of multi-ethnic, multi-cultural Australia
- strengthen Australia's future economic and trade capacities by providing language proficient professionals, thereby enhancing individuals' job prospects
- allow a particular focus on future social and economic relations with Asia, emphasising Australia's geographical location near Asia

(adapted from DEA, 1995a, p. 2).

Those four statements were similar to statements listed in the policies of other states and territories and overseas countries, although they did not encompass language awareness outcomes as in the Western Australia policy (Education Department of Western Australia, 1995) or cultural heritage benefits as in the Northern Territory policy (Northern Territory Teaching Service, 1987).

Following on from the rationale, the Tasmanian LOTE Policy listed particular goals for LOTE learning in Tasmanian government schools as described below.

5.3.3 Goals of LOTE programs: The teaching of language and cultural components

The Tasmanian LOTE Policy stated that "LOTE learning includes both language and cultural understanding components" (DEA, 1995a, p. 1). These were similar goals to those stated in other state and territory LOTE policies at this time. In Tasmania, language and cultural components were to be delivered in LOTE programs in accordance with specific guidelines concerning targets for student participation, proficiency levels and teacher training programs, as is outlined below in sections 5.3.3.1 to 5.3.3.3.

5.3.3.1 Student participation

The Tasmanian LOTE Policy provided some degree of detail for intended student participation targets. LOTE was to be introduced into Grade 3 in a number of

schools in 1996 (DEA, 1995a, p. 3). LOTE was to be "progressively introduced" into Tasmanian Government primary schools as per the Policy which contained the statement, "It is expected that some schools will introduce LOTE in this year, with others commencing their introduction over the following four years" (p. 3).

In particular, these goals were intended as the Policy statement noted:

> By the year 2007 the following targets for participation will have been achieved-
>
> - 60% of students in Year 10 will be studying an Asian LOTE
> - 40% of students in Year 10 will be studying a European or Aboriginal language or Auslan
> - 15% of Year 11 and 12 students will be studying an Asian language
> - 10% of Years 11 and 12 students will be studying a European or Aboriginal language or Auslan

(DEA, 1995a, p. 3).

As Tasmania was one of the last Australian states to formulate a LOTE Policy, the dates mentioned in the Tasmanian Policy (intended outcomes for 2007) were seemingly longer term than the 1995 and 1996 targets for New South Wales or the 2000 targets for Victoria, Queensland, Australian Capital Territory and Western Australia. In fact, apart from the 2007 time line, the expected target outcomes of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy were directly comparable to the details found in the Council of Australian Governments report (COAG, 1994).

The Tasmanian LOTE Policy stipulated responsibility for senior staff from the DEA, the District Superintendent in conjunction with the Deputy Secretary (Education), to ensure participation targets and a balance of LOTE across the state (DEA, 1995a, p. 3). Senior education officers were to play such a role according to the details of the Queensland, Australian Capital Territory and New South Wales policies.

5.3.3.2 Learning standards: Learning outcomes based on National Curriculum documentation

A further goal of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy was that, "LOTE will be taught to standards of language proficiency in line with the LOTE Statement and Profile" (DEA, 1995a, p. 3). This Policy statement makes only this brief mention of which proficiency standards were intended for student learning outcomes. The Policy statement refers to the National Curriculum documents, *A Statement on Languages other than English for Australian schools* (Curriculum Corporation, 1994a), and *Languages other than English—a curriculum Profile for Australian schools (*Curriculum Corporation, 1994b).

Encompassed in Tasmania's referral to teaching and learning based on the Profile for LOTE is a communicative, language-as-object LOTE program with clearly marked student learning outcomes. Teachers may very well already have been using these Profiles for their teaching in this and other subject areas and a compatibility may have existed (and been intended) with teachers' current practices.

Australian states and territories education systems were making their own decisions about utilisation of the National Curriculum guidelines. Elsewhere in Australia, the Australian Capital Territory (ACT Department of Education, 1994) made specific mention of teaching LOTE according to the Profile stipulated in the Policy statement. Queensland policy, on the other hand, stipulated that Queensland-developed material would be utilised (Department of Education Queensland, 1991).

Concerning these National standards, the Tasmanian LOTE Policy document noted that the LOTE teacher had responsibility to ensure assessment standards be kept according to those documents (DEA, 1995a, p. 5), guidelines about which were to be assured by a senior DEA staff member, the Director of Educational Programs (p. 5).

5.3.3.2.a Time stipulation

Together with student learning outcomes goals, based on the National Curriculum guidelines, the Tasmanian Policy stated that "LOTE/Cultural Understanding Programs should aim to be 2.5 hours per week" (DEA, 1995a, p. 4). An intended total was 800 hours over the eight-year period "for the study to be effective" (p. 4). Other Australian state and territory policies stipulated less time per week: the Northern Territory and New South Wales policies stipulated 2 hours, and the Australian Capital Territory policy stipulated 90 minutes LOTE weekly in the curriculum.

According to Policy, the LOTE teacher and the District Superintendent were to ensure time stipulations were kept (DEA, 1995a, p. 5).

5.3.3.2.b Provision of curriculum materials to support implementation

The Policy statement noted, "Approved LOTE curriculum materials will be available for schools to supplement those already available" (DEA, 1995a, p. 4). This statement appeared to imply that the materials would not be developed in Tasmania, at least not initially.

A senior DEA staff member, the Director of Educational Programs, had the responsibility to ensure teacher access to suitable high quality curriculum materials (DEA, 1995a, p. 5).

5.3.3.2.c Provision of information technology to support implementation

Much literature now exists espousing the presence of increased availability of information technology, supposedly enhancing all teaching and learning contexts. The impact of this technology on foreign language education has been pointed out in the literature (Dunlop et al., 1991, p. 555). Information technology is able to be used by LOTE teachers as a teaching and learning tool, able among other things to enhance more immediate target country links for learners. The Tasmanian LOTE Policy addressed the Information Technology factor likely to impact on both the

teaching and learning by including an Information Technology package within the Policy framework.

A "combination of resources" (DEA, 1995a, p. 4) was intended to be available for schools and brief mention was made in the Policy concerning information technology materials support. This was to include, "telematics provision (which may include video-conferencing)" (p. 4).

Although not specified for either teacher professional development or for student use, the Tasmanian Policy's mention of this second key feature of information technology, the telematics technology (DEA, 1995a, p. 4) was the only mention of such technology among all mainland state and territory policy statements.

5.3.3.2.d Creation of Departmental Senior Curriculum Officer positions

The DEA intended to create LOTE Curriculum Officer positions to further support the implementation initiative. The LOTE Policy noted schools would be provided with "access to curriculum implementation officers" (DEA, 1995a, p. 3). This was in line with other state and territory LOTE policy intentions. These officers were termed LOTE Advisory Services in the Northern Territory, LOTE Advisors and Regional LOTE Coordinators in Queensland and New South Wales, Advisory Teachers in Western Australia, and LOTE Policy Officers in the Australian Capital Territory. The Tasmanian Policy provided only a one-line statement however, and made no detailed comment as to the exact role these officers would play in the implementation process.

5.3.3.2.e Provision of additional staffing to support implementation

Besides intending to support LOTE implementation with materials, Information Technology and curriculum officers, the DEA intended the provision of "additional staffing per class" (DEA, 1995a, p. 4). This funding was included to enable principals to ensure the generalist class teacher remained with the class during the LOTE session. In fact this "team delivery" aspect was intended to be the third key feature in LOTE implementation at primary level. If the generalist class teacher remained in the classroom where the LOTE lesson was being

conducted, "embedding" procedures might be encouraged (Tasmanian Department of Education, 2001). According to a review of the policies of other Australian states and territories undertaken in Chapter 3, this feature was not factored into other state or territory LOTE policies.

5.3.3.2.f Teaching method: Integration with other key learning areas, especially SOSE

In order for teachers to be able to achieve the 2.5 hours of contact time stipulated for the LOTE/Cultural Understanding program, the DEA suggested in the Policy that "[t]his time may well be integrated with other learning areas such as Studies of Society and Environment" (DEA, 1995a, p. 4). This raises an issue for comment. The non-specification of teaching methods for LOTE implementation, excepting the vague mention of integration, suggested that the DEA was relying on, and appealing to, the professionalism of the LOTE teachers. LOTE teachers would already utilise methods and strategies within their teaching repertoire, or currently in focus during their in-service training. As well, the DEA relied on the professionalism of the generalist class teacher to be willing to utilise SOSE-dedicated teaching time for LOTE.

The statements about teaching method in the Tasmanian LOTE Policy were not too different to policy statements found by Rubichi in his 1995 review of foreign language education policies in overseas countries. Rubichi's review (1995) of similar policy literature in overseas countries found little more than brief mention of "communicative" methods stated in policies. However, the Tasmanian LOTE Policy did not seek to state details about teaching method, unlike the Queensland or ACT policies which intended that some immersion and partial immersion LOTE teaching strategies should be used.

5.3.3.3 Training of teachers to support implementation

All of the Australian state and territory LOTE policies for which data were available (see Table 2, Chapter 3), alluded to the teacher training necessary for provision of LOTE programs. The Northern Territory and ACT policies mentioned the specific levels required for teachers to teach LOTE in schools

(Northern Territory Teaching Service, 1987; ACT Department of Education, 1994).

Goal 3 of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy stated that, "[a]n increasing number of teachers will be trained in a LOTE" (DEA, 1995a, p. 3). Details included the fact that "additional trained teachers" (p. 4) would be employed during the incremental implementation. However, the Tasmanian LOTE Policy was non-committal with the exact qualification and training levels required, as were the policies of Queensland, Western Australia, and New South Wales.

Regarding the training measures, the DEA's intention was to provide "[i]ntensive professional development . . . between 1996 and 1999, to train existing teachers who wish to teach LOTE" (DEA, 1995a, p. 4). Supplementary staffing would enable schools to support this. As well, the DEA intended to "work with the University of Tasmania" to ensure that pre-service teachers received LOTE training (p. 4).

To ensure this departmental level support, it was the intention of the Policy that both the school principals and the Director of Educational Planning take responsibility for the provision of in-service professional development programs for prospective LOTE teachers (DEA, 1995a, pp. 5–6): possibly a DEA intention to balance top-down and bottom-up management structures.

5.3.4 Policy implementation with division of staff responsibilities

Noted in the literature review in Chapter 3 was the fact that foreign language education policies should contain statements of roles and responsibilities for staff and details of the means by which support would be provided for teachers. In order to divide the responsibilities for LOTE implementation among Departmental staff, the Tasmanian Policy included an amount of detail concerning roles for generalist class teachers, LOTE teachers, secondary SOSE teachers and principals at school level. Similarly at Departmental level the Policy noted descriptions of responsibilities for District Superintendents, the Director of Educational Programs, the Director of Educational Planning and the Deputy

Secretary (Education). Support such as this was clearly intended in other Australian state and territory policies, yet those states' policies did not document such a high level of detail on exact roles except for Queensland and its role for the Language and Culture Unit. Apart for the responsibilities of the Secondary SOSE teachers, which is not the focus of this study, a discussion of those details occurs in sections 5.3.4.1 and 5.3.4.2 below.

5.3.4.1 LOTE responsibilities for staff in schools

Three key members of staff in primary schools were listed by the Policy (DEA, 1995a, pp. 4–5) as having responsibilities for LOTE implementation. These responsibilities follow.

5.3.4.1.a LOTE responsibilities for primary generalist class teachers

The generalist class teacher in primary schools would be responsible for:

- supporting the implementation of LOTE within a balanced teaching program
- including some of the cultural understanding components of LOTE within their Studies of Society and Environment program (DEA, 1995a, p. 4).

This attention to the role of the generalist class teacher was to be a key aspect of the intended implementation (B. Muir, pers. comm., 17 April, 1996). No data were available to suggest that other state and territory policies did or did not include roles for generalist class teachers, although the Western Australian policy suggested that the generalist class teachers would in fact be the LOTE teachers.

5.3.4.1.b LOTE responsibilities for LOTE teachers

The DEA LOTE Policy noted that LOTE teachers in Tasmanian Government primary schools would be responsible for ensuring that LOTE is taught for the required number of hours and also implementing assessment standards of language proficiency in line with the LOTE Statement and Profile (DEA, 1995a, p. 5).

These brief statements, which in no way attended to the multi-variate and pivotal role that these teachers played in reality, were comparable to the similarly brief

statements about LOTE teacher roles in other state and territory policies. Describing LOTE teachers' roles with such mechanical statements alluded only to the core teaching behaviours where accountability was to be located.

5.3.4.1.c LOTE responsibilities for school principals

The Queensland and Australian Capital Territory LOTE policies mentioned roles for principals of schools, hinting at the key role principals play in curriculum policy implementation.

Similarly, according to the Tasmanian LOTE Policy (DEA, 1995a, p. 4–5), principals were to be responsible for:

- leading the school community discussion about LOTE and ensuring the school community is well informed about this policy
- taking part in district discussions on which LOTEs will be taught in clusters of schools, and supporting district decisions on guaranteed pathways
- providing information on LOTE to their communities
- facilitating the professional development program to train LOTE teachers and encouraging suitable teachers to be involved
- supporting LOTE teachers within their school.

Courtland (1994a) noted that education management systems should support school principal familiarisation with policy innovation. The Tasmanian LOTE Policy intended to ensure familiarisation of principals and the "wider" community with policy innovation. In the case of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy, there were five specific responsibilities for principals (DEA, 1995a, p. 4) as stated in the bullet points above. Clearly the principal's role was intended to be important for how implementation would occur.

5.3.4.2 LOTE responsibilities for staff at Departmental level

The Tasmanian LOTE Policy allocated many responsibilities for LOTE implementation to the roles of senior Departmental staff. This recognition of the important role in policy implementation held by senior staff was unprecedented

among other state and territory LOTE policies at the time. Data available for the Queensland, Australian Capital Territory and New South Wales contexts suggested that senior staff were to support implementation, but not to the extent of the Tasmanian Policy's stipulations. Again, the intention was to provide the initial top-down leadership and management support for implementation.

5.3.4.2.a LOTE responsibilities for District Offices staff

The District Superintendent was intended to become "the final arbitrator on decisions concerning which languages will be taught at particular schools" (DEA, 1995a, p. 3). As well they were responsible for:

- ensuring that LOTE pathways are established in the district
- facilitating the staffing decisions necessary to maintain LOTE pathways for the requisite numbers of hours in schools
- working with the Deputy Secretary (Education) to ensure a balance of LOTEs across the state in accordance with the set participation targets
- supporting the implementation of LOTE within all interested schools

(DEA, 1995a, p. 5).

In New South Wales, similar positions were created, locally termed Regional Planning Consultants. They were to be responsible to ensure a LOTE communication network.

5.3.4.2.b Responsibilities for Director of Educational Programs and Director of Educational Planning

Two senior members of Departmental staff, the Director of Educational Programs and the Director of Educational Planning, were to be responsible for:

- ensuring that LOTE teachers have access to suitable high quality curriculum materials
- developing and disseminating recommended standards of language proficiency for teachers to use according to the LOTE Statement and Profile (DEA, 1995a, p. 5)
- ensuring that planning progresses according to the planned timetable

- keeping the Deputy Secretary (Education) informed on progress towards participation targets
- liaising with Commonwealth on LOTE targets and funding conditions
- liaising with the University of Tasmania to establish pre-service training courses in LOTEs
- developing inservice professional development programs for prospective LOTE teachers

(p. 6).

The inherent intention in Policy was that senior DEA staff would have responsibility to the extent that it would be necessary for them to keep abreast of developments in implementation.

In summary answering Research Question 1 and partly Research Question 3, the intended Policy was multi-faceted and detailed in many areas. However, tracing the implementation or adoption models in schools in the early years is important to further understand the policy-into-practice aspect of this research. Following are data from teachers regarding the actual implementation in and by schools, again partly answering Research Questions 1 and 3.

5.4 Outcomes of system management for LOTE implementation: Teachers' perceptions

Continuing the analysis of the system level decisions taken concerning primary LOTE implementation, Section 5.4 presents further findings of the study. Schools instituted three models of LOTE provision. This occurred with system support provided by Policy funding.

Studies reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3 on primary LOTE education had reported the various issues inherent in negotiating provision of programs (Breen et al., 1996; Gersten, 1999; Rhodes & Oxford, 1988). The practices and provisions and inherent issues for the Tasmanian context are outlined below. Data sourced include the general primary LOTE teacher survey and the findings from data

collected from the three collaborating teachers. The choice of sub-headings in the next sections was influenced by the findings of the extensive literature review in Chapters 2 and 3.

5.4.1 Teaching models: Semi-specialists, visiting specialists, and peripatetic teaching practice

As was common in the practices of the other Australian states and territories (Breen et al., 1996) and overseas (Driscoll, 1999b), many teachers operated within both visiting and peripatetic teaching contexts. In Tasmania, language-as-object models of LOTE provision were set up, with most teachers fulfilling visiting and peripatetic LOTE specialist or semi-specialist teaching roles in one or more schools. Studies on primary LOTE education had reported the various issues inherent in negotiating provision of programs (Breen et al., 1996; Gersten, 1999; Rhodes & Oxford, 1988).

Teachers responded to the survey item requesting them to describe their model of LOTE provision. The options stated in the survey were as follows:

- Class teacher with LOTE responsibilities on my class only
- Class teacher for a percentage of the time, but with LOTE responsibilities in other classes/grades
- Mobile/visiting specialist in one school
- Mobile/visiting specialist in more than one school
- Other (describe)

Figure 8 shows models of provision of LOTE programs in Tasmanian primary schools. It was either at district or school level where the decision on model-choice was made.

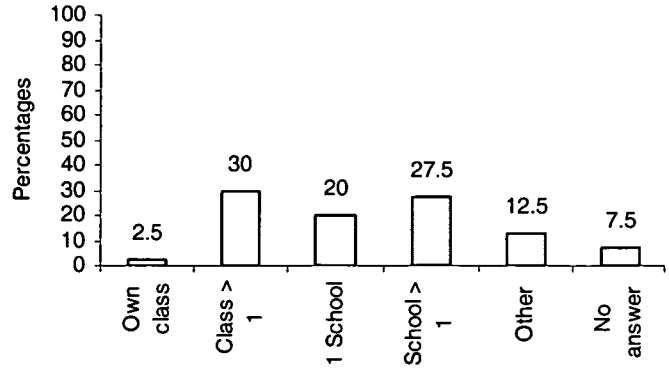

Figure 8: Teachers' descriptions of their models of LOTE provision ($N = 40$).

Only one teacher reported being a class teacher with LOTE responsibilities solely in that classroom. The largest group (n = 12) reported being a class teacher for a percentage of the time, but with LOTE responsibilities in other classes/grades, a role likely to be termed a "semi-specialist" according to the research literature. Lipton's findings in the USA (1994) indicated the most successful program appears to be one where the generalist class teacher is highly proficient in the foreign language so that language can be used at appropriate times during the school day, a role described by Watkinson (cited in Thornton, 1998, p. 6) as a "semi-specialist." Eight teachers reported being a visiting specialist teacher of LOTE in only one school, while eleven teachers were peripatetic LOTE specialists in more than one school. The five teachers reporting an "other" model of provision mentioned a LOTE/Flying Start (Early Literacy) combination (n = 1); solely a specialist for LOTE (n = 1); a special programs teacher (LOTE, Gifted and Talented, Sports, Relief) (n = 1); specialist LOTE/librarian combination (n = 1); and secondary English/LOTE/AST position (n = 1).

The peripatetic model of LOTE provision allowed the intention of the Policy to be realised in the initial years of implementation of the Policy guidelines. In these early years, with teacher training yet to be instituted, existing primary LOTE teachers and/or secondary level teachers willing to work in the primary sector, were able to work in a number of schools.

Teachers responding to this survey were divided in their perceptions of the best model of practice. Figure 9 shows teachers' perceptions of the most effective model of primary LOTE provision.

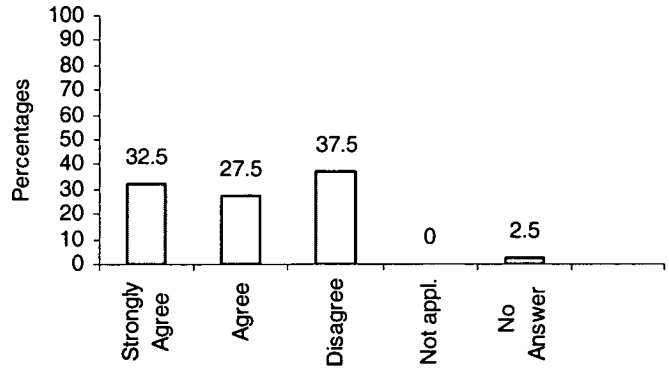

Figure 9: Teachers' agreement or otherwise with the statement, "I believe that in reality, the most effective way of meeting the needs of students learning LOTE is to provide a specialist LOTE teacher who teaches nothing else but LOTE in a number of schools" ($N = 40$).

Most teachers (60%) agreed with the survey item with the majority commenting that providing one peripatetic LOTE teacher who teaches nothing else but LOTE in a number of schools: ensures LOTE receives dedicated time; ensures continuity; ensures meeting children's needs; allows teachers to focus on curriculum content; allows for one focus to cause less exertion and energy and time expended; allows the specialist to develop an identity and be part of a school team of teachers; adds to teacher's credibility and allows their personality to be known; allows the specialist to focus on behaviour management; and allows teachers to do one thing [LOTE], and to do it well.

Yet as can be seen from Figure 9 above, the teachers did not all necessarily agree that peripatetic was the best model of primary LOTE practice. Those disagreeing with a peripatetic context being the best option (37.5% of respondents) indicated in the open-ended section of the survey that they preferred the generalist class teacher to be a semi-specialist. Teachers commented that such a scenario allows: incidental focus on LOTE; generalist classroom teachers who can utilise LOTE daily; decreasing the possibility that the wrong message appears (that specialist teachers are somehow "special" or "talented") found in other research (Campbell, 1992 and Thornton, 1995, cited in Thornton, 1998, p. 12); immersion; a situation

to develop where LOTE becomes a natural part of the classroom routine; teachers of LOTE know the children and the wider curriculum; continuity; and integration or embedding.

There is clearly no consensus able to be drawn from the data in this study on the best model for primary LOTE provision from a teacher's perspective, as each teacher is drawing on their own opinions, attitudes and beliefs to apply to their own context. The districts, schools or principals were opting for the peripatetic model of practice, as this ensured fewer problems with staffing provisions.

Regarding shortcomings of this model of provision, ten teachers perceived lack of time—either lack of face-to-face time in front of the class, or lack of planning time—as disadvantages of implementing LOTE programs in such a way, also suggested in the literature as being an issue in LOTE curriculum policy implementation (Breen et al., 1996). Three teachers explained the difficulties of being a peripatetic LOTE specialist teaching large numbers of children: "I feel I barely know them" (Respondent F, Survey item 6); "Takes time to develop rapport if only seeing children once a week" (Respondent AA, Survey item 6); "I have difficulty monitoring/tracking all 350 students" (Respondent, KK, Survey item 6).

The qualitative data collected from Sandy, Rhonda and Jodie highlighted those three teachers' comments on the issue of model of provision. Jodie was a "semi-specialist" who taught LOTE to her class only. Jodie's comments are presented first and will be followed by a report of the perceptions of Sandy and Rhonda.

With evidence from other studies that many semi-specialist, visiting and peripatetic LOTE specialist teachers (Breen et al., 1996) experience an anxiety in implementing new LOTE curricula, the results of this Tasmanian study showed similar findings. Jodie reported the most difficult aspect of implementing primary LOTE as "being LOTE teacher and classroom teacher." In agreeing to add the LOTE teaching tasks to her teaching load, she had insisted that she did not wish to relinquish her generalist class teacher tasks, in the hope that her LOTE teaching could be part of her classroom teaching. The ideal situation, according to Jodie,

would be to be part of a LOTE team in a school. Being both generalist class teacher and specialist LOTE teacher is difficult, Jodie said. She commented, "sometimes you're thinking as a LOTE teacher and sometimes you're thinking as a classroom teacher." The difficulty, according to Jodie, was a perceived loss of control (Jodie, int. 4, 18/11/97).

Jodie described her transformation into a half-time Indonesian teacher as having been "a steep learning curve" (Jodie, int. 1, 20/10/97), especially due to some of that teaching being in the upper primary area. She explained, "I'm learning . . . to adapt things to their particular needs" (20/20/97), identified as an emerging trend in Section 4.6 and similar to the research findings of Saez and Carretero (1998). She described being the sole semi-specialist LOTE teacher in the school and the skills required thus: "[i]t's all your teaching skills . . . organisational skills, liaising with other teachers . . . being able to read all the literature that comes in . . . making decisions . . . budgeting . . . learning about . . . different developmental stages in children" (Jodie, int. 4, 18/11/97).

Jodie's comment was that it took her a few years of teaching "to really feel comfortable" (Jodie, int. 3, 12/11/97). Sandy's reports were that she, like Jodie, understood why some mobile specialists feel they "don't belong" (Sandy, Pilot int. 5, 9/12/96). She likened her feelings of uncertainty experienced with LOTE teaching now to the similar feelings she had when she first started teaching.

Managing the dual roles of generalist class teacher and specialist LOTE teacher for a number of classes, according to Jodie, "eat[s] into your normal time" (Jodie, int. 4, 18/11/97). She added, "[b]ut as a . . . specialist teacher . . . you're dealing with more children, and so you've only got a certain amount of time in that class" (18/11/97). Within the literature reviewed there were also studies that highlighted the issues related to economic costs in terms of time and funding in the teaching of primary LOTE (Breen et al., 1996). Lack of time was Sandy's concern regarding classroom teaching of LOTE. "I very rarely find I've got time on my hands" (Sandy, int. 1, 4/7/97), she said. As regards shortage of funds, the issue for Sandy was similar to several survey responses. Sandy's perceptions of policy also translated to funding issues. She was fearful that "the money allocation has

been reduced" for LOTE and doubted the conviction of her school to continue with the funding of LOTE if central funds were decreased (Sandy, Survey item 15).

The logistics of peripatetic provision have daunted Sandy at times. She explained, "[s]ome schools are better in that they'll give you time for planning" (Sandy, Pilot int. 5, 9/12/97). Planning time was a negotiated process for Sandy in each of her three schools. Rhonda made similar comments. As an outcome of her semi-specialist teaching load, Rhonda said, "I feel as if I've got one-and-a-half jobs at the moment" (Rhonda, int. 1, 17/7/97).

Yet another issue documented in the literature (Breen et al., 1996, pp. 53–54, 70–71) impacting on LOTE teachers' negotiation of models of provision is that of increased workloads for teachers. The most burdensome aspect of being peripatetic, according to Sandy, was preparation for the (sometimes) hundreds of copies of the worksheet materials needed (Sandy, Pilot int. 5, 9/12/96.

The issue of being peripatetic is not merely solved, according to Rhonda, with the provision of a specialist room. Rhonda stated that her preference to be a visiting LOTE teacher was preferable to the alternative where students might visit her in a separate LOTE room. She commented "because I want to be part of the classroom—not have the kids dropped off to me and being seen as something quite separate . . . I think if it was suggested that I have my own LOTE area, I'd fight it fairly strongly" (Rhonda, int. 4, 14/8/97).

Along with the less advantageous aspects of semi-specialist, visiting and peripatetic teaching practice, this study found evidence of teachers' perceptions of the benefits in implementing the new foreign language curriculum as regards staffing, time, embedding opportunities and integration opportunities as noted in the literature (Muir, 1999; Martin, 1991, p. 18).

The issue of a model of LOTE practice for primary LOTE implementation described above in the cases of teachers' perceptions about semi-specialist, visiting or peripatetic contexts is linked to provision of a LOTE delivery "team"

as is discussed below; the team provision being a key aspect of the DEA LOTE Policy.

5.4.2 LOTE teachers supported by generalist class teachers

The literature highlighted research on two groups of teachers perceived as integral to the success of implementation of primary foreign language programs as discussed in Section 2.5.2.4.b: the LOTE teacher and the generalist class teacher who oftentimes becomes a semi-specialist him/herself. The Tasmanian LOTE Policy also intended that both types of teachers jointly deliver the LOTE programs in the primary area. The studies of Donato et al. (1996) in the USA and Driscoll (1999b) in England looked at the importance of the generalist class teacher's role for implementation and their importance for the "embedding" processes allowing incidental occurrence of the LOTE in the class at other times than the scheduled time for foreign language learning.

With the existence of language-as-object models and the DEA's staffing of the LOTE programs "over and above" staffing levels, the Tasmanian LOTE Policy intended that generalist class teachers play a role in implementation, to add to the "team" delivery of the LOTE curriculum. Schools variously attended to this aspect of provision and LOTE teachers commented on their realisation of that goal in practice. Figure 10 below shows teachers' responses to the survey item regarding their agreement or otherwise as to whether generalist class teachers support their LOTE program.

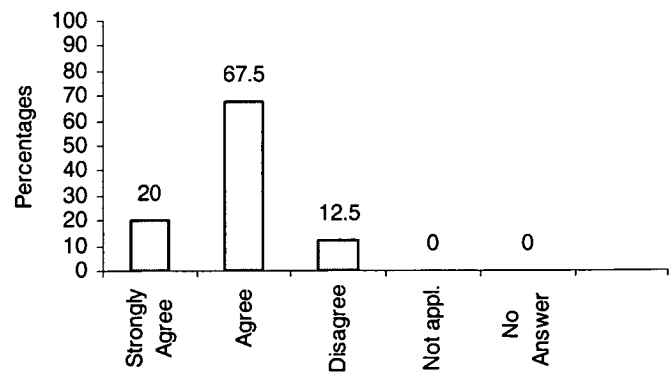

Figure 10: Teachers' response to the statement, "Looking at all of the classes where I teach, I would say the class teachers totally support my LOTE teaching" ($N = 40$).

Teachers' positive responses about the support they receive from generalist class teachers towards their LOTE programs indicated the Policy aim was being addressed in practice to an adequate extent—the fewer number of respondents who "strongly agree" suggesting a hesitation in respondents' perceptions that support was occurring to the greater extent they might prefer. As in the Scottish studies of Boyes and Pignatelli (as cited in Low, 1998) and Low et al. (1995), some, but not all generalist class teachers in the Tasmanian context reportedly made attempts to "integrate" the material and to "embed" the foreign language in other lessons.

Modern foreign language teachers in the British studies reported variously that generalist class teachers helped the slower students, managed practical activities and used some language between specialist visits. This was evident in the Tasmanian context as is discussed by the three teachers participating in the study who reported varying degrees of support from generalist class teachers. Advantages and disadvantages arising from the creation of this LOTE "team" to deliver the LOTE programs were many.

Because she was a semi-specialist teacher, Rhonda was able to embed LOTE in her own class at some stages in the week, concluding that her class received more LOTE time compared to other classes.

Rhonda was positive about what a "team" approach can offer. She said the LOTE teacher's teaching style is affected positively with the presence of a class teacher in the room. She touched on the fact that accountability and quality assurance issues arise here, when she stated, "with the classroom teacher in the room, I feel that they should get good quality from me as well, not only the children. Otherwise they might think it's a bit of a waste of time" (Rhonda, int. 1, 17/7/97).

One generalist class teacher was overtly supportive of Rhonda's LOTE program. Although having no proficiency in Indonesian herself, this particular generalist class teacher was also willing to use the LOTE in front of Rhonda and the students. Explaining the extent of the support, she said, "At times we divide the

class in half . . . she is most willing to take a role" (Rhonda, int. 1, 17/7/97), that particular generalist class teacher often encouraging the children to speak in Indonesian.

It was through the team teaching with pairs of teachers that the SOSE key learning area was included in LOTE implementation. Rhonda elaborated on the long-established course of study in Grades 5 and 6 at her school for a comparative study of other cultures, related mainly through the SOSE units (Rhonda, int. 2, 24/7/97).

A further benefit of having the generalist class teachers present, in Rhonda's belief, is that they were able to assist either the teacher or the students. "There are two or three [students] in each class who do need extra assistance", she added, "the teachers know who they are and certainly help a lot" (Rhonda, int. 5, 21/8/97). As well, practical help was often available, for example, a teacher to provide "another pair of hands" to enable her to take video-footage of the role-play market scenes at the end of the unit being observed in the data collection period.

In Rhonda's case, similar to the Donato et al. (1996) study, where generalist class teachers' attitudes towards the LOTE changed in a positive manner over time, changes for the positive became noticeable in her relationship with her generalist class teachers over the first two years of implementation. Teachers began approaching Rhonda to suggest thematic units. She said, "they've gone from me suggesting my ideas and saying half a dozen ideas . . . to being proactive and saying, We've been thinking about it, how about . . ." (Rhonda, int. 6, 28/8/97) within the unit planning.

However, not all reports from the survey or interview data tell positive "team teaching" stories, similar to findings from the Scottish study (Low et al., 1995). Survey data included a report from two Tasmanian teachers about the generalist class teachers' enthusiasm declining as they saw students improving and making progress more quickly than they themselves (Respondents E & T, Survey item 5).

Traces of fear, anxiety and confusion at opening up to peer appraisal, accountability and inadequate training also surfaced in Rhonda's comments during interview. Rhonda believed that the Policy implementation guidelines requiring the generalist class teacher's presence in the LOTE classroom represented an "extra pressure" (Rhonda, int. 2, 24/7/97). Initially she admitted to a nervousness teaching in front of others, pointing out the unusual situation of teaching in front of colleagues who "have got tremendous ideas and years of wealth of experience" (24/7/97). Rhonda believed that it must have been an eighteen-month period before she dispelled any feelings of nervousness.

The DEA's intention (DEA, 1995a) that the generalist class teacher would take a role in the implementation did occur in practice although the extent to which this support was effective varied according to the perceptions of the LOTE specialist teachers.

