

**A Tale of Two Discourses: University Pre-service Teachers'
and In-service Teachers' Beliefs and Understandings
on Languages Teaching within the Tasmanian Context.**

by

Gregory Ashman Dip.T., B. Ed., Grad. Cert. (LOTE), M. Ed.Studs.

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DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university. To the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person, except where due acknowledgement has been made.

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ABSTRACT

The research investigated pre-service teachers and in-service teachers' beliefs and understandings of Languages teaching in Tasmanian government primary schools. Pre-service and in-service teachers' understandings of languages teaching were identified and analysed using a range of formal, practice-orientated and experiential measures designed to ascertain pedagogical understandings, the role of Languages in a primary curriculum and the requirements for successful languages teaching. As the thesis is situated within the Tasmanian context, it provided contextual information and recommendations that had the capacity to be translated into the local learning environment.

The study used both quantitative and qualitative research approaches. The main data collection methods were questionnaire and interview. The pre-service participants for this study were first year and third year undergraduate pre-service teachers from the Bachelor of Education program at the University of Tasmania in Launceston. A total of 185 students were invited to participate in the study. The majority of students was from throughout Tasmania and fell within a wide age range, with the majority between the ages of 18 -25. In-service participants were selected from government primary schools from across the state where a Languages program was in place and where the teacher had been teaching Languages for a minimum of four years.

Primarily, this research began with the need to find out more about how, where and why Languages fitted into to both in-service and pre-service teachers' beliefs – to find out the extent of their investment in teaching Languages and how

this investment was articulated through their beliefs about Languages and notions of teacher knowledge and teacher identity. Several matters of significance have emerged from the study that highlight the central role that knowledge plays in the construction of teacher identity and the significance of belief systems for supporting adaptive and pedagogically responsible teaching practice.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AFMLTA	Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers' Association
ALL	Australian Language Levels
ALLP	Australian Languages and Literacy Policy
ALPLP	Asian Languages Professional Learning Project
BALLI	Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory
CDA	Critical Discourse Analysis
DEEWR	Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations
DEST	Department of Education, Science and Technology
ELs	Essential Learnings
FL	Foreign Language
IcLL	Intercultural Language Learning
ILTLP	Intercultural Language Teaching in Practice
IT	Information Technology
KLA	Key Learning Area
L1	first language
L2	second language
LOTE	Languages Other Than English
MCEETYA	Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs
MLTAT	Modern Language Teachers' Association of Tasmania
MLTAQ	Modern Languages Teachers' Association of Queensland

NALSAS	National Asian Languages and Studies in Australian Schools
NPL	National Languages Policy
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
R.O.	Research Objectives
TiCtLL	Tasmanian Intercultural Language Learning
UTAS	University of Tasmania

Chapter 1: Overview of the Research

1.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present an overview of the research, and to provide an understanding of the function and place of this research in relation to the researcher. This chapter provides the context of the research, the aims and the significance, the research methodology, ethical considerations and the limitations. A further outline of the content of following chapters is also provided.

1.2 Terminology

For the purposes of clarity, it is necessary to indicate, that whilst second language learning may be known by a variety of terms, as explained within the literature review, the term Languages will be used consistently throughout the thesis to represent the school learning area rather than the often more commonly referred to term of Languages Other than English (LOTE). This terminological choice has the advantage of describing the learning area principally in terms of "... what it is, rather than what it is not" (Liddicoat, Papademetre, Scarino & Kohler, 2003), and concurs with the terminology deemed appropriate by the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers' Associations (AFMLTA) – the peak Languages professional body in Australia – as the most appropriate terminology when referring to the learning area.

The exception to this usage occurs when presenting quotations from in-service and pre-service teachers, where in many instances, the term LOTE is used rather than Languages. Within the questionnaire, the term LOTE is used as well as it was determined, in the piloting of the questionnaire with a group of pre-service teachers,

that this terminology would be better understood as most pre-service teachers would have experienced this term during their own primary school experience.

1.3 Researcher's Position

The researcher has been a primary school classroom teacher, a Languages teacher and learner, a school administrator, a school district Languages consultant and University lecturer in Languages methodology. These roles have provided opportunities to be involved in different levels of teaching and work with a wide range of teachers at varying stages of their teaching careers in a variety of educational settings. Having worked with and alongside teachers with differing understandings of Languages teaching and learning has given the researcher an insight into the impact of personal beliefs and understandings on classroom practice. Of particular interest, has been the broad range of pedagogical beliefs brought to Languages teaching by teachers and how these beliefs have developed, been fashioned and maintained, and how these have impacted on the practices of Languages teachers, as well as the researcher, in the primary classroom.

Through sharing experiences to enhance the teaching and learning program offered to learners and supporting and listening to colleagues in their endeavours, an insight has been gained into the pathways that have been followed by classroom practitioners and the influences on the practitioners of policy makers, researchers within the field of Languages education and fellow travellers on the journey. The opportunity to share experiences and support colleagues has encouraged discussions surrounding Languages teaching and learning between the researcher and practitioners. This has helped shape and nurture the beliefs and influenced the practices of the researcher as a Languages teacher, policy maker, learner and researcher. It was through this study, that the researcher explored belief structures of

in-service and pre-service teachers and examined how, in the state primary school sector of the Tasmanian Department of Education and the Intercultural Languages Learning pedagogy (IcLL), Languages education is situated.

Conversations have provided an avenue to explore rich insight into pedagogical understandings and how such understandings impact upon and are influenced by the context of the participant. These conversations with teachers have occurred in classrooms, staff rooms, conferences, seminars and meetings and have enabled a strong network to be established between the researcher and Languages teachers in Tasmania. The professionalism of teachers and the genuine desire to provide optimal, learning environments has impressed upon the researcher the importance of having a sound pedagogical base as well as the capacity to adapt to the varying contexts in which a Languages teacher may find him/herself. This thesis is an avenue through which further and deeper understandings can be gained to advance Languages teaching within the state.

The researcher is cognisant of the fact that “each [teaching] action is context-shaped in the ways in which it is designed and understood in reference to the environment of actions in which it participates” (Heritage, 1984, p. 280), so when listening to and participating in conversations with colleagues, close attention was paid to the contextual frames that bounded the conversations. The conversations have been significant as they “formed the framework in which the design, scope and sequence of educational practice was brought to life and given preferred interpretations as the bases for practice and for later learning” (Freebody, 2003, pp. 90-91). These conversations have also provided an insight into teachers’ beliefs about Languages teaching and learning and how the beliefs bear the traces of the contexts, policies and professional learning that are central to their formation and maintenance.

In many conversations, pedagogical concerns often surface as conflict areas for teachers. It was the intent in this thesis to locate the pedagogical shifts and developments within the Languages domain within an historical context, trace the development of Languages teaching within the context of national and international trends and examine how one of these developments, namely IcLL, was translated into the Tasmanian context. Exploring the associated impact on the classroom practice of teachers was a significant part of the thesis. This gave some explanatory salience to those conflicts by situating them in a field of major paradigm and minor perspective shifts - an educational continuum of Languages teaching and change, as it were - thus it has allowed teachers to see more clearly how present day practices have been shaped by past experiences, theories and research..

Working within teacher education at the University setting provided another dimension through which to gain an understanding of the various perspectives that together comprise Languages teaching. Undergraduate students shared their experiences from the ‘other side of the fence,’ that provided the researcher with fresh perspectives from which to explore the notion of Languages teaching and a new way to view belief structures. It has also enabled the researcher to explore more deeply personal beliefs and understandings.

1.4 Languages teaching and learning

Languages teaching and learning has received significant attention from researchers, teachers, and the broader community at large. However, the rationale for teaching languages and the associated curriculum has varied considerably depending on the primary discourses which underpin the teaching of languages and by reference to why such teaching is distinct from other learning area teaching approaches. Traditionally, Languages teaching was narrowly seen as a subject that promoted

intellectual development in learners. However, as language, society and culture are now seen as deeply linked, the traditional view does not reflect this more recent intricate connection.

Language cannot be divorced from its cultural context. Learning a language is learning about culture and society. English has emerged as an international language, not because there are more people using it, but because it is widely used by people of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds all over the world.

This thesis examines the role of Languages learning with particular reference to the Intercultural Language Learning (IcLL) pedagogy within the Tasmanian government primary school sector.

1.5 Context of research

Within the Tasmanian government primary school context, the profile of Languages, historically has been low. In 1993, with the support of the National Asian Languages and Studies in Australian Schools (NALSAS) initiative, primary schools were funded to establish Languages programs for children from Grade 3 onwards, if they so chose. The funding enabled a Languages program to be undertaken within the primary school for up to seven years, with the aim of embedding the program within the school's curriculum framework. Financial assistance was available to schools for extra staffing, resourcing, Information Technology (I.T.) software and hardware and relief for the Language teacher's professional development. On a systems level, professional learning was available to Languages teachers to upgrade their teaching qualifications through a series of award bearing courses, seminars and workshops. Within each of the Educational districts, a support officer was appointed to help with the implementation program. This coordinated, resourced and supported program

proved very beneficial and a high percentage of government primary schools initially implemented a Languages program.

The government schools were able to select from German, French, Indonesian, Japanese or Auslan, depending on the pathway that was available to students, as they moved through their schooling from primary school to secondary to senior secondary. Italian was offered in some schools that were able to access funding through the Italian government.

Thus the scene was set for schools to implement this Learning Area. The Essential Learnings (EL's) curriculum, launched in December 2002, provided a strong framework in which Languages could operate and, hopefully, flourish. It was anticipated the skills of communicating in languages other than our own, and learning to understand intercultural exchanges would "lead to an appreciation of language and of cultural diversity and enrich the life experiences of individuals and their community" (Department of Education, 2002, p. 20). In Tasmania, learning a second language had the capacity to empower the community by lessening the cultural and linguistic isolation that is experienced as an island state with a small population.

The Essential Learnings' values and purposes underpinned Languages programs and supported learners to become aware of the power of language as a means of "gaining access to other individuals, ideas and ways of thinking. It inspired an interest in and respect for other peoples and cultures. Learners were supported to embrace diversity and value personal identity" (Department of Education, n.d.).

To encourage the embedding of Languages into the curriculum, Tasmania was involved in activities reflecting national trends and developing pedagogies. The Asian Languages Professional Learning Project (ALPLP), (Department of Education, Science & Technology, 2004a; 2004b) was an initiative of the Department of

Education, Science and Training (DEST) and was implemented nationally in 2004 and attended by 35 teachers from all sectors of the school community. In Tasmania, teachers had the opportunity to review methodology and develop understandings around the concept of intercultural language learning – a key aspect of the initiative. Of particular note, from this activity, was the close alignment of the Intercultural Language Learning (IcLL) pedagogy and that of the Essential Learnings. There was a strong synergy between the two philosophies and this resulted in the implementation of Phase 2 of the ALPLP program whereby school teams were invited to participate in workshops. School teams investigated “ways to design, implement and report on a school based project that strengthened support for Asian languages within the school and connected languages and other aspects of the curriculum through intercultural learning.” (Department of Education, Science & Technology, 2004b, p. 15)

In 2006 and 2007, previous learnings and experiences were built upon with the Tasmanian Inter-cultural Language Learning (TicLL) project whereby teachers worked collaboratively to plan and teach learning sequences with an intercultural language learning approach. Tasmanian teachers were part of a nationally funded project team. Of particular strength, was the idea that all these professional learning projects followed a similar model – professional learning sessions interspersed with supported planning and teaching time before coming back together to share findings. The notion of teachers and students learning and working collaboratively was pivotal to the project.

As a consequence, there was the capacity for languages education to have a strong presence in the state in all school contexts and incorporating different languages. The *National Statement and Plan for Languages Education in Australian Schools 2005-2008* (MCEETYA, 2005) provided a systemic support and commitment

to Languages. This was reflected in international thinking as there was a recognised capacity for languages teaching to support global awareness through cultural understandings and an ability to create a more equitable, cohesive and inclusive society. In the Tasmanian context, perceptions and pedagogical understandings, particularly the IcLL program, shaped languages education. This assisted in the delivery of learning opportunities that were in synergy with curriculum policies.

However, in 2007, another change to curriculum implementation saw the Tasmanian Curriculum change the focus of curriculum delivery in the state. Languages teaching is, at this present stage, fully integrated into the English-literacy curriculum and is now seen as an integral part of the process of becoming literate. This placement, provides Languages education with a capacity to be an integral part of Literacy learning, but does not provide a strong individual presence within the curriculum structure. The capacity for Languages to be maintained as a key learning area in its own right with intrinsic worth has been lost.

Even though Languages education has a firm place within the literacy curriculum, professional learning for teachers has been consistent and ongoing, Languages still struggles to have a presence in many primary schools and it has been the intrinsic aim of this thesis to determine ways that this trend may be reversed.

1.6 Aims of the research

The research investigated pre-service teachers and in-service teachers' beliefs and understandings of languages teaching in Tasmanian primary schools, within the IcLL framework. Pre-service teachers and in-service teachers' understandings of languages teaching were identified and analysed using a range of formal, practice-orientated and experiential measures designed to ascertain pedagogical

understandings, the role of Languages in a primary curriculum and the requirements for successful languages teaching.

The research objectives and the guiding questions to support these objectives were as follows:

Research Objective 1:

To examine historical developments regarding Languages teaching in Tasmanian primary schools.

- What factors, nationally and internationally, have influenced and helped shape the development of languages teaching in Tasmanian primary schools?
- What are the characteristics and features of present Languages programs in Tasmania?

Research Objective 2:

To investigate in-service teachers' perceptions and beliefs about languages teaching in primary schools.

- What is the role of IcLL in classroom instruction?
- How is a teaching and learning program structured to maximise student learning?
- What factors impact upon Languages teaching and learning?

Research Objective 3:

To explore pre-service teachers' perceptions and beliefs regarding the teaching of Languages in primary schools within the Tasmanian State School sector.

- What beliefs about languages teaching do pre-service teachers hold?
- How do pre-service teachers perceive Languages teaching and learning?

- How confident are pre-service teachers in being involved in Languages teaching?

Research Objective 4:

To compare beliefs and perceptions of classroom teachers and pre-service teachers on Languages teaching in primary school in terms of pedagogy, teaching and learning programs.

- What are the identified similarities and differences in beliefs and perceptions held by pre-service and languages teachers?
- How does this impact upon the position of Languages in the Tasmanian primary school curriculum?

1.7 Participants

The pre-service participants for this study were first year and third year undergraduate pre-service teachers from the Bachelor of Education program at the University of Tasmania in Launceston. A total of 185 students were invited to participate in the study. The majority of students were from throughout Tasmania and fell within a wide age range, with the majority between the ages of 18 -25. The following table provides the relevant demographic information:

Table 1.1 *Demographic data of pre-service teachers*

Variables	First Year N=75	Third Year N=81
Gender: Male	86%	91%
Female	14%	9%
Age: 18-25	81%	85%
26-35	9%	13%
36-45	8%	1%
Over 46	2%	1%

In-service participants were selected from primary schools from across the state where a Languages program was in place and where the teacher had been teaching Languages for a minimum of 5 years.

Table 1.2 *Teaching experience of in-service teachers*

Teaching experience of in-service teachers: 1-4 years	0
5-9 years	1
10-14 years	2
15-19 years	3

1.8 Significance of study

The *National Policy on Languages* (Lo Bianco, 1987) recognised the importance of languages education in preparing learners to successfully interact with what has been termed “the global society”. The *National Goals for Schooling* (MCEETYA, 1989) identified Languages as a key learning area. This was reiterated in the Adelaide Declaration (MCEETYA, 1999). The *National Statement and Plan for Languages Education in Australian Schools 2005-2008* emphasised the relevance of languages learning in equipping learners to take their place in the interdependent world. “A Commitment to Action’ (MCEETYA, 2008) clearly included ‘Languages (especially Asian Languages)’ as an integral part of the curriculum and schools were “responsible for delivering curriculum programs that reflect these learning areas , with appropriate flexibility to determine how this can best be achieved in the local context” (p. 14).

These national developments reflected international trends and have the ability to impact on the teaching of Languages in schools. Teachers are at the forefront of these developments and thus have an influence on the development, delivery and maintenance of Languages programs. Data collected from this study provided further

understandings about how such support can be made available in a manner that is appropriate to the needs of the teacher and student, depending on the stage of learning.

This thesis investigated the perceptions of teachers and future teachers. How these perceptions were formed, expressed and translated into classroom programs provided the researcher with insights to better understand, shape and define future developments, as well as contributing theoretical and practical knowledge to the learning area. As the thesis is situated within the Tasmanian context, it provided contextual information and recommendations that had the capacity to be translated into the local learning environment.

The research highlighted that pre-service teachers without a second language could be influenced to reflect on the role and value of languages learning and be much more supportive of languages in schools.

1.9 Research Methodology

To answer the research objectives and address the research questions of the thesis, a mixed methods approach was adopted. The methodological approach for this study relied on a social constructivist paradigm to provide a theoretical justification for the study of pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs and perceptions about Languages teaching. Using a mixed method approach enabled data to be gathered from the pre-service and in-service teachers qualitatively and quantitatively. The qualitative data consists of responses provided by the pre-service teachers to an open ended statement in addition to interviews conducted with in-service teachers. The quantitative data consisted of responses provided to a questionnaire.

This study provided both a qualitative and quantitative account of the perceptions of pre-service and in-service Languages teachers and provided an

opportunity to determine some of the key formative and sustaining elements in such perceptual schemes. Incorporating both of these approaches enabled the objectives to be met in a detailed manner, provided the research with avenues to ensure validity and reliability were maintained.

The research study was located within the teaching of the Department of Education's primary Languages learning area. A particular focus, was participants' beliefs regarding the learning area, and how those beliefs have been shaped.

For the recruitment of participants in this study, the following strategies were employed:

- Contact with pre-service teachers through University email and a personal follow-up during scheduled university contact time.
- Contact with classroom teachers via Principal Education Officer, Languages, who had access to information regarding schools' Languages program operation. This was followed up by a letter of introduction to the Principal and the Languages teacher inviting participation.

Information sheets for the questionnaire participants and for the interview participants were available to inform participants of the aims of the study, its procedure and the processes involved in the dissemination of the findings. Matters of confidentiality, safety, and security of information and a timetable of interview schedules were made available to participants and discussed. The role of the researcher was also clearly provided to participants.

Through data collection and analysis the research presented findings that shed light on those beliefs as outlined in section 1.6 Aims and Objectives. Thus, the selected research methods enabled the researcher to question, probe and investigate

the phenomenon under investigation. As a result, the interview and the survey were used to gather the required data.

Computer-based research analysis tools were used to assist in quantitative data analysis. For quantitative data analysis, SPSS was used to examine the links between variables and observe frequencies across questionnaire data. The qualitative data analysis involved pattern identification, theme and topic theorisation.

1.10 Ethical Issues

Participants were adults situated within a protected environment – University of Tasmania or workplace. The research did not seek responses to controversial or sensitive issues so there was minimal risk to participants in terms of personal comfort and safety during the course of the investigation. All participants had the freedom to choose whether or not to participate in the study.

Maintaining integrity was a fundamental part of the research project. Careful examination and the appropriate addressing of all aspects of the research ensured the “integrity of the knowledge produced and promoted the practice of ethical responsibilities towards participants” (O’Leary, 2005, p. 50). As this study involved human subjects, ethical issues were vital considerations.

In relation to the classroom practitioners, the interview process enabled the researcher to be close to what was happening and be possibly close to the participants. The researcher was asking for time, commitment, and for the participant to reveal their craft. There was a certain amount of trust that needed to be developed between researcher and participant. The researcher therefore needed to ensure that “genuine informed consent” (Hatch, 2002, p. 67), was obtained from the participant. Full disclosure of intent, of processes and of purposes provide for this consent for as Hatch indicates “to take advantage of teachers by not giving them the full right of refuse

participation is wrong. Being sensitive to their potential vulnerability was essential (Hatch, 2002, p. 77) and “the participants might be strongly encouraged, but the decision whether to become involved and when to withdraw from the research is entirely theirs” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000, p. 245).

The researcher ensured that there was some benefit to the participant for participating in the research. While the benefit to the researcher is obvious, reciprocal arrangements that provided benefits to the participants needed consideration and needed to be an integral part of the overall plan of the research. To achieve this, participants were given the opportunity to view the completed document and it was the researchers intention to relay findings to appropriate personnel, both within the Tasmanian Education Department and the University to enable recommendations to be considered.

The researcher followed a strict code of ethics to ensure that all participants were treated with fairness and dignity.

To conduct this research approval was gained from the University of Tasmania’s Human Research Ethics Committee (Tasmania) Network as well as the Tasmanian Department of Education. All relevant documentation is available as Appendices.

1.11 Limitations

The study examined the views of both the undergraduate cohort from the Bachelor of Education program at the University of Tasmania and in-service teachers employed by the Tasmanian State Education Department. Consequently, the participants’ perceptions were particular to a context and the capacity to generalise beyond the boundaries of that context were limited. This may be perceived as a narrow focus on which to base findings, however the number of students surveyed

provided rigorous data and the number of interviewees was a fair representation of Languages teachers in state primary schools.

The cohort of teachers interviewed was small. However the interview process allowed for depth of data collection rather than breadth. The interview process did depend upon what the participants chose to provide and share with the researcher.

The findings provided practical solutions for the various stakeholders to consider in planning for Languages experiences and could be perceived as a narrow focus, yet practical solutions in education are desirable and this case study yielded findings that may be transferrable

1.12 Outline of chapters

Having provided an overview of the study, identified the objectives, the significance, ethical considerations and some of the limitations in this chapter, the following provides an overview for the remainder of the study.