5.4.3 LOTE teachers in training

Already pointed out in Section 5.2, the intended Tasmanian LOTE policy had not stipulated the level of training required for primary LOTE teachers. However, according to the literature reviewed in Chapter 3, a proficiency in the LOTE alone is just one of the many competencies required for LOTE teachers to exemplify best practice (Met & Galloway, 1992; Curtain & Pesola, 1994; Commins, 1996). Successful primary LOTE programs are complemented by having a qualified and proficient teacher to teach the LOTE (ALLC, 1996; Blondin et al., 1997; Breen et al., 1996; Low et al., 1995).

Within the LOTE teacher training period, teachers should have developed competencies in the language and background culture, understandings of first and second language development, methodology for teaching foreign languages and literatures to children as well as background studies on school curriculum, knowledge of content areas and integration (Stroupe et al., 1998). Carless (1998) concluded that a system which supports the training at the classroom level, by monitoring and ensuring adequate training and acknowledgement of qualifications is more likely to implement any new curriculum policies successfully. According

to Carless (1998), Breen et al. (1996) and Frost (1999) the training needs to be ongoing.

The DEA provided training opportunities as stated in the intended policy (DEA, 1995a, p. 4). Teachers commented on the issue with the open-ended response section to this survey item. Although the teachers were released from teaching duties for a certain amount of school time for both the weekly language-specific seminars and for the occasional intensive LOTE method seminars, they still were financially responsible for some aspects of the training. Rhonda noted the heavy study load on top of a full-time teaching load, stating she was "hanging in, barely!" (Rhonda, Survey item 15) with the in-service professional development program for LOTE teachers.

The DEA LOTE Policy included statements referring to the intention to employ trained teachers and also to train others when required (DEA, 1995a, pp. 3–4), a further key aspect of this Policy. Teachers implementing LOTE programs between 1996 and 1998 were not all highly trained in either the target LOTE or the LOTE method. As was mentioned earlier in this chapter, the highest teaching qualification of 38% of respondents was a Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of Teaching. Twenty-three per cent held a Graduate Certificate or Graduate Diploma, while 13% had masters degrees. Regarding their highest LOTE teaching qualification, 28% of respondents had achieved a competency rating of ISLPR 2 or 3. Others held a Graduate Certificate or Graduate Diploma (LOTE related) (18%) or a University major in a LOTE (20%) or ISLPR 1 or Tasmanian Certificate of Education Stage 4 (23%).

Teachers' achievement of a mastery of the LOTE they teach is a key factor in these primary LOTE teachers' ability to implement primary LOTE programs aimed at LOTE proficiency for student learning outcomes according to the literature reviewed in Chapter 3 (Brosh, 1996). Figure 11 below shows teachers' responses to survey item 3 concerning their own mastery of the primary LOTE they teach.

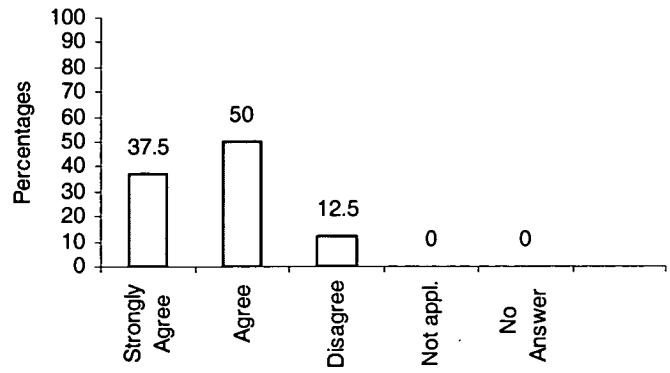

Figure 11: Teachers' agreement or otherwise with the statement, "Within the primary classroom I believe I have mastered the LOTE I teach" ($N = 40$).

The majority of respondents to the survey believed that within the primary classroom they have mastered the LOTE they teach.

The literature reviewed in Chapter 3 included reports from studies that found foreign language teachers acknowledged their limited abilities in the foreign language or believed they were not well-enough qualified (Low, Duffield, Brown et al., 1993, p. 54; Tedick & Walker, 1995; Vilke 1993b, Rhodes & Oxford, 1988). If the assumption was that subsequent to the DEA LOTE Policy publication the DEA set the ISLPR 2 and 3 courses as minimum competency levels, then teachers in the initial two years of LOTE Policy implementation teaching Grades 3 and 4 primary school programs were not well-enough qualified, although the supplementary document (DEA, 1995c) distributed in order to clarify the Policy intentions mentioned that the Tasmanian Certificate of Education Stage 4 LOTE qualification was sufficient if upgraded to the Stage 4+ (or university level of study equivalent) with a LOTE method course added.

Alongside the training in the language, particular training in primary school level pedagogy is perceived as necessary for implementing successful programs (Breen et al., 1996; Driscoll, 1999b) for LOTE teachers. Yet the research evidence (Rhodes & Oxford, 1988; Low et al., 1995; Vilke, 1993b) also found that many of the teachers of primary LOTE are not proficient in primary level teaching and learning strategies.

Similarly this Tasmanian research found that the Tasmanian teachers implementing the "on-line" programs were not all primary trained. Fifty-eight per cent of the respondents were trained as primary teachers and 35% had trained as secondary teachers (7% did not indicate a response to this survey item), highlighting the possibility that secondary trained teachers were not familiar with primary pedagogy. This possibility was confirmed in the data collected in the open-ended section of the survey instrument.

Responding to Survey item 1 concerning their perceptions of being a competent primary LOTE teacher, six respondents reported concerns over their lack of abilities to utilise primary teaching methods. As a secondary trained teacher, Sandy was one teacher who responded to the survey item that she required more professional development in generic primary teaching methods and knowledge of classroom management strategies (Sandy, Survey item 1).

Concerns were expressed by teachers in this study about their perceived lack of cultural knowledge, lack of knowledge of strategies for planning, and lack of knowledge about primary LOTE assessment, although these were only few in relation to the total number of teachers' written comments in the open-ended section of the survey. The role of grammar teaching in the LOTE classroom was also a concern.

A particular primary level teaching strategy, "embedding" or "integration" (Met & Galloway, 1992, p. 876), was reported in the literature as a necessary skill for primary LOTE teachers. Primary LOTE teachers who are skilled at implementing general curriculum according to thematic areas (Canale & Swain, 1980) and who are able to combine this with attending to the LOTE-specific listening, speaking, reading and writing modes of language education, can be more effective.

Evidence collected during the study from the three collaborating teachers highlights this issue. Jodie told how this embedding/integrating is still in its infancy in her classroom. Although there was evidence in her LOTE teaching that Jodie linked LOTE to other key learning areas, she admitted to feeling fortunate that very little explicit planning is necessary for such linking, as it occurs

incidentally. As a semi-specialist she had a knowledge of the whole curriculum for the age group she was teaching. Linking to the LOTE curriculum area and utilising the LOTE in daily classroom routines became an extension of her usual tasks as a generalist class teacher (Jodie, int. 4, 18/11/97).

In the data gathered from Rhonda and Jodie, reliance on general teaching strategies from their knowledge of primary teaching pedagogy seemed to be the case, rather than a specific familiarity with foreign language teaching methodologies that is expected in primary LOTE teaching and found in the research by Curtain and Martinez (1990). In Sandy's case, although trained in secondary level teaching, she stated that she relied on her parenting skills mixed with Physical Education teaching skills[7].

Some studies examined in the literature reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3 noted particular strategies instituted by certain departments of education for LOTE teacher training. The Scottish studies reported inclusion of tutor-trainers, an extra full-time member of staff from the secondary school, to help with the foreign language implementation (Low, Duffield, Johnstone, Brown & Bankowska, 1993). The Tasmanian context had not provided for this within Policy statements and neither had the teachers reported it occurring at all in practice.

5.4.4 Teachers' use of information technology as a tool for LOTE teaching and learning

There was a clear intention for information technology to be utilised for Policy implementation as discussed earlier in this Chapter, in Section 5.3.3.2.c. It is not clear, however, whether the DEA intended (1995a) that information technology would be provided to support both the teaching <u>and</u> learning of LOTE; that is, information computer technology that would be made available for student as well as teacher use.

[7] Characteristics of physical education teaching are (a) the priority given to "doing" rather than "knowing"; (b) motivation to be found from within pupils; (c) achievement of performance; and (d) class space gives freedom to move (Pieron, 1991, p. 962).

When utilised well, the software and information technology available for the LOTE classroom, including access to the World Wide Web, can be seen to enhance teaching and learning strategies. Figure 12 shows teachers' responses to the survey item regarding their use of the information technology package provided to "on-line" LOTE programs.

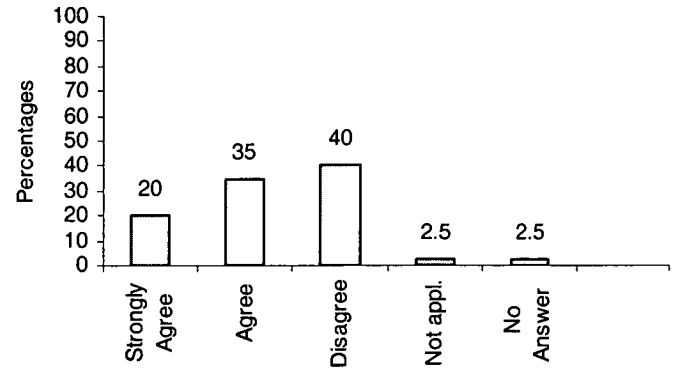

Figure 12: Teachers' agreement or otherwise with the statement, "I utilise the information technology package provided to "on-line" LOTE programs as much as possible" ($N = 40$).

Over half (55%) "strongly agreed" or "agreed" that they use the IT as much as possible. Data collected from the study of the three collaborating teachers highlight the issue further.

The school's choice to locate the LOTE computer hardware in a particular area in the school affected teachers' use of this IT. Teachers commented that "the siting of the computer in the library . . . [is] also a handicap" (Respondent LL, Survey item 18), and "it's a mile away from my room, not permanently hooked up" (Respondent I, Survey item 18). The schools that utilised the LOTE computer hardware and software for other purposes than LOTE also caused LOTE teachers to experience access problems (Respondent F, Survey item 18).

According to the reports from Sandy, Rhonda and Jodie, each school was utilising IT in a different way and translating Policy intentions in different manners. Rhonda's school added an internet connection and a CD-ROM to the "on-line" IT package provided by the Department of Education and the Arts. Rhonda

commented, "The Share-vision adds a different dimension to the communicative activities I can offer" (Rhonda, Survey item 18). She used CD-ROM activities with small groups for reinforcement of language. A connection to the internet, according to Rhonda, offered access to unlimited amounts of materials. However introduction of this IT package was not problem-free: she would like to have had "more initial training" (Rhonda, Survey item 18).

Noting both the literature suggesting computer technology resources make an impact on LOTE teacher decision-making (Spolsky, 1991, p. 584), and the research literature which states that LOTE teachers should possess an expertise in information technology (Peyton, 1997, p. 2), the main issues emerging are access to IT, shortage of time to utilise IT, and the importance of IT training for teachers to become proficient at using this medium as a tool for teaching foreign languages. Clearly the data sourced here suggests that primary LOTE teachers were utilising LOTE information technology to varying degrees. While 55% of the respondents indicated they utilised IT, a substantial minority (45%) indicated they did not utilise this technology as much as possible.

Before examining the reasons why LOTE was implemented in such ways, an evaluation section now follows examining the perceived advantages and shortcomings of the Policy and the fact that the Department of Education produced supplementary documents to overcome shortcomings in the Policy document itself.

5.5 Identified advantages and shortcomings of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy: The need for the development of supplementary documentation

As discussed earlier in this chapter, the intentions of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy were perceived to be advantageous or beneficial in certain areas and vague or disadvantageous in others. Both positive aspects and shortcomings of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy are discussed here. They have been isolated in a

comparison of intended policy and teachers' perceptions of systemic management examined above.

As they were key figures in LOTE Policy implementation, the LOTE teachers provided their perceptions and understandings about the intentions of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy for this study. Figure 13 shows implementing LOTE teachers' beliefs about being conversant or otherwise with the Tasmanian LOTE Policy.

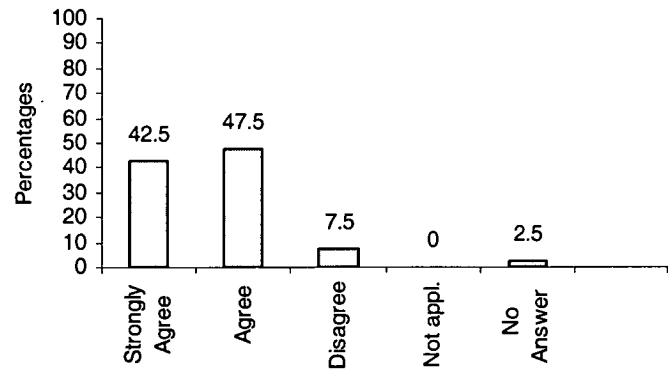

Figure 13: Teachers' agreement or otherwise with the statement, "I am fully conversant with the aims and the content of the LOTE Policy" ($N = 40$).

In response to the statement "I am fully conversant with the aims and the content of the LOTE Policy", 90% of respondents either "strongly agreed" or "agreed".

Figure 14 shows findings on the implementing LOTE teachers' perceptions concerning their agreement or otherwise with the aims and content of the Policy.

In response to the statement "I agree totally with the aims and the content of the LOTE Policy", 78% of the respondents either "strongly agreed" or "agreed" with the aims and content of the Policy.

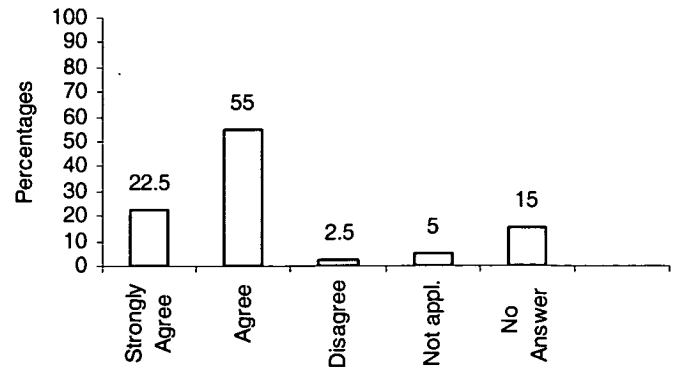

Figure 14: Teachers' agreement or otherwise with the statement, "I agree totally with the aims and the content of the LOTE Policy" ($N = 40$).

Almost half (45%) of respondents chose to reply to the open-ended response section of this survey item. Those who agreed with the Policy mentioned aspects such as the Policy being "well thought-out." The Policy "provides a balance to language and culture study" according to one teacher commenting on the survey sheet. Others agreed variously with the guaranteed pathways aspects, the communicative aims, integration objectives and equity issues.

Those who disagreed with the aims and content of policy commented about the intention that LOTE was not compulsory for all primary students, that there was insufficient Policy emphasis on culture study, and that the "emphasis on Asian languages . . . I think has become over-emphasised in practice" (Respondent Y, Survey item 16).

During the interviews, the three teachers featured in the study also made detailed comment about the intentions of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy.

Sandy clarified her perception that the Commonwealth government's statements on LOTE education over recent years, with the focus on learning languages for economic and career purposes, differ to her own views on LOTE education. Although she mentioned her agreement with the possibility of enhanced international trade for Australia as the children develop proficiencies in the LOTE, she recounted parents' comments focusing more on careers by saying, "But will it give my child a job?" (Sandy, Pilot int. 5, 9/12/96). Regarding early-

childhood education, she felt that including LOTE education for economic reasons "certainly doesn't feature" for her (9/12/96). However, she did agree with the government's aims to create a more tolerant multicultural Australia and stated her belief that LOTE may in some way add to tolerance levels in society (9/12/96).

As regards her perceptions on Policy intentions for choice of LOTE, Sandy stated her support of the study of any language. Specifically it made sense to her to study the language of a close neighbour, the language of a country geographically close for travel purposes (Sandy, Pilot int. 5, 9/12/96). She agreed that trade links were a small concern for her, and should not be the sole reason why young Australian students should learn Indonesian.

Rhonda agreed totally with "the pathway stipulation and the gradual introduction, starting in Grade 3 and adding a grade per year" (Rhonda, Survey item 15). But she said, "it needs funding over and above the school staffing allocation or else it wouldn't happen" (Survey item 15).

Jodie reported being concerned that the time allocation for LOTE in the primary curriculum, two and a half hours per week, was a key issue and wondered whether anyone has looked realistically "at how much time we can give LOTE in primary" (Jodie, Survey item 15).

To summarise the findings on teachers' perceptions about intended policy, overall the teachers participating in the study stated they were conversant and were in agreement with the intended Policy. This "sympathy" with the rationale, as was in evidence in data collected from Sandy and Rhonda, according to Noddings and Enright (1983, p. 182), is important for the successful resulting implementation. Teachers are said to understand and see the relevance of the change when they have "sympathised" with the intended innovation, and when they have developed opinions, sensations, conditions and feelings about how it will impact on them.

The vague nature of many of the aspects contained in the Tasmanian LOTE Policy, however, resulted in the Department of Education and the Arts preparing a

series of supplementary documents to inform Departmental administrative staff, school principals and teachers of the intentions of the Policy, as well as to document the many aspects of implementation as was described in Chapter 1, Section 1.4.2. The appearance of these documents was an attempt to clarify details of the many policy aspects for staff involved at all levels.

The Policy itself had made only brief mention of "additional staffing" which would be provided for implementation. It was the *Learning Area Directions Statement: Working with Statements and Profiles* (DEA, 1995b) which provided details of how additional staffing allocation would help deliver the programs. In particular, principals were advised that:

- the LOTE staffing allocation was "over and above" provision of the normal staffing formula and thus should mean that principals ensure the generalist class teacher remains in class to support the specialist LOTE teacher
- graphics interface or video-conferencing facilities were to be installed for both classroom delivery of LOTE, Asian studies or professional networking for LOTE teachers
- the intention was to fund and appoint centrally-based LOTE implementation officers to help establish LOTE programs.

There is an historical context presented in this supplementary document, *The Learning Area Direction Statement: Working with Statements and Profiles* (Educational Programs Branch, 1995b), yet notably not within the Tasmanian LOTE Policy itself. This section places the Tasmanian LOTE implementation within an historical, national context. Teachers and principals accessing this document have immediate reference to the nationally endorsed rationale for early LOTE learning in schools and to the goals of the nationally developed LOTE Statement and Profile (Curriculum Corporation, 1994a, 1994b).

Teachers' planning for LOTE was also deconstructed in more detail within this supplementary document. According to this document, the Direction Statement, teachers should plan a LOTE program:

- acknowledging the broad and specifically LOTE goals of the national Statement (Curriculum Corporation, 1994a)
- with a cross-curricular perspective, linking to other learning areas and preferably ensuring daily class sessions for student learning
- according to the strands and bands listed in the Statement (Curriculum Corporation, 1994a)
- based on a communicative approach (Educational Programs Branch, 1995b, p. 12)
- acknowledging students' linguistic, personal, rational, creative or kinaesthetic capabilities, with LOTE education catering to these learning styles (DEA, 1991).

Another supplementary document, *Circular Memorandum—Implementation of LOTE Policy—1996* (DEA, 1995c) appeared at the start of the implementation period to advise Tasmanian principals of details of Policy implementation and in particular the funding implications. It detailed:

- the list of "on-line" schools for 1996, a total of 18 from around the state
- the LOTE teaching qualification level required for teachers implementing the programs (Stage 4 LOTE proficiency, or Tasmanian Certificate of Education matriculation level)
- professional development opportunities to be developed for teachers including [unstipulated] LOTE Methodology courses
- particulars of the appointment of three centrally based implementation officers whose role it would be to work with the Principal Curriculum Officer for LOTE, the districts and to assist schools to establish their LOTE programs
- funding provision for staffing, ongoing support of approximately $4000 per year per LOTE class. In the first year this would translate as only $2050 per Grade 3 LOTE class, allowing pay for staffing for one and a quarter hours per week, which is half the recommended time allocation.

Yet another supplementary document appeared at this time: The *Supplementary Information on LOTE Implementation in Primary Schools* document (DEA, 1995b) provided an overview timetable for implementation over the period 1996–

2001. By 2001, it was envisaged that approximately 180 primary schools would be "on-line". (By 2000, 96 schools were "on-line".)

The fourth supplementary document to appear at this time, the *Implementation of DEA LOTE Policy* (Educational Programs Branch, 1995a) was produced to represent a framework which strengthens the case for implementation and one which takes into account the fact that policy implementation is a complex process, not a linear event. This two-part document, comprising a three-page Implementation Plan and the three-page Timeline, including tasks to be undertaken, details and names of consulting personnel, as well as deadline dates, showed graphically the detailed nature and complex scope of the implementation process.

If viewing these additional policy documents from the "strong/weak" framework or "top-down/bottom-up" dichotomy, these detailed documents represent the stronger high-impact side of the Department of Education's management strategies. As these documents were designed for school principals and administrative staff and other personnel directly responsible for funding the LOTE implementation, the details are considered appropriate and likely to disperse any ambiguities or ambivalences that might erode implementation (Fullan, 1991a, p. 80). Again these document exemplified the "expected" leadership-dominated early stages of curriculum implementation (p. 109).

The additional policy documents also detailed LOTE program models of provision (Educational Programs Branch, 1995a), including:

- "language-as-object" programs (where the object of study is the LOTE itself)
- "language-as-content" programs (which focus on teaching other learning area content through the target language, often termed bilingual, immersion, or partial immersion programs)
- "accelerated" programs (where students reach the target proficiency in a shorter period than normal)
- "language with vocational orientation" programs, as noted in *Working with Statements and Profiles: Learning Area Direction Statement LOTE* (p. 16).

The decision on choice of model was to be determined by the school context in consultation with the teacher implementing the program. This was a procedure likely to be followed in other policy contexts, for example in the Canadian research described by Fullan (1991a, p. 274–5). It is not only the Tasmanian context where teachers are acknowledged, if only implicitly, as the curriculum implementer (Clandinin & Connelly, 1992, p. 367) delivering content and having ownership over what is taught and how it is taught (Clayton, 1993).

The amount of detail on resource provision in the four supplementary documents appearing at this time was overwhelming. This is understandable as those supplementary documents were designed chiefly for administrative staff and principals who managed budgets and needed to access funding information.

Concerning the specific teaching and delivery concerns, curriculum guidelines found in the Policy can be considered to be able to "go some distance in providing sources of ideas and activities, but they are not the intact curriculum for use" (Fullan, 1991a, p. 274). The design of LOTE units within the Tasmanian programs was to be decided by the teachers implementing the programs, using the above framework detailed in the supplementary documents as guidelines.

The Tasmanian LOTE Policy revealed itself as neither too strong nor too weak a framework. The handing of responsibilities to both senior DEA staff and also to teachers "at the chalkface" to ensure time stipulations be kept, learning standards and student participation targets be adhered to, and teacher training programs be instituted, showed an intended balance of top-down and bottom-up responsibility division and a sharing of implementer and manager responsibility to create more likelihood of successful implementation. This "balance" had been indicated as preferable in the literature review.

Although responsibilities for key personnel were spelled out in detail in the Policy, curriculum policy documentation in Chapter 3 shows that some aspects were addressed, but many other important aspects were not, some specifically regarding LOTE education. These shortcomings are addressed below, including:

- the lack of acknowledgement of the importance of LOTE Planning groups or LOTE implementation committees
- the lack of acknowledgement of the importance of the LOTE teaching community/network
- the brief comment about the teaching of culture, not further explained in the Policy or the supplementary documents
- the lack of specification of primary LOTE teacher qualifications (Spolsky, 1991)
- lack of explicit provision of coaching models for LOTE teachers to observe models of best practice
- lack of stipulations of language knowledge learners will need to have, especially cultural knowledge
- lack of provision for LOTE teachers to gain an understanding of policy implications through explicit reflection strategies and acknowledgement of beliefs.

These important aspects of implementation were non-existent in the Policy itself and only specification of primary LOTE teacher qualifications were alluded to in the supplementary document (DEA, 1995c). These issues are discussed in greater detail in the following paragraphs.

The first issue concerns there being no stipulation in the Policy to set up a coordinating committee for LOTE policy implementation. This is seen by the researcher as a Policy shortcoming. Two years earlier than the appearance of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy, Nicholas et al. (1993) recommended that Language Policy Implementation Committees be set up, to "refine and evaluate the implementation" of language policies. Similarly, overseas research notes the importance of planning groups to guide the policy implementation process (Brown, 1994; Curtain & Pesola, 1994). The Tasmanian LOTE Policy itself did not stipulate the set-up of committees or groups to guide this language curriculum policy implementation, although consultative committees had been formed in Tasmania to dialogue issues inherent in LOTE Policy formulation since 1993, with the current LOTE strategy (Harrington, 1993) and in prior decades with previous LOTE strategies (O'Byrne, 1976). Considered critical according to the

literature, the Tasmanian LOTE Policy's non-inclusion of this key aspect is significant.

Secondly, the importance of an "up-close" context—a network of LOTE teachers working with other primary LOTE teachers in clusters or nearby in districts—has been highlighted as "critical" by McLaughlin (1998) and its inclusion in Policy should necessarily follow for successful implementation. The Tasmanian LOTE Policy does not address the primary LOTE "up-close" community explicitly, although an implicit understanding of this teacher behaviour (teachers will naturally seek out the help of other teachers) may be seen within statements such as "Principals . . . leading school community discussion . . . taking part in district discussions" (DEA, 1995a, p. 4) or perhaps expected to happen serendipitously with the teacher training programs planned for the period 1996–1999.

The third instance of Policy shortcomings is within curriculum policy documentation, specifically policies that make mention of the provision of qualified, trained LOTE teachers with current competencies in both the target LOTE itself and LOTE teaching methodology as occurred in some overseas countries (Rubichi, 1995; Birckbichler, 1994; Spolsky, 1991) and as was stipulated in other Australian state and territory policies (Northern Territory Teaching Service, 1987; Department of Education Queensland, 1991; Australian Capital Territory Department of Education, 1994). The Tasmanian Department of Education and the Arts documented the intention to train current and prospective teachers which would include "release from teaching" weekly or in blocks, or "retraining a teacher on site" for current teachers (DEA, 1995c, p. 3–4). However, the Tasmanian LOTE Policy itself does not address the level of training or qualification of the LOTE teacher and does not stipulate which areas of language training will be important for LOTE teachers to possess.

A fourth shortcoming of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy concerns teachers' maintenance of proficiency in LOTE. Teachers of languages are constantly required to maintain their proficiency standards in accordance with the changes in the languages they speak. They should be able to rely on policy guidelines to know there will be opportunities for them to develop professionally. This

professional development, according to the literature, may be within a network of teaching colleagues, where teachers choose their level of involvement in professional development, are provided with models or coaching from colleagues, or are provided with opportunities to carry out action research on their teaching. However, the Tasmanian LOTE Policy did not explicitly address this issue.

A fifth point of concern involves observability (Rogers, 1983), highlighted as a key attribute to be included in any policy planning. There were no stipulations in the Tasmanian LOTE Policy for the provision of opportunities for teachers to observe LOTE teaching in action other than in their own classrooms. Nor was there any evidence of the same in an analysis of other state or territory LOTE policies, although the promise of appointment in Western Australian policy of Advisory Teachers might suggest a bottom-up addressing of this issue. Implicitly within statements such as "intensive professional development" (DEA, 1995a), the intention may have been that teachers seek out collegial help in the course of their normal work routines and the jurisdictions sought to rely on the professionalism of teachers in this regard.

In fact, Curtain and Pesola (1994), Gambell and Newton (1989, as cited in Courtland, 1994b), and Gersten (1999) call for a multiple-focus professional development to include training in: language and culture; the link between L1 and L2 development; foreign language and literature teaching method for young children; and, background studies on school curriculum and context. These focused aspects were not explicitly addressed in the Tasmanian LOTE Policy at the end of 1995. However, opportunities were intended to be provided and were implicit in structures such as "intensive professional development" programs (DEA, 1995a, pp. 4, 5), training programs for SOSE teachers (p. 4), principals' facilitation of community and district discussions (p. 4), and principals' facilitation of the professional development program (p. 4).

Research evidence gathered from the literature review in Chapter 2 found that there is a need for policy planning to acknowledge the role of teacher reflection and the importance of teachers exploring their beliefs and attitudes towards their language teaching (Al-Sharafi, 1998; Gambell, 1994b; Pennington, 1993). At no

point in the Tasmanian LOTE Policy, or in the policies of other Australian states and territories where data were available, is there mention made of this assurance being a high priority, although again, there may have been an implicit intention for this to occur in the Department of Education and the Arts' planning for teacher training and community dialogues (DEA, 1995a, p. 4).

Similarly, according to the literature there should also be an acknowledgement of the importance of teachers understanding the planned innovation, and as seems to have been the case for the Department acknowledging the teachers' beliefs and attitudes, the Tasmanian Department of Education and the Arts may have expected that teacher understanding of the change would be dealt with in the discussions they planned would occur in schools lead by principals. However, a clear statement of intention is not evident in the Policy itself.

5.6 Why did primary LOTE implementation occur as it did?

The findings and analysis presented in Sections 5.3 and 5.4 have a system focus and have highlighted aspects of top-down implementation early on in the implementation phase of Tasmanian LOTE Policy implementation and have answered Research Question 1 and partly Research Question 3 examining reasons why LOTE curriculum policy occurred as it did. For the purposes of this study, two sets of causal factors were considered, derived from Fullan's four categories (1991b, p. 379) of factors affecting teachers' negotiation of policy. They were firstly external factors such as funding, wider community accountability pressures and external influences such as documents available to teachers at the time. Secondly were teacher specific factors, such as interpersonal factors relating to LOTE teachers' relationships with generalist class teachers as well as teachers' beliefs formed by their personal and professional histories and experiences. Those teacher-specific reasons are examined in Chapter 6. External factors will be examined in the section following.

5.6.1 External factors affecting primary LOTE implementation

The Department of Education and the Arts provided a leadership-dominated start to the implementation of the new LOTE Policy at the beginning of 1996. Many of the management structures put into place by the DEA impacted on schools'/principals' implementation of policy stipulations. As well, the wider community exerted influence on how the Policy was implemented. These two groups of factors are discussed in Sections 5.6.1.1 and 5.6.1.2 below.

5.6.1.1 System management, organisation and funding of primary LOTE programs

The intention of the Policy was to institute certain mechanisms that would provide a leadership-dominated start to implementation. This was clearly seen through the great deal of detail found in the Responsibilities section of the Policy (DEA, 1995a, pp. 5–6).

Implementation of policy was affected by district/cluster level and principal level decisions. The ways the district superintendent or principal in each context decided to utilise the funding made an impact on school implementation (see Section 5.4 above). The decision of the District or principal to appoint a LOTE teacher part-time, or combine the LOTE role with another teaching role from within existing teaching staff, or provide a peripatetic model of practice, or allow LOTE teachers to remain solely on class (see particularly Section 5.4.1 above), affected the model set up for teachers to undertake classroom implementation.

As was the case in other Australian states and territories and overseas countries' policies, the Tasmanian LOTE Policy (DEA, 1995a) provided a framework for implementation. Fullan (1991a, p. 79ff) described the curriculum policies of certain countries as weak, as they did not define roles clearly and were ambiguous in their expectations, often termed vague. Yet in another sense, this perceived weakness allowed a flexibility for teachers. Consequently weakness need not be viewed in such a negative light. The Tasmanian LOTE Policy framework was neither overly prescriptive (strong) nor too general or vague (weak). What is

obvious in the deconstruction of the key elements of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy is that sufficient detail was provided. As well, the elements contained within the subsections of the Policy contained sufficient flexibility to allow an incremental implementation (Fullan, 1991a, p. 65) that would be devised in each school context according to local, specific needs. In effect, the lack of prescription of detail, perhaps perceived by some as a weakness, gave more ownership to districts and schools as they implemented top-down initiatives in each context.

The "system", according to the curriculum policy implementation literature, should take a managing role in implementation procedures (Fullan, 1991a), and policy planning can take into account a number of management aspects important for successful implementation, all of which occurred according to teachers' perceptions of district and school implementation in the first three years of Policy implementation.

Spolsky (1991, p. 583ff) had specified that the age to begin learning a foreign language should be included in policy planning. In the review of other Australian and overseas foreign language policies it became evident that although context determined when foreign languages were introduced (Doye & Hurrell, 1997, p. 13), policies were recommending the starting age be around the third (Weiss, 1991, p. 28) or fourth (Tucker et al., 1996, p. 539) year of primary school, at around junior to mid-primary (Rubichi, 1995, p. 20). Clearly following trends in other states and territories of Australia, noting the intentions of the Queensland LOTE Policy in particular (Department of Education Queensland, 1991), Tasmania began "on-line" funded implementation at Grade 3 level, and nominated Grade 3 as the entry point for students in "on-line" programs (DEA, 1995a, p. 1). The authority of the Australian context clearly came into force here. Funding beginning for Grade 3 programs affected the schools' policy implementation.

Clayton (1993) viewed the ideal curriculum policy framework as one that balanced the top-down and bottom-up procedures and reform elements and Dunlop et al. (1991, p. 555) had suggested the inclusion of an administration structure for language curriculum implementation. Placing the Tasmanian LOTE

Policy within those two theories, it is clear that an attempt at balance for implementation of language curriculum procedures was factored into the Tasmanian LOTE Policy. This was evident not only in the Policy document itself but also upon examination of the supplementary documentation (Educational Programs Branch, 1995a; DEA, 1995d; DEA, 1995b) and is particularly evident in the section of the Policy document entitled Responsibilities (DEA, 1995a, p. 4). It was clearly intended here that generalist class teachers in the primary classrooms and the specialist or semi-specialist LOTE teachers working with them had an equal responsibility to implement, plan and deliver the programs. This was in clear contrast to the "supporting" roles and responsibilities of teachers of Studies of Society and Environment, Principals, and curriculum support teams (DEA, 1995a, 1995c). Implementation strategies evolved as they did due to the prescription of these responsibilities, or as a reaction against those prescriptions.

Dunlop et al. (1991, p. 555) had suggested that mention be made in language policy about time to be spent on learning. Schools arranged timetables according to Policy stipulations and according to how they were funded for time on task.

Direction of scope and sequence was provided in the Tasmanian LOTE Policy with a description of LOTE learning and indications of requirements for learning and participation. Spolsky (1991) suggested the necessity for inclusion of such statements in policy about the kinds of language knowledge learners will need to have (Dunlop et al., 1991, p. 555) as well as measurement and evaluation of outcomes. The Tasmanian document, the Circular Memorandum (DEA, 1995c), provided contextual reference by listing "on-line" schools for 1996, a reference particularly useful for principals locating their school's position within the state implementation. The Policy provided a certain amount of guidance, however, the supplementary documents provided more necessary information.

Further detail on directions and outcomes is provided with the mention of schools allocating "2.5 hours per week totalling 800 hours between year 3 and 10" for implementation (DEA, 1995a, p. 4; Educational Programs Branch, 1995b, p. 16), an aspect that according to Spolsky (1991, p. 583ff) should be contained in language policy. Compared to the guidelines in the Australian Capital Territory,

New South Wales and Northern Territory, these suggested implementation hours represent similar objectives (see details in Section 3.2.4), although hours for LOTE study in the Australian Capital Territory and New South Wales were to increase as the number of years of implementation increased.

System funding and Policy stipulations were affecting how schools implemented LOTE. In the particular case of language curriculum, the literature recommended that the scope of a language policy cover at least six years of continued language provision (Lindholm, 1990) and that continuity and articulation be addressed (Dunlop et al., 1991, p. 555). This aspect was addressed by the Tasmanian LOTE Policy with the inclusion of eight pathway years of provision, from Grades 3–10 (DEA, 1995a, p. 1), the same as the Western Australian LOTE Policy, similar also to the Northern Territory policy (all grades), the Australian Capital Territory policy (years 3–6), Victorian policy (years P–10) and New South Wales policy (years 1–8).

According to the literature, planning in policy should best demonstrate factors such as relative advantage, compatibility, simplicity, trialability, observability and ownership (Rogers, 1983; Clayton, 1993) before implementation takes place. This idea links to the importance of establishing medium or short-range goals suggested by Fullan: of starting small and evolving (Fullan, 1991a, p. 109).

In the case of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy, details provided in the Requirements section (DEA, 1995a, p. 3) of the Policy document are likely to clarify any relative advantage for personnel involvement with the innovation. Mentioned are a proposed collaboration with other schools and colleges in Districts, IT and materials provision, teacher training, University involvement, access to curriculum implementation officers, and additional staffing per class, all of which would unlikely be present in a non-LOTE teaching position and which would appear attractive to teachers wanting to keep up with changes and develop professionally (DEA, 1995a; DEA, 1995d). Details provided here are not so many that they would overwhelm administrative staff, principals or teachers as might occur with the sixteen pages of detail of the NSW LOTE consultation document (New South Wales Department of School Education, 1992).

The suggested procedures for trialing the Tasmanian LOTE Policy listed in the Requirements section (DEA, 1995a, p. 4) clearly stated the Department's intention for the incremental nature of implementation over the four year period, showing teachers the DEA's plan for a trialing process in the initial four years of implementation.

As mentioned earlier in this section, due to all timelines, roles and responsibilities being presented in detail within the Policy documents, there was a complexity rather than a simplicity (Rogers, 1983; Clayton, 1993) inherent in the Policy innovation. Yet, as well as mirroring a complexity, a flexibility can be seen in the design so that "users can make modifications according to their perceptions" of the change (Fullan, 1991a, p. 65), with procedures in place to diffuse information carefully and credibly, with a "spontaneous information sharing" (McBeath, 1997, p. 51). This may be viewed as the system addressing the expected "chaos of interplay between internal and external factors" (Fullan, 1991a, p. 108), another characteristic of curriculum planning distilled from the literature.

The details and the exact nature of the funding for Tasmanian schools are not located within the Policy document itself but in supplementary documents. The Department of Education and the Arts addressed the many aspects of LOTE provision in the various documents cited in the paragraphs below. These details were set out in an overwhelming amount of detail and reflect top-down management structures and initial leadership-domination of funding resources (Fullan, 1991a, p. 109) by the Department of Education and the Arts, most responsibility for funding management being directed to Districts and school principals.

Criteria for selecting schools for inclusion in the Tasmanian LOTE implementation included the existence of schools with:

- access to ISDN broad-band telephone lines
- a LOTE "pathway" established
- qualified teachers or teachers who are undertaking professional development.

On top of this existing school provision, the Department of Education and the Arts added budgetary support of $4000 to support the "on-line" schools as was detailed in *Supplementary Information on LOTE* (DEA, 1995d) directed primarily to school principals.

The set-up and line costs of telematics equipment would be provided to "on-line" schools. The intention was that funding would be provided to enable information technology to play a role in the LOTE implementation processes for students and teachers in each "on-line" primary school. Video-conferencing packages were provided along with funds to assist with telecommunications costs (MCEETYA, 1998, p. 38).

"Strong framework" language policies (managed top-down) include stipulations for foreign language teaching methods and delivery elements. This was yet another aspect suggested in the literature (Spolsky, 1991, p. 583ff) as impacting upon practice. Yet Rubichi's study (1995, p. 20) concluded that the language policies of 40 overseas countries made only brief mention of method and delivery elements, with "functional", "communicative" purposes, and "integration" listed in the policies reviewed. Similarly, most of the mainland Australian state and territory LOTE policies made only brief mention of methods such as the "immersion" model (Queensland and Australian Capital Territory policies) and use of the National Curriculum Profile documents (Australian Capital Territory). The Northern Territory policy stated that teachers were to determine the content of their own programs and the Queensland policy stated that their state would develop its own materials. The Tasmanian LOTE Policy itself does not mention method, but the supplementary documents appearing at the same time stipulate method and delivery. Clearly other state and territory policies impacted on details provided for the Tasmanian LOTE Policy.

Other factors pre-empting successful policy innovation include the formation of policy documentation which stipulates that stakeholders discuss instituting a classroom practice which recognises and resolves conflict, discourages "buck-passing", reduces isolation, uses negative feedback constructively (Clayton, 1993; McLaughlin, 1998), and which is characterised by action preceding planning,

where multiple themes often precede mission statements (Fullan, 1991a, p. 109). Fullan also concluded that such planning is characterised by leadership-dominated early planning, shifting to teachers ownership in later stages (p. 109).

An encouragement of school-community dialogue about LOTE education in the wider community, a top-down management strategy considered desirable in the literature on policy implementation (McBeath, 1997), was to be a part of a school principal's role (DEA, 1995a, p. 4). Diffusion, a bottom-up management strategy of teachers maintaining a shared dialogue about the change elements (McBeath, 1997), was not prescribed in the Policy guidelines. According to *Working with statements and profiles: Learning area direction statement—LOTE*, "is in its very early stages" (Educational Programs Branch, 1995b, p. 17) and consultation with those who are implementing was to occur in the future. Curriculum researchers highlight the probability of a leadership-dominated context existing in the initial stages of implementation (Fullan, 1991a, p. 109) with consultation occurring with teachers from the start (Osborn & Broadfoot, 1992). The dialogues intended for LOTE were to occur in the initial leadership-dominated years of implementation and thus become evidence that diffusion was not intended.

Fullan (1991a, p. 191ff) found the District Administrator's role to be the point where detailed resource administration should occur and this was the intention of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy. Much of the facilitation of the administration of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy was to be included in the role of the District Superintendent (DEA, 1995a, pp. 5–6). Similarly New South Wales and Queensland policies stipulated "cluster" level as the point where much administration and facilitation was to take place. Funding details became dependent on the administrative arrangements of the Tasmanian "system."

The primary LOTE programs began at junior to mid-primary, as funding was provided for programs to begin from this grade level. The teachers reporting on their language-as-object models in Tasmanian primary schools were teaching Grades 3–5 during the two years of the study, although a few schools included younger grades. This situation was similar to Rhodes and Oxford's (1988) findings from the USA and European Commission data (1995). Reasons for

programs being set up from Grade 2 onwards were that administrative considerations necessitated it. That is, when Grade 3 learners were in composite classes made up of both Grade 2 and 3 students, schools had made decisions to implement from Grade 2 rather than disturb the timetable and teacher allocation. There was mention that the district and school contexts required them to be flexibly staffing the LOTE/library or LOTE/Flying Start teaching roles. But this had been a school decision, not the teachers' decision.

The LOTE Policy provided a theoretical balance of top-down and bottom-up procedures in its intended management structures. A closer inspection of the Policy shows no mention of details on funding and resource provision, except to state the intention to train teachers (DEA, 1995a, p. 3) and mention of the "telematics provision . . . materials, access to curriculum implementation officers and additional staffing per class" (DEA, 1995a, p. 4) which would clearly require funding. Provision of resources is considered to be integral to a policy and should therefore be comprehensively documented in the planning of a Policy document (Fullan, 1991a).

Funding was provided to enable information technology to play a role in the LOTE implementation processes for students and teachers in each "on-line" primary school, yet few reports of teachers working successfully with this technology occurred (see Section 5.4.4). Video-conferencing packages were provided along with funds to assist with telecommunications costs (MCEETYA, 1998, p. 38) and this IT availability made an impact on provision in some instances. But training was brief and problems occurred in practice.

Schools implemented language-as-object models of provision. Consequently the decision by the system to staff in this way impacted on implementation. Teachers implemented programs where the language was taught, with only few teachers reporting linking to/embedding in other curriculum areas (but certainly not fully integrating), which the research literature has found to be a positive outcome of primary LOTE education (Driscoll, 1999b; Low, 1999).

The Department of Education funding impacted on team program provision. The *Circular Memorandum* (DEA, 1995c) provided details of funding provision for staffing: detailed was ongoing support of approximately $4000 per year per LOTE class, which would translate as only $2050 per Year 3 LOTE class in the first year, allowing pay for staffing for one and a quarter hours per week, which is half the recommended time allocation of two and a half hours per class per week. In particular, principals were advised that the LOTE staffing allocation was to be "over and above" provision of the normal staffing formula and thus should mean that principals ensure the class teacher remains in class to support the LOTE teacher. Therefore, in most schools coming "on-line" during 1996, 1997, or 1998, LOTE teachers were not to be "replacing" generalist class teachers, instead generalist class teachers were to remain in the LOTE classroom.

Another aspect to be included specifically in language curriculum policy, according to Brown (1994), is the need to fund resource development and training. No exact mention of budgetary allocations for resource development and training is made in the Tasmanian LOTE Policy itself, however other documents note that materials grants of $1000 were made for schools to be able to purchase teaching materials and resources for staff to access for their classroom practice (DEA, 1995d).

The Policy document mentioned the relative advantages of schools adopting the innovation: collaboration with other schools and colleges, IT and materials provision, teacher training, university involvement, access to curriculum implementation officers, additional staffing per class (DEA, 1995a). The Commonwealth funding was provided for factoring in this kind of implementation action. The DEA added this incentive for teachers to embrace the innovation.

Materials grants of $1000 were for schools to be able to purchase teaching materials and resources for staff to access for their classroom practice. The teachers were able to purchase current texts and materials to enrich the LOTE learning environment. In some contexts both specialist LOTE teacher and generalist class teacher took active roles in the decision-making for the choice of

goals, content, learning experiences, resources and assessment; in other cases they did not.

Funding was also provided for teachers to upgrade their LOTE teaching competencies. The *Circular Memorandum* (DEA, 1995c) discussed in Section 5.2 above noted details of intended professional development opportunities for teachers including (unstipulated) LOTE Methodology courses. The provision of this professional upgrading of teachers' qualifications proved to be a key impacting factor in the ways LOTE programs were being implemented in classrooms. As the teachers upgraded their knowledge of the target LOTE itself, along with the teaching methodologies, some LOTE teachers were upgrading key aspects of their teaching.

However, this professional development was not without inherent difficulties. Teachers found fault with the initial years of the Department of Education's provision of professional development courses for LOTE within the Graduate Certificate in LOTE Education (see Section 5.4.3).

A postscript at this point is that it has been recognised in 2000 that the standards being met by the teachers attaining the ISLPR 3 level are far above the levels expected for a Graduate Certificate and approval has been made to equate the ISLPR 3 with a Graduate Diploma level. Those teachers reaching ISLPR 2 would be awarded the Graduate Certificate.

In summary, the intensive department-led system management and funding support and ways schools utilised this Policy information in each context impacted on models of LOTE provision which began at Grade 3 for approximately 2.5 hours per week, staffed by teachers, many of whom were upgrading their training qualifications.

As well as there being "external" system and school factors impacting on implementation, the wider educational community attitudes and structures impacted on how and why LOTE was implemented in such ways as is described in the section below.

5.6.1.2 *Wider community influences on school decisions for LOTE*

Curriculum policies are "societal-level decisions . . . based ideally on theoretical data and are influenced by norms and pressure groups current in the society" (Oberg, 1991, p. 303). In the particular case of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy there was a consultative process in evidence since 1993 regarding the formation of a new Tasmanian LOTE Policy, with representation from various interest groups (Tasmanian Education Council, see Section 1.4.2), evidence that the wider community influences were present as Oberg (1991) suggested.

It is particularly through reference to LOTE documents produced in the wider community where evidence of the wider community influence on implementation can be seen. Syllabus materials that had been developed in both South Australia and Western Australia were purchased to support the Tasmanian implementation particularly helping teachers implementing the LOTE programs. For Indonesian and French, multiple copies of the curriculum materials and syllabuses produced by the Western Australian Department of Education were purchased and provided to LOTE teachers in the "on-line" schools in 1996 (Education Department of Western Australia, 1994a, 1994b). These were subsequently provided to the other schools joining the program in 1997 and 1998. For Japanese and German, materials and syllabuses were purchased from the South Australian Department of Education (Department for Education and Children's Services, 1993, 1995). Through the early implementation period, funding was provided to "on-line" schools to purchase resources materials (Educational Programs Branch, 1995b, p. 15). The Principal Curriculum Officer for LOTE had consulted with primary school LOTE teachers throughout the state during 1995 (B. Muir, pers. comm., 1 April, 1998). Teachers reported having used these documents to guide their planning and teaching.

Particularly concerning foreign language education for younger learners, the policies included more child-centred, child-development related reasons, alluding to the possibilities of enhancing the child's cognitive, linguistic and academic development through foreign language study, also acknowledging cultural

heritage and social justice aspects (Northern Territory Teaching Service, 1987; Department of Education Queensland, 1991; Education Department of Western Australia, 1995; Australian Capital Territory Department of Education, 1994).

The supplementary Policy documents which appeared soon after the publication of the Policy attended to details where stakeholders may have needed clarification of certain aspects of the Policy itself. Specifically, the *Working with statements and profiles: Learning Area Direction Statement* (Educational Programs Branch, 1995b, p. 15) mentioned that "[t]eachers from kindergarten to Year 2 are therefore strongly encouraged to provide children with a LOTE" and in this case the supplementary documents provided implementation strategies.

The choice of LOTE for the Tasmanian context (Dunlop et al., 1991, p. 555) was not based on "critical" languages theory (Samimy, 1994), or within a situation that requires a language to have an "explicit statutory legitimation" (Dunlop et al., 1991, p. 554) such as in the case of Canadian French. Instead, Tasmania opted for a balance between European and Asian languages. Funding would be available for primary schools implementing Indonesian, Japanese, French or German programs. Specially sourced funding was available to support localised Italian programs. Offering French and German may be viewed as evidence of Departmental support for the Australian traditionally taught foreign languages (Rhodes & Oxford, 1988) and the two Asian languages may be viewed as the Department's support for the National Asian language strategy in evidence in Australia for a number of years (Carson, 2000; COAG, 1994).

At other points in the Policy documentation, top-down reform impact is more obvious, which corresponds with the leadership-dominated early stages of curriculum implementation mentioned by Fullan (1991a, p. 109). In the *Working with statements and profiles: Learning Area Direction Statement*, within the section entitled "Content Requirements" (DEA, 1995b, p. 15), the DEA strongly suggested the teachers' use of the relevant LOTE syllabus for the four pathway LOTE (Education Department of Western Australia, 1994a, 1994b; Department of Education and Children's Services, 1993, 1995), the use of the Statement and Profile (Curriculum Corporation, 1994a, 1994b) for planning and the use of the

communicative approach for delivery of units of work. It was rare that policy documents from other Australian or overseas contexts included such details about materials, the one exception being notably the NSW LOTE Strategic Plan Consultation Document (NSW Department of School Education, 1992), which included much detail on materials and related support.

Goal 2 of the Policy (DEA, 1995a, p. 3) stated that "LOTEs will be taught to standards of language proficiency consistent with the LOTE Statement and Profile" and that "[s]chools should provide integrated studies in LOTE/cultural understanding." By 1996, Tasmanian primary school teachers had already been introduced to implementing integrated curriculum according to National Profile guidelines in other key learning areas. Implicit in advising LOTE teachers to plan using the Profile is an assumption that teachers would be able to see a possible compatibility of their own current work in other learning areas with the LOTE innovation.

External factors impacting on teachers' implementation of Policy included the Policy stipulations themselves (including those found in supplementary policy documents), the authority of the wider school community and externally produced materials. Clearly the system and wider community influences, especially seen through the continual reference to documents produced in the national sphere, impacted on schools' implementation strategies.

5.7 Summary: The system's intended LOTE Policy and evidence from practice

The above analysis of the findings, Sections 5.2 to 5.6, answered the first research question concerning the intended LOTE Policy. There was also an attempt to answer in part the third research question, concerning the reasons why LOTE implementation occurred as it did.

The intended Tasmanian LOTE Policy attended to many of the factors, which, if included in policy formulation, are likely to enhance the conditions for successful

language curriculum implementation (Dunlop et al., 1991; Fullan, 1991a; Spolsky, 1991). Details included specifics regarding LOTE program goals and rationale, choice of LOTE, expected key outcomes, time allocation and stakeholder roles were included in the Tasmanian LOTE Policy document itself. These inherent issues and impacting factors were examined in detail in the documents discussed above which appeared around the time of the publication of the Policy.

These detailed guidelines were in the hands of senior staff in the Department of Education and the Arts, staff at District Offices, Principals and LOTE teachers who implemented LOTE programs for the start of the 1996 school year and who planned their involvement in the primary LOTE program implementation. For clarification purposes and to attempt to ensure transparency of implementation processes, both teaching and administrative details were included in Policy.

In summary, the documents show that there were clearly stated implementation directives, suggestions and support materials provided and/or developed at system level to ensure the initiation and implementation phases of the LOTE Policy began in a straightforward manner, leaving room for as few problem areas as possible.

Compared to other overseas and Australian foreign language education policies, the Tasmanian LOTE Policy was:

- more detailed than some (showing a strong-featured framework)
- characterised by a leadership-dominated scenario as in the case of the NSW Policy (New South Wales Department of School Education, 1992), yet not overwhelming with the amount of detail as compared to others, showing the balanced flexibility of a not-too-strong and not-too-weak framework.

Suggested in the research literature on language curriculum policy design, and evident in many aspects of the intended Tasmanian LOTE Policy, was the planning of a foreign language education policy that was:

- balanced in regard to top-down/bottom-up procedures as can be seen with the intended responsibilities for teachers and senior departmental staff

- incrementally implemented
- resourced with trained personnel and materials
- designed with a clear scope and sequence, with a rationale which highlights the benefits of early LOTE learning for utilitarian as well as child-focused reasons.

Working with the resources available, the Department of Education and the Arts:

- set up language-as-object programs to teach the LOTE as a separate learning area in the curriculum
- implemented these programs within peripatetic or visiting or semi-specialist contexts, where many of the teachers worked in one or more classrooms at their own and other schools
- funded "team" delivery of LOTE programs, with both a specialist LOTE teacher and generalist class teacher in charge of the program delivery
- included an information technology component.

Specifically for LOTE curriculum implementation however, a number of attributes of successful implementation of Policy were not evident, including:

- a stipulated Policy intention to engage LOTE Planning Committees in the LOTE policy implementation from the initiation through to the continuation phases, monitoring the Policy along a stipulated timeline
- an acknowledgement of the importance of teachers maintaining proficiency levels and operating within larger LOTE teaching networks
- a specification of teacher's use of a LOTE teaching methodology
- an explicit specification of support mechanisms for LOTE teachers to reflect and acknowledge their personal and professional beliefs in their LOTE pedagogy.

As regards the research question exploring reasons why such translation of Policy intentions occurred as it did, evidence from practice suggests that districts, schools and principals were instrumental in the creation of resources, structures and mechanisms which took effect before LOTE teachers' subsequent classroom implementation.

Key components of the Policy were a guaranteed pathway, team delivery and IT provision, which made this Policy different from other contemporary policies and former Australian State and Territory policies.

Only by provision of supplementary policy documents was there sufficient information provided on intended policy to districts and school principals for them to gain understandings and operationalise the Policy intentions. This operationalisation was different in each school context.

6

Results, Part B: Primary LOTE teacher implementation and classroom practice

6.1 Introduction

Research question 2 of this study has a teacher focus, and the data analysed to resolve the research question have examined how teachers implemented LOTE programs in Tasmanian primary school classrooms, and the reasons for doing so.

As was acknowledged by Saye (1998), curriculum implementation is unlikely ever to be an objective process, there being too many "subjective realities". Similarly, Spillane (1999, p. 157) mentioned this variation in implementation due to the existence of teachers' zones of enactment. Teachers become concerned over how they are likely to be personally affected by the change. This study did not seek evidence of regimented implementation according to policy stipulations. Rather, the intention was to examine the teachers' negotiation processes and curriculum decision-making, acknowledging the likelihood of differences in implementation strategies between individual teachers and groups of teachers, thus providing a more detailed picture of how LOTE curriculum policy implementation can occur in one Australian state.

The analysis presented in this chapter was guided by the second research question of the study:

- How was LOTE implemented in practice in Tasmanian primary schools?
  In particular:

- What strategies did primary LOTE teachers use to implement primary LOTE programs?

Data from teachers' perceptions about their implementation also provided evidence to answer, in part, Research question 3:

- Why did primary LOTE implementation occur as it did?

Clearly differing from the system level focus and external factors of Chapter 5, this chapter examines the teacher specific factors.

To answer Research question 2 the researcher explored three aspects of practice which have been categorised as follows: perceptions of primary LOTE implementation practice, LOTE teacher decision-making, and LOTE teacher reflection processes and teachers acknowledging beliefs about best primary LOTE practice. These foci were distilled from an examination of the research literature reported in Chapters 2 and 3. These findings highlight operationalisation issues: that is, issues surrounding classroom implementation of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy between 1996 and 1998.

6.2 Wider school and community authority impacting on primary LOTE teacher decision-making

The literature had variously noted and recommended that a language planning group was an effective way of ensuring successful implementation. In the USA, Curtain and Pesola (1994, p. 253) had recommended a language planning group be set up, comprising "elementary, middle and high school administrators, language teachers, and classroom teachers" to manage the planning and implementation.

The research literature had stated that full support for a language program should include district level mentoring of language teachers working with young children through to language supervisors who could see that language programs were "well articulated" (Brown, 1994, p. 170). Low, Duffield, Brown and Johnstone (1993)

reported the Development Officers as important in the provision of MFL programs in Scottish primary schools.

In the Tasmanian context the Senior Curriculum Officers (LOTE) were appointed by the Department of Education and the Arts in 1996 to be a "group" that would provide further assistance than was given by the Principal Curriculum Officer LOTE. Initially both senior curriculum officers were placed in the south of the state, but later one senior curriculum officer was employed in the north, to be seen as accessible to LOTE teachers from the north and north-west of the state. Yet respondents made little mention of their perceptions of this curriculum officer's role and the useful work being undertaken to aid implementation (Respondent K, Survey items 5 & 7; Respondent M, Survey item 10; Respondent N, Survey item 15).

Along with the language curriculum officer positions, the literature review found the parent body a factor in facilitating best practice. There should be support from parents (Brown, 1994, pp. 174–5, corroborated in the findings of research by Fortune & Jorstad, 1996; and Clyne et al., 1995). According to other research literature, there should also be an information campaign and funding sought through public advocacy, recruitment of potential new teachers, and development of materials and new delivery systems or methods (Brown, 1994, pp. 174–5).

Sixteen of the 40 teachers responding to the survey (Survey items 6 & 7) reported that parents were positive about and supported the primary LOTE programs, whereas five teachers responded with their perception that parents were negative or undecided about the LOTE program at their school (Survey items 4 & 7). A low number of other comments were made by respondents about their perceptions of the importance of parents seeing demonstrations of student learning outcomes (N = 4), appreciating receipt of information through reporting, parent-teacher nights and newsletters (N = 5). In order to establish whether location of program had a bearing on parental support, variables representing schools location (urban or rural) were correlated with perceived levels of parental support for LOTE. Of those fifty per cent of respondents who commented, proportionally there were

reports of more parents not supporting LOTE programs in rural schools compared to urban schools (See Appendix R).

It was stipulated in the Tasmanian LOTE Policy that Principals would organise the wider school and community dialogues on LOTE (DEA, 1995a, pp. 5–6). Yet survey responses or data collected from the three teachers did not reveal the undertaking of any extensive school and community dialogues during these three years.

The policy literature had highlighted benefits accruing to jurisdictions that factored public information campaigns into the policy guidelines, thus seeking out authorisation of policy guidelines from the wider community. According to the Principal Curriculum Officer of the time, there was no explicit public information campaign to coincide with initial implementation (B. Muir, pers. comm., 26 October 1999) or any initial proactive recruitment of new LOTE teachers or funding sought through public advocacy.

The review of the literature on curriculum in Chapter 2 highlighted that teacher decision-making is a complex process. Oberg (1991, p. 303) noted five types of teacher decisions: curriculum goals, curriculum content, learning experiences, resources, and evaluation. The classification of these types of teacher decisions provides a framework for an analysis of how Tasmanian primary LOTE teachers constructed their classroom decision-making processes against policy intentions. Although not in Oberg's (1991) five aspects of teacher decision-making, two findings of this study concern how LOTE teacher decision-making is influenced by the authority of the wider community and by collegial planning.

Evidence that wider community attitudes and attributes of LOTE learning itself combined to impact on teachers' negotiation of the curriculum innovation process to implement LOTE curriculum was shown in data from the survey concerning teachers' planning for students' demonstrations of acquired learning. The literature had variously described the impact that the wider school community could make on curriculum innovation as it can wield an authority within a curriculum policy implementation context (Elmore & Sykes, 1992).

Figure 15 shows teachers' responses to the survey item regarding total school support for the LOTE program.

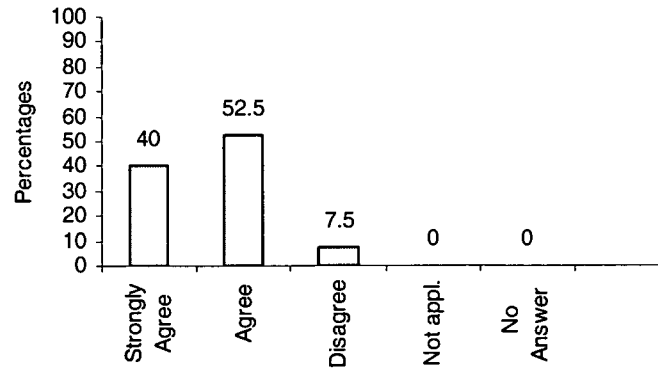

Figure 15: Teachers' agreement or otherwise with the statement, "My LOTE program is fully supported by the whole school" ($N = 40$).

Teachers "strongly agreed" and "agreed" (93%) that they perceived a whole school support of the LOTE programs being delivered. Eleven teachers reported overall whole school support, others reporting principal, generalist class teacher and collegial support to varying degrees. Only two teachers reported general lack of support from the parent body. Eight teachers reported support coming from other areas, not all defined in the Policy as sources of support. These external support sources were general staff, teacher aides, native speakers, Department of Education officers, provision of special room, other specialist teachers, for example, music teachers. Seven teachers recounted anecdotes about the support they received. Time limitations were mentioned in 66 separate incidences of these teachers' written responses. This represented 45% of the 146 total written responses to Survey items 5, 6, 7 & 18.

The foreign language learning area had not experienced a smooth "resurgence" (Low, 1999, p. 50) into the modern primary curriculum as was discussed by Stern (1991, p. 574). The LOTE key learning area in the primary curriculum was new and needed justification. Consequently the teachers' planning for LOTE included them planning to demonstrate evidence of students' acquired learning to a variety of audiences including fellow students, parents and other invited guests to the schools. An "under the microscope" (Rhonda, int. 3, 31/7/97) pressure placed on

the LOTE teachers to be accountable for the developments in this new curriculum area was also felt by teachers in another Australian study (Breen et al., 1996) and yet was not mentioned at all as an issue in the literature reviewed from USA or Scotland. Figure 16 shows teachers' responses to the survey item regarding teachers' planning for students' demonstrations of acquired learning.

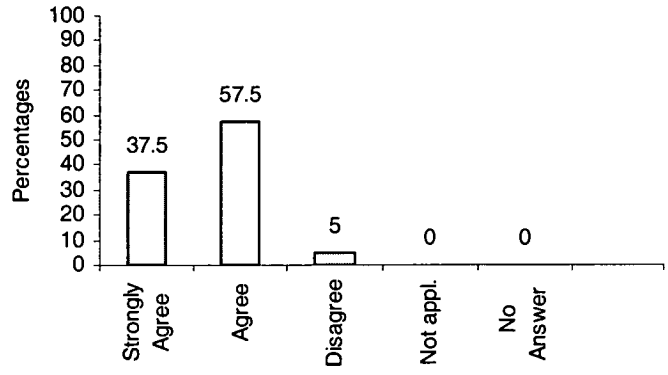

Figure 16: Teachers' agreement or otherwise with the statement, "In my classroom I place great emphasis on students' demonstration of acquired learning" ($N = 40$).

The strategy to plan with an emphasis on demonstrating student acquired learning to peers and visitors to class is a trend amongst all but 5% ($n = 2$) of primary LOTE teachers responding to the survey. Most teachers were adamant that demonstrations of acquired learning were important for the LOTE key learning area being implemented in primary schools. Teachers needing to plan for this demonstration of students' acquired learning as a result of the authority of the wider school community, is in evidence from the survey data and data from the three collaborating teachers.

Of the 22 respondents commenting on this issue with a written response to Survey item 13, reasons for teachers preferring to showcase student learning in a more public arena included:

- advertises and markets the program, making the LOTE highly visible
- helps LOTE receive public recognition and helps LOTE to be taken seriously
- becomes part of students' ongoing learning program and part of staff's whole school professional development program
- may change community attitudes through demonstration

- keeps the language alive
- encourages discussion on LOTE throughout the local school community.

The influence of various sources of authority and power must be acknowledged here (Elmore & Sykes, 1992, p. 204). Clearly in the first years of LOTE Policy implementation there were pressures evident on teachers to justify LOTE in the primary curriculum.

Teachers also listed child-focused reasons as legitimating their utilisation of the strategy to demonstrate students' acquired learning. These reasons included: makes children proud of their work; encourages students' discussion with parents and siblings through taking work home; assists children to show off their work, which they enjoy; is good for students' self-confidence; maintains school and home interest in LOTE; allows LOTE to be included in portfolios for records of development; is great for sharing; is a great motivator; is a positive sign; helps children remember the language; shows children what they know; encourages children; celebrates excellence; and encourages risk-taking (responses to Survey items 4 & 13).

Eighteen of the forty teachers responding to the survey mentioned that semi-public assemblies are where demonstrations of acquired learning, in the form of performances (Sandy, Survey item 13) occur in their schools; nine teachers mentioned that work samples are sent home, as examples to parents of student learning. Finding a valid and authorised place for LOTE in the homes of the children seemed to have been the aim of teachers who included this strategy.

All three teachers participating in the second phase of this study utilised such strategies to help market and promote LOTE education in their primary schools, and admitted that such strategies can clearly be seen to impact on their planning as was mentioned in the research literature in the Australian context (Breen et al., 1996, p. 60).

Sandy reported times she demonstrated students' acquired learning to others. She said, "It's important to me to do that. I think it's important for the teachers to see

that there's something being achieved. I think it's important for parents as well. And for the child . . ." (Sandy, Pilot int. 5, 9/12/96). The situation was similar for Rhonda and Jodie.

6.3 Teacher-specific factors: Internal factors impacting on primary LOTE teachers' implementation of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy

As was mentioned in Section 5.6, there were both external and teacher-specific factors impacting on school and teacher LOTE implementation. Following are the findings of the study regarding teacher-specific "enabling conditions".

6.3.1 Teachers' delivery of language and culture programs

The intention of the DEA LOTE Policy was that LOTE teachers would provide language and cultural understanding programs for Tasmanian children from Grade 3 in government primary schools. Examining LOTE teacher decision-making and exploring teachers' reflections on their conscious and unconscious decisions about the aspects of delivering a unit of work can highlight strategies used by teachers in classroom practice to negotiate the curriculum implementation process.

Preparing for implementing the LOTE curriculum, the primary LOTE teachers made decisions about the subject matter to be taught, about the content of LOTE units of work, and about the LOTE teaching methodology or the process by which the materials would be delivered and made available to the students for subsequent learning. It was at this point of decision-making where a balance between the Department of Education and the Arts' "centralized control" and the primary LOTE teachers' "professional autonomy" (Osborn & Broadfoot, 1992, p. 138) was located. The decisions teachers made about implementation of LOTE curriculum were clearly the bottom-up decisions referred to earlier in Chapter 2, which the DEA had intended that teachers make. Only brief sketches were provided in the Policy, alluding to teachers' implementing assessment standards according to the National Profile document (DEA, 1995a, p. 3).