Chapter 2 provides an analysis of the related literature surrounding, supporting and giving credence to the study. It highlights the historical perspective, national and international developments in the Languages field, and looks at the theoretical perspective of teacher beliefs and perceptions with particular reference to Languages' teachers at differing stages of their learning journey.

Chapter 3 provides an insight into Languages teaching within the context of the study.

Chapter 4 outlines the methodological approach used to research the study questions. It describes the research approaches, validates choices and describes the analysis processes.

Chapter 5 reports the findings from the pre-service teacher surveys. The data were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively within the structure of the objectives

and provided insights into responses through analysis procedures and highlighted vignettes.

Chapter 6 reports on the qualitative findings from the interviews with in-service teachers. As with Chapter 5, the data are analysed to examine responses collected during semi-structured interviews. Personal vignettes are also foregrounded to provide more nuanced and textured insights into collected data.

Finally, Chapter 6 reflects upon the results from Chapters 4 and 5 and discusses contrasts and similarities between the data and makes recommendations for further investigations as a result of this study.

1.13 Summary

Australia is a country of huge linguistic diversity. There are many languages other than English spoken in Australian homes and in different ethnic communities across Australia. It is also a fact that language and identity are closely related. Language is not just an instrument of communication. It can be stated that what we speak, in a manner of speaking, also “speaks us”; it enables and conditions who we are.

Languages should be valued as an educational key which can open many doors to the outside world as well as an avenue to explore and discover one’s own cultural heritage. Languages learning, through IcLL pedagogy, has the potential to give students a good chance to begin this exploration.

But, as Demo (2001) states, the harsh reality of second language teaching is that the second language classroom is limited in its ability to develop learners’ communicative competence in the target language. This is due to the “restricted number of contact hours with the language; minimal opportunities for interacting with native speakers; and limited exposure to the variety of functions, genres, speech events, and discourse types that occur outside the classroom” (n.p.).

The challenge is to consider ways of embedding Languages learning in the curriculum and, in the Tasmanian context the Tasmanian Curriculum framework is the means by which, to provide strong, viable programs. Emerging discourses surrounding languages teaching need to be discussed and incorporated to ensure maximum benefit can be obtained by our learners.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this thesis was to explore pre-service and in-service teachers' beliefs and perceptions about Languages teaching and to investigate how these beliefs and perceptions, coupled with the development of policies and a particular curriculum approach, have impacted upon the teaching and learning programs. The intention of this chapter is to review the relevant literature and to explore how the literature has impacted upon the work of Tasmanian Languages in-service teachers and how the literature supports the understandings that pre-service teachers may hold. It is also intended to use the findings to begin to look at ways forward to develop and improve Languages teaching in the Tasmanian Department of Education.

2.2 Terminology

Discourses use language to create social meanings and represent the world or “reality” in ways that are not neutral but rather are highly political and a way through which power is exercised. This is clearly reflected in the way in which terminologies and perceptions have changed, and ideological positions have been staked out in relation to the relative ascendancy of particular discourses at particular historical junctures. Thus we have witnessed the introductions of terms in the educational discourse such as native language, English-speaking background (ESB), non-English-speaking background (NESB), foreign language, second language, community language, priority language, Aboriginal language, Indigenous language, Languages

other than English (LOTE) and Languages. The choice and use of those terms inevitably speaks to the commitments and investments – political, social, cultural, educational – of the user.

2.3 The Development of Linguistic Imperialism

It is interesting to examine the powerful role of English in the international context and any possible conflict with languages other than English. For those who see English as imperialistic, it is important to be alert to its powerful influences on other societies and cultures. Galtung (cited in Phillipson, 1992, p. 52) sees imperialism as a type of relationship “whereby one society or collective in more general terms can dominate another...manifesting itself in a variety of ways: economically, politically, militarily, culturally and socially”.

It could be interpreted from this position that Language could be used as the means of the powerful dominating the developing thus perpetuating the notion of linguistic imperialism. Accompanying social injustices and inequalities may arise as one culture, through language, begins to subjugate another.

A theme that emerged from the literature was that of “linguicism” (Phillipson, 1992), whereby endangered or local languages become extinct or lose their local importance as a direct result of the rising and competing prominence of English. It could be argued that English dominance plays a fundamental role in the advancement of global inequalities and promotes an environment in which structures of dependence are created and maintained. Phillipson (1992) supported this notion by arguing that “the ideologies and structures which are used to legitimate, effectuate and reproduce unequal division of power and resources (both material and non-material) between groups are defined on the basis of language” (p. 339).

It is relevant therefore to consider the effect of imperialism on culture as language and culture are inextricably linked. Penny (2002) agrees that since “society and culture may ultimately be shaped and governed by linguistic market forces, one language imposed on another under such circumstances can never be entirely natural or beneficial (p. 8). Where individual countries are represented by their own unique political, economic and religious systems, it is unrealistic to expect one imposed language to meet the needs of all cultures and their varying social agendas.

For the purposes of this thesis, therefore, it was important to consider the strong link between language and culture and highlight the role of discourse in expressing cultural values and norms through language.

Certain key factors are discernable when considering the power of English over other languages. These include: English being the most well-established world wide primary language; English being able to provide the most successful access to the worlds of economic, political, cultural and social experiences thus enabling material advancement and English as an expression of modernity and success.

Philipson’s book *Linguistic Imperialism* (1992) attracted great interest among languages researchers as well as languages educators. The powerful growth of English was perceived as a threat to the survival of other languages. Learning English was not just a matter of learning one amongst a large choice of other languages of equal standing. English was a language clothed in the vestments of financial power, privilege and influence.

This historical development is represented in the Tasmanian context as we have been part of the mono Anglo empire in which the English language has dominated in all spheres.

2.4 Community Languages

In Australia, from the arrival of the First Fleet and subsequent British colonisation, monolingualism was instituted as the norm for the ‘new Australia’, even though considerable numbers of early arrivals would have spoken Irish, Gaelic or Welsh.

Clyne’s (2005) summary of the early history of languages in Australia indicated that political and economic conditions, in particular the discovery and world wide attraction of gold, brought many languages other than English to Australia from Europe and Asia. This linguistic range was reflected in the numerous community language newspapers published in the Australian colonies in the 19th century. Clyne (2005) suggested that bilingual education was more prevalent in Australia in the 19th century than either the 20th or the 21st centuries to date.

But the first World War, and the periods immediately before and after it, created a social climate for the next seven decades in which proficiency in languages was devalued and perhaps even associated with forms of social stigma. While xenophobic attitudes were manifested in linguistic intolerance and were indeed an entrenched part of the historical landscape, perhaps nowhere was the tension between monolingualism and multilingualism more pronounced than in the history of non-Indigenous Australia (Clyne, 2005).

Even within this rather negative attitudinal climate towards the place of Languages learning, community languages programs and community schools have grown. Community language schools have been in existence since 1857 and are seen as important links in strengthening Australia’s identity and developing multiculturalism and “a society concerned with embracing and celebrating an infinite

spectrum of diversity in backgrounds, histories and heritages amongst our citizens”
(Community Languages Australia, 2009, n.).

Today community schools or ethnic schools are non-profit groups, operating after regular school hours supporting students who wish to develop their linguistic skills regardless of their backgrounds with a view to “preserving and celebrating the culture and traditions of Australia’s multicultural tapestry” (Community Languages Australia, 2009, n.p.).

There are approximately 1000 school authorities operating ethnic schools throughout Australia with over 100 000 students participating in programs nationally. In 2006, there were 69 languages offered nationally through community languages schools in Prep–10 and 42 languages at Years 11 and 12 (Community Languages Australia, 2009, n.p.) providing stand alone programs but also a complementary component to languages education to mainstream schools in Australia. Within the Tasmanian context there are 11 community language programs.

The following Table represents an insight into the ten most popular ethnic languages in Australia in the decade 1991–2001 (Clyne & Kipp n.d.). The Table also indicates the changes that have occurred with the growth/decline of those languages during the ten year period.

Table 2.1: *Top Ten Languages 1991–2001*

Language	1991 Census	Language	1996 Census	% chang e	Language	2001 Census	% change
Italian	418 804	Italian	375 752	-10.3	Italian	353 606	-5.9
Greek	285 700	Greek	269 770	-5.6	Greek	263 718	-2.3
Cantonese	162 899	Cantonese	202 270	+24.2	Cantonese	225 307	+11.4
Arabic	162 857	Arabic	177 599	+9.0	Arabic	209 371	+17.9
German	113 336	Vietnamese	146 265	+32.7	Vietnamese	174 236	+19.2

Vietnamese	110 187	German	98 808	-12.8	Mandarin	139 288	+51.3
Spanish	90 479	Mandarin	91 911	+68.4	Spanish	93 595	+2.5
Polish	66 932	Spanish	91 254	+0.9	Tagalog	70 343	+12.1
Macedonian	64 429	Macedonian	71 347	+10.7	German	99 050	-22.8
Croatian	63 084	Tagalog	70 444	+19.2	Macedonian	71.414	+0.8

Clyne’s (2005) analysis of the 2001 Census showed over 200 languages other than English were spoken in the homes of Australians. Sixty-four of these were Indigenous languages. The other community languages were brought to Australia from all corners of the globe and constitute a “rich resource for the nation” (Clyne, 2005).

The number of languages and their diversity has continued to increase. The 2006 Census indicated that 16.8% of Australian residents speak a language that was not English at home. This equated to 31.4% in Sydney, 27.9% in Melbourne and 40.7% in the Northern Territory outside Darwin where most of the Indigenous languages are concentrated.

In 2006, Italian and Greek continued to be the top two community languages, followed by Cantonese, Arabic, Vietnamese and Mandarin. The past 15 years have seen substantial decreases in the home use of a number of European languages especially German, Maltese, Italian, and Greek but far greater increases in Mandarin (305%), Hindi (206%), Persian, Korean, Filipino, and Vietnamese.

If the present trends continue, Mandarin will maintain first place nationally by 2011, with possibly Arabic overtaking Italian and Greek in second place. The number of community languages with more than 100 000 home users in Australia will probably rise from six to nine – Mandarin, Arabic, Italian, Greek, Cantonese, Vietnamese, Hindi, Filipino, and Spanish.(Clyne, 2005).

Clyne (2005) suggested that because Australia's national language and lingua franca is English; there was no one second language that needed to be learned by everyone. That gives us the chance to build on the resources we already have and teach a range of languages in our schools.

Australia has reflected this growth in multiculturalism through initiatives to foster cultural dynamism including multicultural radio stations, television and library services, interpreter services and policies to encourage the teaching of languages in primary and secondary schools. Within the Tasmanian context, formal facilities are available, but at a very minimal level, so it is through the latter process – the education system – where the greatest impact can be achieved as it is the education system that accesses the bulk of the population.

2.4.1 Impact on Schools

The changing linguistic profile of the Australian social landscape has impacted on the teaching of languages in schools and consequent policy development. The most recent has been the Ministerial Council of Education Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA, 2003) review of languages education in Australia that discovered nationally that:

- Approximately 50% of students were learning a language in mainstream schools.
- There were 146 languages being taught in both mainstream and non-mainstream school settings. This included:
 - 103 languages (including 68 Australian Indigenous Languages) taught in government, Catholic and independent schools
 - 69 languages being taught through after hours ethnic/community languages schooling.

- Six languages emerged as the most commonly taught.

These were, in order of enrolment numbers; Japanese, Italian, Indonesian, French, German and Chinese.

More than 90% of Languages learners were learning one of these languages (MCEETYA, 2005, p. 4).

The review further highlighted issues surrounding qualified teachers and school commitment in terms of time, continuity and resources, and underscored the need for stronger national collaboration if Languages education was to flourish. As a result, the *National Statement for Languages Education in Australian Schools 2005 – 2008* (MCEETYA, 2005) was developed, which is referred to throughout this review.

2.5 Languages Learning Theories

To understand the place of Languages teaching, and the role of IcLL, it is necessary to consider the dominant discourses advocated through the theories of Languages learning. Shepard (2000) makes the point that “dominant theories of the past continue to operate as the default framework affecting and driving current practices and perspectives. Belief systems of teachers, parents, and policymakers derive from these old theories” (p. 4). Thus knowledge of past theories and associated practices along with more recent conceptualisations on how children learn must be evident to enhance classroom instruction for, as Shepard cautions us, dominant theories of the past can become cemented and attain the status of received wisdoms and, as such, can assume a position that may not be challenged.

2.5.1 Behaviourist Theory

A behaviourist approach to second language learning focuses on “imitation, practice, encouragement and habit formation [whereby learning] entails the

accumulation of atomised bits of knowledge that are sequenced and ordered hierarchically” (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2008, p. 30 & 25). Thus development is a step by step process requiring learners to move through a series of stages. Focus is on observable second language acquisition without necessarily involving critical awareness of first language understandings that purposively utilise the knowledge that learners have had in learning their first language.

2.5.2 Cognitive Theory

Cognitive theories of language acquisition focus more on the learner’s capacity to “build up the knowledge system or architecture over time and, through practice; [language] becomes automatically accessible in reception and production” (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2008, p. 30). Thinking is thus incorporated to a greater degree into the process. There is the idea of active involvement and construction by the learner, and the active inclusion of existing knowledge and understandings in the construction of new understandings.

2.5.2.1 Sociocultural Perspective

Vygotsky’s sociocultural perspective highlights that all learning “is based on social interaction with more proficient others, on an interpersonal and intrapersonal plane” (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2008, p. 30). From a Languages learning viewpoint, by incorporating the zone of proximal development learning is developmentally conceived and thus is built onto prior knowledge in a structured and carefully planned manner. In general terms, Cross (2009) echoes Vygotsky in understanding human development as the “product of interaction that humans (as ‘biological beings’) engage in with the external (‘social’ and ‘cultural’) world around them” (p. 25), and,

as a result, the mind develops through the interactions with this world. Learning, according to this perspective, is

developed through social interaction with more knowledgeable or more proficient others. This social process of interaction (through language, as well as other systems and tools such as gestures, narratives, technologies) mediates the construction of knowledge and leads to the individuals development of a framework for making sense of experience that is congruent with the cultural system in which the learner and learning are located (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2008, p. 27).

As a result of these interactions learners are socialised, identities are formed and they respond, as members of that society, to situations according to the culturally expected norms.

It was from this Vygotskian stance that the IcLL framework was developed and it was this framework that underpins the framework of this thesis.

2.5.3. Links to Practice

Bell (2005) suggested that current trends in the way foreign languages are taught provide insight into a teacher's beliefs and attitudes. "A shift in foreign language teaching from traditional grammar-based approaches (a behaviourist perspective) to more communicative and interactive approaches that incorporate cognitive theoretical perspectives has brought new changes in the ways foreign languages are taught" (p. 2).

Bell (2005) suggested that examination of the impact of grammar teaching in second language acquisition assists in understanding the impact of learning theories. The grammar-translation method of the late 19th and early 20th centuries saw analysis

and rule learning as significant aspects of Languages learning. This was reflected in the way in which languages instruction occurred for much of the 1960s and 1970s in Tasmania as outlined both within this review and supported by the voices of the in-service teachers as part of the data collection process. The shift to more communicative forms of grammar acquisition has called for the updating of teaching practices and evaluation processes. This shift has provided impetus to create guidelines that reflect the qualities of a proficient Languages teacher (AFMLTA, 2005).

2.6 Intercultural Language Learning

It is within this theoretical terrain that policy makers, researchers and practitioners guided Language learning to provide opportunities for our learners to access second language learning. It is within such a variable socio-historical context that the Intercultural Language Learning (IcLL) position has emerged in Tasmania as a means of supporting Languages learning in a manner that integrates current perspectives in Languages education in Tasmania. This position will be considered at various points throughout this thesis as the major pedagogical stand through which Languages education is centred. IcLL within the state as outlined by Liddicoat, Scarino, Papadametre, and Kohler (2003) can be described as a way to develop in learners:

An understanding of their own language(s) and culture(s) in relation to an additional language and culture. It is a dialogue that allows for reaching a common ground for negotiations to take place and where variable points of view are recognised, mediated and accepted. Learners develop a reflective stance towards language and culture that leads them to an understanding of the

variable ways that language and culture affect how we see the world, how we communicate about the world and how we reflect upon seeing and communicating (p. 46).

IcLL allows learners to build upon their prior knowledge to develop their understandings and capacities in language use and to interpret “human communication and interaction in increasingly sophisticated ways as participants and observers who notice, describe, analyse and interpret ideas, experiences and feelings shared when communicating with others” (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2008, p. 34). It is therefore evident that an IcLL viewpoint relies heavily upon a sociocultural perspective as its underlying theoretical base, and it was the purpose of the researcher to use the sociocultural perspective as a position for interpreting findings.

IcLL is based upon a set of five principles as developed by Liddicoat et al. (2003). These principles provide the basis for IcLL learning within the classroom. These principles and supporting pedagogies (see Appendix A) provide the basic framework for exploring IcLL.

2.6.1 IcLL and the Study of Culture

The development of a Languages curriculum for the *Tasmanian Curriculum* incorporated the IcLL perspective whereby the strong link between Languages learning and developing cultural awareness is emphasised. This major pedagogical shift is underpinned by the belief that culture impacts greatly on the way language is structured, organised and used. This is characterised by:

the fusing of language, culture and learning into a single educative approach.

It begins with the idea that language, culture and learning are fundamentally

interrelated and places this interrelationship at the centre of the learning process. This not only reformulates what it means to teach a language, but also provides newer and richer ways of linking Languages to other learning areas. The concepts of ‘culture’, ‘language’ and ‘learning’ are therefore central to the design of the Languages curriculum, and importantly, of the curriculum as a whole (Liddicoat et al., 2003, p. 43).

Languages learning involves the learner in developing an understanding of their “own language(s) and culture(s) in relation to an additional language and culture. It is a dialogue that allows for reaching a common ground for negotiation to take place, and where variable points of views are recognised, mediated and accepted” (Liddicoat et al., 2003, p. 46). For, as Kramsch (1993) claimed, every time we speak we perform a cultural act. Approaches to teaching culture within a Languages framework have helped inform the IcLL framework and enabled practitioners to firmly place cultural studies within a pedagogically sound framework.

Within the studies of culture there can be identified four main categories of approaches (Crozet & Liddicoat, 2000; Crozet, Liddicoat & Lo Bianco, 1999) that “represent different views of the nature of culture, different levels of concern for the relationship between language and culture, the different understandings of the place of culture in languages education” (Liddicoat et al., 2003, p. 5). These are:

2.6.1.1 High Culture

The High Culture paradigm provides the most traditional approach to teaching culture. Here the cultural importance is placed on the representations of culture through examples of cultural products or artefacts selected from traditional arts fields – literature, visual art, sculpture and music. Cultural competence is gained through the ability to have an understanding of these catalogues of knowledge. These bodies

of work are seen as prestigious examples of the culture to be valued for their intrinsic worth. It is through the making of a product via reading, listening, viewing, discussing or writing that a cultural understanding will be facilitated. There is little or no relationship between the target language and the culture, nor is there any reason for there to be a relationship, for as Kramsch (1995) insisted, “much of this approach to teaching began by focussing on an idea of a universal culture transmitted through classical languages to which all educated Europeans should have access, rather than on individual cultures of individual languages” (Liddicoat et al. 2003, p. 6).

2.6.1.2 Cultural Studies

The Cultural Studies paradigm focuses on the history, geography and institutions of a culture within the target language. It relies heavily on acquiring a body of knowledge that can be recalled when required. There is no need for the participant to make contact but rather the learner “knows about the country but remains external to it” (Liddicoat et al., 2003, p. 6). Once again there is little direct link between the language and the culture as the language is used only to name particular features, events, people and places. There is a tendency here to focus on the ‘exotic’ aspects of a culture to the detriment of the lived experiences of the members of a culture.

2.6.1.3 Culture as Societal Norms

The Culture as Societal Norms paradigm focuses on providing the learner with access to information that shows how people within a cultural context are likely to function as “a result of their understandings about cultural values and expectations” (Liddicoat et al., 2003, p. 5). Once again the learner is not participating within a cultural setting but rather observing and interpreting information from outside. As

Liddicoat (2002) argues, it tends to present cultures as relatively static and homogenous and has the capacity to lead to stereotyping the target culture. This paradigm has the tendency to focus on shared practices of a group and emphasise, factually, how those practices are enacted. Once again there is the tendency to emphasise the exotic and traditional practices that can be highlighted over more contemporary ones.

None of the above three paradigms require the learner to participate within a cultural setting. Rather, learners remain within their own cultural paradigm and gently view cultural aspects through a lens of exoticism where distance is paramount and where commitment to contact is minimal.

2.6.1.4 Culture as Practice

The Culture as Practice paradigm looks more closely at the notion of culture being a set of practices that are enacted and are part of a lived experience of an individual. Interaction is part of the idea and participants develop knowledge and skills to interact in an informed manner and in a way that indicates understandings of societal norms and values. There is the continuous link between the target culture and the native culture so learners can make connections and recognise and value similarity and difference. “With this knowledge the learner needs to develop an intercultural position, which can form the basis for ongoing development of intercultural communicative skills” (Liddicoat et al., 2003, p. 6). Here culture is viewed as multifaceted and dynamic and one that is created through interaction so as there is present a notion of understanding our place within it.