The impacting factors behind the decisions being taken by teachers were, according to Elmore and Sykes (1992, p. 204) influenced by content, documents and the authority or power of the policy-makers. The results of this study in relation to primary LOTE teachers' decision-making are presented below and encompass findings of the decisions teachers were making regarding the five areas defined by Oberg (1991).

The intention of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy developers was that the language teaching would be communicative (the inherent reference to communicative language teaching being the suggestion of teaching according to the Profile guidelines) with a cultural focus and initially directed towards young learners from Grade 3 (DEA, 1995a).

That these programs were successful was an inherent aim. Figure 17 shows teachers' responses to the survey item concerning their perceptions about the success of their LOTE programs.

As expected, when asked whether their program is a success these teachers clearly perceived that they were implementing successful programs, as 97% "strongly agreed" and "agreed" with the statement in the survey. The open-ended response section to this survey item allowed closer identification of their thoughts on this issue, particularly their concerns about running successful LOTE programs.

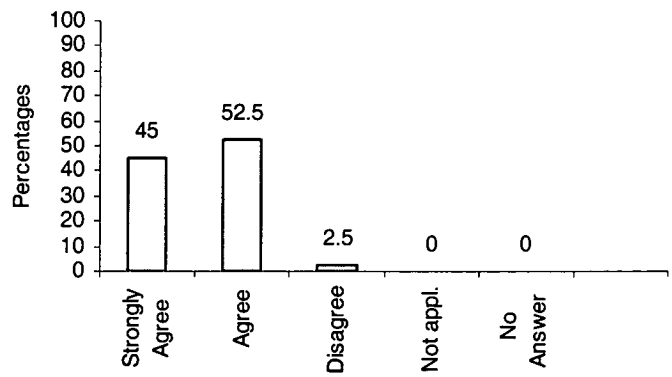

Figure 17: Teachers' agreement or otherwise with the statement, "My LOTE program is a success" ($N = 40$).

Deconstructing aspects of the implementation further through data sourced in the open-ended section of this survey item, teachers (26 out of a total of 39 who agreed with the statement) commented that the greatest measure of success was whether the learners were positive and enjoying their learning.

Eight of the forty teachers responding commented that they know the LOTE is being used outside the LOTE classroom, either in other key learning areas, in the playground or at home with siblings and parents, and this is an indication of success for these teachers. Related again are the comments of five teachers who mentioned that they measure success by student retention of the language learned.

A low number of respondents, only 6 teachers of the 26 commenting in the open-ended section of this survey item, placed the success of the program within the hands of the supporting generalist class teacher, contrary to the findings of Low (1999) and Driscoll (1999b), which placed the specific responsibilities given to generalist class teachers as a major influence on implementation.

As well as highlighting positive aspects of delivering these language and culture programs, respondents highlighted various other concerns that they believed detracted from their programs. These included: students, teachers and parents having "unreal expectations" (Respondent G, Survey item 6); students retaining little language due to short periods of contact time and no reinforcement (Respondent X, Survey item 6); less than adequate assessment strategies (Respondent Y, Survey item 6); lack of generalist class teacher support; lack of time and energy to spend on overt demonstrations of student learning in their busy lives (Respondent G, Survey item 6); lack of whole school involvement or support (Respondent Y, Survey item 6); no success in group management and lack of being able to cater to individuals; personal despair at not providing a satisfactory program, reporting difficulties in motivating students (Respondent AA, Survey item 6). Five teachers mentioned difficulties with multi-level groupings and students' multi-level abilities as characterising their program's shortcomings.

Yet overall, the respondents' beliefs were that their LOTE programs were a success and that their models of provision were attending to program objectives.

Teachers of primary LOTE related their perceptions about their own role in the program provision. Overwhelmingly they perceived they were competent primary LOTE teachers, suggesting that strategies they utilise place them in this category. Figure 18 shows teachers responses to the statement, "I feel I am a competent primary LOTE teacher."

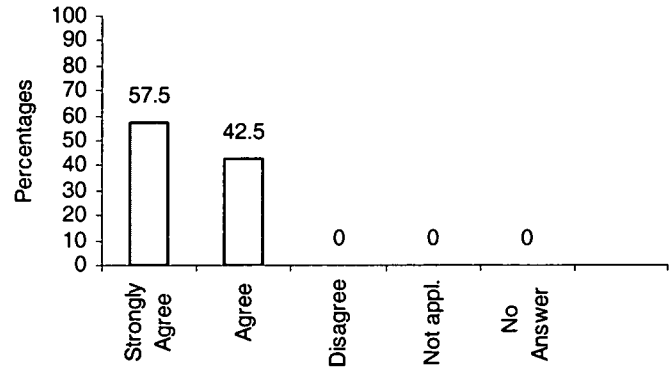

Figure 18: Teachers' agreement or otherwise with the statement, "I feel I am a competent primary LOTE teacher" ($N = 40$).

The teachers "strongly agreed" and "agreed" (100%) that they are competent in the task of primary LOTE teaching. Yet an analysis of respondents' comments on this survey item showed equal numbers of respondents who stated they felt competent (n = 15) and less than competent (n = 15) in their language teaching skills. This conflicts with findings in the literature reported in Section 3.3.3 suggesting that foreign language teachers should have an excellent command of the target language (Bernhardt & Hammadou, 1987; Brosh, 1996; Low, Brown, Johnstone & Pirrie, 1985; Moskowitz, 1976; North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 1992; Satchwell, 1999; Tierney, 1999; Tucker et al., 1996; Wylie & Ingram, 1995). That is, although 100% of the teachers responding claimed competency in their LOTE teaching, the additional written comments of half of those responding flagged concerns about their competency in their LOTE teaching.

6.3.2 Language planning documents

Language-as-object program models were set up as was intended by Policy. These were staffed by semi-specialists, visiting specialists or peripatetic specialist LOTE teachers, as was discussed in Section 5.4.1. Most LOTE teachers were supported, at least in theory, by the generalist class teachers, in their delivery of specific primary classroom teaching strategies.

Findings of the literature review in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.4.1, were that many primary LOTE programs were either integrated foreign language or "content-based" programs, immersion programs, linguistic or cultural awareness programs (Met & Galloway, 1992; Rhodes & Oxford, 1988; Swain, 1991; VDSE, 1995). The results of studies on the success of one program above another were equivocal (Adrain & Wilson, 1997; Armstrong, 1994; Clyne et al., 1995; Donato et al., 1996; Genelot (as cited in Blondin et al., 1997) and Vilke (1993b). For the Tasmanian context, the model chosen by the DEA for schools in Tasmania was in line with what other states in Australia and what other countries were undertaking.

For teachers needing specific guidelines for implementation, the Department of Education and the Arts made a number of documents available to principals and teachers upon schools joining an "on-line" LOTE program, and the Department referred to these documents in their communications with personnel. The existence of these resources made guidelines and unit planning suggestions available for teachers who then adapted and/or adopted all or aspects of these guidelines into their planning, designing, implementing, assessing and evaluation of the units.

Planning documents were:

- Pocket ALL: The Australian Language Levels Guidelines (Vale et. al., 1991)
- LOTE Statement and Profile (Curriculum Corporation, 1994a, 1994b)
- Syllabus for the target LOTE (Education Department of Western Australia, 1994a, 1994b; Department for Education and Children's Services, 1993, 1995).

The teachers participating in the study utilised these planning documents to an extent, making their decisions about content and process guided by these key materials. The data source here was the qualitative data collected from Sandy, Rhonda and Jodie.

The basis of Rhonda's work was to plan according to the ALL [Australian Language Levels] Guidelines: one or two major activities in the unit, with various supporting exercises to scaffold the learning (Vale et al., 1991).

With her background in early childhood education, Jodie utilised other documents such as the Tasmanian Key Intended Literacy Outcomes (KILOs) and Key Intended Numeracy Outcomes (KINOs) guidelines produced by the Tasmanian Department of Education to structure teaching and learning for literacy and numeracy. She stated that a further basis for her LOTE planning was her awareness that she was assessing students on learning outcomes using statements along a continuum, similar to the Profile statements (Jodie, int. 3, 12/11/97).

Regarding planning materials and resources, Jodie admitted she was appreciative of the existence of LOTE materials for shared use between other LOTE teachers in her cluster schools. Jodie reported relying on planning guidelines, which she utilised at cluster level with colleagues (Jodie, Int. #2, 27/10/97).

Although the intention of the DEA was that teachers assess using the National Profile, in the open-ended section of the survey, when asked to respond to assessment procedures, thirteen of the 40 teachers reported assessing using the National Profile (Curriculum Corporation, 1994b) as a basis. Four teachers reported referring to other literature and documents, such as the ALL Guidelines (Vale et al., 1991).

In Section 6.3.1 above, the picture was presented of primary LOTE teachers who believed they were competent teachers implementing successful LOTE programs, but who also had many concerns about their primary LOTE teaching. In the sections presented below are data that highlight the strategies the primary LOTE

teachers adopted to increase the likelihood of their implementing successful programs.

6.3.3 Delivery of LOTE programs according to the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach

The LOTE teachers' decisions to organise the learning experiences and resources to achieve the goal of provision of eight guaranteed years of Indonesian, French, German or Japanese language programs for Tasmanian students between Years 3–10 and to plan for student learning outcomes according to the National Profile document (Curriculum Corporation, 1994b), required those teachers to decide on content and method to deliver their programs.

Although the LOTE Policy itself (DEA, 1995a) did not stipulate a suggested LOTE teaching methodology, the methodology discussed below is Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), suggested in the review of the literature as a commonly-utilised methodology among primary, secondary and tertiary level foreign language teachers and also suggested as the methodology in supplementary information to the Policy (Educational Programs Branch, 1995b, p. 12).

The literature reviewed in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.4, indicated that CLT was the predominant language teaching methodology in secondary LOTE programs of the second half of the twentieth century (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983; McQuillan & Tse, 1998; Vilke, 1993a; Redmond, 1994; Curtain, 1991; Lipton, 1994). Those reviews identified the main characteristics of this communicative language-teaching methodology as having a focus on authentic, contextualised oral communication in the initial stages, before moving on to reading and writing (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983). Part of the rationale behind communicative language teaching is that learners initially acquire language in "natural, first" language by oral/aural means as found in the research of Snyder, Long, Kealey and Marckel (1987). Planning for learner outcomes should be relevant, meaningful, real and motivational.

Implementing policy according to the CLT methodology, the primary LOTE teachers commented on both their students' use of LOTE in the classroom and the emphasis they place on students' spoken and written learning outcomes. Figure 19 shows teachers' responses to the survey item.

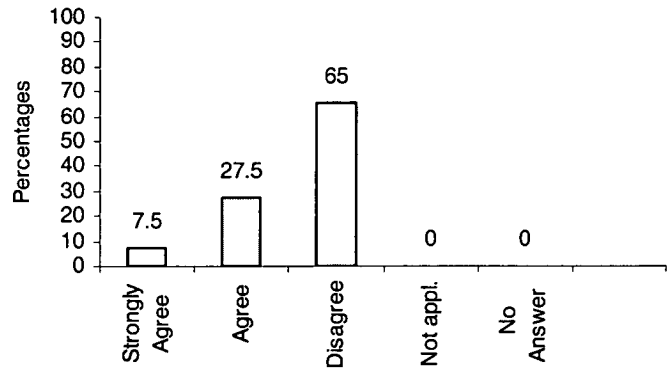

Figure 19: Teachers' responses to the statement, "Overall, during LOTE lessons I place greater emphasis on students' written than spoken outcomes" ($N = 40$).

More teachers in this study (65%) disagreed that they placed emphasis on written rather than spoken learning outcomes compared to those who agreed (35%).

The teachers' statements about this issue noted:

- the age group was a consideration. Sandy stated that she felt that "[t]he younger the class, the less the emphasis on written work" (Sandy, Survey item 14)
- the target language was a consideration, with one teacher responding, "With Japanese, a different written script *hiragana* is a stumbling block for first year learners" (Respondent W, Survey item 14)
- the context was a consideration, with one teacher responding about daily lesson planning (Respondent GG, Survey item 14) or planning for individual students (Respondent CC, Survey item 10).

The teachers commented on their perceptions of student use of the target LOTE in class, another indication of a CLT approach being used. Figure 20 shows

teachers' responses to the survey item regarding their students' use of the target LOTE in class.

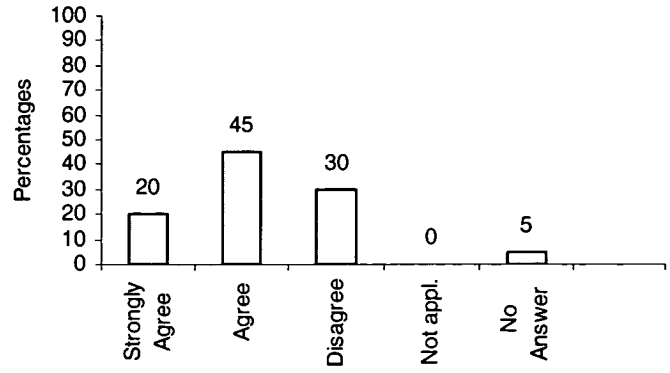

Figure 20: Teachers' agreement or otherwise with the statement, "My students use their LOTE in the LOTE classroom most of the time" ($N = 40$).

Teachers commented that the students are using the LOTE for set tasks, such as listening, speaking, reading and writing (n = 16), reading aloud (n = 4) and for daily classroom routines/instructions/functions (n = 16). Daily greetings were also a focus of student use of the target LOTE (n = 10). Nine teachers admitted that they leave explanations to English.

To focus the findings on how CLT methods were being employed, data were collected in the survey where teachers reported on their perceptions of time spent by students on listening, speaking, reading and writing tasks in their LOTE classrooms. The Northern Territory LOTE Policy (Northern Territory Teaching Service, 1987) had particularly stipulated requirements to develop these four skills in student learning outcomes, however, the Tasmanian LOTE Policy had not made this a stipulation. Figure 21 shows teachers' estimations of the amount of class time spent by students listening to, speaking, reading and writing the LOTE.

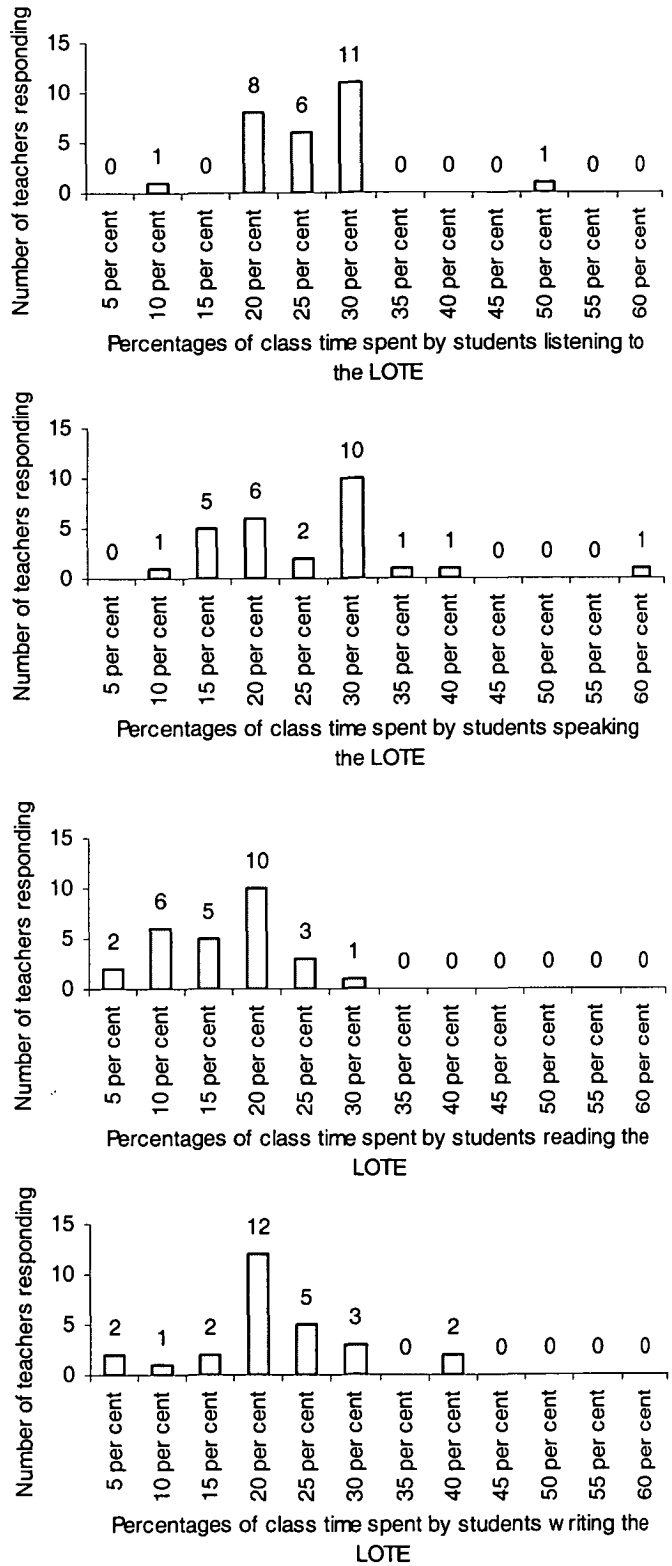

Figure 21: Teachers' estimations of the amount of class time spent by students listening to, speaking, reading and writing the LOTE ($N = 27$).

Reading and writing record the lowest percentages among total time spent on these macro skills in the LOTE lessons. Only one teacher reported spending as

little as 10% of her time on students listening to the LOTE. The remainder of respondents devoted 20% of their time and more (one 50%) to students' listening to the target LOTE. Significant from the data shown in Figure 21 is the low number of teachers reporting students' speaking Indonesian for more than 30% of class time, suggesting that other language input is included in the other 70% of LOTE classroom interactions, presumably including teacher-talk.

Data from classroom observations of the three collaborating teachers shed more light on LOTE teacher pedagogy, particularly teachers' focus on CLT teaching method. Data in Figure 22 show that these three teachers constantly required student use of the target LOTE over the whole unit.

Figure 22 indicates the three collaborating teachers' listening to the class, small groups and individuals who are speaking in the target LOTE across three points in the unit. The data show no meaningful variation in the teachers' behaviours over time, suggesting that the majority of their time was spent in listening to students talking in Indonesian.

Utilising related data elicited from interviews with Sandy, Rhonda and Jodie, LOTE teacher CLT pedagogy is further discussed in the following pages.

After observing Sandy in action in the primary LOTE classroom, it was clear that she emphasised communicative tasks for communication. She was observed to have catered to the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. The pattern to her LOTE lessons was as follows:

- initial greeting, usually requiring teacher and student to listen to, and speak in, the LOTE
- setting the scene for the current lesson by recalling previous lesson with students and also by setting a current task
- instruction, either in the LOTE, or English, or a mix of the LOTE and English (code-switching)
- student task, involving students' interaction with the task/materials, individual or group work as suitable

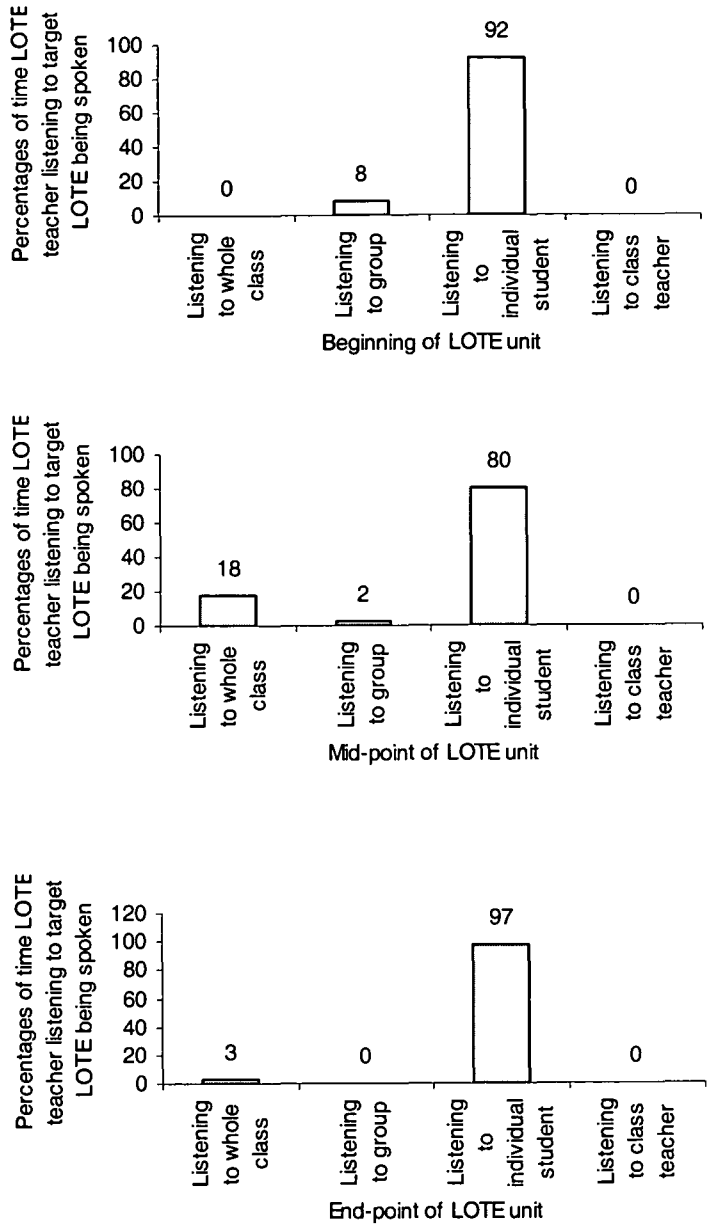

Figure 22: Percentage of time three collaborating teachers listening to target LOTE being spoken at different stages of the LOTE unit.

- consolidation period, usually involving a summing up, statement of learning outcomes
- final farewell greetings and homework tasks (if any).

Including 'mnemonic' devices or memory training strategies was part of Sandy's LOTE teaching style. These strategies scaffolded her students' communication in the LOTE to a large extent.

Sandy reported playing a lot of language games with her classes, again with the aim of scaffolding language learning (Sandy, Pilot int. 6, 10/12/96). Included were movement games, card games and memory games, which all include spoken or written forms of the language. Use of songs in her LOTE classes allowed her to scaffold language learning even further. Songs, as mentioned in the opening paragraph of this thesis, are language items utilised the world over by parents and child-carers involved in a child's first language acquisition.

Unlike the teachers in the Gersten study (1999), who expressed concern about teaching grammatical competence, Sandy reported not being concerned about not formally teaching Indonesian grammar and admitted that she steers away from teaching the structural part of the language. She said of her teaching style, "the grammar I teach is just . . . incidental" (Sandy, Pilot int. 6, 10/12/96).

When asked how she copes with learner error in the target language, Sandy stated that she used a lot of repetition (Sandy, Pilot int. 6, 10/12/96).

The researcher's observations of Rhonda's and Jodie's lessons found them to be quite similar to Sandy's, based on methods regarding language mnemonics, songs and game playing, with only rare instances of grammar instruction. In fact these CLT strategies were being utilised by the three teachers over the period of observation of their lessons.

The teachers responding to the survey perceived they were teaching LOTE programs within a communicative, culture-based focus. For some the move to teach in a communicative manner according to CLT methods required that they add new teaching techniques to their teaching repertoire. Figure 23 shows teachers' responses to the survey item regarding teaching techniques.

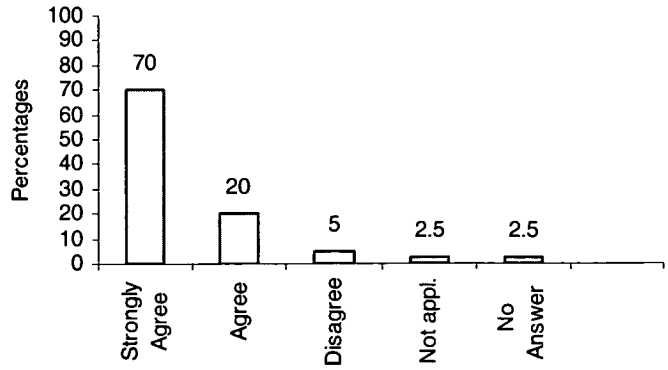

Figure 23: Teachers' agreement or otherwise with the statement, "Teaching primary LOTE has required me to add new teaching techniques to my teaching repertoire" ($N = 40$).

The teachers "strongly agreed" and "agreed" (90%) that teaching primary LOTE has added teaching techniques to their teaching repertoire.

Eleven teachers reported incorporation of fun songs and games into their teaching style, and eight reported the need to keep their teaching active, dynamic, flexible, upbeat, short, sharp and diverse, containing a variety of methods and materials.

Secondary trained teachers in the study noted that their style has changed to focus on what is important in primary teaching strategies: being activity-based, hands-on/kinaesthetic, and incorporating techniques that keep children motivated and attending. There was a reported need by secondary trained teachers to change their teaching style, slow down, simplify content and utilise strategic competencies, adapting their own language and content for the target learners ($N = 3$). (Respondents M, X and Z).

Yet no mention was made by teachers that they were changing their practice, and at the same time holding on to former practices to frame the new practice as was found in Cohen and Ball's (1990) research on this particular issue.

The intentions of Policy that the teachers apply guidelines from the Profile and adopt CLT methods were realised with teachers attending to skilling students in the LOTE and applying primary methods for implementation.

6.3.4 Teachers delivering a cultural basis for primary LOTE programs

The DEA intended (1995a, p. 1) that programs that had a basis for language and cultural understanding be delivered. This had similarly been the intention of other state and territory policies and an established fact about Tasmanian primary Japanese teachers delivering programs with cultural components just prior to this study (Griffiths, 1998). However, no further mention of culture was made in the Policy or supplementary documents as was stated in Section 5.5 regarding shortcomings of the Policy.

The literature review in Chapters 2 and 3 identified teachers' perceptions of knowledge about the culture being paramount in foreign language teaching (Brosh, 1996; Byram & Doye, 1999; Griffiths, 1998). The findings of this study show that teachers implementing primary LOTE programs were investing a significant amount of time and energy honing teaching strategies that allowed them to deliver a cultural component within their LOTE program. From data collected in the open-ended response section to the survey items, sixteen out of 40 respondents commented about the cultural component of their teaching. Mentioned was that these teachers: use photos to enhance cultural aspects of their teaching; focus on learning about people, how they live and communicate; and provide static displays, amongst other things, (Respondents L, O & Z, Survey item 11) to link to the target culture.

In fact, data collected during interviews with Rhonda were data that were found to highlight this point. During the period of observation of her lessons, and as a culmination to her unit on Indonesian markets, Rhonda wanted to have the children participate in a dress-up, role-play opportunity with an authentic, contextual, cultural feeling. Rhonda planned and organised an end-of-unit role-play Indonesian market for the culture to "come alive" (Rhonda, int. 6, 28/8/97).

6.3.5 Teachers' creation of enriched environments for primary LOTE learning

Another aspect of provision of communicative programs is the creation of a rich physical learning environment for students (Breen et al., 1996, p. 88; Driscoll, 1999b, p. 42–43; Muir, 1999, p. 110; Rixon, 1999). An aspect of enriched physical environment was addressed in 6.3.4 above, that is, a classroom focus on cultural material. Further comments on enriched environments are included here as evidence that this strategy was utilised by teachers.

Teachers responding to the survey in this study expressed a belief that an enriched LOTE learning environment enhances student LOTE learning. Almost all respondents to the survey reported investing time and effort to creating a rich LOTE environment. Figure 24 shows teachers' responses to the survey item concerning teachers' creation of enriched LOTE learning environments.

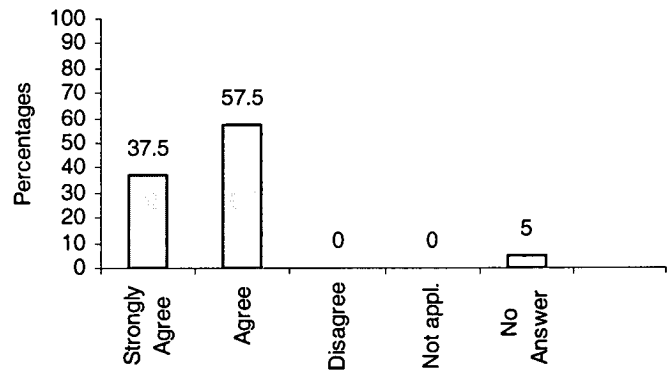

Figure 24: Teachers' agreement with the statement, "The environment I create in my LOTE lessons is an enriching one" ($N = 40$).

Semi-specialists, visiting and peripatetic specialists reported spending significant amounts of time and energy on creating static displays to leave in classrooms they visited ($N = 9$). Their preference was to teach their LOTE program in a dedicated LOTE room.

LOTE materials and resources, referred to by Oberg (1991) as being important aspects of teachers' decision-making and which impacts in turn on their

implementation of curriculum, helped LOTE teachers enrich the learning environment. Teachers provided authentic materials, realia and resources and variously stated that practical, "hands-on" work allowed them to provide an enriching LOTE experience for students, with activities such as cooking, and experimentation with musical instruments, art and craft.

Teachers responding to the survey mentioned that other ways to enrich the LOTE environment is to share stories and travel anecdotes with children, arrange native speaker visits and incorporate overt demonstrations of student learning, such as assembly items, all of which offer challenges and fun experiences for students.

However teachers did not explicitly link their culture teaching focus to an enriching of the learning environment. Surprisingly, only four teachers mentioned that incorporating culture study enriches the LOTE environment. The literature on primary LOTE education reviewed in Section 3.3.3, provided indications that good LOTE teachers are culturally proficient (Brosh, 1996) and actively teach about the culture of the target country (Griffiths, 1998). The small number of teachers acknowledging enrichment through culture study is thus significant. Perhaps it is the case that unless the methods of teaching culture are explicitly mentioned in Policy or system documents, there will be an implicit understanding that teachers weave culture study into language study.

6.3.6 Teachers' decision-making and planning strategies vis-à-vis the impact of the LOTE network and wider school community on policy implementation

It is at the point of LOTE teachers' planning of their curriculum where many of the strategies for implementation of curriculum are negotiated. Literature from both the USA and England had variously alluded to the importance of careful planning for elementary school foreign language programs (Driscoll, 1999b; Finocchiaro, 1983; Pesola, 1995; Preusker, 1995) with planning for younger-aged students beginning with listening and speaking, and the later development of reading and writing skills (Komorowska, 1997).

Yet lack of established curriculum guidelines found within FLES programs in the US (Rhodes & Oxford, 1988, p. 57) and similar findings from Australian research (Martin, 1991) indicated that teachers "used whatever [they believed] worked or whatever they felt was necessary for their students at a given time" (p. 47). Martin (1991) labeled such teacher planning as "eclectic". The Tasmanian LOTE Policy made no mention of an intention to produce planning guidelines. It was noted in Chapter 5 in that the Policy itself had referred only to assessment guidelines regarding the use of the Profile document (Curriculum Corporation, 1994b).

Findings of this study were that although LOTE was a relatively new curriculum area in the Tasmanian primary curriculum, most teachers felt positive about the procedures and strategies in their LOTE planning. Figure 25 shows teachers' responses to the survey item regarding LOTE planning procedures and strategies.

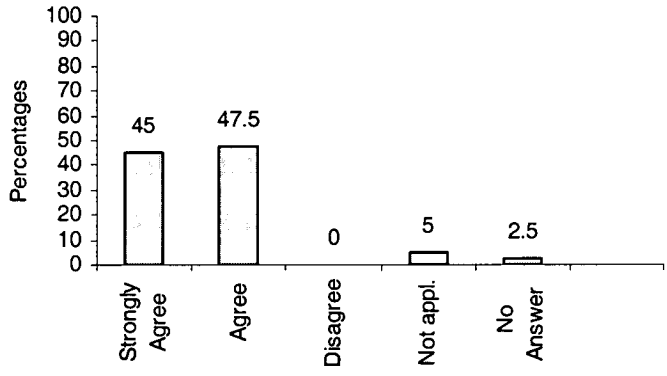

Figure 25: Teachers' agreement or otherwise with the statement, "I understand about the majority of procedures and strategies in my LOTE planning" ($N = 40$).

The majority of teachers (93%) "strongly agreed" or "agreed" that they understood about LOTE planning procedures and strategies. As the Policy itself did not set down planning guidelines, the teachers were either accessing planning guides from the supplementary documents, ideas from their previous teaching, from professional development seminars or from networking with colleagues.

Sandy reported her belief that she is an organised teacher, planning her units in an organised manner. "But my planning is never really tight," she confessed, "And I don't think it can be . . . you go off on different tangents" (Sandy, int. 3, 1/8/97).

This was characteristic of her work, she believed and stated, "I plan a unit, and it's not absolutely clear in my head . . . I just keep finding these things and putting them in" (Sandy, int. 3, 1/8/97). She reported that her planning evolved as the unit as a whole was being implemented. Rhonda reported something similar, stating she was eclectic (Rhonda, int. 4, 14/8/97). Jodie considered her strategies for LOTE planning were "a bit more flexible" (Jodie, int. 2, 27/10/97) compared with her planning for other learning areas. She commented on her eclectic planning method and added, "I must admit I don't . . . sit down and write it all up. In my mind I do, but sometimes it . . . grows like an amoeba! . . . It . . . grows and then I start to write it and it seems to take form as I teach it" (Jodie, int. 2, 27/10/97).

The literature on FLES planning from the US suggested teachers were to concentrate on appealing to students' interests and needs (Omaggio & Reiken, 1993), also an emerging trend mentioned in the research of Saez and Carretero (1998). Sandy planned differently for the younger and older age groups. With the older classes she reported teaching more formally (Sandy, Pilot int. 2, 25/11/96; 3, 26/11/96). It was noticeable observing Sandy's lessons that there were many incidental occurrences, taking the unit along a certain direction. Sandy reported that written planning would be ineffective in her context.

Satchwell (1999, p. 95) pointed out the need to include groupwork and pairwork with primary foreign language teaching. Rhonda's approach was to plan for "some open-ended tasks which can be extended, rather than planning for small groups" (Rhonda, Int. #5, 21/8/97). Jodie, like Rhonda, only occasionally had the students working in small groups (Jodie, Int. #2, 27/10/97).

The literature mentioned that planning groups, in this case among primary LOTE teachers in districts and between districts, would provide feedback to support teachers (Scott, 1988). This would not only allow "dissemination" but also "diffusion" (McBeath, 1997) of understandings of the Policy intentions. The research reviewed in the literature highlighted difficulties of teachers' understanding the innovation when working alone. Transparent dissemination, or diffusion, allows teachers an ownership of the innovation (Crandall, Bauchner,

Loucks & Schmidt, 1982), thus helping the system management to achieve a balance in the top-down/bottom-up dichotomy. Research had found that teachers talk, plan and prepare together, learning from and reflecting with each other to form strong "up-close" communities (Little, 1981, as cited in Fullan, 1991; McLaughlin, 1998).

This scenario described in the paragraph above was the case for primary LOTE teachers in Tasmania. The findings of this study provide evidence that there is an influence of the "up-close" (McLaughlin, 1998) community to develop shared understandings of the innovation (Scott, 1988), which has the potential to impact on teacher decision-making. Data from the survey in this study depicted teachers who described their roles as part of a district planning group. One respondent stated that their planning has forged new ground by developing a workable curriculum, developed by a group of colleagues who "share ideas, planning and assessment means and have developed a wide range of strategies for successful teaching" (Respondent BB, Survey item 9).

Stories of strategies and procedures for planning content, learning experiences and resources appear in the interview data from the three teachers participating in this study. They exemplify the extent to which language curriculum planning is both an individual and a shared procedure.

A strategy for planning utilised by the three teachers participating in this study was to meet together periodically to plan units of work, assessment and evaluation procedures, reducing their sense of isolation, increasing their opportunities for dialogue, and providing them with meaningful content (McLaughlin, 1998, p. 80). Planning as part of a group (Pahl & Monson, 1992) was clearly preferable for these Tasmanian primary LOTE teachers. Jodie's comments indicated her feelings of alienation being the sole LOTE specialist in the school (Jodie, int. 1, 20/10/97) and her need for "collegial support and reflection" (Jodie, int. 3, 12/11/97).

The DEA intended that LOTE programs would be implemented by utilising assessment strategies according to the National Profile document (Curriculum

Corporation, 1994b). The literature review in Chapter 3 had isolated assessment and evaluation as the fifth aspect (Oberg, 1991) of teacher decision-making. Although the procedures for assessment and evaluation in primary LOTE were not extensively detailed in the literature, and only briefly mentioned in the Policy itself and within the research reports of Breen et al. (1996) and Driscoll (1999b), assessment and evaluation procedures are "an integral element to a curriculum" (Eash, 1991, p. 69) and therefore integral to a primary LOTE program.

The primary LOTE teachers responding to the survey reported understanding the assessment and evaluation procedures in this learning area. Figure 26 shows teachers' responses to the survey item regarding assessment and evaluation procedures for primary LOTE. Teachers "strongly agreed" and "agreed" (85%) they possessed an understanding about assessment and evaluation procedures for primary LOTE.

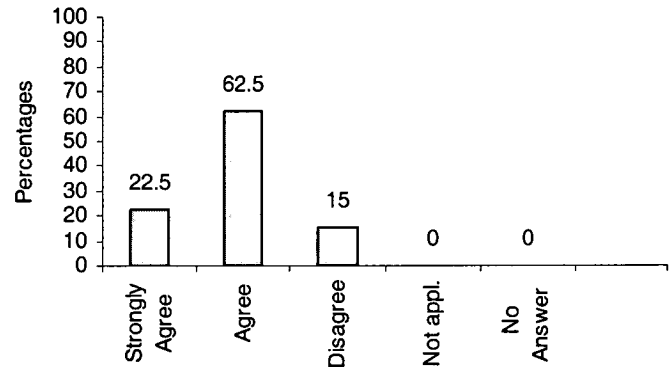

Figure 26: Teachers' agreement or otherwise to the statement, "I am clear about assessment and evaluation procedures for primary LOTE" ($N = 40$).

The open-ended question response item asked teachers to respond to weaknesses and strengths of their assessment and evaluation procedures. It was interesting to note that although the teachers had indicated an understanding about primary LOTE assessment, their comments on weaknesses outweighed any reported strengths.

Related issues within teachers' reports of assessment matters were lack of time or time constraints having an effect on their abilities to assess and evaluate to their liking. The perceived lack of a benchmarking or procedure similar to senior syllabus moderation was needed, one said.

With the intended LOTE Policy stating that planning would occur according to the Profile statements, the intention of the Department of Education and the Arts was that assessment would occur in a detailed systematic manner for LOTE the same as for other key learning areas. The three teachers participating in the study recounted their assessment and evaluation procedures, the pioneering/beginning nature of the whole assessment and evaluation processes appearing clearly in their stories. Yet the anxiety and concern reported in Breen et al. (1996) and Driscoll (1999b) did not appear for the three teachers in this study.

Sandy discussed her LOTE assessment and evaluation procedures by comparing it to her assessment in Physical Education when she first started teaching. She said, "in Phys. Ed., . . . it's a very visual thing. You assess kids by looking at them" (Sandy, Pilot int. 5, 9/12/96). However, with her LOTE, assessment strategies were different. She said, "It's not just a visual thing. It's also this oral thing and there's writing and there's marking" (9/12/96). She stated further in a confident manner, "I've got very definite outcomes of what I want. And I know in my mind how I'm going to assess, or how I'm going to know those kids achieved that . . . But how to get there, or how to go over it, is . . . very changeable" (Sandy, int. #3, 1/8/97).

Like Sandy, Rhonda appeared confident when asked about her assessment procedures for primary LOTE. She said, "Perhaps I track progress more carefully. Maybe I've broken some of their skills and knowledge down . . . more than I do in other areas, because there are certain other areas . . . when you're in general classroom teaching, it's a bit more difficult to break down to the same extent" (Rhonda, int. 2, 24/7/97). Her assessment was based on criteria from the National LOTE Profile document. Jodie, like Rhonda, would observe students and list the criteria from the LOTE Profile to plot where she believed the student should be placed on the continuum. The statement and the continuum were noted on the report form sent to parents (Jodie, int. 3, 12/11/97).

Discussed below in Sections 6.4, 6.5 and 6.6 are further teacher-specific factors that impacted on the teachers' implementation of the LOTE Policy. Internal

factors impacting on primary LOTE teachers negotiating Policy included personal (their past experiences, personal life histories, visions and beliefs), as well as interpersonal reasons of specialist and semi-specialist LOTE teachers' working relationships with supporting generalist class teachers and accessibility and networking provisions for LOTE teacher professional development. (External factors were indicated in Chapter 5 as impacting on implementation.)

Personal teacher attributes and character traits, interpersonal communication factors between program delivery "team" members, and factors relating to teacher beliefs are discussed in Section 6.4 and 6.5 below.

6.4 Personal factors impacting on primary LOTE teachers' implementation of LOTE Policy

6.4.1 Teachers' understandings about facets of the curriculum reform

The literature reviewed in Chapter 2, Section 2.4.3.1, alluded to research that highlighted the importance of teachers' understanding of the curriculum reform (Nisbet, 1975; Ridley, 1990). Understanding the various facets of the Policy, and having indicated they were mostly in agreement (see Section 6.3 above), the LOTE teachers in this study conveyed their perceptions about effective foreign language teaching.

6.4.2 Teachers' personal character traits impacting on the success of the reform

The literature had reported that, in the creation of an effective foreign language teacher, certain personality and character traits were just as important as knowledge about the language, knowledge of the primary curriculum and of the L2 acquisition process (Bernhardt & Hammadou, 1987; Brosh, 1996; Low et al., 1995; Moskowitz, 1976; Satchwell, 1999; Tierney, 1999; and Tucker et al., 1996). These character traits included teachers possessing a dynamism; motivational,

enthusiastic style; humour; kindness; sensitivity; confidence; and risk-taking behaviour. Those traits were clearly in evidence in the researcher's opinion for the 3 collaborating teachers throughout the data collection period.

Interestingly only few teachers responding to this Tasmanian survey believed that they themselves and the type of teacher they were, played a part in creating successful LOTE programs. In the open-ended response section to Survey item 11 regarding creation of a rich learning environment, four teachers (from 35 responses) alluded to their personal attributes such as enthusiasm, dynamism, friendliness, and expressive manner as impacting on the rich environment created.

6.4.3 Teachers' personal knowledge base developed through their careers to date

The LOTE teachers' individual teaching style may also have impacted on implementation.

Figure 27 shows teachers' responses to the survey item relating to their current LOTE teaching strategies.

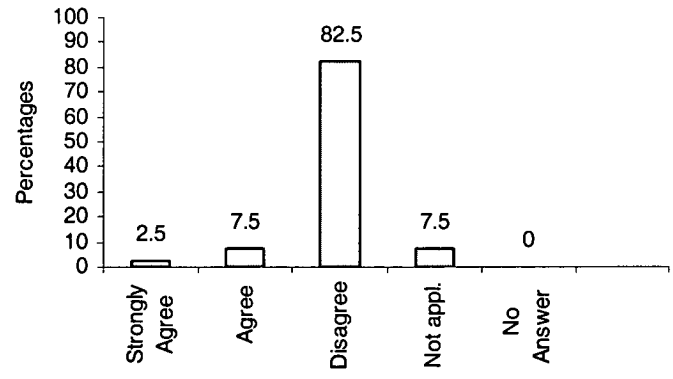

Figure 27: Teachers' agreement or otherwise with the statement, "I teach LOTE the same way I was taught my first LOTE/foreign language" ($N = 40$).

By far the majority of respondents (83%) indicated that their current LOTE teaching strategies are dissimilar to the ways they were taught their first LOTE. The majority of these respondents had experienced introductory LOTE "taster" programs at secondary school, details of which are in the paragraph below. Fifteen respondents recalled learning their first LOTE with a grammar-translation

emphasis and eleven mentioned specifically that their first language had been French. Nine teachers noted that lessons were textbook based, with reading and written comprehension components. The LOTE learning was teacher-centred with emphasis on reading, writing, rote learning, pattern-drilling and vocabulary acquisition. One teacher mentioned having learned LOTE through a specific methodology called the audio-lingual approach.

The respondents recounted stories of their own first foreign language learning where they sat at their desks in a static fashion. Student learning was demonstrated by test and examination results. Four respondents mentioned that there was an unreality about the learning because of the lack of background culture study. Only two teachers reported having primary LOTE experiences in their own primary schooling, whereas on the other hand, two teachers embarked on their first LOTE experience after leaving school.

The issues and concerns—both positive and negative—for teachers surrounding their comments on the learning of their first LOTE learning were methodological concerns (15 teachers mentioned learning by grammar translation approach); excellent teachers (n = 5) or disincentives to learning such as textbook based learning (n = 9) with comprehension-type written exercises (n = 8) and tests (n = 3) being characteristic of their teaching.

During in-depth interviews, Jodie commented on her own first foreign language learning experiences. Jodie studied foreign languages at high school in Tasmania in the same era as Sandy and Rhonda. Jodie's early teen years found her surrounded by two languages other than English for the first time. She learned French in high school for four years and German for two years at a local co-educational high school. She remembered being impressed by her two LOTE teachers. "My French teacher was an Australian", she said, "but she had told us that she'd spent some time in France and she spoke it [French] really well" (Jodie, int. 1, 20/10/97). Jodie was the first to admit she doesn't remember much of what she learned in those classes. The French she did learn was within language exercises in textbooks (20/10/97).

As regards her own LOTE proficiency, she stated she is not using the level of language with her classes that was required of her to qualify to teach [matriculation level LOTE, or Stage 4], "even though it's there . . . in the background" (Jodie, int. 4, 18/11/97). But after some discussion about proficiencies expected for, for example, specialist music teaching, Jodie conceded that there are times when she needed to know more complicated language. Maintaining her proficiency in the target LOTE is not a major issue for Jodie, although she admitted it requires time. "I'm motivated enough to . . . try and keep my skills up there, even though I'm not teaching at the level of my own skill" (Jodie, int. 1, 20/10/97).

Singing French songs was the most enjoyable part of learning French for Jodie, and she admitted the singing of songs in the LOTE is one area where there is a similarity to her own style of LOTE teaching today. She remembered the fun, enjoyable experiences of word play, "just playing with words and the sound of them" (Jodie, int. 1, 20/10/97).

In fact, Jodie's French teacher was etched in her memory. She explained, "she had a lot of mannerisms that were like French people . . . I found that very interesting. You know . . . she seemed a bit different from your average run-of-the-mill teacher. She was . . . quite a colourful character" (Jodie, int. 1, 20/10/97).

As for Jodie, Sandy's and Rhonda's personal traits and life history to date impacted on their teaching. Sandy's "adding and sorting," eclectic style came, she said, from having to work in and around class teachers' needs (Sandy, Pilot int. 3, 26/11/96). Rhonda conceded that her style was also active and enthusiastic, although not for every key learning area. Rhonda said, "Some things I can't get as enthusiastic about . . . in my general teaching . . . Some things I teach because I have to, not because I like it. I teach LOTE because I want to" (Rhonda, int. 4, 14/8/97).

6.4.4 Teachers' skill base impacting on curriculum implementation

Teachers related stories that successful implementation was not always achieved according to Policy intention. Their comments related to their own personal teaching skills.

Possessing competencies in Information technology skills was one particular group of skills mentioned by survey respondents (see Section 5.4.4). Regarding the fact that approximately only half the respondents reported success in their use of the IT component, eleven teachers indicated in their survey responses that they do not utilise the technology at present for various reasons including lack of time and energy. They commented, however, that they intended to use the package in the future.

Technical problems experienced during installation of the IT hardware and software caused some teachers to discontinue attempts to use IT, to give up or feel concerned about investing time and energy (n = 8) into learning about the hardware and software and to spend time in planning to utilise the IT with colleagues or students. Difficulties in finding suitable times to operate Share-vision software with other schools also caused teachers (n = 8) to discontinue this IT option.

Again reiterating findings reported in Section 5.4.4, four teachers mentioned that the computer was not placed in a convenient location and three mentioned that the school commandeered the hardware for curriculum areas other than LOTE.

However teachers using the IT package granted to "on-line" schools reported (n = 3) that it allows them to extend communicative activities for their students, allowing them to access a broader range of materials (n = 2), allowing them to email letters (n = 3) and use CD-ROMs as extension material (n = 5). Only one teacher mentioned that she is using IT for discussion groups (professional development). One teacher confessed that she is "a complete technophobe" and doesn't use the package at all.

Three teachers mentioned that more initial training should have been offered and suggested a good idea may have been to include a handbook for "troubleshooting."

6.4.5 Teacher's personal beliefs impacting on curriculum implementation

Literature reviewed in Chapter 2, Section 2.5.3.1, highlighted the theories of researchers who maintain that curriculum implementation is affected by teachers' beliefs and attitudes (Al-Sharafi, 1998; Clandinin & Connolly, 1996; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Francis, 1995; Gatbonton, 1999; Horwitz, 1985; Peck & Westgate, 1994; Richards, 1998; Roberts, 1998; and Wallace, 1991).

An examination of primary LOTE teachers' beliefs as part of the data analysed for this study has, as the underlying context, the fact that the DEA LOTE Policy (DEA, 1995a) intended that a language and culture program would be offered to children in Tasmanian Government primary schools from Grade 3. The Policy intended this for a mixture of utilitarian and child-focused reasons for early LOTE learning. Findings about teachers' practice in this study were similar to the practice-based research of Lipton in the USA (1994), the Reark Research findings from Australia (Reark Research, 1995, as cited in ALLC, 1996, p. 121) and Vilke's work from Croatia (1993b). Findings from the literature review had noted programs where teachers had implemented for student enjoyment and sensitisation (Andreas, 1994; Kubanek-German, 1998) and for student development of knowledge about language (Low et al., 1995).

Almost all teachers in this study responding to the survey believed in general benefits of LOTE learning for all students. Figure 28 shows teachers' responses to the statement: "Learning a LOTE is beneficial for all students."

By far the biggest reaction to this response item, sourced from the open-ended written response section of Survey item 4, was that teachers believed ($N = 24$) that first language literacy is enhanced with the study of a LOTE. They also believed that knowledge about language is developed in young students learning a LOTE.

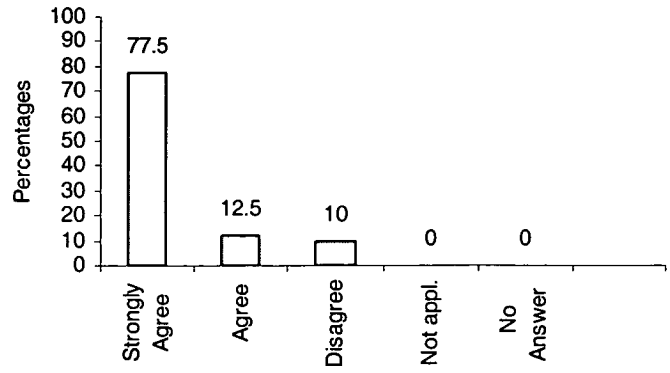

Figure 28: Teachers' agreement or otherwise with the statement, "Learning a LOTE is beneficial for all students" ($N = 40$).

Twenty teachers believed that young learners gain personally from the study of a primary LOTE, citing these personal gains as: confidence; memory enhancement; talent development; development of skills in social relationships and social interaction; self esteem; positive attitude to learning; comprehension; deduction; listening; concentration; cooperation; and coordination skills. As a further benefit of early LOTE learning, they cited that LOTE becomes a focal point in children's homes, with reports of children "showing off" in the LOTE to siblings and parents.

One related issue arising from the data collected in this study is the question of whether policy guides a teacher's actions and has a "direct effect on the teachers' classroom practices" (Cray, 1997, p. 35) or whether a teacher's method becomes a replication of the ways they themselves were taught during earlier formal schooling. This aspect of the research was explored through the survey investigation into teachers' perceptions about the intended LOTE programs being language and culture focused. In response to Survey item 4, 27 of the 40 respondents (67.5%) reported that in their opinion, the benefits of primary LOTE allowed students to understand "difference" or develop cultural literacy and tolerance.

Teachers acknowledged this belief with the use of metaphors such as "broadening horizons" in the world, and "opening doors" to other societies. Yet approximately half of the primary LOTE teachers responding to this Tasmanian survey had not

experienced their own first foreign language learning with a cultural focus, suggesting that not all primary LOTE teachers replicate methods of teaching from their own earlier experiences. Figure 29 shows teachers' own experiences of learning their own first LOTE with a culture component.

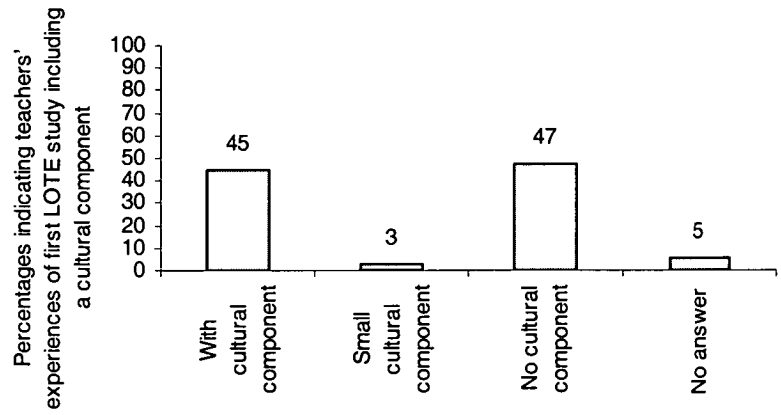

Figure 29: Teachers' indications of the cultural component in their own first LOTE learning ($N = 40$).

Almost half of the respondents (47%) had not learned their own first LOTE with an emphasis on a cultural component, indicating the possibility that not all teachers replicate teaching methods from their own schooling. This Tasmanian data, on the contrary, showed that not all teachers are teaching the way they were taught—approximately half the respondents were including the culture study that their own schooling had not afforded them.

In fact, data highlighted teachers referring to their own personal impact on LOTE decision-making, as in Cray's study (1997). For example, four respondents to this survey mentioned that personal experience over the years has helped them plan now, one respondent stating, "it must become internalised" (Respondent S, Survey item 9).

Several responding teachers reported their wish to understand other cultures they'd come into contact with, which in turn was fostering their motivation to teach LOTE with a cultural focus. Interestingly no mention was made by these respondents of high academic qualifications impacting on their current primary

LOTE teaching, an issue that had been evident in the literature reviewed earlier in Chapter 2 (Carless, 1998, p. 365) as impacting on success of LOTE provision.

The three primary LOTE teachers participating in the study offered responses to questions during the interview sessions that highlighted aspects of their current teaching, linking to their own personal lives. In this overwhelming indication of their belief that early LOTE learning is beneficial, teachers displayed a "sympathizing" with policy (Noddings & Enright, 1983, p. 182) alluded to in Chapter 2. In Chapter 2, the research of Shannon (1990) and Wagner (1991) suggested that teachers change only on the surface, without specifically understanding the innovation, or that they "translate innovative ideas to conform with their own style of teaching" (see also Crookes & Arakaki, 1999).

Sandy, Rhonda and Jodie could be considered to be both "conforming" and "sympathizing" with the LOTE implementation. During the process of this research, interviews with Sandy, Rhonda and Jodie were punctuated with short anecdotes about their own lives learning foreign languages, their teaching experiences and certain student achievements, which they stated affected their negotiation of curriculum.

Sandy admitted to her belief of placing a great amount of emphasis on the listening and speaking aspects, because "[f]or some kids, writing—it really turns them off . . . I think if they can speak and they can make themselves understood, then it's a much better way to go" (Sandy, Int. #2, 18/7/97). She also reported that students and parents had told her that such memory strategies were being utilised in homes (Sandy, Pilot int. 1, 22/11/96).

She included a lot of singing in her LOTE lessons as she believed the children access authentic pronunciation and exact sounds through the rhythms and rhymes in song. The language utilised in songs allowed Sandy to help the children to see word connections. Sandy's belief was that if the song had a good tune and students played with the words, it is beneficial to their learning (Sandy, Pilot int. 3, 26/11/96).

Sandy reported believing strongly in her role to develop the "learning-how-to-learn" skills of the students. She reported her hope that students who have studied Indonesian in her programs will have "learned how to learn . . . they've learned how to look up words in a dictionary, how to be an independent learner, and that's, I mean, that's a big part of it" (Sandy, Pilot int. 4, 3/12/96), no matter whether they continue with Indonesian or a different language. Sandy concluded that the experience of raising children gives teachers lots of clues as to how to teach and motivate children (Sandy, Pilot int. 1, 22/11/96).

Regarding Rhonda's vision for the possibilities with primary LOTE programs, Rhonda reported reading widely, keeping abreast of Tasmania's relationships with mainland states as well as with other countries reported through the news media. She explained how her belief about how her recent reading has made her realise "children . . . with their knowledge and skills about other countries will not only be essential for their development, but for Australia's development and where we turn to as we're looking for our part in the region" (Rhonda, int. 1, 17/7/97).

She also reported her belief that some students will make personal achievements through studying a LOTE at an early age. She said, "probably for some of the children who certainly struggle with coming to grips with reading their own language, just the phonetic nature of Indonesian . . . reinforces some of the phonetic skills that the teachers try to teach them as building blocks for their own language" (Rhonda, int. 2, 24/7/97).

Rhonda's belief is that her provision of opportunities for students to access the target culture through the language is also a key reason for her support of primary LOTE programs. She admitted this teaching of culture is part of her style and runs across all learning areas. It is one where she can rely on the "construction" process in language learning, a concept clearly in the foreign language learning literature, which emphasises characteristics of language learners who are making sense of "their experiential world (Von Glasersfeld, 1991, p. 32) and who "build up their meanings on the basis of their individual experience" (Von Glasersfeld, 1991, p. 31).

Jodie's belief for the place of LOTE in the primary school curriculum is "that it's for a purpose, it's not an isolated thing . . . it's part of a big picture" (Jodie, int. 1, 20/10/978) and she hoped to enthuse and motivate the children, with LOTE linking in to all the curriculum learning areas, and then linking to their preparation for their futures.

The literature review variously mentioned studies that highlighted issues restricting the provision of an enriched learning environment for students (Rixon, 1999, p. 126). These issues included a lack of quality materials and teaching resources and an increase in teacher workload due to the need for teachers to prepare large amounts of materials. Participating in the study, Sandy shared her opinions on these issues and the importance of learning environment and her comments particularly highlight this issue.

Displaying posters around the classroom walls and providing visual stimuli was a part of Sandy's belief in language learning "scaffolding" strategies, to help students learn the LOTE. Sandy commented that she believes in modeling high work standards to the children, hoping they will follow the careful and serious standards she sets when it comes to producing their own work (Sandy, Pilot int. 3, 26/11/96). Video footage of Indonesia, bilingual dictionaries and picture dictionaries provided her students with more language learning scaffolds in a text-rich LOTE environment.

In summary, teachers' personal character traits, their understandings, professional knowledge developed throughout their careers to date, skill levels and beliefs have been found, in the data reported in Section 6.4 above, to impact on implementation of teachers' policy deconstruction into classroom practice to varying degrees. Particularly found in this study, similar to other national and international studies referred to in Chapter 2, is that primary LOTE teachers' beliefs were affecting the content and process of what they were teaching.

6.5 Interpersonal factors impacting on primary LOTE teachers' implementation of LOTE Policy

The Department of Education and the Arts funded LOTE programs in order that both a specialist LOTE teacher and a generalist class teacher would be present to deliver the programs. Interpersonal communications and relationships fostered between the specialist or semi-specialist LOTE teachers and generalist class teachers or with primary LOTE teaching colleagues made an impact on how LOTE was delivered in classrooms (see Section 5.4.2). Tasmanian primary LOTE teachers reported various levels of generalist class teacher support, different responses having been recorded for the various contexts. Tasmanian primary LOTE teachers were also "networking" in order to implement LOTE programs as is described in the following section.

6.5.1 Teachers' visions for primary LOTE: Goals for student participation and learning standards

Also indicated as a factor impacting on teacher decision-making was teachers seeking the authority of their collegial network. Sandy mentioned that the LOTE teachers swap ideas and games that they have personally trialed and which have proved popular with students. She sought weekly contact with her network of primary LOTE teachers, allowing her to check, "am I doing all right? Is this working?" (Sandy, Pilot int. 5, 9/12/96) and believed such professional contact helped her professional development.

Like Sandy, Rhonda agreed that collegial planning was beneficial (Fullan, 1993; Lortie, 1975; and Nias, 1998). She said, "it gives me a real network of other people who I'm very close with within the teaching profession, which I don't think I really had before . . . there's so many LOTE issues that you need to discuss in depth" (Rhonda, int. #1, 17/7/97).

Jodie, too, stated her belief in staying in touch with other LOTE teachers to lessen the isolation. She lamented the fact that teachers implementing primary LOTE

who have not been introduced to the LOTE curriculum area in a pre-service training period would not have had the opportunity to share ideas, to interact with each other, or to dialogue the common grounding factors to be considered in second language acquisition (Jodie, int. 1, 20/10/97).

Teachers were relying on several interpersonal strategies to implement their LOTE programs. It is through data collected on teachers' personal narratives described below, that teachers' LOTE implementation strategies become even clearer.

6.6 Three teachers' personal narratives impacting on their implementation of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy: Sandy, Rhonda and Jodie

Fullan (1991a, p. 37) considered that changing teacher behaviours and curriculum materials will help change the curriculum, and this belief sits well with Oberg's (1991) five aspects of decision-making alluded to earlier. However, changing the curriculum by changing teachers' beliefs (Fullan, 1991a, p. 37) is not easy. As stated earlier in Chapter 2, language teacher beliefs affecting planning and classroom practice has been the topic of much research of late (Al-Sharafi, 1998; Francis, 1995; Gatbonton, 1999; Horwitz, 1985; Peck & Westgate, 1994; Richards, 1998; and Wallace, 1991) and changing those beliefs is complex. Changing teacher beliefs cannot occur instantly.

The literature reviewed highlighted research that found that the ability and opportunity for teachers to explicitly reflect on their teaching of language is important (Pennington, 1993). According to Clandinin and Connelly (1991, p. 131) understanding personal knowledge in curriculum "draws our attention to the importance of reflection as a process through which practitioners can use general rules and principles as heuristics from which to reflect on their practice."

Clandinin and Connelly (1991) also stated "In adopting a personal knowledge perspective, reflection will gain importance as a critical element in teacher

education" (p. 131). Within the context of this study, if language teachers have made available to them the opportunity to acknowledge their knowledge and beliefs through a process of reflection, then curriculum and policy development may be enhanced.

Specifically for the LOTE teacher, the reflection process should encompass opportunities for the teacher to reflect to discover the reasons and assumptions for what he/she does; critically evaluate these reasons and assumptions; appraise alternative practices; implement the results of the reflection in his/her classroom; and rearrange his/her teaching practice (So, 1997) with the hope that the teacher will grow professionally helped by this reflection (Tucker et al., 1996).

The findings of this study in Chapter 5 showed that the Tasmanian LOTE Policy had not specifically intended that opportunities would be made for teachers to explicitly reflect to acknowledge their personal knowledge and beliefs, although it may have been assumed in the statements on responsibilities of key players that these opportunities would have been provided (see comments in Section 5.3.4.1.c regarding the principal's role). Yet Tasmanian primary LOTE teachers reported using reflection strategies to negotiate policy directives in implementing primary LOTE curriculum. Figure 30 shows teachers' indications about their LOTE reflection.

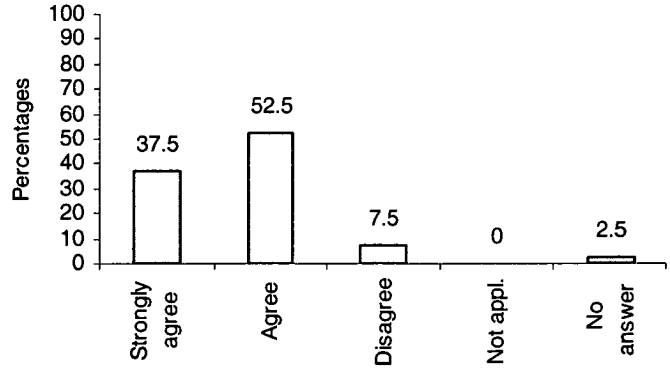

Figure 30: Teachers' agreement or otherwise to the statement, "After my LOTE lessons I reflect on everything I do to improve my LOTE teaching" ($N = 40$).

In data sourced from open-ended response item 19, most teachers reported the reflection process is automatic and that they reflect "mentally" when engaged in

other activities, for example, while driving home, in the shower, in bed, or reading professional journal articles ($N = 19$). Three teachers reported using cognitive strategies to mentally check through a list of questions as to the success or otherwise of the lessons. Ten teachers reflected as a written process, either in jottings from observations or in a permanent section of their planning proforma. One teacher reported writing a temporary plan, then at the end of the week, filling in a "what really happened" final copy.

The reflection process complemented any feedback or evaluation the teachers received from LOTE teaching colleagues, generalist class teachers and the students themselves.

Details of how reflection strategies helped teachers to negotiate Policy to implement primary LOTE curriculum were reported by the three teachers participating in the study through stories recorded at interview.

Rhonda reported that she reflects in many ways on her primary LOTE teaching. Rhonda reported constantly asking herself, "Could I be doing this better?" (Rhonda, int. 2, 24/7/97). She said, "I've certainly talked far more about my teaching practice with LOTE than I ever have done in other subjects!" (Rhonda, int. 1, 17/7/97). Similarly, during the interviews for this research, Jodie had the opportunity to delve into her past history to find some links with her current theory and practice.

The study of the implementation of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy was of the initial years of implementation in primary schools. That there is teacher negotiation of curriculum, then a re-negotiation by those teachers in a following period, is perhaps also a possibility in evidence in the Tasmanian LOTE Policy context. Regarding this study as "part of a complex pattern" (Gold, 1999, p. 212) therefore is logical. Gold's research alluded to in Chapter 2, section 2.6 had mentioned the possibility of a "punctuated legitimacy" existing for curriculum innovation: that is, that over time a pattern emerges for the "construction, erosion, loss, reconstruction, and maintenance" (1999, p. 210) of innovations. Similarly the

transition curve theory cited in Breen et al. (1996) mentioned the peaks and troughs of teachers' experiences of innovation.

"Peaks and troughs" became evident in an analysis of the figurative and metaphorical language used by Tasmanian teachers to recount their primary LOTE stories in this study (Harbon, 2000). The "troughs" of Policy implementation were identified, with "some grey areas" being reported in teachers' understandings of the Policy document itself, as well as a fear that LOTE would "take a dive" if State or Federal funding for LOTE was discontinued. Feelings of uncertainty were uncovered from teachers who delivered LOTE in another teacher's classroom. In fact, many expressions of fear ("riding the Tower of Terror"), doubt ("going out on a branch [limb]"; "It's like I'm on prac."), disappointment ("the balloon popped"; [trying a new activity which went "down like a lead balloon"), chaos and confusion ("feeling in the dark"; "blind leading the blind"; and "wearing two hats"), failure ("I might as well bash my head against a brick wall"), lack of control ("losing control"; "not within my control") and lack of time ("there aren't enough hours in the day"; "time runs out") were isolated in an analysis of primary LOTE teachers' language use (Harbon, 2000).