2.6.2 Static and Dynamic Culture

Scarino & Liddicoat (2009) elaborate further the idea of culture as practice using two approaches to cultural representation – “dynamic and static approaches to culture” (p. 20). A static approach is represented by factual information, artefacts and institutions that are initiated as a means of introducing learners to the features of a particular culture through putatively “representative” cultural products. In this instance, a cultural lesson is “viewed as teaching pieces of information about the culture that are often separated from the other material being taught in the language. As such, the cultural component is self-contained and is very often remote from the language itself” (Liddicoat, 2002, p. 6). Learners need not interact nor be involved with the experience – there is a distinct affective divide between learner and activity and as such the activity could be performed outside of the languages class. There is no clearly “articulated link between cultural knowledge and language use, nor of the way the information taught will affect the learner as a user of the language” (Liddicoat, 2002, p. 6).

A dynamic approach, however, uses the artefacts, facts and institutions to actively engage learners in cultural learning through active participation. It involves “seeing culture as a set of practices in which people engage in order to live their lives” (Liddicoat, 2002, p. 7). These practices enable participants within the culture to understand their world, to function and communicate within it. Culture is not about “information and things rather it is about actions and understandings. In order to learn about culture it is necessary to engage with the linguistic and non-linguistic practices of the culture and to gain insights about the way of living in a particular cultural context” (Liddicoat, 2002, p. 7). Liddicoat suggested that knowing culture is not knowing information but rather knowing how to engage with the culture. This can be

achieved successfully within the IcLL classroom as there is such an integration of cultural learning and language learning.

2.6.3 Cultural Learning

It is upon these understandings and this paradigm of cultural learning that the IcLL pedagogy is built. Language learning and the integrating of cultural learning is seen as a dynamic process as compared to a static process (Liddicoat, 2002) because as Kramsch (1993) articulates:

culture in language learning not an expendable fifth skill, tacked on, so to speak, to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading and writing. It is always in the background, right from day one, ready to unsettle the good language learners when they expect it least, making evident the limitations of their hard-won communicative competence, challenging their ability to make sense of the worlds around them” (p. 46).

2.6.4 Integrating Paradigms

The above cultural paradigms can be clearly categorised as either static or dynamic approaches. The first three (High Culture, Culture as Societal Norms and Culture as Practice) represent a static view of culture whereby cultural knowledge is dealt with as a series of facts to be internalised by the learner who is situated outside of the cultural paradigm that is being discussed. For the majority of the interactions, information is taught in the first language rather than the target language. Information is learnt and competencies are assessed by the capacity of the learner to recall facts. “In each case, a cultural lesson is viewed as teaching pieces of information about the culture that are often separated from the other material taught in the language. As such, the cultural component is self-contained and is often very remote from the

language itself” (Liddicoat, 2002, p. 6). This separation of language and culture perpetuates the static view of culture learning and can just as easily be achieved outside of the languages classroom.

The Culture as Practice paradigm, however, requires the learner to be much more involved in the learning. Culture is seen as “a set of practices in which people engage in order to live their lives and which are continually created and re-created by participants in interaction” (Liddicoat, 2002, p. 7). Culture is not seen as a homogenising monolith, encompassing all language users of a particular culture but rather as a framework in which groups of people operate to understand their social world and communicate meaningfully with each other. Learning the culture is not about learning the facts and figures and information but rather it is learning about how the actions and activities of the people impact on others. In order to learn about culture it is necessary to engage with the “linguistic and non-linguistic practices of the culture and to gain insights about the way of living in a particular cultural context. Cultural knowledge is not therefore a case of knowing information about the culture; it is knowing how to engage with the culture.” (Liddicoat, 2002, p. 7). This process suggests that learners not only develop a competence to operate within the target culture but also develop empathy and sensitivity towards members of the culture and therefore “the role of culture learning is to provide a framework for productive dialogue between old and new understandings” (Carr, 1999, p. 105). It informs learners how they understand themselves and ultimately how they understand others.

2.7 Teacher Beliefs

A central theme to be explored and determined in this research is the beliefs and understandings of pre-service and in-service teachers in relation to Languages

teaching. To be able to understand the area of teacher belief, it is necessary to consider the relationship that the teacher has with the subject matter. This relationship depends largely on three aspects that will now be reviewed – teacher beliefs, teacher knowledge and teacher identity. These three areas constitute what Calderhead (1996, p. 715) labelled “teacher cognition”. This research investigated the impact of these on pre-service and in-service teacher’s construction of their knowledge and their practice and what influence this had on classroom practice.

Teacher beliefs (Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996) drive classroom actions and influence change. Beliefs are a central construct in every discipline that deals with human behaviour and learning (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). They are important considerations when understanding classroom practices as well as when conducting pre-service teacher education courses. Teacher beliefs result from the relationship between the values, goals and assumptions that teachers have about the content teaching, and the understanding of the social, cultural and institutional context in which the teaching occurs. This research explored the beliefs of in-service teachers and pre-service teachers within the Tasmanian context. An understanding of what beliefs are and how they are constructed needed to be considered in light of the above discussion as ultimately the success or otherwise of the implementation of a Languages program depends upon the translation of policy into the classroom practice of teachers. The beliefs which all teachers hold influence their perceptions and judgements, which, in turn, “affect their behaviour in the classroom, and understanding the belief structures of teachers and teacher candidates is essential in improving their professional preparation and teaching practices” (Pajares, 1992, p. 307).

According to Nespor (1987), “beliefs can be seen to be loosely bounded systems with highly variable and uncertain linkages to events, situations and knowledge systems” (p. 321). There may be no clear links to consistent tenets in determining the relevance of the beliefs to real world situations. It may be the believer’s emotional, personal or episodic experiences that have shaped and formulated such beliefs. Bryan (2003) proposed that beliefs about teaching and learning are “well established by the time prospective teachers enter teacher preparation programs... yet we know little about the content of teachers’ beliefs and the nature of the relationship between beliefs and practice’ (p. 835). Beliefs play a central role in how pre-service teachers interpret “pedagogical knowledge, conceptualise teaching tasks, and subsequently enact their teaching decisions” (Bryan, 2003, p. 836).

2.7.1 Definition of Belief

It is not an easy task to define belief, but there are certain characteristics of beliefs that can be seen as guides. Richardson (1996) sees beliefs as being thought of as “psychologically held understandings, premises or propositions about the world that are felt to be true” (p. 103). They (beliefs) are a “subset of a group of constructs that name, define and describe the structure of mental states that are thought to drive a person’s actions” (p. 102) and may be perceived as “conceptions, perspectives, perceptions, orientations, theories and stances” (p. 102). From this it can be suggested that beliefs are an intrinsic part of a person’s identity.

2.7.2 Assumptions about Beliefs

Pajares (1992, pp. 324–326) contributed significantly to the field of belief research by synthesising many of the findings and providing some fundamental assumptions about beliefs. They include notions that:

- Beliefs are formed early and tend to persevere against contradictions arising from reason, time and experience. Beliefs are connected and may be prioritized according to those connections.
- Beliefs are acquired through cultural transmissions thus enabling individuals to understand the world and themselves. Beliefs therefore are not haphazard or arbitrary thoughts on which we draw to analyse and make judgements but rather a response to a predetermined, internalised structure.
- There is a strong link between knowledge and beliefs but new interpretations of phenomena are filtered through the lens of belief.

Abelson (1979) proposed that the organisation of knowledge is through semantic networks, whilst belief systems rely on episodic storage. Nespor (1987) saw episodic storage created through personal experiences and that critical episodes in a person's life can heavily influence episodic storage and thus influence beliefs. In this research, pre-service teachers drew very heavily on their experiences of learning a foreign language to form their underpinning and often persistent beliefs that informed their present stance and ultimately their classroom practice. These beliefs were an integral part of the pre-service teachers' psyche and were critical factors in shaping future teaching practices.

2.7.3 Pre-service Teachers and Beliefs

Kagan (1992) argued that pre-service teachers enter programs of teacher education with “personal beliefs about teaching, images of good teachers, images of self as teacher and memories of themselves as pupils in the classroom” (p. 142). These personal images and beliefs generally remain unchanged by a pre-service program and follow candidates into the classroom. For professional growth to occur Kagan suggested, “prior beliefs and images must be modified and reconstructed” (p. 142). It can be concluded therefore that part of the researcher’s role in working with pre-service teachers was to listen to their stories surrounding their Languages learning. This helped to inform and perhaps guide the construction of tasks and learning sequences that would assist in developing and reshaping beliefs because, as clearly articulated by Bryan (2003) “prospective and novice teachers’ beliefs may be amenable to change as a result of instruction and experience” (p. 836).

Pajares (1992) indicated that the earlier a belief is integrated into a structure the more difficult it is to alter. Newly acquired beliefs are most open to change. Thus with pre-service teachers their beliefs regarding Languages learning stem from their experiences as Languages learners, mainly from school. They have listened and observed their teachers and through this ‘apprenticeship of observation’ (Lortie, as cited in Buchmann, n.d., p. 152) have internalised a belief system around the teaching of languages as well as beliefs about teaching. This system can strongly influence perceptions, behaviour and the pre-service teacher’s capacity to make adjustments to their beliefs. Continuing research in this vein, Bailey (1996, cited in Borg, 2003) suggested that the teacher factor in general was more important to learners than were the materials or methodology used.

It was assumed here that the pre-service teacher was able to view the process reflectively. From informal discussions with pre-service teachers, it was more likely to be a crucial experience or a past teacher who was influential and provided pre-service teachers with their episodic memory, which may later, develop into a model for teaching practices.

Nespor (1987, p. 320) suggested that “critical episodes or experiences gained in early teaching careers were important to present practices”. Whilst this idea was in relation to in-service teachers, there was a connection for those working with pre-service teachers. The discussion revealed the influence of the teacher in reshaping beliefs for pre-service teachers and beginning teachers and, as pre-service teachers are at the beginning of their learning journey, pre-service courses should be influential in assisting to reshape and redefine those beliefs.

Green (1971) suggested that a belief system has the capacity to change. He saw beliefs as having two qualities – primary and derivative. Primary beliefs were those that do not rely upon other beliefs to exist. Derivative beliefs were derived from primary beliefs and had the ability to change. In relation to the pre-service teachers’ beliefs regarding Languages learning and teaching, this relationship between primary and derivative beliefs was an important consideration because, Green suggested, through the process of teaching, beliefs may change.

2.7.4 Influence of Beliefs

Beliefs are influential in selecting the cognitive tools with which to interpret, plan and make decisions regarding tasks. “Beliefs are a central construct in every discipline which deals with human behaviour and learning. Teachers’ beliefs influence their consciousness, teaching attitude, teaching methods and teaching policies” (Altan, 2006, p. 45). Held beliefs will influence the way teachers teach and

ultimately the way learners learn. Teachers and pre-service teachers' personal and educational beliefs around Languages teaching will have an effect on the teaching methodologies and practices that are brought to the classroom. Borg (2003) referred to this as the “unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe and think” and saw this as “teacher cognition...an inclusive term used to embrace the complexity of teacher's mental lives” (pp. 81–86). Borg (2003) identified four key questions that needed consideration. Those being:

- What do teachers have cognitions about?
- How do these cognitions develop?
- How do they interact with teacher learning?
- How do they interact with classroom practice? (Borg, 2003, p. 81).

Borg (2003) suggested that teachers have cognitions about all aspects of their work. These cognitions continued to “influence practice and inform cognitions about teaching and learning which continued to exert an influence on teachers throughout their careers” (p. 81). The relevance and the importance of recognising and accepting prior beliefs of all teachers was central to their ongoing development as teachers and learners as “teacher cognitions and practices were mutually informing, with contextual factors playing an important role in determining the extent to which teachers were able to implement instruction congruent with cognitions” (Borg, 2003, p. 81).

Holec (1981, p. 27 cited in Horwitz, 1988) argued that Languages learners “must go through a sort of ‘deconditioning’ to rid themselves of preconceived notions and prejudices which would be likely to interfere with their language learning process”. This could also be relevant to teachers of Languages as many in-service teachers and pre-service teachers have preconceived notions and prejudices which

have developed as a result of prior experiences which may indeed affect their teaching. The issue to be considered here is who decides which beliefs are valid – is it the training institution, the Department of Education or the profession? For this study, it is the policies and practices of the Tasmanian Education Department that underpins the decision.

The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) was designed, implemented and reported by Horwitz (1988), and provided the researcher with some insights in to the beliefs of university pre-service languages learners. It highlighted the fact that Languages learners held a “range of beliefs with varying degrees of validity” (Horwitz, 1988, p. 293). It could be seen therefore that to examine beliefs about Languages teaching does imply a range of variables that are presented by individual participants. Factors such as “self-concept and identity, self efficacy, personality” (Bernat & Gvozdenko, n.d. p. 2) can be intertwined in the development of beliefs, as can be teacher’s “conception of subject matter” (Nespor, 1987, p. 319).

2.8 Teacher Knowledge

To understand the process of teaching fully it was necessary to interrogate the knowledge of the teacher, because it was through this investigation that the process of teaching could be better understood. Exploring teacher knowledge helped to draw attention to the position of the teacher in the teaching episode rather than the learner. This research was particularly interested in investigating the knowledge that teachers held in order to teach – how their content and pedagogical knowledge impacted upon their teaching of Languages.

Pajares (1992, p. 325) suggested that “as processes and constructs, knowledge and beliefs were fundamentally connected, but the potent affective, evaluative and

episodic nature of beliefs make them a filter through which new phenomena are interpreted”. This relationship is a complex and often controversial one, but for this thesis it was necessary to identify that relationship and specify the subtle difference and interconnectedness of the two. For this study, it was appropriate to recognise that knowledge was understood to have developed through a constructivist framework whereby knowledge was gained through interaction between the environment, cognitive processes, and emotional, cultural and social experiences. Knowledge was constructed through the “personal experiences” (Connelly & Clandinin, 1999) of the participants. To the individual, new phenomena or experiences were assessed, classified and understood through the filter of pre-existing beliefs. This filtering system was a powerful one as it shaped the individual’s construction of knowledge resulting in actions and reactions that helped define that person.

Fenstermacher (1994) provided the researcher with an article that clearly outlined many of the issues around the conceptions of teacher knowledge. The article provided insights into research and often conflicting ideas about how knowledge was gained and how knowledge was used by teachers. He asked four questions in his quest to scrutinise the literature and to assist in his epistemological examination (p. 5).

These questions were:

- What is known about effective teaching?
- What do teachers know?
- What knowledge is essential for teaching?
- Who produces knowledge about teaching ?

Through the development of the article the reader was transported and challenged to consider many aspects associated with the idea of knowledge, but as Fenstermacher concludes “the critical objective of teacher knowledge research is

...for teachers to be knowers of the known” (p. 50). There may be alternatives to meeting this objective, but a critical challenge for teacher knowledge research was “not simply one of showing us what teachers think, believe, or have opinions but what they know and, more importantly, that they know that they know” (p. 51).

Zembylas (2007) proposed that emotional knowledge was an important aspect of a teacher’s knowledge and needed to be fully considered in exploring the contributions of pedagogical, content and curriculum knowledge held by teachers. Teacher knowledge, suggests Zembylas, could be referred to as ‘knowledge ecology’ consisting of systems of knowledge that have many sources and forms, but form a ‘symbiotic relationship’ to allow for teaching and learning. Emotional knowledge was an element of that system.

Recognising and developing an understanding of the role that emotional factors play in the development of the teacher’s knowledge was, according to Zembylas (2007), critical in conceptualising teaching as more than a series of cognitions. Teaching was a complex and dynamic process that utilised the teacher’s past experiences, beliefs about learning, teaching and children, content, pedagogical and curricular knowledge as well as their emotional responses to their immediate social, political, interpersonal, physical and temporal environment. It was these ‘teacher’s professional knowledge landscapes’ (Connelly & Clandinin, 1999) that influenced teachers knowing and doing. Zembylas described the junction between content knowledge and emotional knowledge as “interrelations” (2007) of “issues about content, curriculum and pedagogy that cannot be separated from emotional issues” (Zembylas, 2007, p. 356). The affective response that a teacher may have to a learning area, therefore, may play a role in shaping the teacher’s beliefs about teaching the subject. What was important, suggested Zembylas, was that teachers have the capacity to recognise, reflect and consider their emotional responses in order to develop effective pedagogy for teaching the subject (2007, p. 360).

Through the development of teacher knowledge we are looking for better informed educators. Fenstermacher's article, from a philosophical perspective, was located within a formal notion of knowledge. He indicated, however, that it may be more useful to examine practical knowledge as being more relevant and important in advancing the practice of teaching.

2.8.1 Practical knowledge

Teachers' knowledge, in particular, can be identified strongly as practical knowledge. Borg (2003) sees teachers' practical knowledge as that which encompasses general knowledge, beliefs and thinking which can be identified in practice and shaped by background experiences.

Elbaz (1983) conceptualised that practical knowledge was the nature of knowledge which teachers held. This was identified as "knowledge of self, the milieu of teaching, subject matter, curriculum development, and instruction" (p. 5).

Additionally, she contends that such knowledge was represented in practice in three ways:

- As rules of practice, which are briefly formulated statements of what to do or how to do it in a particular situation.
- As practical principles – more inclusive and less explicit formulations in which the teachers' purposes... are more clearly evident.
- As images – brief, descriptive, and sometimes metaphoric statements which seem to capture some essential aspect of the teacher's perception of him/her self, their teaching, their situation, in the classroom of their subject matter which serves to organise knowledge in the relevant areas (pp. 133-137).

In this instance, Elbaz was seeking to understand what her participant knew and/or believed about the work she was involved in. Elbaz (cited in Fenstermacher, p. 10) discovered how her participant “carried out instructional tasks, resolves conflicts, adjudicates competing considerations, and connects aspirations to plans and then to instructional performance”. Elbaz maintained that this was a teacher’s practical knowledge while Clandinin (1992) provided the following explanation of practical knowledge:

We see personal practical knowledge as in a person’s past experience in the person’s present mind and body and in the person’s future plans and actions. It is knowledge that reflects the individual’s prior knowledge and acknowledges the contextual nature of the teacher’s knowledge. It is a kind of knowledge carved out of, and shaped by, situations; knowledge that is constructed and reconstructed as we live out our stories and retell and relive them through the processes of reflection (p. 127).

Practical knowledge, asserted Elbaz (1983) “encompasses first hand experience of students’ learning styles, interests, needs, strengths and difficulties, and a repertoire of instructional techniques and classroom management skills” (p. 5). Connelly and Clandinin (1999) saw teacher’s practical knowledge as being placed in “the teacher’s past experience, in the teacher’s present mind and body, and in the future plans and actions” (p. 1). Practical knowledge can be shaped by teaching experience, professional learning, knowledge of the discipline, the context of the school, and more personal qualities, for example, the capacity of the teacher to reflect, consider and to seek.

Meijer, Verloop & Beijaard (1999) reviewed various studies based around teacher practical knowledge and concluded the following characteristics:

- It is personal; each teacher's practical knowledge is to some extent unique.
- It is contextual, defined in and adapted to the classroom situation.
- It is based on experience, indicating that it originates in, and develops through, experience in teaching.
- It is mainly tacit; teachers are not often, by definition, not able to articulate their knowledge.
- It guides teacher practice.
- It is constant related, connected with the subject that is taught.
- Teaching is seen as a professional activity thus assuming that there is a body of knowledge to share (Chou, p. 5).

Finally, Fenstermacher (1994) described practical knowledge as knowledge generated by teachers as a result of experiences and as a result of their immediate reflections on those experiences – it was the knowledge of teachers as distinct from the more formal knowledge for teachers.

Elbaz (1991, p. 1 cited in Freeman 2002) developed this notion further by suggesting that research into teacher knowledge evolved into three broad areas of inquiry – “Teacher thinking, the culture of teaching, and the personal, practical knowledge of teachers”.

Such activity has led to several constructs about practical knowledge – ‘mental lives’, ‘hidden pedagogy’, ‘apprenticeship of observation’, ‘personal experiences’ – all provide a rich fabric of research that implies that context is a central part of teacher knowledge growth. They all suggested that personal and cultural histories, experiences, perceptions of social situations and possible perceptions of future social understandings all were woven together to form the fabric of teacher's

practical knowledge. “Context becomes more than the physical space of the classroom and schooling which teachers practice teaching skills. It assumed a virtual dimension through the socialising power of the teacher’s past and present experiences and communities” (Freeman, 2002, p. 7). This idea helped to close the theory/practice gap that many students see as an issue. There should not be an issue of lack of relevance between theory and practice; rather this idea promoted connectedness and assimilation of social contexts of professional education providing the teacher with a richer avenue through which knowledge could be accessed.

2.8.2 Languages Teachers and Practical Knowledge

The above discussion can be very clearly linked to the teaching of languages. The influence of prior experiences brought to the teaching and learning process has been recognised as significant. (Borg, 2003; Elbaz, 1981; 1983; Meijer, Verloop & Beijaard, 1999). In conclusion of this research finding, Ariogul (2007) concluded that there are three background sources that affect Languages teachers’ practical knowledge. These are “language teacher’s prior experiences as language learners, their prior experiences as language teachers and their professional coursework” (p. 171).

This has implications for teacher education within the Languages area. As the researcher determined the relevance and importance of practical knowledge in the development of knowledge then a central challenge will be to develop in pre-service teachers the capacity to use reflective practice to understand and to form the basis of further personal growth and development as Languages teachers. Input will need to provide the learner with the capacity to use the words to talk about what is done and be able to reflect on those deeds. Freeman (2002) saw teacher education as serving

two functions – “to teach the skills of reflectivity and to provide the discourse and vocabulary that can serve participants in renaming their experience” (p. 11).

Mann (2005) suggested that teacher knowledge is a complex and multifaceted issue, but consists of four aspects – “received knowledge, personal knowledge, experiential knowledge and local knowledge” (p. 106) and it is the constant reshaping of knowledge from the interplay of these four aspects that gives new understandings.