Descriptions were of never feeling "part of the furniture" with their "flitting in and out of a school" or "popping in" to this class and the next. "It is hard to spread yourself around" said another. There was a description of "chaos" or difficulties encountered by LOTE teachers delivering programs with a metaphor of "walking round in treacle wearing gumboots," and yet another who doubted if equipping each primary teacher with a LOTE is worthwhile, or mere "pie in the sky," belonging in the "too-hard basket." The teachers seemed to be overcoming these fears by consoling themselves that the "under the microscope" feelings of their "wading in the shallows" with LOTE teaching was merely a "testing the waters" and like "having trainer wheels on again."

Yet the "peaks" were highly evident too. There were equally as many teachers who portrayed their experiences in implementing primary LOTE programs as positive ones. Feelings were expressed of newness ("I feel like a beginning

teacher again"; "I feel like a pioneer"; "a new lease on life"), rebirth ("I feel reborn"), renewed vigour ("I feel like an old dog who can still learn new tricks"), liberation ("It's freeing and exciting"), focus ("I feel like I only want to teach one subject"; "It's my life"; "I feel like a pig in mud! Cat in the dairy!"), pleasure ("I am proud . . . challenged and rewarded all at once"'), happiness ("I feel like I'm on top of the world"), fortune ("the doors LOTE has opened for me") and degree of hunger ("a hunger for more"; "whetting their appetite"). One very appealing instance of use of metaphor was the teacher describing her role as "an angel bearing gifts from strange lands."

Teachers are known to "frame" problems with the use of story and metaphor. LOTE teachers' visions about the early LOTE learning process are firmly entrenched in their personal stories and beliefs inherent in those stories. The fact that teachers live out their personal and professional life stories impacts on implementation procedures and teaching strategies.

The three primary LOTE teachers participating in the study offered parts of their own personal stories during the interview sessions which highlighted aspects of their current teaching which they have linked to their own lives. How they view their own personal stories can be seen through the metaphors of conduits or even saintly facilitators (Harbon, 2000).

6.6.1 Sandy: The caregiver

Sandy's reflections on how she teaches primary LOTE now showed her perceptions that she utilised a completely different teaching style than was utilised by her teacher when she herself learned her first LOTE. As a teacher of LOTE herself, Sandy has chosen resources to stimulate her students visually and chose resources with many visual aspects, believing "for a child who's learning it, it has to be a big plus" (Sandy, Pilot int, 4, 3/12/96).

She reflected specifically on her own story for this data collection procedure and said, "I think that the thing that's probably influenced me most in what I do in class, has probably been having my own kids and what, you know, reading stories

to them, and describing things or saying things in a different way" (Sandy, Pilot int. 1, 22/11/96). She concluded, "My kids have played a big influence . . .
I suppose, after being with them all these years you kind of know what kids like, how to speak to them . . . get them a bit enthused (22/11/96).

6.6.2 Rhonda: The conduit

Rhonda also reflected on her personal story to convey her thoughts about early language learning. According to Rhonda, the phenomenon of students learning a LOTE in her classes is like "a window on the world they can open." On the whole she reported that her students are very enthusiastic and readily focus on the LOTE learning. She stated her belief that LOTE study gives children a chance to think about how they're learning, "the whole meta-cognition bit," she added. For children learning LOTE, Rhonda commented that the teaching strategies used often require different sorts of learning strategies. This is something new and challenging for her, she said.

She explained how her recent reading has made her realise "knowledge and skills about other countries will not only be essential for their development, but for Australia's development and where we turn to as we're looking for our part in the region" (Rhonda, int. 1, 17/7/97). Rhonda's LOTE teaching was constructed in the comments she made as a conduit (Clandinin & Connelly, 1992, p. 370), aiding young Tasmanians to develop more understanding of the world.

6.6.3 Jodie: The facilitator

Jodie, too, provided an indication of her beliefs through reflecting on her own personal story. Jodie does not wish to relinquish her generalist class teacher tasks, so hopes that her LOTE teaching can be part of her generalist class teaching.

It is "attitude" skills that sum up Jodie's hope for her students. She says, "You know, out of this they've got an awareness . . . Most of the children I teach come from white Anglo-Saxon backgrounds . . . this is perhaps new to them, you know, it's outside of their experience . . . " (Jodie, int. 2, 27/10/97). Jodie's LOTE teaching focuses on language for communication with other people, "that it's for a

purpose, it's not an isolated thing . . . it's part of a big picture" and she hopes to spark an ongoing interest for the children: initially across the curriculum learning areas, and then as preparation for their futures. Jodie tells the children in her classes, "that they're on a journey, and . . . it's just really developing an attitude and I think they can take it as far as they want to, you know. Really, at any time, they can get off the journey" she said, clearly indicating her facilitator role (Jodie, int. 4, 18/11/97).

6.7 Summary of findings from teacher focus – Why did teachers implement as they did?

How LOTE was implemented in practice in Tasmanian primary schools, what strategies primary LOTE teachers were using to implement primary LOTE programs and why, were Research questions 2 and 3 forming the structure of the data analysis and presentation of findings in Sections 6.1 to 6.6 above.

Described were LOTE teachers' decisions on goals, in this case communicative competence, content, learning experiences, resources, and assessment and evaluation, based on:

- how much LOTE they wished to use themselves and how much LOTE they planned for their students to use
- how much pressure was being exerted on teachers to provide overt demonstrations of student learning outcomes (assemblies, wall displays etc.)
- how they were taught their first LOTE or a reaction to that style of teaching
- what teaching strategies they already have in their teaching repertoire.

The literature has shown that for this chiefly peripatetic, language-as-object model of provision, it is essential to have a supporting generalist class teacher, to convey a positive message about LOTE to the students, and also to ensure that the teacher him/herself can be learning enough LOTE along with the students so that there is a greater chance of "embedding" LOTE. This occurred in many, but not all, Tasmanian classrooms according to teachers' reports.

The primary LOTE teachers:

- were eclectic, experimental and flexible with their planning and assessment procedures, appropriately targeted to the young students and validated among colleagues
- participated in personal and collegial reflection on appropriate procedures and strategies for LOTE Policy implementation
- partially integrated LOTE into the curriculum in a few instances, using embedding techniques, and these attempts involved teachers working with two or three learning area outcomes in the one unit of work
- implemented communicative based language learning programs in rich learning environments, with most emphasis on students gaining listening and speaking skills. This enrichment involved a reliance on teachers' use of primary level strategies, including use of motivational activities and exercises such as singing, games and a focus on the target culture.

Not all teachers implementing primary LOTE programs were fully conversant with the details and fewer respondents were in full agreement with the aims and content of the Policy. Those who commented on the survey forms noted more faults in the Policy than high points. The three collaborating teachers made only brief reference to the Policy and saw the impact of the Policy more in practical terms (for example, importance of continued funding levels). Most primary LOTE teachers delivered the program alone, with occasional help from generalist class teachers to help "team" delivery of LOTE programs. Clearly teachers' personal views on the possible outcomes of early LOTE learning, their personal character traits and dynamic teaching style, their beliefs in cross-cultural understanding, their desire to create enriched learning environments, and their knowledge about child development, either from having their own children or from their other teaching experiences, all affected LOTE implementation.

7

Conclusions and recommendations for future action and research

7.1 Introduction

The debate over suitability and effectiveness of foreign language education models of provision and teaching strategies continues wherever foreign languages are included in curriculum offerings (Tierney & De Cecco, 1999). In turn, this debate impacts on the development of policy. Although alluded to in Section 1.1, with the brief mention of the effective, naturalistic language modelling strategies of parents singing lullabies to their children in sleep-time rituals, this study has not focused on pre-school, non-formal language learning, an approach that is evident in L1 learning. Rather the focus has been on formal language learning in primary school settings.

The Tasmanian Department of Education and the Arts systematically created contexts for primary school principals working in district clusters to establish models of provision to suit their own contexts. Tasmanian teachers of primary LOTE negotiated policy guidelines according to "enabling conditions" provided by various external factors and also according to various contextual and personal decisions. They delivered what they believed was an authentic language and cultural experience for their students (see especially their comments in Section 6.3.1).

Williams et al. (1985, p. 20) stated that if language is "respected and nurtured in educational settings, there is a greater chance that the child will remain receptive to learning," a statement that can be applied not only to first language, but also to

second and foreign language learning. The teachers participating in this Tasmanian study conveyed similar beliefs. They reported their beliefs in investing and nurturing second/foreign language learning opportunities, as seen from their statements in Chapters 5 and 6.

In Chapter 2 a research framework was conceptualised to enable the data analysis to be undertaken in a systematic fashion. This conceptual framework (see Section 2.7) described one way of examining a "system" implementing curriculum reform. The "system" should operate at the initiation stage to produce a policy that identifies resources, defines roles, structures and monitors a timetable, placing emphasis on human resources. Districts, principals and teachers operate to an extent at this policy level. There is a transition to practice then as teachers operationalise and implement policy. They implement curriculum programs within contexts framed by budgetary limitations and contextual objectives. Although not explicitly stated in the Tasmanian LOTE Policy examined, districts, principals and teachers should be given the opportunity to provide feedback at any time, especially allowing school staff to provide "bottom-up" reactions to the curriculum change.

This chapter makes concluding statements about aspects of the conceptual framework and the research findings for Tasmanian primary LOTE implementation. "Emerging trends" (Saez & Carretero, 1998) evident in the implementation of LOTE policy based on findings from a Tasmanian context between 1996 and 1998 are suggested. These emerging trends can be seen through particular issues surrounding the key attributes of the Policy including a guaranteed pathway, team delivery and IT provision.

Focus is placed on the teacher-level, personal and professional conditions which impact on policy implementation, especially the issues surrounding the impact of their understanding of the change, their reflection strategies, their beliefs and attitudes and their training.

The conclusions below are structured around the research questions in the following sections 7.2 to 7.4. Thereafter, in Section 7.5 and 7.6, are the researcher's considerations and recommendations for future actions and research.

7.2 Research question 1: According to the Tasmanian LOTE Policy, how was LOTE intended to be implemented in Tasmanian primary schools?

The Tasmanian LOTE Policy statement (DEA, 1995a) can be likened to what Hughes termed as a "policy that prescribes the procedures to be followed in formulating the curriculum . . . [specifying] who is to be involved and . . . the limits of their authority" (Hughes, 1991, p. 137). As was discussed in Section 2.1, the Tasmanian LOTE Policy was both a policy on curriculum making, and also the product of the curriculum policy-making process. Undeniably the Tasmanian LOTE Policy statement intended to establish "the character of the curriculum" (Hughes, 1991, p. 137) as is described further below.

The literature reviewed in Chapter 2 concerning curriculum policies stated that such policies are "societal-level decisions . . . based ideally on theoretical data and are influenced by norms and pressure groups current in the society" (Oberg, 1991, p. 303). This has been established in the case of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy through the findings presented in Chapters 5 and 6. There had been a consultative process in evidence since 1993 regarding the formation of a new Tasmanian LOTE Policy, with representation from various interest groups (Tasmanian Education Council, 1993), resulting in the publication in late 1995 of the LOTE Policy (DEA, 1995a). Interestingly, nothing was formalised in Policy itself about either the continuation of this consultative group or the formation of a new language planning committee to oversee implementation and continuation phases, a key aspect considered necessary in the curriculum change literature reviewed in Chapter 2, Section 2.4 (Patterson et al., 1986, cited in Fullan, 1991a, p. 108).

The DEA's LOTE Policy set out LOTE education guidelines and some implementation details and was provided to schools and teachers. Included in the Policy was a rationale, a description of scope and sequence of the implementation, all placed within a wider national and international context. According to the Policy, foreign language education was to be provided for utilitarian, political/economic reasons and because early foreign language learning from Grade 3 would add to a child's development: foreign language study enhanced a child's cognitive development and his/her awareness of first language according to this and other policies reviewed current at the time.

The Tasmanian LOTE Policy (DEA, 1995a) provided a rationale for LOTE study, details about which languages would be offered and goals for student learning outcomes. These included detailed student learning outcome targets to be achieved by 2007 (DEA, 1995a, p. 2). Mentioned also in the Policy was the stipulation that "LOTEs will be taught to standards of language proficiency consistent with the LOTE *Statement* and *Profile*" (Curriculum Corporation, 1994a, 1994b) and:

- key outcomes would include cultural understandings as a priority for student learning (DEA, 1995a)
- details of roles and responsibilities for primary class teachers, secondary SOSE teachers, the LOTE teachers, principals, and senior departmental staff and also expected collaboration between primary, secondary schools and colleges in a cluster, who provide a guaranteed pathway for students continuing with a language
- details on time to be dedicated to this LOTE study; 2.5 hours per week between Year 3 and Year 10 (that is, a possible total of 800 hours) over eight "guaranteed pathway" years
- details that curriculum materials and other resources, including IT, would be made available to schools
- a stipulation that "an increasing number of teachers would be trained in a LOTE" (p. 3) and receive professional development.

The intended Tasmanian LOTE Policy attended to most of the factors which, if included in policy formulation, are likely to enhance the conditions for successful language curriculum implementation (Dunlop et al., 1991; Fullan, 1991a; Spolsky, 1991). Language-as-object programs, beginning at junior to mid-primary level were to be implemented as the intended model of provision.

Teachers were to have access to curriculum implementation officers (DEA, 1995a). Although the Policy itself did not identify clear role specifications, the positions were eventually created. Respondents to the survey including the three collaborating teachers hardly mentioned their presence or the support they were to bring to implementation in these early years.

The Policy document mentioned the relative advantages for schools adopting the Policy: collaboration with other schools and colleges, IT and materials provision, teacher training, university involvement, access to curriculum implementation officers, additional staffing per class (DEA, 1995a). The Commonwealth funding facilitated these initiatives. The DEA may have seen this as an incentive for teachers to embrace the innovation, believing there would be some benefit to them in its adoption.

Suggested in the research literature on curriculum policy design, and found in many aspects of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy, was planning of a curriculum policy that is balanced in regard to top-down/bottom-up procedures (Fullan, 1994; Sabatier, 1986); incrementally implemented (Fullan, 1991a, p. 109); resourced with trained personnel and materials, with a clear scope and sequence. In the particular case of LOTE education there should be a rationale (Clayton, 1993) highlighting the benefits of early LOTE learning for utilitarian as well as child-focused reasons. The Tasmanian LOTE Policy also included a timeline for implementation (McBeath, 1997). This tightly structured and stipulated policy framework provided opportunities available for bottom-up implementation strategies and the likelihood of teacher ownership after the initial leadership-dominated years (Fullan, 1991a, p. 109).

At first the implementation was to be adequately resourced. Information about resourcing was not readily available in the Policy itself, rather, it appeared in supplementary documents at the time of the Policy statement publication and expanded on the information available in the Policy (DEA, 1995b; 1995c; Educational Programs Branch, 1995a, 1995b). Funding was to be provided to schools to staff the programs, to provide computer-based technologies for the teaching and learning and to provide teacher in-service professional development (including teaching relief).

A guaranteed eight-year pathway, IT provision and delivery by "teams" comprising a specialist and generalist teacher were key components of the Tasmanian Policy, not all evident together in other policies examined. The fact that this Policy was not mandated provided a "strength" in its favour, necessitating a district/school/principal/teacher input in adopting the innovation and implementing it in the classroom. In some instances this can be seen as a bottom-up intitiative.

Tasmanian primary LOTE teachers who participated in this study endorsed the intentions of the Policy, agreeing they were conversant with the Policy stipulations and in agreement with its aims and goals. This "sympathy" with the rationale, according to Noddings and Enright (1983, p. 182) is important for the successful resulting implementation. Teachers are said to understand and see the relevance of the change when they have "sympathised" with the intended innovation, and when they have developed opinions, sensations and feelings about how the change will impact on them.

However, a number of attributes found in the literature review as critical for inclusion in language policy were missing. Not included in Tasmanian LOTE Policy were the following aspects:

- the stipulation of level of LOTE teacher qualifications
- the stipulation of the teaching methodologies
- specific statements of the importance of the "team" for delivery (although roles for generalist and specialist teachers were stipulated such that a "team" was implicitly recommended)

- the acknowledgement of the importance of teachers being able to view models of practice, to reflect on their practice and value/acknowledge their beliefs about early foreign language learning.

As well, with no detailed stipulation in Policy of primary LOTE teacher competencies in Tasmania, the Department's LOTE Policy directives do not list standards for best primary LOTE teaching practice.

7.3 Research question 2: How was LOTE implemented in practice in Tasmanian primary schools?

LOTE was implemented in Tasmanian primary schools by districts and principals who translated Policy stipulations to implement the following LOTE programs which were:

- language-as-object programs to teach the LOTE as a separate learning area in the curriculum beginning at Grade 3
- within semi-specialist, visiting and peripatetic contexts
- delivered by a "team", with both a specialist LOTE teacher and generalist class teacher involved in program delivery
- encouraging of the SOSE/LOTE link.

The primary LOTE teachers:

- implemented communicative language learning programs, with most emphasis on students gaining listening and speaking skills
- were eclectic, experimental and flexible with their planning and assessment procedures
- made decisions by continually reflecting on appropriate procedures and strategies for LOTE Policy implementation
- reported only occasional integration of LOTE into the curriculum, using embedding techniques. These attempts involved teachers working with two or three learning area outcomes within the one unit of work.

Local combinations of responsibilities for teachers were evident, for example combined LOTE/Librarianship duties. Sometimes models allowed Grade 2 students to join the Grade 3 class in a composite class situation for logistical and practical reasons.

Most teachers reported the support they received from the generalist class teacher to be helpful. The three teachers participating in the case studies reported the tenuous nature of this help in some instances, but did not report this generalist class teacher support to be as integral to the success of the program as had been reported in the UK studies (Driscoll, 1999b; Low, 1999).

The teachers stated their beliefs in the relationship between first and second language, with half of the respondents noting personal development gains for children studying a LOTE (such as self-confidence, memory enhancement, social skills, comprehension, deduction, listening, concentration, cooperation and coordination).

The Policy was implemented with a departmental "push" to upgrade the training of the primary LOTE teachers as had been flagged briefly in Policy (DEA, 1995a). Few reports were gathered of teachers' opinions of these training measures.

The teachers responding to the survey and participating in the case studies commented variously that the LOTE practice of the first three years was pioneering and experimental, many expressing a concern about aspects of their teaching, such as their own proficiency levels in the LOTE, their own awareness of primary strategies, or assessment and evaluation techniques. This had similarly been reported in the Western Australian research of Breen et al. (1996, pp. 38–40). The concept of punctuated legitimacy (Gold, 1999) may be applied here to describe the "peaks and troughs" nature of teachers' experiences of curriculum implementation, where teachers reported being satisfied with some aspects of the implementation some of the time, and dissatisfied at other times.

The equal numbers of survey respondents indicating that they felt either competent or less competent as regards their language proficiency, combined with data which found that all respondents believed that they were competent primary LOTE teachers, suggests that although it is expected that teachers should be highly proficient, teachers did not perceive high proficiency in the LOTE to be the key factor in being a competent primary LOTE teacher. Regarding competency, personal character traits such as dynamism and possession of a sense of humour as found in other literature reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3, were considered important.

Planning and assessment/evaluation procedures were intended according to the nationally-devised outcomes as are listed in the LOTE Profile document (Curriculum Corporation, 1994b). Teachers reported understanding the majority of planning and assessing/evaluation procedures necessary for primary LOTE, yet not all mentioned that the Profile document was guiding them in monitoring student LOTE learning outcomes. "Eclectic" was how some described their planning strategies.

Implementation in the initial years also saw the primary LOTE teachers actively seeking out the "up-close" (McLaughlin, 1998) network of their LOTE teaching colleagues in order to discuss their planning and teaching and to share resources. This aspect had not been explicitly included in intended policy. Some teachers reported that districts made funding available for teachers to establish support networks, though no data are available that it was systematically occurring at the time.

Similarly, regarding the involvement of school principals, there were no reports that principals were publicly discussing LOTE as had been intended in Policy. Although the Policy and supplementary policy documents had been very specific about the involvement and roles of the principals, the very few data sources alluding to principals' inputs into the implementation suggest that nothing more than supporting and timetabling the LOTE programs was occurring.

Another intention of the LOTE Policy that was not realised in these early years was that computer-based information technology should play a significant role. Whether this was to occur both in teacher training or in student learning (or both) was not stipulated. Provision of the information technology package to schools began upon schools achieving "on-line" status. When the information technology was provided however, teachers reported having little time to achieve success in mastering the skills necessary to utilise this technology.

Teachers reported many Policy intentions being undertaken according to Policy stipulations. However, aspects requiring teacher time and energy had been underestimated by policy developers, and implementation was thus slower than might have been the case had those factors been taken into consideration by the DEA. The monitoring and feedback points, indicated by arrows returning to the beginning in the conceptual framework in Section 2.7, were not clearly evident in the early years of implementation.

7.3.1 Research question 2 (sub-question 1): What particular strategies did primary LOTE teachers use to implement primary LOTE programs?

In implementing Policy according to stipulations, primary LOTE teachers reported having to add new teaching techniques to their teaching repertoire, especially with a primary teaching focus for those secondary LOTE teachers involved. In this way, teachers reported having to tailor their planning to what motivated and enthused young students, an emerging trend of other research (Saez & Carretero, 1998).

Specifically, teachers reported utilising communicative language teaching strategies as per the intentions of the supplementary documents published later than the Policy (DEA, 1995c), but with particular emphasis on younger age suitable methods more oriented towards cultural awareness. Much emphasis was placed on spoken and written demonstrations of acquired learning.

Teachers reported using, and observations were made of teachers using, several strategies from the communicative language teaching method. Most teachers reported aiming for more student use of spoken than written LOTE.

Teachers reported being flexible and eclectic with their planning, assessing and evaluation strategies. Their primary teaching methods allowed them to cope, but their perceptions were that the method was still experimental. Several teachers reported not having been formally trained, as the literature had suggested was preferable, in any of the following: the language/culture link; first and second/foreign language development; foreign language teaching methodology for primary children, or, particularly for those secondary teachers working in primary schools for the first time; and background studies on primary school curriculum and context. Although they perceived their formal training to be less than adequate, they maintained their LOTE programs were successful, suggesting that teachers do not consider high amounts of training as an important qualification for primary LOTE teaching.

In seeking advice and support from the "up-close" context of primary LOTE teachers the primary LOTE teachers reported the value of attending regular or semi-regular meetings of these primary LOTE teaching colleagues in order to dialogue syllabus documents, curriculum issues or share teaching resources and materials.

Primary LOTE teachers were influenced in their implementation strategies by classroom contexts and particular needs of the generalist class teachers in those classrooms. Relationships developed and professional discussions sought and undertaken in the "up-close" contexts with their LOTE teaching colleagues, were also influential. Teachers also reported being influenced by the outcomes of their reflections on the planning and teaching processes for LOTE, and of their reflections based on their personal and professional knowledge.

Although not acknowledged in Policy, teachers reported that reflection was a common and automatic occurrence for them in the process of evaluating the teaching and learning in their primary LOTE programs.

7.4 Research question 3: Why did primary LOTE implementation occur as it did?

For the purposes of this study, two sets of factors influencing implementation were considered, derived from Fullan's (1991b, p. 379) four categories of factors said to affect teachers' negotiation of policy. External factors were evident, such as funding, wider community accountability pressures and current curriculum documents influencing policy implementation. Teacher-specific factors, internal factors, were also evident. These comprised interpersonal factors relating to LOTE teachers' relationships with generalist class teachers and personal factors such as teachers' personal character traits, teachers' beliefs formed by their personal and professional histories and experiences, and teachers' knowledge bases and skills.

7.4.1 External factors

As was mentioned in Section 5.3.3.1, details in the Tasmanian LOTE Policy were similar to details found in the Council of Australian Governments report (COAG, 1994), placing availability of funding as one area of concern for the Tasmanian Department of Education and the Arts. Funding provided for the districts to set up language-as-object models of provision, following the lead of many other states and territories of Australia (Department of Education Queensland, 1991; Education Department of South Australia, 1987; Education Department of Western Australia, 1995; New South Wales Department of School Education, 1992) and also of other countries in the world (Rubichi, 1995). Funding also allowed for IT provision, a staffing formula to allow the generalist class teacher to be present for the LOTE lesson and for eight years of guaranteed language learning at schools where a pathway was established. The Commonwealth funding had also been provided for factoring in curriculum officer support.

According to the Policy, with the eight "pathway" years of language study, Tasmanian students would have the potential to achieve a level of proficiency in speaking, reading and writing in a LOTE (DEA, 1995a). This is very much

within the guidelines of what was proposed in the national planning for second language proficiency through the Council of Australian Governments report (COAG, 1994). Clearly the national trends in LOTE Policy influenced the Tasmanian LOTE Policy.

Many of the management structures initiated by the Department of Education and the Arts impacted to a great extent on teachers' implementation of policy stipulations. The Tasmanian Department of Education and the Arts provided a leadership-dominated start to the implementation of the new LOTE Policy at the beginning of 1996, a common phenomenon documented in the literature (Louis & Miles, 1990, as cited in Fullan, 1991a, p. 109).

Districts and schools received the information about LOTE implementation from a set of supplementary documents (DEA, 1995b, 1995c; Educational Programs Branch, 1995a, 1995b). Only within the supplementary documents published subsequent to the Policy were districts, principals and teachers able to find guidelines about:

- communicative language teaching strategies (DEA, 1995c)
- suggested levels of LOTE teacher qualifications (DEA, 1995c)
- materials grants of $1000 available to each "on-line" school to purchase teaching materials and resources
- teacher professional development courses.

The supplementary policy documents referred to specific syllabus document guidelines for school reference. Syllabus documents for the pathway languages that had been produced by curriculum development teams in both South Australia and Western Australia were influential. Sandy, Rhonda and Jodie reported using these. They reported utilising assessment strategies from the national curriculum documents as were utilised in the other seven key learning areas.

7.4.2 Teacher-specific factors: Internal factors

Internal, teacher-specific factors impacting on primary LOTE teachers negotiating Policy included:

- interpersonal processes utilised by LOTE teachers to foster professional, collegial working relationships and networks
- personal processes. Influential were teachers' past experiences, personal histories, visions for early LOTE learning and personal skills and beliefs (see also Sections 6.4 and 6.5).

The data in this study show that relationships fostered between the specialist or semi-specialist LOTE teachers and their corresponding "team" member, the generalist class teachers and also with primary LOTE teaching colleagues, impacted on how LOTE was delivered in classrooms. Teachers mentioned the wider school community and LOTE teacher colleagues in "up-close" contexts impacting on their LOTE program implementation. All three teachers collaborating in the second phase of the study admitted to demonstrating students' acquired learning to help market and promote LOTE education in their primary schools. Many teachers reported that they and their colleagues utilised the guidelines of the LOTE Profile (Curriculum Corporation, 1994b), and that the details found in that document suited the type of planning and implementation already existing for their planning for other key learning areas.

It was also through close examination of how these LOTE teachers "framed" their roles that further data were able to be isolated to shed light on the implementation issues. Teachers "frame" their problems with the use of story and metaphor. LOTE teachers' visions about early LOTE learning are firmly entrenched in their personal stories and beliefs inherent in those stories.

7.5 Considerations and recommendations for future action

This study of the implementation of the Tasmanian LOTE Policy was of the initial years of implementation in primary schools. The system instituted certain procedures: districts and schools undertook further measures before teachers negotiated and re-negotiated the curriculum. Regarding this study as "a complex pattern" of curriculum policy implementation (Gold, 1999, p. 212) is therefore

logical. Gold's research (see Chapter 2, section 2.7.1) had mentioned the possibility of a "punctuated legitimacy" for curriculum innovation. Over time a pattern emerges for the "construction, erosion, loss, reconstruction, and maintenance" (Gold, 1999, p. 210) of innovations. Similarly the "transition curve theory", as cited in Breen et al. (1996), mentioned the "peaks and troughs" of teachers' experiences of innovation, suggesting that there might exist both a "closeness" and a "distance" of policy implementation to policy intentions at various stages. In this case of primary foreign language provision, "enabling conditions" (Clayton, 1993) and impacting factors were isolated, analysed and discussed.

The curriculum change literature depicts many cases of curriculum reform. There is also much published research showing that systems, districts, principals and (less often) teachers (due to teachers being less often in a position to influence change as described in Fullan, 1991b, p. 383), plan for more effective implementation.

Both the literature reviewed for this study and the findings of this study suggest that change in practice occurs when certain elements occur in combination: attention to the development of clear and validated materials; active administrative support and leadership at the district and especially the school level; focused, ongoing in-service or staff development activities; the development of collegiality and other interaction-based conditions at the school level; and the selective use of external resources (both people and materials). By deriving implications from this knowledge some of the main planning goals and tasks can be identified for the next phase, continuation.

Understandably, policy implementation did not cease at the end of 1998 at the conclusion of this study, and the system, districts, principals and teachers embarked on the continuation phase for primary LOTE implementation, also beginning the initiation phase for the transition of the Policy to high school LOTE programs. It is hoped that the continuation phase will become the focus of a further research study. However, there are many suggestions and considerations

resulting from this research that could be useful for educational systems and future policy implementation.

For example, Tasmanian LOTE Policy developers may well be reminded that the knowledge-base from which teachers draw their curriculum decisions is always situationally unique. "The primary influence on the teachers' curriculum decisions are their perceptions of student needs, characteristics, and response . . . [and in their own] . . . background, preferences, and skills" (Oberg, 1991, p. 303). This study suggests that future planning for professional development programs would best include an explicit requirement for teachers to be given access to the formal structure of a planning body for them to acknowledge their beliefs through processes of critical reflection.

Recommendations for such "strategic planning" of future action (Patterson et al., 1986, cited in Fullan, 1991a, p. 108) are provided here to document possibilities for the development of Tasmanian LOTE education beyond the scope of current implementation. Recommendations take into account the need for sustainability of implementation funding, coordinated teacher training, teacher qualification upgrading, materials development and continued management coordination.

For LOTE teachers, the recommendations of this research are that they:

- continue to improve their language proficiency and cultural knowledge
- continue to plan, design, implement, assess and evaluate high quality LOTE programs, using communicative methods, emphasising clear links to the cultural background of the language and to first language literacy
- utilise motivational primary teaching methods and begin to embed and integrate more LOTE
- participate in reflection workshops to enable them to acknowledge their beliefs and assumptions about primary LOTE education and identify changing needs
- continue to collaborate with Departmental staff, LOTE teaching colleagues and generalist class teachers
- continue to promote LOTE learning in their local school communities.

For generalist class teachers, the recommendation are that they:

- continue to be recognised as a key part of the delivery team
- continue to be part of the community dialogues about LOTE at primary level
- undertake what they may consider as a risk-taking behaviour and learn the foreign language. This may involve teacher collaboration and may also convey a positive message to other staff and students about the value of LOTE learning. It may also be a promotion tool for LOTE education.

For primary principals, the recommendations are that they:

- continue to be jointly accountable with the LOTE delivery "team" for the success of implementation of LOTE programs in their schools, as this and other research about their roles has implied
- continue to develop their intended roles and responsibilities, in particular placing more emphasis on wider community dialogue concerning primary LOTE and promotion of LOTE education across the educational sectors.

For individual schools, the recommendations are that:

- as Breen et al. (1996) recommended from Western Australian research, the School Development Plans include LOTE development plans
- they encourage the relationship between primary and secondary school LOTE staff to ensure smooth articulation between programs.

For school communities, the recommendations are that:

- the members of these communities undertake discussions on the issues surrounding LOTE implementation, and particularly demand to see official records of evidence of student LOTE proficiency outcomes
- these issues focus not on whether their school can demonstrate that early LOTE learning is better than later, rather that early LOTE learning is feasible and educationally defensible (Stern, 1991, p. 574).

For the Department of Education in Tasmania and for other jurisdictions in similar circumstances, the recommendations are that implementation is constantly reviewed and changes be made to implementation, including:

- the system continuing to fund and provide system management for primary LOTE, paying attention to clarity of timetable and investment in human resources
- the system continuing to review policy and support new contexts with a leadership-dominated start which gives way to diffusion of policy management to teachers
- dialogue to be encouraged with the University faculty emphasising the pre-service and in-service training of LOTE teachers
- acknowledgement to be made that the LOTE teachers need to at least maintain, but preferably upgrade, current knowledge and skills of the LOTE they teach and provide funding for this constant upgrading to occur
- language planning committees be set up and maintained as per the recommendations of the Council of Australian Governments report (COAG, 1994)
- tutor trainers be employed to help with the implementation as in the Scottish models (Low, Duffield, Brown & Johnstone, 1993)
- further dialogue opportunities fostered between primary and secondary LOTE programs.

7.6 Suggestions for future research

For the development of future LOTE policies beginning at primary school level, further studies should be undertaken in similar contexts in order to monitor implementation processes. "Initiation" and "continuation" phases of policy change process (Fullan, 1991a) should also feature in future studies, in order for researchers to explore characteristics of the impacting factors in those phases. Further research in a similar context to this Tasmanian study concerning the development of LOTE policy might track the processes for initiating a policy more closely, in turn suggesting factors which impact most on language policy development. Further research may also focus on curriculum policy

implementation similar to this study to explore how policy makers might anticipate more effectively how policy is to be implemented. Future research on teachers' pedagogical practices and the ways in which teachers make decisions may also present important data for understanding teachers' implementation processes. Research undertaken on issues highlighted above may provide insights into the development of models of the major types of policy responses from the stakeholder groups involved in curriculum change.