Another aspect worth considering here was the relationship between the pre-service teacher and the practising teacher. In the development of a sound practical knowledge base, interactions with in-service teachers will provide the pre-service teacher with an ‘on the job’, contextual perspective. This research provided the opportunity for the researcher to have contact with both in-service and pre-service teachers with the view of determining similarities and differences in beliefs and knowledge and how the profession can begin to provide better support for both groups of teachers. Well crafted professional learning experiences will allow for the integration of pre-service teachers into the classroom and connect new and experienced teachers. It is the idea of ongoing professional growth that is considered here as the author sees professional learning as an ongoing, continuous aspect of effective professional delivery.

2.9 Teacher Identity

The development of the teacher’s knowledge and belief system about teaching was inextricably linked to the development of teacher identity. Whilst this was not clearly been identified as yet, it was important to consider this issue in relation to teacher knowledge and beliefs.

Day, Kington, Stobart & Sammons (2006) saw identity as “a key influencing factor on a teacher’s sense of purpose, self efficacy, motivation, commitment, job satisfaction and effectiveness’ (p. 601) and saw identity as being crucial in managing reform agendas and threats to beliefs that may be imposed on teachers by policy makers and government agencies. It was the conflict between the external influences and the capacity to pursue valued beliefs that could cause impact on teacher identity.

Teacher identity could be as a result of the construction of the development of the technical side of teaching, but it could also be as a result of the “interaction between the personal experiences of teachers and the social, cultural and institutional environment in which they function on a daily basis (Sleegers & Kelchtermans, 1999, p. 579 cited in Day et al. 2006). This suggested that there are inevitable connections between the teacher as a professional and the teacher as a personal individual because, as James-Wilson (2001) clearly demonstrates:

The ways in which teachers form their professional identities are influenced by both how they feel about themselves and how they feel about their students. This professional identity helps them to position or situate themselves in relation to their students and to make appropriate and effective adjustments in their practice and their beliefs about, and engagement with, students (p. 29).

Kelchtermans (1993, pp. 449-450) proposed that the teacher’s professional identity evolves over time and consists of five interrelated parts:

- Self image, how teachers describe themselves through their career stories.
- Self esteem, the evolution of self as a teacher, how good or otherwise as defined by self or others.

- Job motivation, what makes teachers choose, remain committed to or leave the job.
- Task perception, how teachers define their jobs.
- Future perspective, teachers' expectations for the future development in their jobs.

In relation to pre-service teachers, a study by Nias (1989) of English primary school teachers identified that early career teachers did not necessarily make the strong link between the personal and the professional self until well into their second decade of teaching, thus the incorporation of the professional role and the personal role into the identity of themselves as teachers was quite extended. Nias' study identified, but not clearly articulated, the five parts as outlined by Kelchtermans (1993) and provided a foundational study into the notion of teacher identity. Nias' research reflected a belief that identity is relatively stable and derived from a core set of values, beliefs and practices.

On the other hand, Cooper and Olsen (1996) believed that identity is in essence unstable, with stability influenced by their own 'biographical projects' a change within the working context or both. In pre-service teachers, the self "is not yet substantive but constructed through an ongoing process of experience which is temporal and grounded in daily living; and second that meaning is created by individuals through process of interaction, where the self is neither fixed nor standing still, but is rather an ever changing entity"(p. 154). This notion suggested and is supported by Cooper and Olsen, that pre-service teachers' identity could be affected by a series of tensions that exist between their knowledge of children and curriculum as developed through their experiences and that which is presented to them as pedagogical approaches and rational perspectives. In a sense, the pre-service teachers'

professional world is being created and their identities are influencing the shaping of that professional identity. This shaping and development will be an ongoing process for the emerging professional for some considerable time.

In an article titled *Exploring the Development of Teacher Identity*, Travers (2002) provided a clear picture of one student's journey in the development of identity. This article clearly articulated, through story, the affective elements that came into play as well as the cognitive processes that were employed to extend pedagogical understandings. Travers' study suggested that "pre-service teachers benefit from encouragement and guidance in understanding the construction, development and importance of their teaching identities" (p. 93). As teacher educators it is important therefore to "use practices that not only encourage pre-service teachers to explore their prior knowledge, beliefs and experience, but then challenge these beliefs and practices to foster growth and learning as a teacher" (Travers, 2002, p. 95).

For the pre-service teacher and the early career teacher the development and maintenance of identity is of high importance in the development of themselves as a teacher. They will define themselves through their past experiences, their personal and social histories and by their beliefs and values about what and who they want to be as a teacher in contexts that do not remain static and are influenced by the political, economic, social and cultural environments in which they function. Castells (1997) suggests that:

For a given individual, or for a collective actor, there may be a plurality of identities. Yet, such a plurality is a source of stress and contradiction in both self representation and social action...Identities are sources of meaning for the actors themselves, and by themselves, constructed through a process of

individuation. The construction of identities uses building materials from history, from geography, from biology, from productive and reproductive institutions, from collective memory and from personal fantasies, from power apparatuses and religious revelations (pp. 6–7).

2.10 Conclusion

This chapter has examined aspects of the research that impact upon the successful completion of the thesis.

Firstly the literature, relevant to this study, surrounding Languages teaching and learning has been examined. These considered, planned national activities have bought a national focus to Languages education around Australia and have therefore provided the Languages learning area with a strong national voice and a common approach that has the capacity to give strength to its members. In Tasmania, this has meant that teachers have the ability to be part of a much greater cohort of like minded thinkers providing the opportunity for a much more cohesive approach to Languages learning and teaching.

Secondly has been the examination of the literature surrounding beliefs and knowledge of both in-service and pre-service teachers and the analysis of the literature suggested that beliefs are an important factor in shaping what teachers do in the classroom. Through exposure to quality experiences, pre-service teachers' beliefs can be reshaped, modified and challenged. With appropriate ongoing professional learning support, beginning teachers can be supported with the practical knowledge to participate fully in providing effective learning strategies in the Languages classroom.

The following chapter focuses quite distinctly on the Tasmanian context and provides an overview of the state of Languages so as to give clarity to the data analysis and discussion chapters.

Chapter 3

Languages Teaching in Tasmania

3.1 Introduction

The pathway to the above position locally and nationally has been protracted and sometimes structurally, logistically and attitudinally difficult to navigate. Languages teaching and learning has been part of the school curriculum for many years. The discourse surrounding Languages teaching is also based around ascendant perceptions of how we construct ourselves as a nation. Our socio linguistic history can be seen as being distinguished by tensions between the cultural dominance of English and our growing multiculturalism, and thus growing multilingualism.

For much of our early history, assimilation discourses were prevalent, and informed the policies that dominated Australia in respect of both the Indigenous population and immigrants. Such discourses betrayed a deep distrust and even fear of that which was 'different', and sharp demarcations between those who were considered 'foreign', 'alien' and the like, were frequently given expression in the notion of 'them' and 'us', where the us encompassed the norm and all the privilege and power of those who fell within its range. It was expected that immigrants would learn, use and operate within English and discard their first language or at least delegate it to family occasions and 'special' public celebrations. The notion of English imperialism was supported and outwardly encouraged through our policies and thus shaped our societal expectations.

3.2 National Languages Policies

To understand the local context it is first necessary to look at events at the national level and determine the influence of such developments on the local context.

The 1970s saw multicultural policies beginning to have a greater influence on public opinion and consequently policy makers. More recently, within the last 30 years, public debates have centred around immigration policies, determining our place in the Asia-Pacific region. Most recently, growing international terrorism ‘threats’, suggested that these policies were inevitably interpreted, implemented and negotiated in the context of broad geopolitical ideologies that were centred around ‘territories’ and the boundaries within which identities were formed and maintained. The tensions between the ideologies of boundary maintenance and the discourse of inclusivity and diversity are also reflected in the discourses around Languages teaching and learning.

A comprehensive national languages policy inquiry led by a bipartisan committee of federal parliamentarians saw the development of guiding principles reflected in the *National Policy on Languages* (NPL), (Lo Bianco, 1987). This document provided recommendations for Languages, English as a Second Language (ESL) teaching and Aboriginal Education. “It presented a rationale for maintaining and/or developing bilingualism in all Australians, based on a balance of social equity, cultural enrichment and economic strategies” (Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations, n.d. p. 1).

The 1990s saw a shift in pedagogical discourse – from the multicultural perspective to strategies that supported economic development and social awareness. The Australian Languages and Literacy Policy (ALLP, 1991) was developed, supporting previous NPL guiding principles. There were four identified key goals of the ALLP:

- All Australians should develop and maintain effective literacy in English to enable them to participate in Australian society.
- The learning of languages other than English must be substantially expanded and improved to enhance educational outcomes and communication within both the Australian and the international community.
- Those Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander languages which are still transmitted should be maintained and developed, and those that are not should be recorded where appropriate.
- Language services, provided by interpreters and translators, the print and electronic media and libraries, should be expended and improved (DEEWR, n.d. p. 1).

There were ten priority languages identified: Chinese (Mandarin), French, German, Indonesian, Japanese, Modern Greek, Italian, Korean, Spanish and Aboriginal languages.

It was the *National Asian Languages and Studies in Australian Schools* (NALSAS) strategy (1994–2002) that provided the link between state and federal jurisdictions in terms of agreements in order to develop students' capacity to interact internationally but especially within the Asian context. Given that all education authorities entered into bilateral agreements with the Commonwealth and agreed to contribute equally from their own resources, enabled a more unified national approach to be possible.

In 2002, a national approach to languages education was to be a priority of the Federal government. This resulted in the *National Statement for Languages Education in Australian Schools 2005–2008* (MCEETYA, 2005) statement. This statement had the endorsement of all Federal and State Education Ministers and:

...addresses the policy vacuum that has existed in languages since the latter part of the 90s by articulating the purpose and nature of languages education, identifying the key issues and setting directions for the next four years. The areas for action are: teaching and learning; teacher supply and retention; professional learning; program development; quality assurance; and advocacy, promotion and languages learning (Tognini, 2006 p. 1).

The National Statement for Languages Education in Australian Schools 2005–2008 (MCEETYA, 2005) identified and developed the following projects in order to successfully implement the Statement:

- Project 1: National coordination and quality assurance of ethnic schools.
- Project 2: Enhancing the quality of Indigenous languages programmes through improved training and support for speakers of Australian Indigenous languages working in Australian schools.
- Project 3: Investigation into the state and nature of languages education in Australian schools, including the policy drivers and inhibitors that help or hinder the effective delivery of languages programmes.
- Project 4: Development of a nationally co-ordinated promotion strategy.
- Project 5: Review of teacher education for languages teachers.
- Project 6: Development of a Guide to the Teaching, Learning and Assessing of Languages in the 21st Century developed.
- Project 7: ‘Leading Languages’ – a professional learning program for school principals and leaders.
- Project 8 – National Seminar on Languages Education for Key Stakeholders (MCEETYA, 2005).

It has been through this consistent and collaborative approach that Languages education has, at a national level, had a voice and a capacity to inform curriculum development.

3.3 National Languages Curriculum

This statement has been supported by ongoing consistent curriculum development. The Australian Language Levels (ALL) Guidelines (Vale, Scarino & McKay, 1995) provided teachers with “a common basis for planning, implementing, assessing and evaluating language learning and to reconcile different language curriculum practices in a principled and eclectic way with insights gained from developments in the field of applied linguistics” (p. 10). The philosophy from these guidelines has been supported and carried into curriculum development that has occurred since the statement publication.

The Intercultural Language Teaching and Learning in Practice (ILTLP) program was also implemented under the auspices of the Australian Government Quality Teaching Program and provided support for all teachers to gain deeper understandings about Intercultural Language Learning through professional learning activities and classroom based action research in a supported environment.

3.4 The Tasmanian Context

In 1996, the introduction and support of the NALSAS funding to Australian states and territories saw a resurgence of Languages teaching in primary schools around the country. The funding in Tasmania allowed for the development of teaching and learning programs for identified languages, professional development for teachers, support for resources and the capacity for schools to begin the journey of integrating this recognised learning area in to the curriculum.

3.4.1. History of Languages Teaching

The word resurgence is apposite in respect of recent Australian developments in Languages education, because though languages had been taught in some primary schools prior to NALSAS funding, there was not an organised curriculum nor was there a coherent plan for the sustainability of primary school Languages education. Languages teaching was the domain of high schools and, only occurred in primary school, if there was a person within the school or in the neighbouring high school who facilitated and supported the program. Resources were limited and often inappropriate for the younger learner. In April 1966, it was noted that the problems of teaching a language at Grade 5 and 6 were “certainly different from those encountered in High School classes and if we have not always found solutions to these problems we are slowly coming to the recognition of what the problems are” (Brooker, 1966, p. 12). Brooker’s article supported the notion of Languages teaching in primary schools as the trial assisted in the “acceleration on the average of at least one year’s achievement by the first class to enter high school from the experimental groups and still more acceleration is expected from succeeding classes.” (Brooker, 1966, p. 12), but failed to offer an appropriate curriculum that instigated primary languages classes.

The issue of problems associated with younger learners was reported in November 1966. It was decided to trial a special language course curriculum that the Nuffield Foundation in England was trialling specifically for primary aged children. The course eliminated many of the more traditional aspects of language learning – grammatical rules, in particular – were removed in the early stages. The ‘chalk and talk’ model, relying heavily on textbooks and blackboard work, was replaced by games, acting, cartoons, flannel graphs and tape recordings of songs, and conversations made in French schools. The course involved daily lessons of half hour

duration, involved speaking and reading and the learning of cultural information and institutions. There was no evidence of the results of this trial, so it is difficult to determine its worth within the Tasmanian context.

Teaching theories, for high school learners, were based on the behaviourist model and saw languages as being a “set of firmly fixed habits, of three main kinds, that are involved all the time and simultaneously in language behaviour:

- pronunciation habits (the sound, rhythms and melodies)
- grammatical habits (phase forming and sentence forming)
- vocabulary habits (understanding and using particular words and phases that go with particular meanings). (New French Seminars, 1965, p. 188).

Linked to this were five principles involved in the successful teaching of languages – “recognition, imitation, repetition, variation, and selection” (New French Seminars, 1965, p. 188).

Teachers were expected to utilise the textbooks, tapes and the newly developed language laboratories to assist with learning opportunities. Language acquisition by learning vocabulary, grammar structures and practising oral/aural structures played an important role in language acquisition. The Nuffield work, while supporting similar notions, provided a much more appropriate interpretation of requirements for younger learners.

3.4.2. Primary School Languages Program

Development in primary languages did not progress significantly for the next 30 years. This trend was evident nationally as a national survey in 1987 indicated only 10% of primary schools taught a language other than English (Lo Bianco, 1987, p. 26). The Tasmanian draft Languages policy of 1987 referred only to secondary

schools and those primary schools that ran a Languages program in most cases failed because “the program failed to live up to the high expectations held, due mainly to the lack of adequate consultation with Principals involved before the scheme was introduced, to the fact that it was necessary to use itinerant teachers and to the poor liaison between the primary and receiving high schools” (Lo Bianco, 1987, p. 244).

In 1994 the Council of Australian Governments (COAG) endorsed a report it commissioned in 1992 entitled *Asian Languages and Australia’s Economic Future*. The report, often referred to as the Rudd report, clearly articulated the need to expand the teaching of Asian languages in schools. It promoted a 15 year plan that would allow us to “produce an Asia-literate generation fluent and familiar with ‘export’ Asian languages and cultures” (Henderson, 2002). Thus we see discourse surrounding languages education now being clearly placed into the service of the interests/goals of certain politico-economic directives.

Languages was one of the eight learning areas recognised by the Adelaide Declaration (MCEETYA, 1999) and adopted by all Australian states and territories and supported by the development of national statements and profiles. The federally funded NALSAS project provided the impetus for Australian schools to include languages as part of the primary curriculum.

In Tasmanian government schools, this was reflected by the establishment of a policy statement that provided the chance to learn French, German, Indonesian or Japanese between Years 3 and 10. There was to be a guaranteed pathway from primary to secondary and senior secondary level, within a cluster of schools, for learning one of these languages. Languages “pertinent to small groups such as community languages, Aboriginal languages and Auslan received system support where appropriate.” (Department of Education, n.d.).

In the policy, Languages learning was seen to be an integral part of the curriculum and an important aspect of a balanced curriculum. There was to be access to a pathway of Languages learning with children being ensured continuous same Languages learning from Years 3 to 12. This was a major ‘mind shift’ for our schools, but support through teacher training in Languages, professional development for class teachers and specialist Languages teachers, curriculum and materials development, advice and support for schools and communities, extra staffing and a technology package enabled schools to have the capacity to incorporate a Languages program that could be ongoing, sustainable and, hopefully, embedded within the school culture.

Thus, in Tasmania, Languages learning was not a totally familiar domain but the teaching of a second language had been undertaken for a considerable time, in various forms and with various levels of success. However, with NALSAS, the rationale for including Languages in the curriculum was based on a different rationale than had historically been perceived. Languages learners were expected to make comparisons, recognise patterns, and view their first language from a different viewpoint. Languages learners had an opportunity to develop metalinguistic awareness, which has the capacity to enhance cognitive development and literacy.

3.4.3 Intercultural Languages Learning in Tasmania

Intercultural Language Learning (IcLL), strongly supported by the Department of Education, was an emerging pedagogy that had “strong connections to inquiry thinking, required the learners to adopt an inquiring state of mind, to notice and question assumptions and to reorient themselves in relation to others” (Department of Education, 2006b, n.p.) A critical dimension of this pedagogy was that language could not be separated from its social and cultural context.

The *National Statement for Languages Education in Australian Schools 2005–2008* (MCEETYA, 2005. p. 3), provides a clear insight into the way in which intercultural language learning can develop capabilities. They include:

- communicating, interacting, and negotiating within and across languages and cultures
- understanding their own and others' languages, thus extending their range of literacy skills, including skills in English literacy
- understanding themselves and others, and understanding and using diverse ways of knowing, being and doing
- developing their cognitive skills through thinking critically and analytically, solving problems, and making connections in their learning.

It was within the *Essential Learnings* that Languages education would be sit.

3.4.4 Languages and the *Essential Learnings*

The *Essential Learnings* was designed to provide the Tasmanian government school system, as well as the Catholic and independent Schools, with a blueprint for the future of education within the state. It provided educators with a greater capacity to focus on what was important, relevant and central to the curriculum as well as highlighting what was required when formulating teaching and learning sequences that would offer maximum learning opportunities. It provided a vehicle through which interactions could occur and for curriculum to be devised. Unfortunately, the practical application was not as smooth and many schools felt isolated and unheard when raising concerns around implementation.

Supposedly, changes to curriculum occur as a result of developing theories and practices and the changing patterns of a society. The changes that have occurred within Tasmania, within Australia and internationally were as a result of this changing environment and the growing need for communities to “assist members to achieve high quality lifelong learning... that contributes to personal development, sustainable economic growth and social cohesion” (OECD, 2005). With change comes the responsibility to inform, to involve and to listen to the participants for whom change is occurring.

Within the context of Tasmania, there were two particular events which led to the development of the *Essential Learnings*. In 2000, the Tasmanian government released a vision for education in *Learning Together: Draft proposals for education, training and information into the 21st century* (Department of Education, 2000). This document was then referred to a Community Leaders’ Group who were responsible for overseeing the implementation of another state government initiative - the *Tasmania Together* (Department of Education, 2001) document – a document outlining a 20 year vision for Tasmania – which consisted of 24 goals providing a vision for Tasmania’s future community, cultural, democratic, economic and environmental development and sustainability.

Tasmania Together initially had a strong community support base as the government provided an opportunity for all Tasmanians to have input through contact with community organisations, public meetings and the capacity to provide individual/group submissions. The body was managed by the Community Leaders’ Group. Within the 24 identified goals and 212 benchmarks, there were many implications for education and training. Consequently, *Learning Together* had a

supported platform where change was inevitable and where support from both community and government was expected.

Within the *Learning Together* document, goals and principles were articulated for education. These were supported by a series of key principles which served to underline the government's commitment to implement the policy. At the time of launch, the Minister for Education offered the following statement to the Department of Education "I believe the size and quality of Tasmania's education system means we are ideally placed to make changes that are necessary to ensure a world class education, training and information systems" (Department of Education, 2000, p. iii).

As a result of the publication of *Learning Together* and *Tasmania Together* documents, the *Essential Learnings* evolved in a climate dominated by the notion of the importance of lifelong learning, the need for Tasmania to have a world class educational system, recognition of the rapid communication of information and the importance of education in the creation of a "more equitable, cohesive and inclusive society." (Department of Education, 2000, p. 3)

The Tasmanian Department of Education established a Curriculum Consultation team. Their brief was to determine, in light of *Learning Together*, what our educational system should look like in the 21st century. There was wide consultation and collaboration, with teachers, school leaders, and the community having the opportunity to have input into the Curriculum Consultation team's scoping phase. Sessions were held for parents, children's services professionals and members of the wider community to canvas their views and expectations. In December 2000, the Minister for Education launched the Values and Purposes Statement. These Values and Purposes were the first step in developing the 'Essential' elements of

Thinking, Communicating, Personal Futures, Social Responsibility and World Futures as the framework for the teaching and learning.

In 2001, 20 schools were involved in the development and trial of the new curriculum. Rigorous monitoring occurred and another 22 schools were involved in 2002. *Essential Learnings Framework 1* (Department of Education, 2002) was launched in 2002. 2003 saw another 60 schools undertake the implementation. 2005 saw the involvement of all schools with assessment and reporting being phased in over a four year period.

Thus the implementation of the new curriculum had been a three phase process. Initially the frameworks were investigated and established. Secondly, project schools were invited to trial the guidelines and develop models of good practice incorporating the document and thirdly, curriculum implementation in all schools. It was mandated that all government schools incorporate the *Essential Learnings* into their core business.

Within the Tasmanian community, rigorous debate continued regarding the merits of the new framework. There was a wide range of views and all stakeholders' perspectives were voiced and reported to the wider community. Opinions ranged from strong enthusiasm to worried scepticism. Comments in a local newspaper, The Examiner (10–14 October, 2005) varied from “vague and lacking academic rigour” to “... a richer curriculum and is the best system to equip our children for the 21st century...it means that Tasmania now has a world class education system.” Skilbeck (2005), suggested that the *Essential Learnings* was “an attempt to aim for the very highest standards of performance in learning, while ensuring that the needs of every student are met in a fair and inclusive way. It provides the foundations for a broad, inclusive education from birth to 16” (p. 8). This ongoing debate provided

understandings from different perspectives and highlighted the community's interest and concern.

Government leaders, teachers, parents and interested community members entered the debate and provided their views on the implementation process. The issue of the translation of the theory into practice was at the heart of the debate and, as with all change, tensions were high as all the stakeholders jostled to have their points of view prioritised. The different perspectives presented through the media reflected a strong interest in the framework, but outcomes needed to reflect and ultimately meet the intellectual and emotional needs of the learners and the economic and social needs of the community if the change was going to be relevant and successful in the teaching and learning program. This was the challenge to schools and to the Department of Education and the eventual dismantling of the *Essential Learnings* was due significantly to the difficulties arising in the monitoring and assessing process and the inability to appropriately support teachers.

It is within this landscape, that Languages needed to find a place and a way in which it could support and promote the philosophy behind the *Essential Learnings*. It was the national developments that provided support for inclusion.

The 1989 National Goals for Schooling (MCEETYA, 1989) recognised Languages learning as a key learning area as well as an investment in our future and a valuable resource for our children. This notion was affirmed in the 1999 National Goals (MCEETYA, 1999) where Languages learning was identified as one of the eight key learning areas. The *National Statement and Plan for Languages Education in Australian Schools 2005–2008* (MCEETYA, 2005) provided a strong blueprint for future development.

The *Essential Learnings*, provided a strong framework in which Languages had the opportunity to operate and flourish “in a globally connected world, the skills of communicating in languages other than our own, and learning to understand intercultural exchanges lead to an appreciation of language and of cultural diversity” (Department of Education, 2002, p. 20). In Tasmania, Languages learning has the capacity to empower our community and lessen the cultural and linguistic isolation that we experience as a state with a small population.

The values and purposes of the *Essential Learnings* underpinned Languages programs and would “support learners to become aware of the power of language as a means of gaining access to other individuals, ideas and ways of thinking. It had the capacity to inspire an interest in, and respect for other peoples and cultures. Learners were supported to embrace diversity and value personal identity” (Department of Education, n.d.). The ‘Communicating’ *Essential Learning* was a fundamental component in developing learners’ understandings and learners were supported by the ‘Thinking’ *Essential Learning* in their quest for “challenging tasks that go beyond description, identification and the use of formulaic language.” (Department of Education, n.d.). ‘Social Responsibility’ and ‘Personal Futures’ provided a strong vehicle through which intercultural competence, development of cross cultural perspectives and understandings could be explored and a sense of cultural identity could be advanced.

3.4.5 The *Tasmanian Curriculum*

In 2008, the *Tasmanian Curriculum* evolved which has further impacted upon the education within the state. The *Tasmanian Curriculum*, a result of the concerns of teachers and the public, refined many of the complexities of the *Essential Learnings* curriculum. Whilst some fundamental change to curriculum design and delivery

occurred it has “kept the best of the *Essential Learnings* approach” (Department of Education, 2006a). For example, developing students’ critical thinking skills was strongly supported and this is still at the heart of the framework and will be a part of everything students do. The following figure represents the new curriculum and clearly shows the position of Languages within the framework.

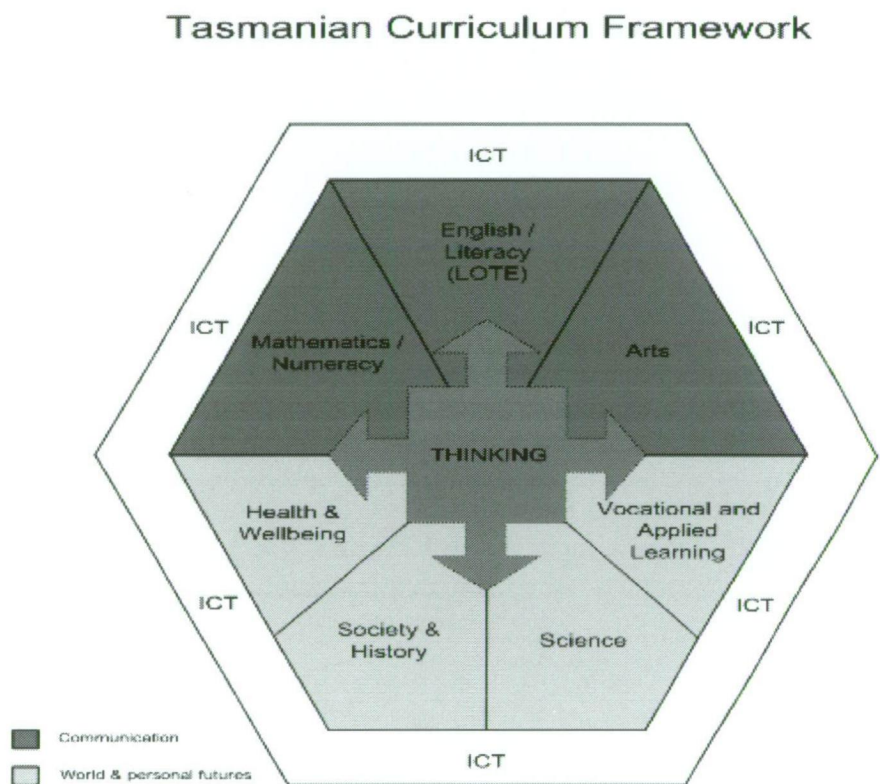


Figure 3.1 The *Tasmanian Curriculum* (Department of Education, 2007).

Within this structure, Languages sits within the Literacy sector and is part of the English–literacy curriculum area because Languages strongly support the development of literacy, language and communication skills. It was seen that while studying Languages, students make comparisons, recognise patterns and view their first language from a different perspective” (Department of Education, 2007, p. 7).

According to the *Tasmanian Curriculum* – K–10 syllabus and support materials (2007), Languages is “recommended for its contribution to the overall

development of children” (p. 5) but the recent shift towards an emphasis on literacy and numeracy has impacted upon Languages to hold its place as a Key Learning Area (KLA) with its own unique and inherent capacity to contribute to student learning.

It can be observed from the placement of Languages learning within the literacy umbrella that the link between Languages learning and literacy learning is significant. Clyne (2006b) argues that “by focussing on the structure of words and sentences, recognising sound patterns, making inferences and guessing meaning of words from context” (p. 2) occurs while learning English as well as while learning Languages therefore it is a “fallacy that English literacy can only be taught in English” (Clyne, 2006b, p. 2). By incorporating Languages learning as an integral part of the school literacy approach, learners are able to compare structures and usage between the two languages. Learners can “develop a heightened awareness of language and metalanguage. As a result, they become more self-directed and confident in their language learning, both in the target language and in English” (Browett & Spencer, 2006b, p. 14). More specifically, learning a second language is claimed to enhance English literacy by:

- Allowing learners to compare the features of their first language with those of another language. This gives learners the capacity to better understand the structure and workings of English.
- Further developing skills of decoding and making meaning from words.
- Developing a flexibility and competence in dealing with language.
- Providing an opportunity for success in Languages learning for those who may struggle with English (adapted from Department of Education & Skills, 2002).

It is the skills of communication that are being developed in second language acquisition; communication through reading, writing, viewing, listening and speaking

to enhance and encourage language usage provides the basis from which experiences are developed.

3.5 Translation to Tasmanian Classrooms

To translate the *Tasmanian Curriculum* into Languages classroom practice is the challenge of the Languages teacher. Within the Tasmanian context, the *Tasmania Curriculum* provides the framework for Languages pedagogy to be implemented. The *National Statement for Languages Education in Australian Schools 2005–2008* (MCEETYA, 2005) provides a clear indication of the importance of preparing our children for the challenges of a diverse global community, with intercultural skills comprising a necessary part of this preparation.

The following figure aspired to illustrate how Languages learning could equip our learners with the skills to make connections with local, national and international communities. This figure clearly supported and articulated The *National Statement for Languages Education in Australian Schools 2005–2008* (MCEETYA, 2005) list of capabilities as outlined earlier and suggests the development of appropriate teaching and learning programs.

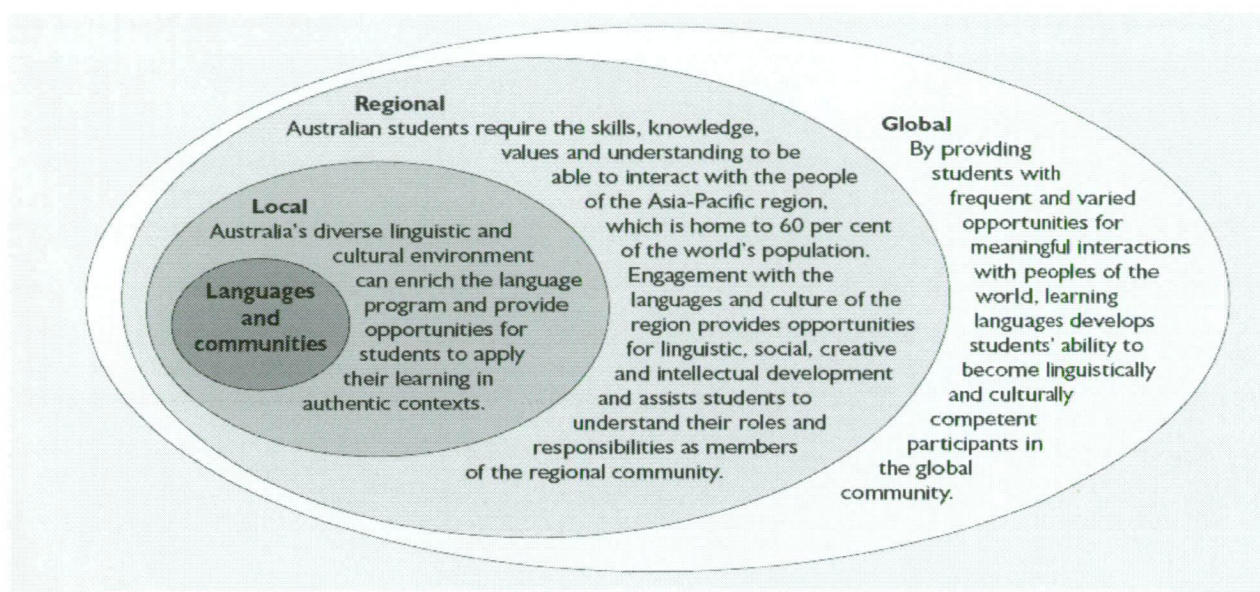


Figure 3.2 Making Connections (Browett & Spencer, 2006, p. 2).

In 2006, the Tasmanian Intercultural Language Learning (TiCLL) project was an initiative that saw teachers developing approaches to Languages learning that incorporated the IcLL pedagogies. This built upon work started in the previous Asian Languages Professional Learning Project (ALPLP) phase. In Tasmania, the Department of Education claimed this assisted Languages learning by:

- Assisting participating primary and secondary schools in integrating languages programs within the curriculum context of their schools.
- Enabling participants to undertake a structured program of professional development in IcLL.
- Strengthening links between Languages programs and other areas of the curriculum, through collaborative planning with other teachers in their schools.
- Supporting participants to explore the ideas underlying IcLL across the curriculum in their own school contexts.

The scope of the professional learning program included:

- exploring language, culture and identity
- an introduction to intercultural language learning
- a focus on student outcomes
- learning from previous intercultural language learning projects
- examples of practice
- planning for school-based investigation and implementation
- reflection on progress (Department of Education, 2006b, pp. 1–2).

In 2006, the Intercultural Language Teaching and Learning in Practice (ILTLP) project saw the deepening of teachers' understandings regarding IcLL. The aims of this project were for participants to:

- participate in a nationally coordinated research and professional learning program that is underpinned by the latest research in Languages teaching and learning and grounded in classroom practice
- increase the knowledge and understanding of the principles and pedagogies of intercultural teaching and learning
- integrate this knowledge and understanding into classroom teaching and learning, long-term planning, assessment and reporting practices enhance student learning outcomes (Department of Education, Science and Training, 2006, p. 1).

Long-term planning and a more considered approach to assessment and the development of assessment processes for IcLL had the major focus areas for this activity involving approximately 20 teachers from around the state.

3.6 Conclusion

Languages education within the Tasmanian context has the potential to play a major role in the education of primary school learners. This chapter has provided an

account of how the learning area has, in parallel with national developments, had increased attention and consequently undergone shifts in design, development and implementation to ensure programs reflect 'good practice'. This has provided the opportunity to closely observe how such developments within the Tasmanian context have facilitated approaches that move away from the static notions of transmission to the newer notions of dynamic representations.

In the following chapter, the methods adopted for use in the thesis are introduced and an account is provided as to how these have been incorporated to collect the data to gain an insight into the beliefs and perceptions of pre-service teachers and in-service teachers towards Languages teaching.

Chapter 4

Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present and justify the research methodology employed. The thesis represented a qualitative and quantitative case study account of the beliefs and perceptions of pre-service teachers and in-service Languages teachers and elucidated some of the key processes in the formation, consolidation and maintenance of those beliefs and understandings. A mixed method approach was employed to enable the research objectives to be met and to provide the research with avenues to ensure validity and reliability.

4.2 Research Perspective

Searching for answers and, through the process of enquiry, deepening our understandings of the world, is a constant and ongoing human endeavour. This research was a means through which such endeavours could be undertaken in a systematic and logical manner.

This thesis stemmed from the researcher's need to understand the factors which have impacted upon the delivery of Languages programs within Tasmania and what was required to provide an environment in which Languages learning can continue to be a relevant part of the primary school curriculum. In the previous chapter, some discussion centred on conversations between the researcher and in-service teachers. This thesis was initiated to explore those conversations at a deeper level in a more formal and methodical manner and provide some explanations and deeper understandings of the situation.

Van Manen (1990, p. 5) supported and reflected upon the need to understand as “research is always to question the way we experience the world, to want to know the world in which we live as human beings”. This strongly suggested to the researcher that we view the world differently and as a result “our everyday observations and opinions are distorted in the very act of being made through subjective bias and prejudice” (Burns, 2000, p. 4). Ideally, through the process of this research, an “objective, systematic investigation with analysis of data to discern what actually is the case rather than a patchwork of likes and dislikes, rules of thumb, analogy and prejudice, half-truths and old wives’ tales” (Burns, 2000, p. 5) can be achieved. Burns is suggesting that a systematic approach is better than a piecemeal one, but in the process of researching there is the inevitability of constructing the world in certain ways rather than just merely reporting it as it is. This interpretation was employed within this study, as the researcher adopted the idea put forward by Stake (1995) who succinctly claimed that “knowledge is constructed rather than discovered” (p. 99). This allowed for the construction of knowledge to be made from the knowledge that was presently available and for that which was already known to be built upon, extended, challenged and questioned.

4.2.1 Impact of Research on Thesis Approach

For this study, the context, purpose, and the issues involved in the research, helped determine the type of research approach adopted and the methodologies that were utilised.

The researcher saw this research as “a systematic process of collecting, analysing, and interpreting information” (Leedy & Ormod, 2005, p. 3) in order to increase understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. Having employed both a quantitative and qualitative approach allowed this to happen by providing for

depth of data (interview) and breadth of data (questionnaire, open-ended statement) with an analysis that, through employing both qualitative (thematic analysis) and quantitative (statistical analysis) techniques, gave the research its validity and reliability and usefulness to the researcher when engaged with the wider educational community.

Creswell's (2005, p. 8) six step process of research: identifying the problem, reviewing the literature, specifying a purpose for research, collecting data, analysing and interpreting data and reporting and evaluating research, enabled this research to progress in a logical manner and provided a strong framework upon which to build the research process and to ensure that a consistent pathway was followed.

4.2.2 Impact of Research on Educational Settings

As a considerable amount of data gathering relied upon class teachers, it was worth considering the impact of research on teachers in schools.

In schools, decision making is based upon “a combination of experience, expert opinion, and research results, and the professional educator should be knowledgeable about research methodology and results” (Wiersma & Jurs, 2005, p. 1). The complex nature of schools and the context specificity of most settings is an inherent difficulty when implementing these educational research findings. Seldom is a clear, direct and unmediated lineage between research and classroom practice discernable, but rather, the relationship is “often less tangible and less explicit and its impact is therefore less obvious and often dismissed. The osmosis of ideas takes time” (Wellington, 2000, p. 9).

The classroom practitioner, imports theories into their classroom practice. These theories pass through a belief framework that regulates the change potentials of external information inputs – put simply, the belief architecture of the teacher acts like

a filter and, depending on that architecture, new information (theories, the views of colleagues, etc.), will either have greater or lesser impact on their practice. When considering issues around beliefs and understandings, therefore, it was necessary to be aware of the impact of research both on teachers' discourses and the pre-service teachers' developing understandings of theories of education. The researcher needed to be cognisant of the capacity of this research in shaping classroom practice.

Research findings always need to pass through an interpretative filter...the findings are not released and immediately seamlessly incorporated into classroom practice. Why does all research not have the same degree of impact in the real world? Any application of theoretical perspectives is necessarily a negotiation between the research and certain political and ideological imperative. Research might, for example, indicate that a student/teacher ratio of 4:1 is optimal for learning, but given the political and economic implications, this would be unlikely to happen. Relating this to the research, it became clear that while Languages is seen as a recognised, relevant and important learning area and learners benefit from exposure to it, economic and ideological stances can be barriers in permitting its inclusion in many schools' curricula.

4.3 Research Objectives

This study was concerned with investigating the underpinning beliefs and understandings of pre-service teachers and in-service teachers in regard to Languages teaching in Tasmanian primary schools in the following ways:

Research Objective 1:

To examine historical developments regarding Languages teaching in Tasmanian primary schools.

- What factors, nationally and internationally, have influenced and helped shape the development of Languages teaching in Tasmanian primary schools?
- What are the characteristics and features of present Languages programs in Tasmania?

Interview was the tool used to collect the required data in response to this research objective and supporting questions.

Research Objective 2:

To investigate in-service teachers' perceptions and beliefs on Languages teaching in primary schools.

- What is the role of IcLL in classroom instruction?
- How is a teaching and learning program structured to maximise student learning within the IcLL pedagogy?
- What factors impact upon Languages teaching and learning?

To gather data in response to this research objective and supporting questions, text analysis and a semi-structured interview were employed.

Research Objective 3:

To explore pre-service teachers' perceptions and beliefs regarding the teaching of Languages in primary schools within the Tasmanian government school sector.

- What beliefs of Languages teaching do pre-service teachers hold?
- How do pre-service teachers perceive Languages teaching and learning?
- How confident are pre-service teachers in being involved in Languages teaching?

A questionnaire, used the Likert scale format, and an open-ended statement to gather data to respond to this research objective and accompanying questions.

Research Objective 4:

To compare beliefs and perceptions of classroom teachers and pre-service teachers on Languages teaching in primary school in terms of pedagogy, teaching and learning programs.

- What are the identified similarities and differences in beliefs and perceptions held by pre-service and Languages teachers?
- How does this impact upon the position of Languages in the Tasmanian primary school curriculum?

The data collected from the previous three research objectives and supporting questions informed the response to this research objective.

4.4 The Development of the Research

In looking at educational research, Wiersma and Jurs (2005) identified five general characteristics that helped determine the development of the research. Three of those characteristics were particularly pertinent in the preparation phase, “research should be systematic, research should be valid and research should be reliable” (p. 5).

Guba and Lincoln (1985) suggested that educational research should “aspire to being systematic, credible, verifiable, justifiable, useful, valuable and trustworthy”, while Bassey (1999, p. 35) defined research as “systematic, critical, and self-critical inquiry which aimed to contribute to the advancement of knowledge.”

Wiersma and Jurs (2005) claimed that a systematic approach was vital in ensuring that the nature of the outcomes was as relevant as possible. A five step approach was provided to give direction and a sequence to the research approach.

These five steps which provided the “elements of a general, systematic approach to research are: (a) identifying the problem, (b) reviewing information, (c) collecting data, (d) analysing data, and (e) drawing conclusions” (p. 3). They fit acceptably with the previous approach as outlined by Creswell (2005) and reiterated to the researcher the need for a recognised, systematic approach to the research study.

In this study, the historical perspective as presented in the literature, provided an insight into the policies, their origins and their impact on Languages teaching both present and past. This impact was then explored through the beliefs and understandings of two different groups of individuals – pre-service teachers and in-service teachers to determine the influence of these historical events and to look at how those events may be shaping present day practices and future directions.

4.5 Research Design

Research and the direction that it may take were decisions made by the researcher in relation to the overarching aims of the research. In this case, the aim of understanding the beliefs of pre-service and in-service teachers on Languages teaching within the Tasmanian government school context, impacted on the decisions for the design of the research.

The research objectives helped determine that a qualitative and a quantitative approach would be an appropriate pathway to gather the data to respond to the research objectives. In this research, qualitative data were derived from interviews, text analysis and an open-ended statement and quantitative data were collected by the administration of a questionnaire.