Most importantly this kind of research should be based on a "social systems" viewpoint, as discussed in the literature review in Chapter 2 (McLaughlin, 1998, p. 80). Heavy emphasis should be placed on seeing the primary LOTE teachers within the context of their professional relations, and thus more importance should be placed on researching teachers in their "up-close" contexts.

All future research should keep in mind the importance of gathering data from data sources, for instance student learning outcomes or teacher journals, at the beginning, mid-point and end point of the language learning pathways, which should ensure an overview of aspects and factors impacting on implementation. As well, this research might track any correlation of background factors such as teacher language proficiency levels or school location as possibly impacting on implementation.

Specifically for teachers in the implementation process, further research in similar contexts might expose in more detail the ways in which teachers make decisions. This will necessitate the utilisation of qualitative research methods similar to those used in this study.

Further studies to monitor the continuation of the Policy implementation in the Tasmanian context should refer to data collected in this study. However, more data sources should be derived from both the generalist class teachers, the students, the principals, the parents and LOTE teachers. Of interest would also be those staff who have either decided to continue or to discontinue their close link to LOTE policy implementation. Specifically the work and roles of the semi-

specialist teachers, the visiting LOTE teachers and the peripatetic LOTE teachers should be "tracked". As the Policy implementation nears the first round of its completion (the first students on the eight-year LOTE pathway complete their LOTE studies in 2003, data from this first cohort of students will highlight more issues related to proficiency and an "early start" (Clyne, 1986).

A future research focus in this area should also be the students and their role within curriculum innovation processes. Although not a focus of this current study, studies on the curriculum "experienced" by students (Fullan, 1991a, Chapter 9) provide rich data and interesting insights into curriculum implementation research.

Narrative inquiry method (Connelly & Clandinin, 1997) has the potential of unlocking teachers' translation of policy into practice. Where research develops for contexts where LOTE teachers are pivotal points in policy implementation, provision should be made for teachers to reflect (Richards, 1997) and acknowledge their beliefs and assumptions in the process of negotiating curriculum (Clandinin & Connelly, 1991). Data collected during such teacher-focused research (Fullan, 1991a, p. 74) should centre on the "immediate past history" of teachers. This is important in predicting and understanding individuals' and groups' responses to particular innovative programs. Connelly and Clandinin refer to this history as personal narrative (1997). Strongly suggested from this study is the conducting of further studies into ways teachers explicitly acknowledge their personal narratives in negotiating new curriculum change. To provide teachers with this explicit method of acknowledging their own personal and professional histories in the education process may emphasise the bottom-up nature of curriculum innovation, and may be more likely to influence some aspects of curriculum change.

The researcher found that funding and management structures suggested in Policy and "translated" by districts and schools into implementation procedures impacted to a large extent on the daily and weekly implementation of primary LOTE programs. Teachers' personal views on benefits of early LOTE learning, their personal character traits and dynamic teaching style, their beliefs in the

importance of cross-cultural understanding, their knowledge about child development either from their own parenting experience or from other teaching experiences, and the need for a rich learning environment for LOTE all affected their implementation of primary LOTE programs.

Teachers' personal and professional life stories impact on implementation procedures and teaching strategies. The three primary LOTE teachers participating in the case studies offered parts of their own personal stories during the interview sessions that highlighted aspects of their current teaching that they have linked to their own lives. How they viewed their own personal stories was seen through their use of figurative language and metaphors of "caregivers", "conduits/conductors" and even "saintly facilitators" (Harbon, 2000).

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Appendices

A

The Tasmanian LOTE Policy

Policy Statement

Learning a language other than English (LOTE) is an important part of a child's education and is one of the eight learning areas that constitute a balanced curriculum. LOTE learning includes both language components and cultural understanding components. LOTE learning is not compulsory but is strongly supported and encouraged within the overall curriculum.

Children in Tasmanian Government schools will have the opportunity to learn French, German, Indonesian or Japanese between Years 3 and 10. There will be a guaranteed pathway from primary to secondary and senior secondary level, within a cluster of schools, for learning one of these four languages.

At secondary college level, students will be offered LOTE courses in all the languages studied at primary and secondary level in that district. Other languages (Modern Standard Chinese, Italian, Korean and Spanish) will also be supported in colleges when there is sufficient demand.

Languages pertinent to small groups such as community languages, Aboriginal languages and Auslan will also receive system support where appropriate.

Definitions

LOTE is the accepted abbreviation for language(s) other than English.

Languages with a guaranteed pathway are languages which are guaranteed to be taught from Year 3 through to Year 10 in a primary school and its associated high school (or through a district high school) and secondary college. This means that, to ensure continuity, a child studying a LOTE at the primary level will have access to the same LOTE at the associated secondary schools and senior secondary colleges. The guaranteed pathway languages are French, German, Indonesian and Japanese.

Supported languages are languages other than French, German, Indonesian and Japanese which the Department of Education and the Arts will support at senior secondary level when there is sufficient demand. The currently supported languages are Modern Standard Chinese, Italian, Korean and Spanish. In addition, community languages, Aboriginal languages and Auslan will be supported, where appropriate, by professional development of staff and by special purpose grants.

Auslan is the Australian language of the deaf. Auslan is the first language for most deaf children who learn English as a second language.

Community languages are languages taught in ethnic community language schools which have been established by community groups who wish to maintain and develop their linguistic and cultural heritage.

Rationale

LOTEs are an integral part of a balanced education. All States and Territories recognise the LOTE learning area is one of the eight for which national statements and profiles have been compiled. It is important that Tasmanian children are able to access the same learning opportunities as students in other States.

Experience and research suggest that most children are capable of learning a LOTE and benefit from the experience, including many children who have difficulties with learning or intellectual disabilities.

There are several acknowledged and well-documented benefits to children from learning a LOTE. These include:

1. Learning a second language extends children's cognitive and conceptual development. It also increases their awareness of language in general and their first language in particular.

2. Australia is a culturally diverse country. In addition, the world is becoming a small international community in terms of communication and travel between countries. Understanding cultural diversity is an important aspect of a full and rewarding social life. LOTE helps children to develop understanding of cultural diversity and sensitivity to people of different cultures. Development of tolerance and respect for cultural difference is also imperative to a harmonious Australian and international society.

3. The capacity to speak the native language is recognised as an important asset to communicating and negotiating with people in other countries. This has important economic and trade implications for Australia. In addition, for many individual students, learning a LOTE will enhance job prospects in a broad range of careers.

4. As well as these benefits to children, there is a benefit to the wider community. Australia's future relations with Asian countries are seen as being particularly important, both socially and economically. Asian LOTEs are being given particular focus in Australian policies following an agreement between the Prime Minister and Premiers to emphasise Australia's role in Asia.

Goals

It is intended that:

1. By the year 2007 the following targets for participation will have been achieved:

- 60% of students in Year 10 will be studying an Asian LOTE;
- 40% of students in Year 10 will be studying a European or Aboriginal language or Auslan;
- 15% of Year 11 and 12 students will be studying an Asian language; and
- 10% of Year 11 and 12 students will be studying a European or Aboriginal language or Auslan.

2. LOTEs will be taught to standards of language proficiency consistent with the LOTE Statement and Profile.

3. An increasing number of teachers will be trained in a LOTE.

Requirements

1. In order to achieve Goal 1 the following strategies will be required:

- LOTE will be introduced into grade 3 in 1996. It is expected that some schools will introduce LOTE in this year, with others commencing their introduction over the following four years. It will be progressively introduced into higher grades in the consecutive years.

  This means that the expected pattern of introduction to meet the targets will be as follows:

Grade 3	1996–2000
Grade 4	1997–2001
Grade 5	1998–2002
Grade 6	1999–2003
Grade 7	2000–2004
Grade 8	2001–2005
Grade 9	2002–2006
Grade 10	2003–2007

- Schools will decide, in collaboration with other schools and college/s in the district, which LOTEs will be taught. To ensure continuity of learning, a LOTE taught in a primary school must also be available at that school's associated high school and secondary college, subject to demand. The District Superintendent remains the final arbiter of decisions about which languages will be taught at particular schools.

• The Deputy Secretary (Education) will ensure that there is sufficient information-sharing and liaison between districts to provide for a balance of languages across the State and to meet participation targets.

2. In order to achieve Goal 2 the following strategies will be required:

• Schools should provide integrated studies in LOTE/cultural understanding. Some aspects of these studies may be undertaken through other learning areas. To be effective, these studies should be allocated 2.5 hours per week (ie a total of 800 hours) between Year 3 and Year 10.

• Approved LOTE curriculum materials will be made available for schools to supplement those already available.

• A variety of resources will be made available to schools. These will include: telematics provision (which may include video-conferencing), learning or curriculum materials, access to curriculum implementation officers, and additional staffing per class.

3. In order to achieve Goal 3 the following strategies will be required:

• Where available, additional trained teachers will be employed to teach LOTE as classes are progressively implemented.

• Intensive professional development will be implemented between 1996 and 1999 to train current teachers who wish to teach LOTEs. In these cases, supplementary staffing to schools will be available to enable the LOTE teaching to occur.

• Training programs will be provided for primary teachers and for secondary teachers of Studies of Society and Environment on the cultural aspects of various LOTEs, so that these aspects can be incorporated into teaching programs.

• The DEA will work with the University of Tasmania to ensure that appropriate LOTE courses are included in primary teacher training from 1997.

Responsibilities

Primary teachers will be responsible for:

• supporting the implementation of LOTEs within a balanced teaching program; and

• including some of the cultural understanding components of LOTEs within their Studies of Society and Environment program.

Secondary teachers of Studies of Society and Environment will be responsible for:

• including some of the cultural understanding components associated with LOTEs offered by their school within their Studies of Society and Environment program.

LOTE teachers will be responsible for:

• ensuring that the LOTE is taught for the required number of hours; and

• implementing assessment of language proficiency to standards consistent with the LOTE Statement and Profile.

Principals will be responsible for:

• leading the school community discussion about LOTEs and ensuring the school community is well-informed about this policy;

• taking part in district discussions on which LOTEs will be taught in clusters of schools, and supporting district decisions on guaranteed pathways;

• providing information on LOTEs to their communities, including their school councils, where established;

• facilitating the professional development program to train LOTE teachers and encouraging suitable teachers to be involved; and

• supporting LOTE teachers within their school.

District Superintendents will be responsible for:

• ensuring that LOTE pathways are established in the district;

• facilitating the staffing decisions necessary to maintain LOTE pathways for the requisite number of hours in schools;

• working with the Deputy Secretary (Education) to ensure a balance of LOTEs across the State in accordance with the set participation targets; and

• supporting the implementation of LOTEs within all interested schools.

The Director of Educational Programs will be responsible for:

• ensuring that LOTE teachers have access to suitable high quality curriculum materials;

• developing and disseminating recommended standards of language proficiency consistent with the LOTE Statement and Profile.

The Director of Educational Planning will be responsible for:

• ensuring that plans for LOTE adhere to the implementation timetable;

• keeping the Deputy Secretary (Education) informed of progress towards participation targets;

• liaising with the Commonwealth on LOTE targets and funding conditions;

• liaising with the University of Tasmania to establish pre-service training courses in LOTEs; and

• developing in-service professional development programs for prospective LOTE teachers.

24 November 1995

B

Glossary of terms

International Second Language Proficiency Ratings - ISLPR (formerly Australian Second Language Proficiency Ratings or ISLPR): The ISLPR is a proficiency scale, or more precisely a set of four subscales for the macroskills of speaking, listening, reading and writing. Each subscale traces the development of learners of a second or foreign language from 0 (no ability to communicate in the target language) to 5 (indistinguishable from a native speaker of the same sociocultural background). There are 12 levels (including intermediate 'plus' or 'minus' levels), of which eight are described in detail (i.e. a dense page of description per macroskill level). The description at each level includes a statement of the kinds of tasks that people at that level can perform (with the contexts they can perform them in) and the kinds of language forms they use when performing those tasks (with detail about accuracy, fluency, appropriateness, etc.). The descriptions assume real-life communicative language use.

Cluster: A group of schools within a district, usually associated with the same secondary school and often linked in administrative terms.

Code switching: Alternating between two languages with another speaker of those same languages in the course of the same conversation (Crystal, 1997, p. 364).

District: A designated system-imposed area within a region. An area or region of educational administration.

ELT—English Language Teaching: Related to first language acquisition.

First language acquisition: Refers to the "acquiring" or "assimilating" of a mother tongue or L1 (first language) in a natural, unconscious way rather than a classroom (Crystal, 1997, p. 372).

FLES*: Foreign languages in the elementary school curriculum in the United States of America. "The goals of this program are to acquire listening and

speaking skills, gain an understanding and appreciation for other cultures, and acquire limited amounts of reading and writing skills. Lessons in early grades center around greetings, colors, numbers, food, days of the week, etc., and conversation focuses on topics children are familiar with . . . The teacher in this type of program may speak some English in the class" (Rhodes & Oxford, 1988, pp. 53–54). **Intensive FLES** programs have similar goals, but utilise more of the target language.

FLEX: Foreign language experience, offering "general exposure to language and culture . . . and [to] develop an interest in foreign language for future study. The aim is not fluency, but rather exposure to other languages and cultures" (Rhodes & Oxford, 1988, p. 53).

Immersion: Yet another foreign language education program, designed for learners "to be able to communicate in the language almost as well as a native speaker of the same age and acquire an understanding of, and appreciation for, other cultures. At least 50 percent of the school day is taught *in* the foreign language" (Rhodes & Oxford, 1988, p. 54).

Immersion programs: Refers to a model developed from the French–English programs in Quebec in the 1960s. The bilingual early childhood program teacher replies in the second language to students who use their mother tongue. Gradually, the students would come to use the second language themselves Then, at a later stage, the teacher introduces the students' mother tongue" (Crystal, 1997, p. 369).

Innovation: For the purposes of this study, the definitions of innovation and change as found in White (1988, p. 114) have been adopted. According to White, **innovation** is distinct from **change** in that innovation involves a deliberate alternative and intention is a crucial element. Change can occur spontaneously and does not involve conscious planning or intention.

Key learning area: As defined in the national statements (Curriculum Corporation, 1994a); the eight areas of learning—English, mathematics, science,

technology, languages other than English, health and physical education, studies of society and environment, and the arts.

MLT—Modern Language Teaching: Related to foreign language learning.

Partial immersion programs: Programs as per the immersion (described above) but only part of the curriculum is delivered in this bilingual way.

"Pathway" LOTE programs: Four languages have been nominated as guaranteed pathway languages in the DEA LOTE Policy Statement. These are French, German, Indonesian and Japanese.

Second language acquisition: Refers to the learning of a "second" language, that is, a language which is non-native, by acquiring or assimilating the language in a natural, unconscious way, as in bilingual contexts (Crystal, 1997, p. 372).

Second language learning: Refers to the learning of a "foreign" or "second" language, that is, a language which is non-native, and usually occurring in a more formal structured way, mostly in classrooms (Crystal, 1997, p. 372).

"Supported" LOTE programs: The DEA LOTE Policy Statement lists four languages—Italian, Korean, Modern Standard Chinese and Spanish—which will be supported at the senior secondary level where there is sufficient demand.

C

Application for Ethics Committee research approval

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ETHICS COMMITTEE (HUMAN EXPERIMENTATION) APPLICATION: INVESTIGATION INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

1. **TITLE OF PROPOSED INVESTIGATION**
The implementation of LOTE in Tasmanian primary schools: developing a primary LOTE curriculum

2. **FUNDING**
(i) Do you intend to apply for a grant to fund this project? Yes (No)

(ii) If YES,
which funding bodies are you applying to? .....
will you undertake the project if your grant application is unsuccessful? Yes No

3. **APPLICANTS** (Show chief investigator first - all applicants to sign on page 4)

Title/Name	Position	Department
Mrs Lesley A. Harbon	Lecturer, Primary LOTE	ECE/Primary Education

(For student projects show student's academic level (eg 3rd year, Honours, PhD)

4. **TEACHING/RESEARCH**
Is the proposed investigation for teaching or research? Research

5. **AIMS**
- to observe classroom behaviours in primary LOTE classes
- to interview the collaborating LOTE teachers about their development of LOTE curricula.

6. **JUSTIFICATION**
- to observe behaviours, teaching / learning strategies, patterns in the evolving development of primary LOTE curricula.
- to inform the LOTE education community about the pivotal role of the teacher in the development of LOTE curricula.

7. **EXPECTED DURATION OF PROJECT** from 1 NOV 96 to 1 NOV 98

Date received (Office use only)

8. **REVIEW OF ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**
Has this protocol previously been submitted to the University Ethics Committee? Yes (No)

Has this protocol been submitted to any other ethics committee? Yes No
If YES, give details and provide evidence of approval, if obtained.

9. RESEARCH PROCEDURES

Researcher will :

- observe Grades, 3, 4, 5 & 6 classes in Tasmanian primary schools.
- observe the teacher and students in particular reference to the macro-skills of listening, speaking (incl. questioning and answering) viewing, reading and writing in LOTE classes, by taking both quantitative and qualitative data from Observation Event Sampling checklist.
- 'debrief' with LOTE teachers at a later stage to interview and record LOTE teacher's narrative regarding events during previous LOTE class. – taped interview
- tabulate quantitative data / transcribe code and tabulate qualitative data
- report findings

10. WHERE IS THIS PROJECT TO BE CONDUCTED?

Tasmanian primary schools

11. SUBJECTS AND SELECTION

The pilot of the study is based in two easily accessible schools for me. The collaborating teacher of Indonesian, Mrs Jo M'Gee (Riverside & Trevallyn) has indicated her willingness to be a part of the research pilot.

For the main study, I will invite a sample of primary LOTE teachers to be a part of the study.

12. SOURCES OF PERSONAL INFORMATION

Will personal information (which identifies individual subjects) be collected? Yes No

If YES,

(i) give details:

(ii) list any Commonwealth Government agencies from which personal information will be obtained.

13. POTENTIAL RISKS

Nil

14. PRE AND POST CONTACT

I will ensure my collaborating teachers will be kept informed at all stages of the research.

15. REMUNERATION

Will any financial remuneration or other reward be offered to subjects for their participation, other than reimbursement of out of pocket expenses? Yes No

If YES, give details.

16. CONFIDENTIALITY OF RECORDS

All data will be stored in secure cabinets in the University. Teachers' names will not be recorded on the observation records so it will not be possible to match observational data with teachers' names.

17. ADMINISTRATION OF SUBSTANCES/AGENTS

Will any chemical compounds, drugs or biological agents be administered? Yes No

If YES, give details.

18. HUMAN TISSUE OR BODY FLUID SAMPLING

Do the procedures involve blood or tissue sampling? Yes No

If YES, give details.

19. OTHER ETHICAL ISSUES
Are there, in your opinion, any other ethical issues raised by this investigation? Yes No
If YES, give details.

20. INFORMATION SHEET
See 'Guidelines for Applications'. Attach a copy of the proposed information sheet.

21. CONSENT FORM
See 'Guidelines for Applications'. Attach a copy of the proposed consent form.
Dispensation from the normal requirement for written consent may be requested. If you consider that written consent is inappropriate for this project please give reasons.

22. STATEMENT OF SCIENTIFIC MERIT
The **Head of Department** is required to sign the following statement:
This proposal has been considered and is sound with regard to its merit and methodology.

BRAITHWAITE 25/10/96
(Name of Head of Department) (Signature) (Date)

23. CONFORMITY WITH NHMRC GUIDELINES
The **chief investigator** is required to sign the following statement:
I have read and understood the NHMRC *Statement on Human Experimentation and Supplementary Notes 1992*. I accept that I, as chief investigator, am responsible for ensuring that the investigation proposed in this form is conducted fully within the conditions laid down in the NHMRC Statement and any other conditions specified by the University Ethics Committee (Human Experimentation).

Lesley Harbon ..... Lesley Harbon 31/10/96
(Name of Chief Investigator) (Signature) (Date)

24. CONFORMITY WITH CODE OF PRACTICE: HUMAN TISSUE AND BODY FLUID SAMPLING
The **chief investigator** is required to sign the following statement in relation to relevant research projects/teaching exercises:
I have read the Ethics Committee (Human Experimentation) Code of Practice: Human Tissue and Body Fluid Sampling and confirm that this Code will be followed.

Lesley Harbon ..... Lesley Harbon 31/10/96
(Name of Chief Investigator) (Signature) (Date)

25. SIGNATURES OF OTHER INVESTIGATORS

....

....

(Name) (Signature) (Date)

UNIVERSITY OF TASMANIA

Mrs Lesley Harbon
Lecturer in Primary LOTE
Department of Early Childhood and
Primary Education
P.O. Box 1214
Launceston, Tasmania, 7250
Australia
Tel (003) 243 909 Fax (003) 243 048
E-mail: Lesley.Harbon@educ.utas.edu.au

Information Sheet

Title of investigation

The implementation of LOTE in Tasmanian primary schools: developing a primary LOTE curriculum.

Name of chief investigator

Mrs Lesley Anne Harbon

Purpose of the study

With the initial stages of the implementation of the Tasmanian LOTE policy in 1996 and the full realisation that the policy will remain in developing stages for the initial few years, with many models in existence, the researcher wishes to track how primary LOTE teachers are developing their LOTE curriculum to be able to inform on trends and procedures at a state and national level.

Criteria for inclusion/exclusion

The researcher will be undertaking the study with 'on-line' LOTE classes in Tasmanian primary schools, from Grades 3 - 6.

Study procedures

Observation: LOTE teachers and their classroom interactions and communications will be the initial focus.
Interview: Quantitative and qualitative data gathered during observation periods will then be expanded in a series of post-class interviews with LOTE teachers.

Payment to subjects

N/A

Possible risks or discomforts

Nil.

Confidentiality

Collaborating teachers will have my assurance that they will be informed of activities/outcomes/findings at all times.

Freedom to refuse or withdraw

Collaborating teachers will be given full assurance that their involvement is voluntary and they can withdraw at any time without prejudice.

Contact persons

Mrs Lesley A. Harbon
Lecturer, Primary LOTE
University of Tasmania
PO Box 1214, Launceston, TAS, 7250
Tel: 03 6324 3909
Fax: 03 6324 3048
AH: 03 6327 4252
E-mail: Lesley.Harbon@educ.utas.edu.au

Concerns or complaints

If collaborating teachers, students, parents or schools have any concerns of an ethical nature or complaints about the manner in which the project is conducted, they may contact the Chair or Executive Officer of the University Ethics Committee (Human Experimentation).

Ethics Committee (Human Experimentation)
Office for Research, University of Tasmania
GPO Box 252-01
Hobart, Tas, 7001
Tel: (03) 62262763
Fax: (03) 62262765

Statement regarding approval

The project has received ethical approval from the University Ethics Committee (Human Experimentation) and complies with laws of the State.

Results of investigation

Collaborating teachers will be kept informed at all stages of the research of the interim results and finally of the overall results and findings of the study. There will be constant opportunity to debrief regarding the data.

Information sheet and consent form

A copy of the information sheet and consent form will be given to the collaborative teachers from this point on.

D

Statement of consent

THE STATEMENT OF INFORMED CONSENT

The following information should be included on the 'statement of informed consent'.

Title of project The implementation of LOTE in Tasmanian primary schools: developing a primary LOTE curriculum.

A statement by the subject, in the following terms:

1. I have read and understood the 'Information Sheet' for this study.

2. The nature and possible effects of the study have been explained to me.

3. I understand that the study involves the following procedures:

   observation and interview

4. I understand that (describe any risks or possible discomfort)

   N/A

5. Any questions that I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.

6.* I agree to participate in this investigation and understand that I may withdraw at any time without prejudice.

   I agree that research data gathered for the study may be published provided that I cannot be identified as a subject.

   Name of subject Jo McGee

   Signature of subject Jo McGee Date 31-10-96.

7.* A statement by the investigator in the following terms:

   I have explained this project and the implications of participation in it to this volunteer and I believe that the consent is informed and that he/she understands the implications of participation.

   Name of investigator Lesley Harbon

   Signature of investigator Lesley Harbon Date 31/10/96.

---

*Item 6:
The phrase "without prejudice" must be put into context depending on the project. For example:

- For medical research it must be specified that withdrawal from a study will not affect the subject's right to ongoing medical care.
- In studies involving University students, the subjects must be informed that withdrawal will not prejudice their academic standing.

*Item 7:
A "statement by the investigator" is inapplicable for a research project in which there is no direct contact between the investigator and the subjects.

E

Approval from University of Tasmania Ethics Committee

Facsimile Transmission

UNIVERSITY OF TASMANIA

Department of Social Work
GPO Box 1214
Launceston
Tasmania 7250
Australia
Email: D.Habibis@socialwk.utas.edu.au

To: Mrs Lesley Harbon, School of Education

ax Number: 3048

Total Pages: 1 page

From: Dr Daphne Habibis

x Number: 3007

. Number: 3946

Date: 10 January 1997

Subject: Ethics Application: The implementation of Lote in Tasmanian Primary Schools

Thank you for your memorandum of 18 December enclosing attachments relating to the above application. The application has now been recommended for approval to the University Ethics Committee (Human Experimentation) with no need for further changes.

F

Application to Tasmanian Department of Education and the Arts

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND THE ARTS

APPLICATION FORM FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN TASMANIAN GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS

1. Name(s) of investigator(s) *(Please indicate preferred form of address)*	Mrs Lesley Anne HARBON
2. Academic qualifications *(indicate conferring institutions and dates)*	B.A. (Sydney University) 1980 Dip Ed. (Sydney Teachers College) 1981 M. Ed (University of New England) 1991
3. Present appointment or activities	Lecturer, Primary LOTE University of Tasmania, Launceston
4. Organisation or institution through which the research is to be conduct *(if any)*	University of Tasmania, Launceston (Faculty of Education)
5. Name(s) and address(es) of supervisor(s) *(if applicable)*	Professor John Braithwaite ECE / Primary Education Uni of Tasmania PO Box 1214 Launceston TAS 7250

6. If this study is to contribute towards an academic qualification, indicate which qualification.	Ph D
7. If a body is providing a financial grant for this study, indicate the body.	No
8. Title of the project.	The implementation of LOTE in Tasmanian primary schools : developing a primary LOTE curriculum.
9. Expected commencement and completion dates.	1 Nov 96 – 1 Jan 1999
10. Aims and educational significance of the study.	• to observe classroom behaviours in primary LOTE classes and link to patterns in the development of primary LOTE curricula. • to interview collaborating teachers about their development of LOTE curricula. • to observe trends and patterns in the construction of such curricula • to inform the LOTE education community about the pivotal role of the LOTE teacher in LOTE curriculum design.

11. Outline of proposed research plan.	
(a) Preliminary investigations or pilot studies if intended.	Pilot – November 1996 - Observation of Grade 3-6 Indonesian classes at Trevallyn & Riverside Primary Schools, Launceston. - Interviews.
(b) General outline of methods to be used for collecting information.	– to refine data collection instrument quantifying data (listening, speaking, viewing, reading writing macro-skills)
(c) Schedule of activities.	– For the main study, I will invite LOTE teachers to be a part of the research. Observations & interviews will go ahead as per the instruments refined during the pilot.
12. Number and type of schools required. If specific schools are required, give the names of these schools and reason for selection.	Pilot Stage Trevallyn Primary School Riverside Primary School Indonesian taught by collaborating teacher, Mrs Jo McGee at those schools. Main Study LOTE teachers from these and other 'on-line' schools will be invited to participate.

13. Subjects/Students required. (a) Indicate year levels (or ages) and the approximate number of students required per school at each year (or age) level. State any other necessary characteristics of students.	- LOTE on-line classes
(b) Indicate whether students will be required individually or in groups. If in groups, give size.	- whole groups
(c) Give approximate dates and amount of time required.	- as per teacher's schedule (approx. 1½ - 2 hrs per week)
Adults required. (a) Number (b) Whether	
14. When teachers are required to assist with the administration of instruments, describe what they will be asked to do and the amount of time required.	- Interview ½ - 1 hr post class

15. Instruments. Where these are well known and commonly used(eg. those listed in the ACER Catalogue) list the name(s) of the instruments. Otherwise enclose a copy of each instrument and its accompanying covering letter and instructions. For all instruments you intend using, clearly indicate the group to whom it is to be administered (eg. parents, teachers, students). Describe how each is to be administered and give an estimate of the time required.	- Observation instrument for quantitative data collection (attached) - Interview (taped) Researcher and collaborating teacher will debrief post class - teacher encouraged to comment on the macro-skills which have been observed as LOTE behaviours

16. If people other than the investigator(s) indicated above are to administer tests, or conduct interviews, please indicate their names and qualifications.	nil
17. Outline your plans for disseminating the results of these investigation.	Collaborating teachers will have my assurance that they will be informed of activities/outcomes/findings at all times.

Signature of Applicant: Lesley Harbon

Signature of Supervisor(s): [illegible]

Date: 1/11/96

Address for Correspondence:

.....

.....

.....

Supervisor(s) address (if applicable)

.....

.....

.....

This application should be forwarded to :

Mr John Kitt
Superintendent (Professional Development)
Department of Education and the Arts
GPO Box 169B
HOBART 7001

Telephone (002) 33 7949

Fax: (002) 347882

G

Approval from Tasmanian Department of Education and the Arts

EDUCATION, COMMUNITY & CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

116 Bathurst Street Hobar
GPO Box 169B Hobart
Tasmania Australia 7001
Telephone 03 6233 8011
Facsimile 03 6231 1576

13 November 1996

JGK:KC

John Kitt - (03) 6233 7949

Mrs Lesley Harbon
ECE/Primary Education
University of Tasmania
PO Box 1214
LAUNCESTON Tas 7250

Dear Mrs Harbon,

RE: THE IMPLEMENTATION OF LOTE IN TASMANIAN PRIMARY SCHOOLS: DEVELOPING A PRIMARY LOTE CURRICULUM

I have been advised by the Departmental Consultative Research Committee that th above research study adheres to the guidelines that have been established and thei is no objection to the study proceeding.

A copy of your final report should be forwarded to John Kitt, Superintendei Professional Development, Department of Education, Community and Cultur Development, GPO Box 169B, Hobart 7000.

My permission to conduct the research study is given provided that each Principal willing for the school to be involved.

Yours sincerely,

G Harrington
DEPUTY SECRETARY (EDUCATION)

c.c. All District Superintendents
John Kitt
Professor John Braithwaite

H

Primary LOTE teacher survey

LOTE Survey

THE FOLLOWING SECTIONS OF THIS SURVEY REQUIRE YOU TO INDICATE TO *WHAT EXTENT YOU AGREE WITH THE STATEMENTS.*

INDICATE BY PLACING A CROSS OR TICK IN THE CORRESPONDING BOX. THE CATEGORIES ARE

STRONGLY AGREE SOMEWHAT AGREE DO NOT AGREE AT ALL NOT APPLICABLE

(Your answers relate to the situation at the school in which you teach the most LOTE.)

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
1	"I feel I am a competent primary LOTE teacher."				

IN WHICH AREAS DO YOU FEEL CONFIDENT OR NOT SO CONFIDENT?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
2	"I teach LOTE the same way I was taught my first LOTE / foreign language."				

PLEASE COMMENT ON WHAT YOU RECALL ABOUT LEARNING YOUR FIRST LOTE (OR YOUR FIRST FOREIGN LANGUAGE).

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
3	"Within my primary classroom I believe I have mastered the LOTE I teach."				

PLEASE EXPLAIN YOUR STRENGTHS IN THE LOTE YOU TEACH, OR INDICATE AREAS WHERE YOU LACK STRENGTH.

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
4	"Learning a LOTE is beneficial for all students."				

HOW CAN LEARNING A LOTE BE BENEFICIAL FOR STUDENTS?

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
5	" Looking at all of the classes where I teach, I would say that the class teachers totally support my LOTE teaching."				

PLEASE OUTLINE AREAS IN WHICH YOU RECEIVE GOOD SUPPORT OR AREAS WHICH LACK SUPPORT.

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
6	"My LOTE program is a success."				

PLEASE IDENTIFY SUCCESSES AND/OR SHORTCOMINGS OF YOUR PROGRAM.

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
7	" My LOTE program is fully supported by the whole school."				

PLEASE EXPLAIN THE AREAS IN WHICH YOU RECEIVE OR DO NOT RECEIVE SUPPORT.

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
8	"Teaching primary LOTE has required me to add new teaching techniques to my teaching repertoire."				

PLEASE INDICATE TERMS WHICH DESCRIBE YOUR TEACHING STYLE FOR LOTE AT PRESENT.

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
9	"I understand about the majority of procedures and strategies in my LOTE planning."				

DESCRIBE YOUR LOTE PLANNING STRENGTHS, OR, IF YOU ANSWERED "SOMEWHAT" OR "NOT AT ALL", WHERE ARE YOU UNCERTAIN?

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
10	"I am clear about assessment and evaluation procedures for primary LOTE."				

DESCRIBE YOUR STRENGTHS IN THIS AREA, OR, IF YOU ANSWERED "SOMEWHAT" OR "NOT AT ALL", IN WHICH AREAS WOULD YOU BE APPRECIATIVE OF FURTHER ASSISTANCE?

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
11	"The environment I create in my LOTE lessons is an enriching one."				

PLEASE INDICATE WHICH ASPECTS ARE ENRICHING OR, TO THE CONTRARY, WHICH ASPECTS ARE RETARDING YOUR PROVISION OF AN ENRICHING ENVIRONMENT?

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
12	" My students use their LOTE in the LOTE classroom most of the time."				

PLEASE EXPLAIN HOW YOUR STUDENTS ARE USING THEIR LOTE.

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
13	"In my classroom I place great emphasis on students' demonstration of acquired learning. (eg. performing LOTE at assembly, work samples to take home)				

PLEASE EXPLAIN YOUR CHOICE EITHER TO PLACE OR NOT PLACE EMPHASIS ON THIS.