Whilst the quantitative approach allowed a numerical perspective to data collection, the qualitative approach allowed a greater capacity to use the context in

which people work and the views of those people within that context to be acknowledged.

Wiersma and Jurs (2005) distinguished the two research types as quite distinct. The two approaches are described as discrete entities and provided the researcher with different perceptions of the world. They asserted that:

qualitative research has its origins in descriptive analysis, and is essentially an inductive process, reasoning from the specific situation to a general conclusion. Quantitative research, on the other hand, is more closely associated with deduction, reasoning from general principles to specific situations (p. 13).

The authors viewed quantitative research supporting a scientific method whilst qualitative research supported the notion of research occurring in more natural settings where the meanings are obtained from that context and the conditions within the context.

In this thesis, the researcher saw the two approaches as complementing the research and provided the researcher with an ability to look more closely and to generate data that could be compared and contrasted.

A case study approach was used to frame the research incorporating appropriate methods and tools to collect data that provided responses to the research objectives.

The development of a research design therefore provided the framework in which the research occurred. The challenge to the researcher was to develop an appropriate methodological design that would provide the pathway to new learning and to new discoveries. O'Leary (2004, p. 85) defined methodology as the "framework associated with a particular paradigmatic assumption that will be used to

conduct research.” Wellington (2000, p. 22) suggested methodology as the “activity or business of choosing, reflecting upon, evaluating and justifying the methods you use...the aim is to describe and analyse methods.”

“The trick is travelling down a methodological path that is appropriate for the question, the researcher, and the context” (O’Leary, 2004, p. 86). O’Leary articulated for the researcher an issue that needed to be addressed. That being – did the design link to the question and, if so, how did the methods and tools employed provide the data that would generate appropriate insights? Added to this was the context of the researcher – was the research valid to the researcher, was it within the researcher’s ability and interest and was the research achievable? In relation to this research, it was the researcher’s belief that the research design would provide the appropriate information to respond positively to the research objectives. The researcher was also confident that the questions posed by O’Leary could be answered in the affirmative.

4.5.1 Case Study

The case study approach to research was adopted for a variety of reasons.

Case study can be either qualitative or quantitative – or a combination of both – but its employment suggested an “in depth understanding replete with meaning for the subject, focussing on process rather than outcomes, on discovery rather than confirmation” (Burns 2000, p. 460). Opting for a case study provided the researcher with a “set of related ideas and preferences which, when combined, gave the approach its distinctive character” (Denscombe, 1998, p. 30). It involved the collection of data so as those understandings could be gained and allowed for the investigation to “retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real life events” (Burns, 2000, p. 460). Interviews and questionnaires were successfully incorporated as techniques to find out what happened within this complex bounded system.

The case study, therefore, provided this research with the structure to look deeply, to probe and dig, to discover and to understand the nuances and complexities of the stated context for, as Yin (1994) suggested, the case study has the potential to illuminate the ‘how’ and ‘why’ of research questions.

4.5.1.1 Location of Case Study

The case study occurred within a clear and apparent boundary so as to provide and develop a distinct identity. The case study approach enabled the researcher to “separate an aspect of social life so that it was distinct from other things of the same kind and distinct from its social context” (Denscombe, 2003, p. 37). Merriam (1998, p. 13) suggested boundaries within the educational context as “a program, an event, a person, a process, an institution or a social group. ” This enabled the researcher to then distinguish that which fell within the boundary (that to be investigated) and that which fell outside of the boundary and was thus ineligible for incorporation into the study. In determining what a case could be. Stake (1995) clearly articulated the idea of boundaries:

A child may be a case. A teacher may be a case. But her teaching lacks the specificity, the boundedness, to be called a case. An innovative program may be a case...but a relationship among schools, the reasons for innovative teaching, or the policies or school reform are less considered to be a case.

These topics are generalities rather than specifics (p. 2).

In this study, IcLL as a specific program bounded within the Tasmanian primary, government school sector Languages curriculum provided the motivation for the case study approach to be employed.

4.5.1.2 Types of Case Study

Stake (1995) suggested three types of approaches to case studies that were worthy of consideration for this study. He firstly recognised those studies that were motivated through an obligation to study a phenomenon; the phenomenon would be studied out of a desire to learn more to improve processes, deliveries or understandings. If there was a fundamental interest in the case then we would have, as Stake defined, an “intrinsic case study” (Stake, 1995, p. 3). Intrinsic case studies can simply be an “examination undertaken because of an interest in it, not because by studying it we learn about other cases or about some general problem, but because we need to learn about that particular case” (p. 3). An intrinsic case study therefore would not give understandings about abstract concepts or generalisations, but would provide insights into the particular. It would not be intended to develop a theory, although it could happen.

If the researcher wished to “provide insights into an issue or to draw a generalisation” (Stake, 2000, p. 437) or the researcher may have had a “need for general understanding, and a feel that we may get insight into a question through studying a particular case” (Stake, 1995, p. 3), then an instrumental case study approach would be more appropriate. The case would be used to facilitate an understanding of something else.

Stake (1995) defined the third type of case study as the “collective case study” (p. 3). Here the study would involve a set of cases to study a phenomenon. It would be an extension of the instrumental study as it would use common characteristics in an attempt to lead to better understandings about larger collections of cases. Teachers in several states could be studied for example, to determine their work, and this may then lead to better understandings about teachers’ work across Australia.

Stake (1995) suggested that sorting the three kinds of case study may be difficult, but distinguishing between them will allow the researcher to use appropriate research methods depending upon whether there is an intrinsic or instrumental interest. The more intrinsic the case the more the need to “restrain our curiosities and special interests and the more we must try to discern and pursue issues critical to the case” (p. 4).

In this study, there was an interest in learning about pre-service teachers’ beliefs on Languages teaching and learning as well as an interest in determining how these beliefs have developed. These two purposes supported both an intrinsic and instrumental approach to the case study. Stake (2000) suggested that “because the researcher has simultaneously several interests, particular and general, there is no line distinguishing intrinsic and instrumental; rather a zone of combined purpose separating them” (p. 437).

It can be concluded, therefore, that the case study has been utilised in this study because it is a category of qualitative and quantitative research that involved and investigated phenomena within a context and within a bounded setting as it was occurring. It involved the collection of extensive data to fully understand the phenomenon being studied and often answered the ‘how’, ‘what’, ‘why’, or ‘who’ type questions. It also suggested that the researcher had little management or control of the events under investigation, rather the investigator was investigating real life events as they unfolded.

4.5.1.3 Capacity of Case Study

This case study has the ability to be able to generate data about the phenomenon which could impact upon the establishments under investigation, in this

case the Department of Education in Tasmania. Through the collection and analysis of in depth and broad data, “naturalistic generalisations or petite generalisations” (Stake, 1995, p. 20) may occur regarding the phenomenon within another setting with a different population. For example, part of this study involved the investigation of beliefs and understandings of pre-service teachers in regard to Languages teaching and learning. The results of this research could help inform, at a more general level, views of pre-service teachers regarding other curriculum areas or it may be supportive of other pre-service teachers’ views of Languages teaching and learning in other university settings. Such perspectives or understandings may not be typical, so a careful regard for the particularity of the data needs to be observed and the situations in which generalisations from the data are made need to be carefully considered. Given the scope of this study, the potential for petite generalisation was more likely than grand generalisations as any generalisations made would be refined as the research progressed and as the collected data were analysed.

This case study studied the phenomenon as it was occurring. There was no capacity to control or manipulate the behaviour or the setting. There was no requirement to manipulate the actions of participants nor was there an expectation that this should occur. This can be the strength or the weakness of a case study. For this study, this was a strength as in-service teachers felt that their contributions were valued because the interview allowed them time to share their experiences, knowledge, frustrations and successes and the anonymity of the pre-service questionnaire and open-ended statement provided an environment where honesty could be assumed.

4.5.1.4 Limitations of Case Study

As with all research activities there were limitations with the instruments being employed. Within the case study approach, issues surrounding access to participants, boundary determination, validity and reliability of data, ethical issues surrounding access and the involvement of human subjects and the role of the researcher was considered and the participant's impact on the research needed to be attended to by the researcher. Each of these issues was considered carefully in the development of this study as will be demonstrated, particularly within the next section regarding data collection, and within the following analysis chapters.

4.6 Methods and Techniques

This section deals with the methods and techniques employed in the generation of data. In particular, the discussion focuses on the interview and questionnaire as the techniques used primarily in this study.

The articulation and progression of the plan or methodological design is dependent upon the capacity to employ appropriate methods. The methods enabled the researcher to perform the tasks that met the specific requirements of the research. The instruments appropriate to the methodological choices made, form the basis of the research and were therefore selected to allow for maximum data collection. They were the means through which the data were collected and, once interpreted, provided responses to the research questions and led to the generation of a new and refined set of research questions. Thus, these methods needed the support of clearly articulated research objectives that were supported by an appropriate methodology. "Methods need to fall from questions, and the better articulated the questions, the more readily this can happen" (O'Leary, 2004, p. 91).

Methods or techniques, asserts O’Leary, can include interviews, surveys, observations, document analysis, questionnaires while the tools are devices that are used to support the methods and collect the data. They can include observation checklists and interview schedules. No matter the definition and consequent understandings of the idea of tools of research, the collection, manipulation and interpretation of data depends upon the use of such tools.

The notion of “horses for courses” as introduced by Denscombe (2003, p. 131), indicated that “when it comes to selecting a method for the collection of data, certain research strategies will tend to be associated with the use of certain research methods.” Denscombe (2003) asserted that these links can have strong theoretical support (for some strategies to be linked with some methods) but as a researcher, preferences and practical considerations played an important role in selection, but not at the expense of appropriateness.

In many instances, claims Denscombe (2003), research methods may compete with each other and it may be necessary for different methods to be incorporated to collect data on the same feature. This provided the capacity for the instrument to look at the feature through the lens of its own particular perspective and thus provided the capacity to compare and contrast.

The survey consisted of two sections – a questionnaire of 30 items and an open-ended response to a statement (see Appendix B). This was completed by the pre-service teachers. The interview consisted of four prepared items and took no longer than 45 minutes to complete. Whilst the four prepared questions formed the basis of the interview, many subsequent questions were asked to clarify statements made, seek further information and ensure the researcher understood what was said by the interviewee.

On the basis of the types of data, the data analysis consisted of two parts.

Part 1: Qualitative Data Analysis:

Analysing collected data involved coding data, identifying patterns and themes and the construction of some theoretical insights arising from the analysis.

Part 2: Quantitative Data Analysis:

The study included the SPSS to input and code data. This enabled the researcher to focus on descriptive statistics – frequency and comparisons between independent and dependent variables.

4.6.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire was identified as an acceptable data gathering tool for both the qualitative and quantitative research. It provided the researcher with factual information as well as information regarding an opinion. “The properly constructed and administered questionnaire serves as a most appropriate and valid data gathering tool as it is both resource and time efficient” (Denscombe, 2003, p. 140).

For this research, the questionnaire was an appropriate data gathering tool as it enabled data to be gathered from large numbers of participants in a straightforward and time efficient manner.

4.6.1.1 Designing a Questionnaire

Anderson (1998) suggested six essential steps in questionnaire development and implementation. It was these six steps that influenced the researcher’s questionnaire development and formed the basis for the following discussion.

Step 1 Determining Questions

The construction of the instrument enabled the researcher’s thinking to be sharpened which, when translated to the item preparation, enabled efficient and relevant data to be gathered. This led to a useful analysis. Once the needs were

accurately clarified, it made it easier to prepare the items to respond to the overall research objectives. Maintaining these objectives ensured that the target group, namely pre-service teachers, provided valid data for this research. The onus was also on the researcher to ensure the number of items was such that they did not become too onerous a task for the participants to complete.

As the questionnaire relied solely on the reader's ability to read and write, it was the researcher's task to ensure careful phrasing and word usage so as to alleviate any ambiguities on the part of the reader. Best and Kahn (2006) provided the researcher with a list of principles and supporting examples that were taken into account when designing the questionnaire and which helped to alleviate confusion that may have arisen as a result of poor language usage. In particular, the principles provided guidance in the clear phrasing of statements.

The questionnaire was administered personally. This allowed the researcher, who did not know all of the participants, to explain the purpose of the study and to be at hand to provide explanations for meaning. It allowed for a number of participants to be available at one time thus using time effectively and keeping expenses at a minimum.

The questionnaire provided a way of "gathering structured and unstructured data from respondents in a standardised way ...the data collected were numerical or could be represented numerically" (Lewin, 2005, p. 219).

The questionnaire collected data which were "measurements of variables" (Bouma, 2000). Items needed close alignment to the variables that were being constructed. As a result, careful preparation occurred and the researcher was wary of including items that would not seek information directly related to the investigation. Denscombe (2003) provided the researcher with objectives that, when implemented

and considered, allowed the questionnaire to have maximum benefit as a research tool. He asserted that questionnaires:

- be designed to collect information which can be used subsequently as data for analysis
- need to consist of a written list of questions allowing for consistency and precision in terms of wording
- must gather information by asking people directly about the points concerned with the research (pp. 144–145).

This suggested that the questionnaire needed clear aims and specific objectives as well as to be structured in a logical and accessible manner. It implied that the questionnaire needed to be carefully constructed and sufficient information be obtained as it was not reasonably possible to collect subsequent information after the questionnaires had been completed.

The questionnaire included a variety of item types including demographic data, closed items for ease of analysis and response, and an open-ended item to provide respondents with the capacity to give a freer response. A balance was important as the completion of the questionnaire depended upon the participants being able to complete the task within an appropriate time frame. Items were:

- clear and unambiguous and did not use technical terms or language that was inappropriate to the respondent
- framed not to lead participants to particular answers
- simple rather than complex
- not double barrelled
- framed to avoid the use of negatives and double negatives

- framed so as not to antagonise or irritate respondents or could be perceived as threatening (adapted from Lewin, 2005, p. 220).

Closed or restricted items structured the answers by “allowing only answers which fit into categories that have been established in advance by the researcher” (Denscombe, 1998, p. 101). Answers required participants to respond with a short, marked response. The participant had clear instructions on how to complete the questionnaire by selecting from a range of alternatives as presented on the questionnaire. Answers provided the researcher with responses that were consistent and reasonably objective and, as they were in a pre-coded format, allowed for ease of analysis. They were easy to complete, took minimal time and kept the participants on the subject. Obviously there was less scope for participants to give personal responses to items.

The open-ended item allowed the participant to provide information that was not possible elsewhere and allowed for a greater depth of response if required. This item needed to be short and space provided in which the participant could respond. The item was framed so as not to give clues to the participant regarding their responses. The advantage of this type of preparation was that it provided an opportunity for richer and multifaceted viewpoints to be given. Disadvantages included a disincentive by the participants to complete the questionnaire if there were too many requests or if they were ambiguous – it does take more effort to complete open-ended statements. The item needed to be tightly prepared, as it had the potential to produce responses that were irrelevant. Open-ended statements are also more time consuming to analyse and thus required more of the researcher’s time to transfer the data into a useable form. For this study, the open-ended statement served to support data by providing illustrations of beliefs and understandings and provided the

participants with the freedom of response that is not available within the structure of a questionnaire.

Step 2 Draft the Items

At this stage, it was necessary for the researcher to determine the format in which the questionnaire was going to be framed.

There were a variety of formats that could have been utilised. Anderson (1998) provided the following options: fill-in-the-blanks, multiple choice, comment-on, list, Likert scales and rank (pp. 171–173).

For this research, the Likert scale was the significant format type used. The participants had the opportunity to respond on a five point scale from strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree and strongly agree. For the purposes of this discussion, the term 'Likert scale' applies to the summated scale, and 'Likert item' applies to the individual items which make up the scale.

The Likert scale was an example of a summated ratings scale in which the participant was presented with a statement, not a question, which required a response to reflect a particular view. Anderson (1998) suggested that the following rules be observed when designing statement items for such a questionnaire:

- use single sentences containing only one complete thought
- statements should be short, rarely exceeding 20 words
- statements should not be in the past tense
- statements should cover the entire range of expected responses. Those which are likely to be endorsed by almost everyone or by almost no one should be avoided
- avoid statements that are factual or capable of being interpreted as factual
- avoid statements that may be interpreted in more than one way

- avoid the use of universals such as all, always, none and never
- words such as only, just, merely should be used with care and moderation
- avoid the use of words that may not be understood by the intended respondents
- do not use double negatives (p. 174).

As with most closed questionnaires, Likert items were easy to respond to and analysis was a relatively easy process. It provided a great deal of information that was collected in a short period of time. For the purpose of this research, data ranged from simple descriptive information to more complex manipulations to determine patterns and theme developments.

It must be noted here that the term LOTE was used within the structure of the questionnaire. The purpose of this was two-fold. Firstly, most pre-service teachers would have experienced this acronym during their school life and would have known Languages learning as LOTE as this was used exclusively in Tasmanian schools when naming this learning area. Secondly, pre-service teachers could have been confused with the term Languages as the singular language can be related to first language literacy learning and the researcher wished to clearly delineate the two learning areas.

Initially, the researcher trialled the components of the questionnaire to determine clarity and accuracy of interpretation. It was important that this process occurred for as Denscombe (1998) articulates “the wording of the questions is one of the most difficult features of questionnaire design. It is also one of the most important to get right” (p. 98). The trial was undertaken with a group of students from the Faculty of Education (21 in total) at the University of Tasmania. They were in a different program to the students who participated in the study, but were students who

would be expected to work within the same environment as those students in the study.

The trial indicated some misunderstandings with Likert items. Discussions with students after completion of the trial questionnaire indicated that the researcher needed to more clearly articulate some items. This was done and the items discussed again with the trial group to determine whether the intent was more clearly presented. The trial group were not distressed by the amount of questions nor did they consider the questionnaire too time consuming to complete.

Step 3. Sequencing of Items

To engage the participants the initial questions were easy to understand and respond to. This was intended to put the participants at ease and engender a feeling of being able to respond confidently to the remainder of the questionnaire. The initial questions were closed demographic questions requiring responses that all participants would be able to answer. As the researcher was present whilst the questionnaire was completed, this was determined to be an easy way to start the process. Hoyle, Harris and Judd (2002), however, suggested that demographic details be included at the end of the questionnaire because at that time the participants “are ordinarily more willing to give such information, and in the case they are not, at least the replies to the belief and attitude questions will not be affected by the suspicion or resentment that personal questions occasionally arouse” (p. 139). Whilst this was a consideration, the trial participants did not see the placement of the demographic questions at the beginning as an issue so the decision was made to leave them placed at the beginning of the questionnaire.

The Likert items too, followed a similar framework. The first items were easier to respond to, thus enabling the participants to feel comfortable with the task.

For the study, the first statement – *LOTE is an important part of primary school children's learning* – was relatively easy to answer and encouraged participants to continue with the remainder of the questionnaire. It was clearly evident that it would be ill advised to start a questionnaire with an open-ended question as this may have discouraged responses and thus lower the completion rate.

Following this initial introductory phase, items needed to be concerned particularly with the study. In this study, items were prepared to determine pre-service teachers' beliefs and understandings around the teaching of Languages. Items were grouped according to the following five themes:

- languages as part of the primary school curriculum
- core content of a Languages program
- languages as a learning area
- the rationale for learning languages
- the participant as a Languages learner.

The filter items, linked to the themes, funnelled out responses with common characteristics.

To ensure a positive and thoughtful response rate by the participants, the interest of the participants in completing the questionnaire needed consideration. Through discussion of the purpose of the questionnaire with the participants, the participants could see some long-term benefits of participating positively. In this study, the researcher discussed with participants the aims and objectives prior to completion. When participants saw that the research may impact on pre-service teacher preparation in Languages teaching and learning experiences, they were willing to participate. The trial group also were happy to participate once they were made aware of the purpose. Whilst this is not a short-term immediate benefit to the

participant, it may impact significantly on the long-term programs offered to pre-service teachers.

Step 4: Design the Questionnaire

The researcher developed a clear schedule in regard to the time frame, organisation for distribution, collection and analysis of the results of the questionnaire. More specifically, instructions were precise and clear, yet worded politely and in such a manner that invited the respondent to participate. To encourage participation, a front cover was incorporated to provide information regarding the questionnaire's purpose and ultimate aim of the exercise.

Step 5: Pilot Testing

Given that the researcher was the author of the questionnaire, it was sometimes difficult to be critical and to be aware of difficult or confusing terminology. As previously mentioned, the researcher sought the input from a small number of like groups. Piloting the questionnaire was a useful way of determining appropriateness and discovering any ambiguities and hazards that could be potentially harmful to the research.

Step 6: Develop a Strategy for Data Collection and Analysis

Pre-service teachers were invited to participate in the study and the questionnaire was completed at an agreed time. As all pre-service teachers were full-time students, a time was negotiated at the conclusion of a lecture session or after a tutorial. This allowed those students who did not wish to participate to excuse themselves. The researcher distributed the questionnaires and collected the completed questionnaires from pre-service teachers.

4.6.2 The Interview

It was the researcher's intention to use the interview as a "dominant strategy" (Bogdan & Biklen 1998, p. 94) for data collection within the investigation concerned with in-service teacher participants. Collection of descriptive data through this approach allowed the researcher to gather data using the participant's own words and enabled the researcher to develop insights into participant's interpretation of their cultural world.

4.6.2.1 Advantages of Technique

The interview has historically been one of the most common ways to try and make sense of our world and of our fellow human beings and it is one of the most widespread methods for collecting data. "As a data gathering technique, the interview has unique advantages. In areas where human motivation is revealed through actions, feelings and attitudes, the interview can be most effective" (Best & Kahn, 2006, p. 336).

For the purposes of this study, the interviews were held face to face. The interviews were seen by the researcher as "active interactions between two people leading to negotiated, contextually based results" (Fontana & Frey, 2000, p. 646). At the heart of the interview, was the desire to encompass the "hows of peoples' lives – the constructive work involved in producing order in everyday life, as well as the whats – the activities of everyday life" (Fontana & Frey, 2000, p. 646).

In most cases, in an educational setting, it is the interviewer who benefits directly from the interview. Denscombe (1998) warns us not to be lulled into a false sense of security as he sees an interview as "no easy option...it is fraught with hidden dangers and can fail miserably unless there is good planning, proper preparation and a sensitivity to the complex nature of interaction during the interview itself" (p. 164).

The research interview was a means of 'finding out' and considered by Kvale (1996) to be based on the conversations of daily life...but a professional conversation which... "has a structure and a purpose going beyond the spontaneous exchange of views as in everyday conversations, and becomes a careful questioning and listening approach" (pp. 5-6). Incorporating the active interactions allowed for these conversations to provide the researcher with an opportunity to view the world of the participant and to provide one way of interpreting the phenomena under investigation. Cannold (2001) acknowledges the role of conversational interviews and suggests that interviews are "conversations between researcher and participant in which the researcher seeks to elicit the participant's subjective point of view on a topic of interest to the researcher" (p. 179).

4.6.2.2 Purpose for Selection

The interview itself was an attempt to understand a social reality. Kvale (1996) employed a metaphor to describe the process and it was found to be a useful way of placing oneself within the interview space. He uses the metaphors of the miner and the traveller to describe the journey of the researcher. The metaphor of the miner sees knowledge as 'buried metal and the interviewer is the miner who unearths the valuable metal' (p. 4). The researcher seeks information, unearths facts from the experience of the interviewee. Data is collected from these 'digs', gathered together, transformed and represented as authentic experiences.

As the traveller, however, the researcher is on a journey that will "lead to a tale that was told upon returning home" (Kvale, 1996, p. 4). This tale is explored and developed as the researcher "wanders through the landscape and enters into conversations with the people encountered" (Kvale, 1996, p. 4). Data gathering stems from the many encounters that were made with the local inhabitants as the researcher

wandered around the locality, sometimes using maps and sometimes meandering freely. Conversations and stories were shared and gathered from real world experiences as the researcher constructed an understanding of the participants' life worlds.

The researcher certainly had the sense of this gentle meandering and sometimes serious 'digs' as the interviews progressed. It was the capacity to question and probe at these various levels that gave the data its richness.

Kvale (1996), interestingly, suggested that the interviewer, because of the experience, may change as well. Through the process of the journey, "reflection may lead to new ways to understand as well as questioning previously held beliefs and understandings that may have an effect on the taken for granted values and customs in the traveller's home country" (p. 4).

Relating to this research more specifically, it is difficult to clearly establish some of the metaphors' characteristics. The research does function within the traveller notion – conversing with and roaming through the territory of the participant. However, specific information needed to be gathered and particular pieces of knowledge unearthed to inform understandings, to give direction and focus, and to meet the aims and objectives of the study. When travelling, this researcher liked to collect artefacts that reminded him of and provided a way to remember events and places. Therefore, this research is an extension to Kvale's metaphors – the notion of a gatherer of significant relics to assist the researcher in retelling the event as well as a means of providing understandings to others who have not taken the journey.

In an earlier paragraph, a simplistic explanation of an interview was given. The above discussion has provided a particular perspective to the discussion that begins to give depth to the process. The interview required a conversation to take

place. We all engage in conversation for a variety of purposes with a variety of people. The research interview was a dialogue and could be categorised as a professional conversation with particular rules and systems that, for successful implementation, needed to be in place.

4.6.2.3 Management of Interviews

Interviews were held in places convenient to the interviewees. This was sometimes in schools or, as three of the participants worked part-time, other designated places where it was convenient for the interviewee. Prior to the interview, teachers had an opportunity to view the interview schedule.

Interviews took between 40 and 50 minutes and were scheduled to ensure that the interviewee had the time to ensure serious consideration could be given to their responses. One interview was rescheduled twice as the interviewee had incidental occurrences that did not enable sufficient time to be available.

The interviews were recorded. Interviewees were aware of this prior to commencement. Recording could be seen as having a negative impact on the proceedings, but given the slimline nature of the recorder and the capacity for it to be placed out of sight, did not impact greatly on the conversation. Participants were assured of their anonymity and the destruction of the recordings as soon as they were no longer required.

4.6.2.4 Transcription of Recordings

This slow and tedious task was completed over several months, but in doing it, gave the researcher time to reflect on the conversations and an opportunity to physically transform and begin an informal analysis of the data. Kvale (1996) maintained that transcription “is not a simple clerical task...transcription itself is an important interpretative process” (p. 16). Having completed the transcribing and

working on the analysis, knowing the material enabled the researcher to quickly locate a supportive statement or relevant vignette.

Once the transcribing was completed, copies were sent to interviewees for checking. As the interviews were transcribed verbatim, many of the concerns expressed in the reviews were around grammar errors or ways in which things were expressed rather than content. With two participants, extra information was emailed to the researcher as they felt that they had omitted it in the initial interview.

4.6.2.5 Accuracy of Interview Technique

How can the researcher rely on the conversations as true and accurate responses to the phenomenon under investigation? As Fontana and Frey (2000, p. 645) indicate “the spoken or written word has always a residue of ambiguity, no matter how carefully we report or code the answers.”

The researcher was reminded of a text from literature that expresses many of the questions that arise regarding accuracy of observations. Hamlet, in this small exchange, explores ambiguity and provided the researcher with considerations when constructing and conducting interviews.

Hamlet: Do you see yonder cloud that's almost in shape of a camel?

Polonius: By the mass, and 'tis like a camel, indeed.

Hamlet: Methink it is like a weasel.

Polonius: It is backed like a weasel.

Hamlet: Or like a whale.

Polonius: Very like a whale. (Hamlet, act 3, scene 2.)

In this brief scenario, Hamlet was attempting to authenticate his perceptions of reality. He had just experienced an event that was masked with ambiguity and contextual realities. Possible truths have been represented through a fictitious play

that left him uneasy and questioning the authenticity of the reality in which he found himself. Were his interpretations valid or were they strongly influenced by his personal experiences? Could the conflict he feels within himself be validated and what role do those closest to him, whom he loves, trusts and respects play in the present scenario? Could Polonius be trusted? Could the information being communicated be truths about the world around him or perceptions of ambiguity? Hamlet's perceptions may have resulted from contextual events and conversations which provided responses that, due to his position of power, the participant think are appropriate?

These questions underlie an important aspect when considering the interview as part of the research process. What are the biases, beliefs, background experiences of the researcher and how do they influence what is seen, heard, interpreted and told. Do these perceptions become evident in our data and do ambiguities result from the power of our personal sensitivities? How can we ascertain if the nature of reality has been clearly presented? Whose reality is presented and interpreted and how has it been constructed? These questions reinforce the notion of triangulation in any work to ensure validity. It was the capacity to rephrase questions or to ask a follow-up question during the interview that allowed the researcher to ensure understanding was accurate and interpretations of what was said were valid. The semi-structured interview technique strongly supported this capacity.

4.7 The Researcher's Role

Within this study, the role of the researcher in relation to the participants was worthy of consideration as within the case study approach most data were collected directly by the researcher through contact with the participants.

Bouma (2000) indicated that qualitative research requires a more interactive approach with the data generating and gathering process and that the researcher is within the context being explored, while quantitative researchers are able to keep themselves separated from the participants so as not to interfere with the integrity of the data being collected. Qualitative research stresses the “socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied and the situational constraints which shape inquiry... while the quantitative studies emphasise the causal relationships between variables, not processes. Proponents claim their work is done from within a value-free framework” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 8).

It then became the researcher’s task to consider these positions when choosing an approach to the data gathering.

Qualitative research enabled the researcher to be closer to the participants and their everyday life. There was “a world of complexity and plurality” (Orum, Feagin & Sjoberg, 1991, p. 23) being explored and the researcher needed to become, for a short while, part of that world. The researcher was conscious of being well-known to the participants in the interview so there was a risk of the process losing sight of the objectives. It was the researcher’s role to be thoroughly organised and maintain control of the interview situation so as to be responsive to the context, but maintain a distance required to complete the task.

Conversely, the quantitative data collection process was purely about collecting numerical evidence for statistical analysis and the role of the researcher was one of facilitator to the participants and a supporter to them in completion of the questionnaire. The design of the questionnaire was all important in the instrument’s capacity to collect the necessary data.

The researcher was, as Eisner (1991) suggested, “trying to understand what teachers do in the settings in which they work” (p. 11). Denzin and Lincoln (2000) initially assert that qualitative researchers are located in the world and this location allows for a series of practices to become visible. Qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.

The role of the researcher differed depending upon the particular approach utilised for data collection. The qualitative research best suited the situation where an understanding of a phenomenon was required but where this phenomenon was complex and deeply embedded within a context. The quantitative approach utilised methods to gather large amounts of data in a timely and efficient manner. In analysing the above findings, the researcher determined that a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods, within the case study strategy utilising interviews and questionnaires to collect data, would progress the study in a manner that met the research objectives.

4.8 The Participants

It is worth considering the terminology used in relation to the persons being interviewed as this can communicate important information about the researcher’s purpose in the research and his or her view of the relationship.

In the literature there were many terms used to denote those who participate in research. *Interviewee* (Gillham 2000, Denscombe 1998) and *respondent* (Holstein & Gubrium 1995; Fontana & Frey 2000; Patton 2002) indicate an inactive almost submissive role where the interviewer would exert the power. There was an expectation to give answers to questions asked without contributing any extra information. The term *subject* (Kvale, 1996) also implied one having greater power

over another. There was also the idea of conquering, of suppression so that the information given may be what is seen to be expected. *Informant* (Denscombe, 1998) has also been used when someone is telling about their way of life or background – telling about a particular cultural event. *Participant* (Hatch, 2002) suggested a more equitable relationship allowing for a greater involvement and, as Seidman (1991) suggested, should “encourage people to reconstruct their experience actively within a context of their lives.”

This research saw the notion of *participant* fitting well with the research for a variety of reasons. Firstly, as this study involved some people with whom the researcher had worked for many years, the researcher’s role was more one of a fellow traveller. Secondly, the researcher had an ongoing professional relationship with some of the intended in-service participants and therefore it was appropriate to ensure that there was equity in the partnership. The field of intended in-service participants was small, consequently the maintenance of the ongoing relationship was important and to remain credible with the in-service participants the researcher needed to be seen as an equal partner.

For this study there were two distinct participant cohorts: pre-service teachers from the Bachelor of Education program, Launceston campus of the University of Tasmania and in-service teachers of Languages from within the Tasmanian Department of Education. Six in-service teachers were interviewed and 159 pre-service teachers responded to the questionnaire.

The following conditions of participation applied:

Pre-service teachers:

Currently enrolled, 2008 census, first year and third year Bachelor of Education students in Launceston.

In-service teachers:

Currently employed teachers of Languages in Tasmanian government primary schools throughout the state with at least four years of Languages teaching experience.

The pre-service teacher cohort was predominantly female. Male students constituted less than twenty per cent of the total pre-service cohort. The cohort contained an age range between eighteen and fifty years old. 156 students responded to the questionnaire.

4.8.1. In-service Teachers

The in-service teachers were drawn from primary government schools in Tasmania. Names of the in-service Languages teachers in primary schools were accessed via Department of Education databases and through consultation with the Principal Education Officer of Languages and Regional Support Officers. Selected in-service teachers had at least four years teaching experience and taught Languages on at least a 0.4 loading.

Six teachers from primary schools were invited to participate in individual interviews.

In-service teachers were approached via a letter to school principals outlining the study and seeking permission from in-service teachers. Once these teachers had been identified, they were invited to participate. A suitable time was organised for the researcher to complete the interview. Informed consent was gained from in-service teachers. Copies of the interview transcripts were made available to in-service teachers to review before any analysis occurred. It was stressed that all information given in the interview may have been used in the body of the research, but individual identification would not be possible as assumed names were given to in-service teacher participants.

Both in-service teachers and pre-service teachers had the opportunity to view the work on its completion.

4.8.2 Pre-service Teachers

As the main research aims for the study involved the investigation of the beliefs held by pre-service teachers about Languages learning and teaching, it was necessary to have pre-service teachers as a cohort for investigation. As the researcher is on staff at the University of Tasmania, the pre-service teacher were easily accessible. The selection of the 1st and 3rd year pre-service teacher cohort was purposeful in providing the researcher with a larger cohort from which to gather data.

4.8.3 Sampling

In the selection of in-service teacher participants and pre-service teacher participants, a non-probability sampling technique was used as the researcher had “some notion of the probability that these will be a representative cross-section of people or events in the whole population being studied” (Denscombe 1998, p. 12). A word of caution, however, as outlined by Best and Kahn (2006), is that “some non-probability sampling procedures may produce samples that do not accurately reflect the characteristics of a population of interest” (p. 19) which could lead to generalisations both unwarranted and inaccurate.

More particularly, as outlined by Best and Kahn (2006), both purposive sampling and convenience sampling were utilised in the study in the selection of in-service teachers. It was convenient, both time wise and financially, to utilise those teachers within close proximity to the researcher even though equally valid samples would have been available in other locations.

Purposive sampling was employed as a means of selecting certain segments of the population. It was appropriate that, as the study was focussing on beliefs and understandings, that current teachers of Languages be involved and that pre-service teachers, within the context of the researcher's employment, also be involved. The researcher knew all of the teacher participants due to having taught Languages within the Department of Education and having had previously a senior position in Languages education within the state education system.

Pre-service teachers were selected on the basis of the ease of access by the researcher. Given the research aims and objectives, purposive sampling enabled the researcher to "home in on people or events which there are good grounds for believing will be critical for the research" (Denscombe, 1998, p. 15).

The researcher had clear guidelines to follow as outlined by the University of Tasmania's Ethics Committee and the Department of Education's Ethics Committee. The literature surrounding qualitative case study research suggested that the researcher becomes involved within the context of the research and must "establish trust, rapport and authentic communication patterns with participants" (Janesick, 1998, p. 40). Consequently, access to participants required an official process to be followed but it also required the researcher to build a positive rapport with the participants to ensure that the required process could be completed as successfully as possible.

4.9 Validity and Reliability

Ensuring reliability of methods and validity of conclusions were significant aspects of this research process. For the researcher, understanding these terms were imperative and the following two definitions provided the researcher with guidance during the investigations:

Validity: By validity I mean truth; interpreted as the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers.

Reliability: Reliability refers to the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions (Hammersley, cited in Silverman 2002, p. 175).

The quality of the research and the overall credibility of the findings depended heavily on the researcher's capacity to ensure reliability and validity were in place (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Gray, 2004; Silverman, 1998, 2000.).

The data collected in the questionnaire were collected objectively, analysed statistically and consequently reported upon. The researcher had control of the collection and analysis of the data. The qualitative data collected were analysed appropriately according to the literature, and using the semi-structured interview, support questions were able to be asked of the participants to ensure understandings were clear.

It was difficult not to be subjective in the collection of data as the researcher was ready to act upon any opportunities that arose in the interview to seek clarification or expand upon an issue raised. It provided the opportunity for differing perspectives to be gained and a chance to delve into participants' contexts to discover the influence of contexts on particular events. For example: three of the interviewees articulated the introduction of IcLL into their school programs. However, each of the participants had had differing professional learning experiences around IcLL and were in different teaching environments and consequently interpreted the process in various ways. None of the interpretations or implementations were unacceptable, but it was

through additional questioning and continued discussions that the researcher was able to determine reasons for the actions and the comments made by the interviewees. This enriched the research and provided data that would otherwise not have been accessible.

Maintaining integrity has been an important part of the research. Careful examination and the appropriate addressing of all aspects of the research project have “ensured the integrity of the knowledge produced and promoted the practice of ethical responsibilities towards participants” (O’Leary, 2005, p. 50).

The notion of triangulation was supported. It involved looking at the area of study from a variety of points to determine accuracy of information. The literature introduced many perspectives regarding the notion of triangulation as a form of internal validity. It may be defined as “two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour” (Burns, 2000, p. 419). In the field of qualitative research, this may appear as ways to map out, explain more fully the “richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint” (Burns, 2000, p. 419). This idea of validating research gave credibility to findings and through triangulation of the data sources, evidence was provided through multiple sources to support an idea or theme of the research and deepen the capacity for the research to be accurate.

4.10 Ethical Issues

Fontana & Frey (1998, p. 662), indicated that “traditionally ethical concerns have revolved around the topics of informed consent, right to privacy and protection from harm.” As time was spent with participants and at research sites, anticipating ethical issues in qualitative data collection needed consideration and the above topics provided the researcher with a guide to considerations. Consideration for the

anonymity of the participants, disclosing to participants the purpose and nature of the study, issues related to the research site – time of day, level of disruption required for interviews, translated the above topics into the realm of the investigation.

Mason (2002) suggested to researchers that they clarify their intentions whilst formulating the research problem by using the following three steps:

- Decide what is the purpose of your research, e.g. self advancement.
- Examine which individuals or groups might be interested or affected by the research topic.
- Consider what are the implications for those parties of framing your research topic in the way you have done (pp. 29-30).

By doing this, it enabled the researcher to begin to consider ethical dilemmas that may occur and ways that could be incorporated to minimise the issues.

The importance of relationships, the building, maintaining and eventual closure of those relationships is seen, in the literature, as being a very important ethical issue (Hatch, 2002; Fontana & Frey, 2000; Denscombe, 2003). Hatch succinctly said “qualitative researchers are interested in exploring the world from the perspective of cultural insiders. Their methods are designed to get close to the action...” (p. 65). Getting ‘close to the action’ requires contact with and the support of participants if the researcher is to collect worthwhile data. As the researcher was investigating the behind the scenes action, this required trust and confidence in the researcher by the participants. The researcher, ultimately needed to make the best judgements to ensure that the “individuals we study are treated with fairness and dignity” (Hatch, 2002, p. 69).

Interviewing encroached into people's lives and therefore the interviewer needed to carefully consider the result of the experience for the participant and what measures needed to be put in place to minimise the effects of the process.

An ethical issues checklist, as outlined by Patton (2002, pp. 408–409) was incorporated to generally underpin the rules of conduct. This was achieved by:

- gaining approval through the formal University Ethics Approval process
- clearly explaining the purpose of the research through individual discussions, informed consent and by providing a clear outline of the processes of the research
- ensuring the process was clearly adhered to with all aspects being maintained
- ensuring risk minimisation, by ensuring teachers and students were not put under any undue stress, legal liabilities or ethical dilemmas
- ensuring and honouring confidentiality.

Throughout the research, it was the researcher's intention to always ensure the processes were transparent to participants and any concerns were dealt with in an ethical manner.

4.11 Limitations of the Study

The above discussions outlined the researcher's pathway to complete this thesis. There were, however, limitations that needed to be recognised. One of the criticisms of the case study approach is the capacity for personal views to influence the findings and therefore the directions in which the study may go and thus impact upon the conclusions and recommendations made. Thus the interpretation of collected

data needed careful analysis by the researcher to ensure that subjective bias was not present, but as Burns (2000) suggests “what is forgotten is that bias can also enter into the conduct of experiments and... in all research the interpretation of collected observations is problematic” (p. 474).

The ability of the case study to generalise is another issue worthy of consideration. Stake argues that ‘naturalistic generalisations’ are “conclusions arrived at through personal engagement in life’s affairs” (p. 85) and that generalisations are learnt by one’s experiences or from those of others (significant authorities – teachers, mentors). It was the responsibility of the researcher to provide an analysis and interpretations from the analysis so that the reader can have input into their naturalistic generalisations and thus benefit from the research findings.

4.12 Conclusion

This chapter outlined the processes that were undertaken in the construction of the methodology to enable data to be collected to respond to the research objectives. It provided a thorough review of the questionnaire and the interview as strategies to collect data within the nominated bounded system. Consideration was given to the validity, reliability and ethical issues associated with the methodological choices as well as a discussion regarding the limitations of the study.

Chapter 5 begins to look at the analysis of the data – in particular that of the pre-service teacher responses.

Chapter 5

Presentation and Analysis of Pre-service Teacher Survey

5.1 Introduction

Developing upon the theoretical perspective and the contextual background of the previous chapters, this chapter provides an analysis of the pre-service teacher survey data. The data were analysed and discussed using a thematic framework to provide a structure through which the data could be analysed in a logical and ordered manner. The analysis reflected the aims of the research, informed the theoretical underpinnings of IcLL as outlined in the literature review and demonstrated the implementation of the previously proposed methodology.

In particular, this chapter will provide an outline of the analysis of collected data based upon research objective 3, namely:

To explore pre-service teachers' perceptions and beliefs regarding the teaching of Languages in primary schools within the Tasmanian government school sector.

- What beliefs of Languages teaching do pre-service teachers hold?
- How do pre-service teachers perceive Languages teaching and learning?
- How confident are pre-service teachers in being involved in Languages teaching?

5.2 Administration of Survey

The survey document was divided into three parts. Part 1 required demographic information, Part 2 was the questionnaire and Part 3 consisted of an open-ended statement to which participants were invited to respond.

A 30 item questionnaire was administered to 156 pre-service teachers in October, 2008. The questionnaire was administered to a cohort of first year and third year Bachelor of Education students from the University of Tasmania. The questionnaire took approximately 20 minutes to complete and was completed by all 156 pre-service teachers – 75 were in their first year of the four year undergraduate B.Ed course and 81 were in the third year of their undergraduate study.