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
14	" Overall, during LOTE lessons I place greater emphasis on students' written than spoken outcomes."				

PLEASE EXPLAIN YOUR CHOICE EITHER TO PLACE OR NOT PLACE EMPHASIS ON EITHER WRITTEN OR SPOKEN PROFICIENCIES.

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
15	"I am fully conversant with the aims and the content of the LOTE policy."				

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
16	"I agree totally with the aims and the content of the LOTE policy."				

WHICH AREAS OF POLICY DO YOU LIKE/AGREE WITH? IN WHICH AREAS ARE YOU UNCERTAIN OR DO YOU DISAGREE?

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
17	" I believe that in reality, the most effective way of meeting the needs of students learning LOTE is to provide a specialised LOTE teacher who teaches nothing else but LOTE in a number of schools."				

PLEASE ELABORATE ON YOUR IDEA OF THE BEST WAY TO OFFER A LOTE PROGRAM.

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
18	" I utilise the information technology package provided to 'on-line' LOTE programs as much as possible.'				

PLEASE INDICATE WHY THIS PACKAGE IS OR IS NOT EFFECTIVE FOR YOUR LOTE TEACHING OR HOW YOU WOULD IMPROVE THE INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY PACKAGE.

#	TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU AGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT?	Strongly agree	Some what agree	Do not agree at all	N/A
19	" After my LOTE lessons I reflect on everything I do to improve my LOTE teaching."				

PLEASE INDICATE WHAT FORM THE PROCESS OF REFLECTION TAKES FOR YOU.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME IN RESPONDING TO THE ABOVE STATEMENTS ON PRIMARY LOTE. I WOULD ALSO APPRECIATE YOU COMPLETING THE FOLLOWING SECTION WHICH ALLOWS ME TO GAIN FURTHER INFORMATION ABOUT RESPONDENTS.

BACKGROUND DATA ABOUT YOU

20. Are you... (Circle one) **Female** **Male**

21. Years of experience teaching primary LOTE - _____ years

22. What is your highest formal educational qualification ?

_____

23. What is your highest formal LOTE teaching qualification ?

_____

24. In which stage of schooling is your major teaching qualification?
(Circle one)
ECE **PRIMARY** **SECONDARY** **TERTIARY**

25. State any qualifications you have gained 'in-country' for your LOTE teaching?

_____

26. LOTE taught at primary level _____

27. Are you a native speaker of the LOTE you are teaching? (Circle one)
Yes **No**

28. Where did you learn your first LOTE? (Circle appropriate one)
school **college** **university** **in-service program**
in-country **other (please state)** _____

29. People often describe their teaching through the use of a metaphor. How would you describe how you feel about LOTE teaching (please use a metaphor, for example, *"I feel like a beginning teacher again."*)

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

30. How many classes learn LOTE with you each week? (total from ALL schools) _____ **classes**

31. Please estimate the total number of primary students to whom you teach LOTE. _____ **students**

32. Describe your LOTE role from the list below (Tick the option which BEST describes your situation):

- **class teacher with LOTE responsibilities on my class only**
- **class teacher for a percentage of the time, but with LOTE responsibilities in other classes/grades**
- **mobile/visiting specialist in one school**
- **mobile/visiting specialist in more than one school (state how many schools)**
- **other (describe) _____**

33. Are you the sole practising LOTE teacher in your school? Yes No

34. In which Education district do you teach LOTE? (Circle one)

Arthur Barrington Bowen Derwent Forester Hartz Macquarie

35. Please estimate the amount of time you would spend (on average) on providing listening, speaking, viewing, reading and writing opportunities for your students.

Listening .....% Speaking ..... % Viewing .....% Reading .....% Writing.....% = 100%

36. Was <u>your</u> first teacher of <u>the LOTE you now teach</u> a native speaker?
Yes No

37. Was the gender of <u>your first LOTE teacher</u> MALE FEMALE ?

38. Have you travelled to the country where your LOTE is predominantly spoken? Yes No

39. Is the LOTE you teach now the same LOTE as your first LOTE?
Yes No

40a. Have you always <u>lived</u> in Tasmania?(Circle one) Yes No
b. Have you always <u>taught</u> in Tasmania? Yes No

41. Was the LOTE you first learned taught with a culture component?
Yes No

42. What gives you a special interest in your LOTE? (Give details)

_____
_____
_____
_____

I

Letter to primary principals

UNIVERSITY OF TASMANIA

School of Early Childhood/Primary Education

To: The Principal
DETCCD school with 'on-line LOTE'

Dear Sir/Madam,

Attached please find a LOTE survey and cover letter which I would appreciate you passing on to your LOTE teacher,
I am hoping that you will pass this on in time for the LOTE teacher to complete and return the survey before the school holidays begin next week.
I have included a stamped, self-addressed envelope for the return of this survey.

Over the past year I have focussed my PhD research on the 'pivotal role' of the LOTE teacher in implementing LOTE programs. After having interviewed a sample of primary LOTE teachers and having observed their classrooms in operation, I have defined a number of areas where I would appreciate more data from practising primary LOTE teachers to enable me to make some further claims about primary LOTE teaching in Tasmania once my research is complete.

The survey is anonymous and all data will be stored in secured filing cabinets in my office at The University of Tasmania.

Please do not hesitate to contact me should you have further questions regarding this survey.

Sincerely,

Lesley Harbon
(Lecturer, Primary LOTE)

25/8/98

PO Box 1214 Launceston
Tasmania 7250 Australia
Telephone 03 6324 3909
Facsimile 03 6324 3048
E-mail Lesley.Harbon@utas.edu.au

J

Letter to primary LOTE teachers

UNIVERSITY OF TASMANIA

School of Early Childhood / Primary Education

14 August 1998

Dear

I am writing to you in your capacity as primary LOTE teacher in the DETCCD 'on-line' LOTE program.

Over the past year I have focussed my PhD research on the 'pivotal role' of the LOTE teacher in implementing LOTE programs. After having interviewed a sample of primary LOTE teachers and having observed their classrooms in operation, I have defined a number of areas defined where I would appreciate more data from you to enable me to make some further claims about primary LOTE teaching in Tasmania.

Would you please take some time to complete this anonymous survey and post it back to me

before the September school holidays begin.

I have enclosed a stamped, self-addressed envelope.

Your responses to these questions will be analysed later this year and I will share these results with you at the completion of my study. I believe that it is the practising classroom teachers who can provide the real picture as to the initial years of the Tasmanian LOTE policy implementation.

Thank you for your time to complete this survey.

Sincerely,

Lesley Harbon
(Lecturer, Primary LOTE)

PO Box 1214 Launceston
Tasmania 7250 Australia
Telephone 03 6324 3909
Facsimile 03 6324 3048
E-mail Lesley.Harbon@utas.edu.au

K

Reminder letters to primary principals and LOTE teachers

UNIVERSITY OF TASMANIA

School of Early Childhood/Primary Education

25 September 1998

Dear Principal,
School with 'on-line' LOTE,

Shortly before the September school holiday break I wrote to you, including within the package a LOTE survey, to be passed on to your LOTE teacher,

To those Principals who have passed this survey on to the LOTE teachers and to LOTE teachers who have already completed the survey and posted it back to me, thank you for your time to do this. (As the survey is anonymous, I have no way of gauging who has replied, thus the need to send this reminder to each school.)

This letter today is to indicate that I would still appreciate all other LOTE surveys being completed and returned to me in the stamped, self-addressed envelope included in the original package.

Please do not hesitate to contact me should you need further information on my research, or should you need a replacement questionnaire.

I look forward to receiving the surveys.

Sincerely,

Lesley Harbon
(Lecturer, Primary LOTE)

PO Box 1214 Launceston
Tasmania 7250 Australia
Telephone 03 6324 3909
Facsimile 03 6324 3048
E-mail Lesley.Harbon@utas.edu.au

UNIVERSITY OF TASMANIA

School of Early Childhood/Primary Education

25 September 1998

Dear

Shortly before the September school holiday break I wrote to your Principal and included a LOTE survey to be passed on to you in your capacity as the primary LOTE teacher in the 'on-line' LOTE program in your school.

To the LOTE teachers who have already completed the survey and posted it back to me, thank you for your time to do this.

This letter today serves as a reminder that I would still appreciate all other LOTE surveys being completed and returned to me in the stamped, self-addressed envelope included in the original package. The anonymous survey requests your reflections on your role in the implementation of the LOTE policy.

Please do not hesitate to contact me should you need further information on my research, or should you need a replacement questionnaire.

I look forward to receiving the surveys.

Sincerely,

Lesley Harbon

PO Box 1214 Launceston
Tasmania 7250 Australia
Telephone 03 6324 3909
Facsimile 03 6324 3048
E-mail Lesley.Harbon@utas.edu.au

L

Event sampling observation sheet and LOTE teacher behaviours key coding sheet

EVENT SAMPLING OBSERVATION

AIM: to observe teacher behaviours so as to describe the communicative language learning aspects of the primary LOTE classroom; and, to quantify the MAIN ACTION of the LOTE teacher in the LOTE classroom at the point of every twenty (20) seconds. Combinations possible, ie. main action is two behaviours at once.

DEFINITIONS:
Listening: where I observe that the teacher is listening to the individual, small group or whole group or support teacher
Speaking: where I observe that the teacher is either Speaking questioning, speaking answering, speaking explaining/demonstrating/modelling, speaking praising or speaking consolidating/reinforcing to whole group of students, smaller group of students, individuals or support teacher.
Viewing: where I observe that the teacher is showing a visual clue to whole group of students, small group, individual or support teacher.
Reading: where I observe that the teacher is reading with, reading to the whole group, small group, individual or support teacher or reading/working silently to self.
Writing: where I observe that the teacher is writing on the board, writing on paper/books or writing written comments on the work of group or individual or support teacher.

Teacher _____ Date _____
School _____ Time _____am/ _____pm
Lesson

_____

Class _____ # boys _____ # girls
Year of LOTE study for class

_____

Determination of group

_____

Classroom environment

_____

School organisation: withdrawal class composite straight year group

FURTHER NOTES

_____

_____

_____

_____

LOTE TEACHER BEHAVIOURS

1	Teacher listening to all students
2	Teacher listening to group of students
3	Teacher listening to individual student
4	Teacher listening to support teacher
5	Teacher speaking questioning all students
6	Teacher speaking questioning group of students
7	Teacher speaking questioning individual student
8	Teacher speaking questioning support teacher
9	Teacher speaking answering all students
10	Teacher speaking answering group of students
11	Teacher speaking answering individual student
12	Teacher speaking answering support teacher
13	Teacher speaking explaining/demonstrating/modelling to all students
14	Teacher speaking explaining/demonstrating/modelling to group of students
15	Teacher speaking explaining/demonstrating/modelling to individual student
16	Teacher speaking explaining/demonstrating/modelling to support teacher
17	Teacher speaking praising all students
18	Teacher speaking praising group of students
19	Teacher speaking praising individual student
20	Teacher speaking praising support teacher
21	Teacher speaking consolidating/reinforcing all students
22	Teacher speaking consolidating/reinforcing group of students
23	Teacher speaking consolidating/reinforcing individual student
24	Teacher speaking consolidating/reinforcing support teacher
25	Teacher allowing all students to view a visual
26	Teacher allowing group of students to view a visual
27	Teacher allowing individual student to view a visual
28	Teacher allowing support teacher to view a visual
29	Teacher reading out loud with all students
30	Teacher reading out loud with group of students
31	Teacher reading out loud with individual student
32	Teacher reading out loud with support teacher
33	Teacher reading out loud to all students
34	Teacher reading out loud to group of students
35	Teacher reading out loud to individual student
36	Teacher reading out loud to support teacher
37	Teacher reading to self / working by oneself, quietly
38	Teacher writing on the board for all students
39	Teacher writing on the board for group of students
40	Teacher writing on the board for individual student
41	Teacher writing on the board for support teacher
42	Teacher writing on paper/books for small groups of students
43	Teacher writing on paper/books for individual student
44	Teacher writing on paper/books for support teacher
45	Teacher checking written work of small group
46	Teacher checking written work of individual student
47	Teacher checking written work of support teacher
48	Other eg. song, dance, rhythm, rhyme, cassette, video, CD-ROM, computer program

M

LOTE teacher behaviours blank tally sheet

LOTE teacher behaviours

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N

Letter to primary LOTE teachers: Interim findings

University of Tasmania
School of Early Childhood and Primary Education

Dear primary LOTE teachers in 'on-line' schools,

During September 1998, you received a LOTE survey from me, sent to all 'on-line' teachers of primary LOTEs (n=50) in Tasmanian government primary schools. Thank you to the 40 teachers who responded: an 80% return rate gives an excellent representative picture of the LOTE implementation issues. Below are some preliminary findings for your information.

If you meant to return the survey and would still like to make your views on the various issues known, I would be delighted to provide you with a replacement survey. Please telephone me on 6324 3909 during office hours, or leave a fax message on 6324 3048.

Lesley
18 May 1999

LOTE Survey: preliminary summary of findings

September/October 1998

Collected and compiled as part of a PhD study on the implementation of the Tasmanian LOTE policy by
Lesley Harbon
(Faculty of Education, University of Tasmania, Launceston)

Who replied?

- 82% of respondents were female and 18% were male.
- Respondents represented the following primary LOTEs:
  Indonesian (52%); Japanese (23%); French (18%); Italian (5% - 2 respondents); German 2% (1 respondent), which is representative of the number of schools 'on-line with these LOTEs.
- Respondents from the 7 districts (1998) were represented as follows:
  Arthur (13%); Barrington (10%); Bowen (15%); Derwent (8%); Forester (13%); Hartz (21%); Macquarie (15%); No answer (5%).
- 75% of respondents indicated that they are the sole practising LOTE teacher in their schools, which makes networking and professional development links high on their agenda.
- Just 18% of respondents had had 1 year of primary LOTE teaching experience. 82% had had 5 years or less. 18% had more than five years experience teaching primary LOTE.

- Most respondents (57%) undertook their initial teacher training for primary teaching, 36% were trained for secondary teaching.

Which models of primary LOTE exist in Tasmania?

- 34% of primary LOTE teachers in on-line schools responding to this survey regard themselves as mobile/visiting LOTE specialist teachers in more than one school.
- 28% are class teachers for a percentage of the time, but with LOTE responsibilites in other classes/grades.
- 10% are special programs teachers, combining Flying Start/Literacy or Library with LOTE to make up their teaching load.
- 18% of respondents consider themselves to be the mobile/visiting specialist in just one school.
- Only one respondent taught LOTE solely to his/her own class.

What were these teachers' views about the LOTEs they teach?

- 82% of respondents felt they were teaching primary LOTE in a different way to the way they themselves were taught their first LOTE. Only one respondent was teaching their LOTE the same way they learned their first LOTE.
- 93% of respondents strongly agreed or somewhat agreed that teaching primary LOTE has required them to add new teaching techniques to their teaching repertoire. Listed here were: games, music, 'young' activities and motivational exercises.
- 92% of respondents strongly agreed and somewhat agreed that they understood about the majority of procedures and strategies in LOTE curriculum planning. Hand-in-hand with the planning, 95% stated that they were clear or somewhat clear about assessment and evaluation procedures for primary LOTE at this early stage in the implementation. However, the comments indicated that the procedures themselves were not totally clarified and this was a focus for the future.
- As regards the information technology package which goes hand-in-hand with LOTE implementation in on-line schools, 41% did not agree at all that they used the IT package as much as possible, familiarity with IT and time factors being mentioned as reasons. 18% of respondents strongly agreed that they use the package as much as possible.

What were these teachers' views about their own LOTE proficiencies and teaching competencies?

- 87% of respondents felt they had mastered totally or almost mastered the LOTE they teach. The remainder (13%) felt they did not agree that they had mastered the LOTE.
- 67% of respondents had learned their FIRST LOTE at school. 16% had learned their FIRST LOTE as an inservice program, suggesting they had recently learned the LOTE they are now teaching.
- 80% of respondents had travelled to the country where their LOTE is predominantly spoken. 15% had not travelled to the target country and 5% did not answer.
- As regards these LOTE teachers' qualifications, the largest group of respondents (49%) have a Tasmanian Cerficate of Education LOTE or ISLPR qualification. Only 15% have a major in one or two LOTEs in their degree.
- Only one respondent indicated that he/she was a native speaker of the LOTE he/she taught.

What were these teachers' views on the support they receive from teaching colleagues and schools when integrating LOTE?

- As regards support given to LOTE teaching in their schools, 90% of respondents agreed or somewhat agreed that the LOTE support they are given by class teachers is good. 93% were strongly agreed or somewhat agreed that the support is from the whole school.

What were these teachers' views on students and students' learning outcomes?

- 95% of respondents teach more than 3 LOTE classes a week (one teacher has 17 classes). (Only 5% teach just one LOTE class per week.) This involves one teacher teaching over 400 students per week and 10% teaching over 300 students. 95% teach LOTE to more than 30 students per week.
- 72% of respondents indicated that they place more emphasis on spoken than written outcomes during LOTE lessons. Most respondents (95%) felt that they placed a great emphasis on students' demonstration of learning (eg. performing at assembly, class displays, take-home work samples).

How did these teachers view primary LOTE teaching?

Metaphors chosen to describe the positive side of primary LOTE teaching ranged from:

Being a LOTE teacher is like...
the 'top-of-the-world' feeling of a mountain climber; to
an angel bearing gifts from strange lands.

On the not so positive side:
Primary LOTE teaching is like...
walking in treacle with gumboots on; to
being a chook running around with its head cut off.

Teachers also stated "**LOTE keeps the brain active.**", "**LOTE is my life.**" and "**Now I know how children learn.**"

Overall...

- All respondents considered themselves to be competent or fairly competent primary LOTE teachers. 98% of respondents feel that their LOTE program is a total success or somewhat a success and that they felt that the environment they created for primary LOTE learning was an enriching one (95%).
- As regards these teachers' visions for primary LOTE, 93% of respondents strongly agreed or somewhat agreed that LOTE learning is beneficial for all students. Amongst the 7% of respondents who did not agree, reasons cited were that all learners are different and LOTE will not suit everyone.
- As regards official policy, most (92%) were mostly or fully conversant with the content of the Tasmanian LOTE policy and 80% were either strongly or somewhat in agreement with the aims and content of that policy.

****

O

Interview questions: Sandy

Interview Questions: Sandy

1. Year of birth?
2. Place of residence now?
3. Tell me about your decision to become a teacher.
4. How were you taught languages by your parents?
5. How many brothers and sisters?
6. Do you remember language play?
7. What do you remember about your early literature? Your own experiences of books?
8. Tell me about kids from other cultures from your primary schooling and then your high schooling? How did they fit in? How did they use their language? Do you remember anything significant about them being there?
9. You had French in years 7–8 and could choose for years 9–10?
10. Tell me about gender in your own high school French classes. Mix?
11. What does girls and LOTE and boys and LOTE mean to you from your own schooling or now?
12. How do you plan for that in your classes?
13. Tell me about "song" in your units of work.
14. Do you usually try and incorporate a song into every unit of work?
15. Tell me about the importance of "incidental" that you mentioned just a minute ago. Tell me about your own learning, your teaching and the "incidental" in that.
16. Is LOTE particularly condusive to that [taking things off at a tangent/incidental]?
17. Is there much "incidental" teaching in other learning areas you've taught in?
18. I was impressed when you handed out a song book in one of yesterday's classes. It's a really beautifully produced little piece of work and I'd like you to just explain to me what kind of message you think the kids can get about LOTE when they see some nicely produced resources like that?
19. Tell me about your vision about the role of humour in LOTE.
20. Tell me about your own LOTE learning . . . and humour within that process.
21. I'm hearing "anecdotal" cultural evidence can come through, which in turn can become mnemonic devices, memory-jogging devices. Are you trying to replicate this in your classes?
22. At what point do you put a song in your unit of work? And how do you unpack it?
23. So, I'm hearing that songs can be a "vehicle"?
24. In your early schooling, is there any significant group of others who come from another culture?
25. Tell me about your French and being in France.
26. From that French experience, tell me about equipping people for functional use [of language].
27. What's going to make the difference in the way you were semi-prepared for your French and the way you're preparing your kids for Indonesian?
28. In your own being . . . for your own survival at one point in your life, you were making very deep connections between the culture and the language. Anything else you want to say about how that might affect your planning?
29. I notice that over the five or six lessons I've had with you this week that so much communication goes on in your Indonesian classes. Tell me about where you stand, where you come from on communication in LOTE classes?
30. I have a question about dictionary work and I thought there is a really powerful message that can come out about LOTE from what you do in your classes with dictionary work. Can you give me a little bit of an insight into what is in your mind?
31. Tell me more about that [students' independence] in the philosophy of life. Where does that come from with you?
32. Tell me about the support teacher and dictionary work.
33. [Re your personality] and not being a "pushy" LOTE teacher [visiting another classroom]. Is that because it's LOTE or because it's Sandy?
34. Is a specialist Phys. Ed. teacher different to a specialist LOTE teacher or is this a generic thing?
35. Have you brought some strategies over from Phys. Ed.?
36. I want to ask [about] those visions [for unit planning] that you get behind your eyes.
37. [Does] knowing intimately about children and their likes and dislikes and their learning styles from having your own [children] . . . influence you and your planning?

38. Do you get some body language [from the support teachers whose classes you visit] sometimes?
39. Is [staggering] students' work a LOTE tool?
40. Can an individual student or a group of students . . . [and their attitudes] change the way you plan?
41. Re the LOTE place mats, what grade levels have made them, what do they encompass, what skills do the kids need to draw on to create them and what do they become for the kids?
42. So they have a functional use?
43. Has there been anything else in the same vein the kids have made—something with a function—language and function?
44. For your own learning of a second language, or your children's learning, do they use such props for their learning?
45. I'm hearing that you're actually enjoying what you're doing with kids as much as anything?
46. Tell me about independent work skills and ages in the classes. How do you develop your units with that knowledge in mind?
47. Older students are more independent?
48. I've just noticed that there are different amounts of children that queue around you . . . in the younger classes.
49. Have you had to do that [utilise strategic competencies] yourself?
50. So, your vision is really "equipping them" as much as anything?
51. Last week one child didn't get the "ch" sound clearly. And you didn't give him the answer, but you made him discover the answer. Where does this sort of learning fit in with your vision?
52. Tell me about giving children the Indonesian names.
53. Tell me about how [giving them another identity] can be successful?
54. What role do games play? At what point in the unit do you include them?
55. Did you experience much "gaming" in your French studies in high school?
56. And how about your own children learning their first language? Do they pick up as much language from games in their first language comparing what they start at school and what lessons their mum and dad can give them?
57. This question is about your response to the Commonwealth Government's reasons for teaching primary LOTE. Tell me about whether this fits in with your vision for primary LOTE.
58. Have you any stories about certain students stuck in your mind and why? What have been your proudest LOTE moments and why? What has been the worst?
59. In this job you hold now, who are you responsible to? What does this entail? Explain the accountability levels.
60. Are there senior teachers who look at your planning?
61. Tell me about being a "mobile" LOTE teacher. How much of this is "any specialist" or how much is peculiarly LOTE?
62. If you were a mobile Phys. Ed. specialist, would you still be dragging heaps of things around?
63. How do you plan for gender differences?
64. So it's individuals rather than gender?
65. How important to you is proficiency/finished product? How important is it to you or to others or to the key stakeholders, like the kids themselves, the parents, your staff colleagues?
66. Was there that kind of [demonstration of acquired learning] in PE?
67. Tell me about the school year for a LOTE specialist. On paper it's 40 weeks. Tell me about how that translates.
68. Is there any difference in how you plan as to when the LOTE has been scheduled for the children? Early or late times in the day? Early or late in the week? Early or late months in the year?
69. You might be planning in an open-ended way. You don't plan for a full-stop?
70. I think that it's very exciting that a child will learn the structure and repeat it back to you, but the thing that I would suggest that we teachers find most rewarding is to see the child take it a step further. And it sounds like you might be planning, either intentionally or otherwise for that to happen.
71. How do you plan to cope with learner error in LOTE?
72. So you're giving a scaffold?
73. If a child wanted to know . . . something incredibly difficult, and you didn't know how, what would be your tack there?
74. What do you feel deep down about work samples? What priority are they?

75. It shouldn't drive your LOTE program?
76. In my observations over the last four weeks, I've seen that the older children in the schools in which you teach have a busier curriculum and the younger children have a less-busy curriculum. How does this translate in your LOTE program?
77. Tell me about your ideas behind this unit.
78. Do you find that there's peer teaching going on with the mix in the classes?
79. Tell me about mnemonic strategies you use for those children to remember their vocabulary.
80. So you challenge the kids with it?
81. Tell me about the strategies you use to stop the kids misconstruing words in Indonesian which could sound like, for example, rude words in English.
82. Tell me about "pace" in your 45 minute lessons.
83. Where are you taking them with their LOTE?
84. How communicative can they be?
85. Can I show you these? [Tally observation sheets] That was the first one of the unit and that's the second. Look at how much more LOTE is being used once you're into the unit.
86. Tell me about planning for content and planning for process?
87. Is there a couple of words that you'd be able to use that . . . would describe you as a teacher?
88. Tell me about the various facets and involvements of being one of the pioneer "on-line" teachers.
89. Tell me about reflection for you at the moment.
90. If you wanted to tell somebody a story about . . . the video-roleplays, where would you begin?
91. Would you consider that the highlight of your unit of work?

P

Interview questions: Rhonda

Interview questions: Rhonda

1. Tell me about your early life, where you lived and about your family. Also about your early LOTE learning. Have you ever learned other LOTE before than this time in your life and what were they and how long did you study those LOTE for and so on?
2. So it began at Grade 7?
3. Here in Tasmania?
4. What is learning a foreign language to you?
5. What can it be [foreign language learning] for the children?
6. So you were 11, 12, 13 and so on when you were learning your first language other than English. Do you remember the feelings that learning a foreign language evoked for you?
7. Has any of that rubbed off in your own classroom do you think?
8. Is there a difference [between your LOTE classrooms and your regular primary classrooms]?
9. What else does the time limitation do with the planning?
10. Tell me what that says about the age that we're starting our LOTE?
11. What percentage of the school would that be [have a second language in their family]?
12. I notice you have a very supporting classroom teacher with you in the class.
13. And I heard her very willing to work with the language itself?
14. I've recorded #4 [in the observation schedule] which is teacher interacting with support teacher. I want to make some kind of statement about that and the value of the or the non-value of that.
15. You are LOTE teacher in your own class as well. Do you think the kids see a different Ms Rhonda when you're working with them? Do you launch into LOTE with them?
16. Are they getting more than their 40 minutes of the LOTE with you?
17. Are you different with them?
18. Is there a story you can remember that exemplifies one of those things [Referring to reasons for primary LOTE study on a brochure Rhonda had designed and produced]?
19. What do you perceive the children's feelings are in learning a LOTE? The feelings of the staff and the feelings of the wider community?
20. I'm reading that you're getting mixed feelings [about LOTE in support teachers' classes]?
21. So on a ranking from positive to negative, where would you feel that the general concensus about your Indonesian would be?
22. At any stage, please feel free to remember . . . a story about a positive feeling that you've come across, or a negative feeling.
23. You would realise that we probably have a focus on Asian languages and Indonesian . . . in our state system . . . because of what our government and policy creators said . . . What's your feeling about that?
24. Tell me about the little ice-breaker at the beginning of your time with the kids. Yesterday it was a lovely little song.
25. So it gee-ed up the group of teachers [the song]. I mean it certainly gee-ed up your class yesterday. So, it's that kind of thing? Really, what does it do for you?
26. Tell me about your instruction at the end of yesterday's lesson where you said "I want you to record it, but feel free to record it in the way that makes sense to you."
27. Where does that theory come from? Does that come from somewhere in your own story somewhere?
28. Have you had a chance to think about any stories of your best LOTE moment, your worst LOTE moment?
29. Was it content or methodology that was the hiccup? [referring to Rhonda's perceptions of her worst LOTE moment]
30. Content—so you're telling me that teacher proficiency in the LOTE is a necessity?
31. Keeping one class ahead of the kids. What is your comment on that one?
32. This has all been the pioneering steps, hasn't it?
33. So, in your own personal story, there was a time when you felt lost. Is that the way you'd say it? Is there a metaphor you'd use for it, or a symbol of some sort that you'd use to encapsulate the feeling?
34. Have you thought of anything that's really made you stick your chest out in pride?
35. In my notes there, you brought it down to the familiar. Is that a teaching technique that you use across the curriculum?

36. I want to know about your planning for the content and planning for the process. And also about your opinion of your teaching style.
37. Is that new amongst your peers? [linking curriculum areas] Are your peers doing that kind of thing?
38. Is that something you've taken on board 'cause it's at that stage of your professional career?
39. So, planning for your process, considering the communicative approach is the planning basis under that?
40. Planning for your content?
41. There is an extent to which how LOTE occurs in the school is negotiated?
42. In your opinion are there other curriculum areas that have to be as negotiated, or do we just walk on eggshells because we're LOTE?
43. So that's not LOTE particularly? [Rhonda having described her teaching style as eclectic]
44. Tell me about your responsibility in the school and where is the next level?
45. Are there other schools that you've been in that have been quite different?
46. Tell me about being "mobile"—that get-up-and-go feeling!
47. Are there down sides? [to LOTE teaching]
48. Would that be an ideal that you would hope for primary LOTE for everyone in future? [visiting a number of classrooms in one school]
49. Are there any gender differences with kids learning LOTE? Tell me about your planning for gender.
50. How important is the finished product, the work sample, at the end of your units?
51. And is that particularly LOTE?
52. Do you plan for independent workers, or do you springboard off the fact that they are independent workers?
53. Is that a planning consideration?
54. Tell me about your planning to measure student learning outcomes.
55. Does all of that throw more recording and assessment and evaluation time than would normally be in a 5 day week classroom teacher role?
56. How much does a parent see? [of that assessment documentation]
57. Can any other part of the primary curriculum offer that? [tasting, smelling different tropical fruits from Indonesia]
58. The "fruit salad making" went well. Would you consider that [market day] the climax of the unit?
59. So, from the very beginning of the first planning of this [unit], you had yesterday [market day] as the climax of the unit, and everything else built up to it?
60. And that's traditionally the way your units go?
61. What happens now to the unit? How do you wind it down?
62. Tell me about meetings of the grade 3 teachers.

Q

Interview questions: Jodie

Interview questions: Jodie

1. I want to start with your story. If you could just think back where it was that you first learnt your first foreign language and bring me through to the present day and to your own LOTE learning.
2. I'd like to focus on the high school learning of —When you say you don't remember much about the learning of the French and the German, can you think to tell me about whether you had textbooks, or whether the teacher spoke to you a lot in the LOTE. Can you try and fragment a bit more of that together?
3. Were you in a co-ed situation?
4. That was French from 7–10 and German was just grade 8?
5. What I'd like to focus on is whether you can think about links in what you've told me about your story and what you're trying to provide for the kids. Is there "language play" in your focus? Is there any "fascination for difference" that you mentioned? Are you trying to spark that in the children or what?
6. The in-country experiences. Tell me about the importance of that to your teaching now?
7. If you had your "druthers", if you were in charge of training LOTE teachers across the state, and you had a huge budget, would you put an in-country component into every LOTE teachers' training?
8. Because you're a classroom teacher as well, with command of the 8 key learning areas, is there a particular focus for LOTE that the other key learning areas don't have? Do you have to feel that you're up-to-scratch? Is there an importance placed on how proficient you are or how knowledgable you are in LOTE as compared to maths or science?
9. How do your students feel about LOTE in the curriculum?
10. Tell me about how you go about planning for what happens with your LOTE.
11. What is your vision for what the kids will be able to do after a LOTE program that you can offer them?
12. Do you have a few words which might describe you as a LOTE teacher?
13. Are there any specific considerations when you plan?
14. Do you plan for gender?
15. Do you plan for ability groups?
16. Are there any planning documents that you've got in your sights when you're looking at LOTE?
17. Is there a title on the unit you're doing at the moment?
18. If you had to label it, you'd call it "Bali" and yet a lot of other things integrate into it?
19. Have you done an island study before? What are some of your other unit titles?
20. Tell me about your teaching style.
21. Is that particularly LOTE or is that particularly you?
22. So, I'm reading 'structure' and yet a 'flexibility' within that structure?
23. Tell me about any theories you have about learning.
24. If you had your 'druthers', what would be the ideal [model of LOTE provision]?
25. Tell me about your groupings that you plan for. Can you tell me about whether its whole or pairs or little groups?
26. Collaborative?
27. That's in collaboration with your other grade 3, 4, 5 and 6 teachers? [report designing]
28. LOTE is definitely a feature on that report?
29. Tell me about the finished product for the kids in learning a LOTE. The dialogue they get to perform, the creation of a piece of artefact. How important is the finished product?
30. Tell me a little bit about what you did yesterday [the link to maths] and whether that's part of your style. What benefits are there [of integrating the curriculum]?
31. Tell me about showing them the video.
32. That's what I've noticed about your LOTE teaching style - that you love to set the bigger picture for them. Would you agree with that?
33. Are you a risk-taker?
34. List the various involvements of being a LOTE teacher. Is it merely having a LOTE proficiency and running units of work?
35. What will come from the Bali unit now?
36. So that becomes a work sample? [students would produce a postcard from Bali]

R

Cross-tabulation

Cross tabulation:
Location of LOTE program (urban or rural) and perceptions of parental support

	parental support			TOTAL
	supporting parents	non supporting parents	no comment	
Location - urban	9 45.0%	1 5.0%	10 50.0%	20 50.0%
Location - rural	7 35.0%	4 20.0%	9 45.0%	20 50.0%
TOTAL	16 40.0%	5 12.5%	19 47.5%	40 100.0%