As outlined in the methodology chapter, the questionnaire had previously been piloted and, as a result of feedback, minor adjustments were made to the wording of statements to ensure pre-service teachers had maximum opportunity to respond accurately.

Pre-service teachers were also invited to comment upon their past Languages learning experiences. This invitation was extended in Part 3 by an open-ended statement to which pre-service teachers could respond. Pre-service teachers were under no obligation to respond to the statement but the responses enabled the researcher to gain some deeper understandings about Languages learning and a glimpse into the range of variables impacting upon their Languages learning. It gave pre-service teachers an opportunity to add any further comments that they were unable to do as part of the questionnaire process. Of the 156 respondents, 23 or 14.7% chose not to respond to this section. The remainder, 85.3%, responded to the request and provided data that have been included throughout this chapter as small vignettes

of pre-service teachers' voices regarding their Languages learning experiences. It also served as a means of triangulating results as questionnaire responses could be compared with comments made on the open-ended statement and provide the researcher with deeper insights into pre-service teacher's perceptions and beliefs.

Participation was voluntary and anonymous. No personal information about the individual participants was recorded. Part 1 of the survey asked for the age, gender and year of study, Part 2 was the 30 Likert statement response section followed by Part 3, the open-ended statement so personal identification of the participant was not possible. Pre-service teachers were given the option to participate and a colleague of the researcher was present during the completion by the pre-service teachers of the questionnaire and the open-ended statement.

5.2.1 Questionnaire Design

There were five identified organising themes with statements related to each of the themes randomly located throughout the questionnaire (see Appendix B). Each of the organising themes related to and investigated the previously stated research objectives. The five organising themes were as follows with the links to research objectives (R.O.) in brackets:

- Languages as part of the primary school curriculum (R.O. 2, 3 & 4)
- core content of a Languages program (R.O. 1, 2 & 3)
- Languages as a learning area (R.O. 1, 2, 3 & 4)
- the rationale for learning Languages (R.O. 2, 3 & 4)
- the participant as a Languages learner (R.O. 2, 3 & 4).

Table 5.1 below categorises the statements according to the five themes. The organising themes were designed as a framework to explore the participants' beliefs

and perceptions about Languages learning and provide a conceptual framework in which to explore the beliefs and perceptions of pre-service teachers.

To enable a comparison and contrasts to be made, the organising themes were also incorporated into the in-service teacher analysis chapter that follows this one. This assisted in the researcher’s capacity to respond to the final research aim of the project – that of making comparisons and contrasts between pre-service and in-service teachers’ beliefs and perceptions of Languages learning.

Table 5.1 *Organising themes*

Themes	Supporting statements
Languages as Part of the Primary School Curriculum	1, 6, 11, 12, 17, 21, 26, 30
Core Content of a Languages Program	2, 7, 13, 18, 22, 27
Languages as a Learning Area	3, 8, 14, 19, 23, 24, 28
The Rationale for Learning Languages	4, 9, 15, 20, 29
The Participant as a Languages Learner	5, 10, 16, 25

5.3 Analysis of Results

These theme areas formed the basis of analysis using SPSS to input and code data. This enabled the researcher to focus on descriptive statistics when looking at each of the themes – frequency, comparisons, and independent/dependent variables. This allowed the researcher to explore the particular theme through the responses to the statements.

5.4 Summary Table of Results

Table 5.2 provides a general reference point for the results of the data from the questionnaire. This table provides an overview of the 156 pre-service teacher responses to statements and will be referred to throughout this chapter to remind,

reinforce and question particular phenomena. The overview also enabled the researcher to gain some initial sense of the results that are interrogated throughout this chapter by way of the five organising themes.

Results that were submitted as ‘agree’ or ‘strongly agree’ have been aggregated under the single heading ‘agree’ and those submitted as ‘disagree’ or ‘strongly disagree’ have been aggregated under the heading ‘disagree’ for ease of initial impressions. In the following discussion, however, these have been re-divided into the two headings to clearly examine responses. The neutral results in the table represent the same number as represented in the data. In some cases, no response was given to a statement; hence some slight discrepancies with the totals of percentages in some statements may occur.

Table 5.2 *Reference point for data results*

	Statements	Agree	Disagree	Neutral
S1	LOTE is an important part of primary school children’s learning.	69.2%	4.5%	26.3%
S2	Learning vocabulary is the most important part of learning a LOTE.	47.4%%	16.6%	35.2%
S3	Learning a LOTE is very difficult for primary aged children.	21.1%	52.5%	25.6%
S4	Learning a LOTE offers many future opportunities for children.	90.3%	8.3%	5.1%
S5	Given the opportunity, I would like to learn a LOTE.	82.1%	3.8%	14.1%
S6	LOTE needs to be an integral part of the primary school curriculum.	69.2%	4.4%	26.2%
S7	Learning grammar is an important part of learning a LOTE.	59.7%	36.5%	3.8%
S8	To be good at LOTE students need to be academically very capable.	18.5%	66.6%	14.1%
S9	Learning a LOTE will enable children to learn about the culture of the country in which the LOTE is spoken.	83.9%	3.2%	12.8%
S10	I would find it easy to learn a LOTE.	27.5%	31.4%	40.3%
S11	In today’s world it is not important to have a LOTE.	21.1%	62.9%	16%

S12	It is important to be able to communicate in another language.	54.4%	12.1%	33.3%
S13	As children learn a LOTE, they use skills that they may also use in other learning areas.	84.6%	2.6%	12.8%
	Statements	Agree	Disagree	Neutral
S14	All primary school children should have access to learning a LOTE.	86.5%	2.5%	10.8%
S15	It is important for Tasmanian primary school children to be able to select a LOTE that they can study.	64.7%	5.7%	29.4%
S16	I would like to learn a LOTE so that I can teach it in the primary classroom.	82.1%	6.4%	11.5%
S17	It is important to be able to understand another language.	66.1%	5.1%	25.8%
S18	Learning about the culture in which the LOTE is spoken is an integral part of learning the language.	86.1%	10.8%	3.1%
S19	Teachers need to have a high level of competency in the LOTE before they can teach it.	53.8%	23%	23%
S20	Learning a LOTE enables children to better understand other peoples and culture.	83.3%	1.9%	14.7%
S21	I would feel comfortable teaching a LOTE.	42.9%	24.3%	32.1%
S22	Learning a LOTE is mainly about speaking the language.	19.8%	44.8%	35.2%
S23	LOTE is a difficult subject to teach.	31.4%	23.1%	45.5%
S24	All children are capable of learning a LOTE.	85.9%	3.2%	10.8%
S25	My LOTE learning has greatly influenced my beliefs about LOTE learning.	58.3%	7.1%	32.6%
S26	I would be able to support a LOTE program in the classroom.	61.5%	9.6%	28.2%
S27	Learning a LOTE is mainly about translating from the LOTE to English and vice versa.	23.8%	38.4%	37.8%
S28	Having learnt one LOTE, it would be easy for children to learn another.	11.6%	12.1%	35.9%
S29	Learning a LOTE would help learners learn in other curriculum areas.	84.6%	2.5%	12.8%
S30	I would be willing to assist a LOTE teacher in delivering a LOTE program in my classroom.	82%	3.2%	14.1%

5.5 Results of Survey

The analysis of the questionnaire results follow with supporting statements made by pre-service teachers in the open-ended section of the survey included to support and often clarify or expand upon statement responses. This analysis has been divided into the five organising themes as identified earlier in the study.

5.5.1 Languages as Part of the Primary School Curriculum

The first theme to be considered is that of Languages as part of the primary school curriculum.

The literature review outlined the historical development of Languages learning both within the national context and more particularly, the Tasmanian context. This review clearly showed that until the mid 1990s Languages learning was a random inclusion in the primary school curriculum, mainly determined by the particular interests and capacities of dedicated teachers. This haphazard and incidental occurrence did not allow for any consistent, ongoing planned development, thus Languages was not seen as part of nor indeed relevant, to a primary school curriculum. Curriculum directions were unclear and unsupported. The last two decades have seen a shift in understandings about Languages learning and practices have been impacted upon by changing pedagogies based upon a wider research base as well as a wider support base. Both policy development and curriculum resource support have added weight to the argument for including Languages within the primary curriculum.

The questionnaire required students to respond to eight statements related to this theme. The statements, placed randomly throughout the questionnaire, were:

- LOTE is an important part of primary school student's learning.
- LOTE needs to be an integral part of the primary school curriculum.
- In today's world it is not important to have learnt a LOTE.
- It is important to be able to communicate in another language.
- It is important to be able to understand another language.
- I would feel comfortable to teach a LOTE.
- I would be able to support a LOTE program in the classroom.
- I would be willing to assist a LOTE teacher in delivering a LOTE program in my classroom.

It was the purpose of this organising theme to examine the pre-service teacher's present beliefs regarding the place of Languages in the curriculum and their possible role in the delivery of programs. These elements are inextricably linked with Languages pedagogies, as will be seen throughout the analysis of the following data.

In response to the invitation to comment upon their Languages learning and the part it plays in the primary school curriculum, pre-service teachers noted:

– LOTE is a useful tool to have in our globalised world as it enables us to better communicate with people from other places. Learning a language should be part of what is done in schools to help this understanding.

– It is really important in our multicultural nation that we understand others and learning a language is one way to do that.

– I have found with my own children that as they are practising their LOTE, they are practising their English. This sounds a bit weird, but learning the LOTE is making them more aware of how English is constructed.

Pre-service teachers also noted that if they were taught Languages in isolation it:

- ...seemed irrelevant as it wasn't backed up by cross curricular studies.
- ... seemed unnecessary. Living in a small country town it didn't seem part of what I did and wasn't part of the 'normal' class work.
- We had a LOTE teacher that came into the classroom once a week. It was a bit hard to remember what had happened the week before so I never learnt much.

These statements suggest that pre-service teachers saw Languages, during their school learning, as an unimportant part of the curriculum because it was taught in isolation to everything else and seemed to have little or no relevance to them.

The data collected within the questionnaire supported this idea. Pre-service teachers saw the relevance and indeed the importance of Languages learning, as indicated by the following table even if their initial learning had not been seen to be as relevant:

Table 5.3 *In today's world it is not important to have learnt a LOTE*

	Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid SD	42	26.9	26.9	26.9
D	56	35.9	35.9	62.8
N	25	16.0	16.0	78.8
A	27	17.3	17.3	96.2
SA	6	3.8	3.8	100.0
Total	156	100.0	100.0	

Support for Languages learning is evidenced by 62.8% of students identifying Languages learning as relevant within the primary school curriculum. As this question was framed in the negative, the researcher was concerned with the validity and reliability of the responses. However, this concern was validated by the responses to other statements within this questionnaire that were framed to gather similar information. Part 3 of the survey also provided information that supported the above response.

Whilst this global perspective provides useful information, it was necessary to determine how this perception was translated to the classroom and the role that Languages play in the curriculum as well as how its success as part of the curriculum could be achieved. The following figure begins to represent pre-service teachers' views:

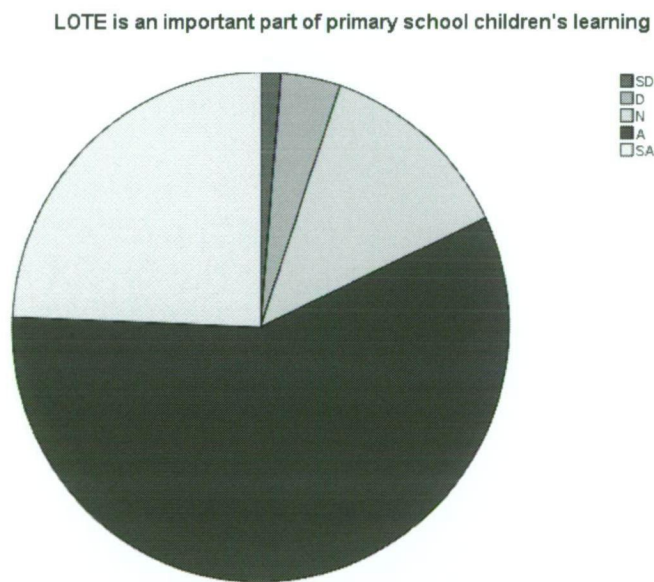


Figure 5.1

The data in Figure 5.1 demonstrates that 82.1% of pre-service teachers agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. From the historical perspective as presented previously, this reflects a major shift in the perception of the positioning of Languages

within the primary school curriculum and indicated to the researcher that while previous experiences may not have been positive, pre-service teachers had the capacity to view the experience from a wider perspective and thus see the benefits.

How does Languages become “an important part of children’s learning?” This was investigated through the following statement, suggesting the concept of integration as supported within the *Tasmanian Curriculum*:

Table 5.4 *LOTE needs to be an integral part of the primary school curriculum*

	Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid SD	2	1.3	1.3	1.3
D	5	3.2	3.2	4.5
N	41	26.3	26.3	30.8
A	71	45.5	45.5	76.3
SA	37	23.7	23.7	100.0
Total	156	100.0	100.0	

69.2% of all pre-service teachers either agreed or strongly agreed that Languages needs to be an integral part of the curriculum. This begins to introduce the idea of a balanced curriculum and how Languages may be part of that balance. A pedagogical stance is supported here as curriculum documents refer to “transdisciplinary learning” (Browett & Spencer, 2008, p. 10) whereby learners can gain “deeper understandings in more than one learning area and ... increase their capacity to make connections across the curriculum and between disciplines” (Browett & Spencer, 2008, p. 10).

From the outset therefore, it can be gauged that the majority of pre-service teachers saw the importance of Languages as part of the school curriculum, with the

transdisciplinary nature of learning being a relevant consideration. But what of their involvement and how are they prepared to contribute to Languages learning? How willing and/or capable are they to contribute to the learning program? Figure 5.2 provides a response:

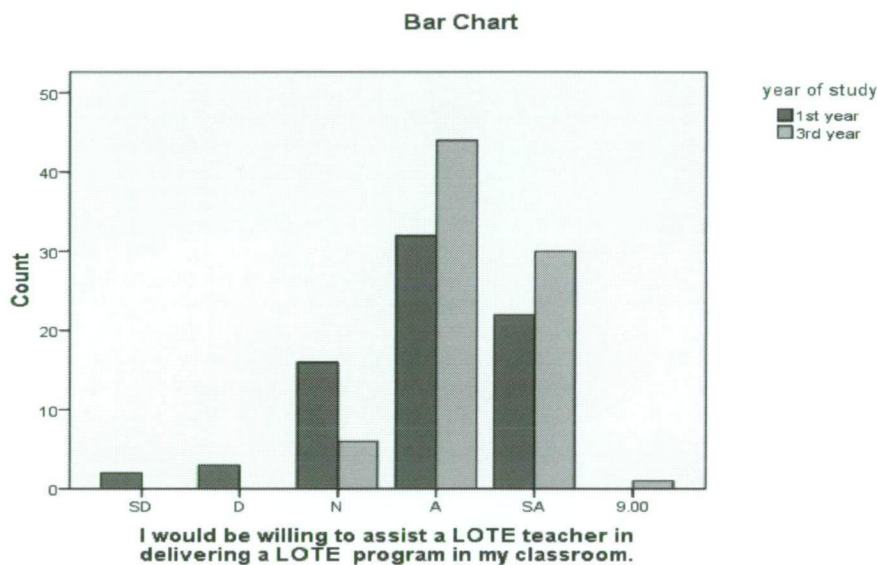


Figure 5.2

Information represented in Figure 5.2 strongly supports the notion that pre-service teachers are willing to assist in the delivery of Languages programs. This analysis does not make available the level of assistance that they would be willing to provide but indicates a confidence to participate and shows support of the importance of the learning area. This confidence by the teacher is vital in any successful program and thus raises the question as to how this confidence can be maintained and strengthened? This issue will be considered at a later point.

Of particular interest, was the change of response between the first and third year participants, with 68% of first year pre-service teachers agreeing or strongly agreeing and 95% of third year pre-service teachers agreeing or strongly agreeing to the above statement.

There is an observation that could be made from this information. The third year students had completed, as part of their core curriculum studies, a curriculum unit focussing on Languages learning. Bryan (2003) clearly states that “prospective and novice teachers’ beliefs may be amenable to change as a result of instruction and experience” (p. 836). This being the case, an observation could be made. Pre-service teachers’ beliefs (3rd year cohort) were influenced through input and positive experiences during their pre-service years. An implication of this is the necessity for ongoing support and encouragement to be available for the pre-service teacher during their preparation time as well as when they enter the workforce.

The notion may further be supported by policy documents and decisions that have been advanced for Languages education. The *Tasmanian Curriculum* firmly places Languages within the English framework. As stated:

Languages are part of the English-literacy curriculum area because they strongly support the development of literacy, language and communication skills. When studying Languages, students make comparisons, recognise patterns and view their first language from a different perspective
(*Tasmanian Curriculum*, 2008, p. 7).

Pre-service teachers, having access to such documents, have the capacity to be influenced by such policy developments. Nationally, policies and discourses surrounding Languages also suggest a strong link to first language learning.

For professional growth to occur Kagan (1992) suggests, “prior beliefs and images must be modified and reconstructed” (p. 142), while Nespor (1987, p. 320) suggests that “critical episodes or experiences gained in early teaching careers were important to present practices.” It could be generalised from the data that the teaching and learning experiences have re-shaped beliefs of pre-service teachers. It could be

further suggested that there is a responsibility for those working with pre-service teachers to ensure the professional experiences and learnings of pre-service teachers are positive and meaningful so as to directly challenge and impact upon held beliefs and perceptions.

A surprising finding was the number of students who indicated that they would be comfortable teaching a language; 43% indicated that they would be comfortable as outlined in the following table:

Table 5.5 *I would feel comfortable teaching a LOTE*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR*	Total
1	10	13	27	9	0	1	75
3	1	14	23	8	0	0	81
Total	11	27	50	17	0	1	156

*NR= no response

The results indicate that 32% of first year pre-service teachers would be comfortable teaching a language compared to 53% of third year pre-service teachers. It suggests a capacity and willingness and strongly supports the literature when looking at practical knowledge and the implications of using that knowledge for, practical knowledge, says Borg (2003) is shaped by background experiences.

Linked to this idea is a response to the following statement which provides an interesting dilemma. Whilst pre-service teachers may feel comfortable to teach a language, the concern must be raised about the competency of the pre-service teacher in terms of their linguistic knowledge.

Table 5.6 *Teachers need to have a high level of competency to teach the LOTE.*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	1	6	12	36	20	0	75
3	0	29	24	22	6	0	81
Total	1	35	36	58	26	0	156

The implication of this finding and those from in-service teachers vary considerably and will be discussed in a later chapter.

It is the researcher’s conclusion that pre-service teachers view their practical knowledge as adequate to contribute in a valuable way to Languages programs. Connelly and Clandinin (1999) see teacher’s practical knowledge as being placed in “the teacher’s past experience, in the teacher’s present mind and body, and in the future plans and actions” (p. 1).

Once again an observation could be made from this information that has an impact on teaching preparation programs. The representative group of 3rd year pre-service teachers suggested that their pre-service experiences had impacted upon their beliefs and consequent understandings of and attitudes towards Languages teaching and learning.

Responses to this theme indicate that pre-service teachers strongly support the inclusion of Languages within the primary school curriculum and see its purpose within the curriculum. There is also strong evidence to suggest that pre-service teachers would be willing to support and in many cases lead a Languages program. This study was not able to fully determine pre-service teachers’ total background of Languages learning and the level attained. Of the total number who completed the open-ended statement, only six pre-service teachers indicated that they had studied

Languages at University level and, as University level study is a pre-requisite to teach Languages, ongoing, post initial preparation and support would need to be given to pre-service teachers wishing to pursue this option. This issue will be discussed further within the study.

5.5.2 Core Content of a Languages Program

This theme was designed to explore what pre-service teachers believed to be a Languages program and how pedagogical practices (namely IcLL) have impacted on such programs. Historically, the response to this has been varied. The literature review provided perspectives that have been present in schools over several decades. These perspectives have varied from random, incidental programs, providing limited curriculum offerings, operated by an interested and capable teacher for short periods of time in the 1960s and 1970s to well organised, co-ordinated and integrated programs of the 1990s. Recognition of the importance of Languages learning has varied from the discrete, localised learning with maybe the support of a local high school to a nationally recognised and resourced program providing pathways for learning for all students at all levels of schooling.

Pre-service teachers may or may not have been exposed to a Languages program, thus their response to this theme will be somewhere on the continuum from direct experiences with Languages learning to no experience at all.

The following six statements were included for response from the pre-service teachers:

- learning vocabulary is the most important part of learning a LOTE
- learning grammar is an important part of learning a LOTE
- as children learn a LOTE, they use skills that they may also use in other learning areas

- learning about the culture in which the LOTE is spoken is an integral part of learning the language
- learning a LOTE is mainly about speaking the language
- learning a LOTE is mainly about translating from the LOTE to English and vice versa.

The statements represent what Languages learning consists of, both from an historical perspective and from a more recent stance. Whilst Languages learners and teachers would not argue that the above are part of, and have always been part of learning a language, it is the delivery and organisation of learning experiences that has changed due to developments in understandings of Languages learning, the changing nature of our learners and the changing needs of the society.

As a follow-on from the development of the first theme, this data provided an insight into pre-service teacher's beliefs about Languages programs. It provided insights into how historical perspectives have impacted upon pre-service teachers' beliefs but it also indicated that pre-service teachers have incorporated IcLL pedagogical practices into their understandings about Languages teaching and learning.

The following two tables provide an overview of pre-service teacher's beliefs regarding two of more recent pedagogical positions. Both sets of data indicate that pre-service teachers believe that Languages learning has greater and more far reaching benefits than acquiring the ability to speak another language. Historically, this perspective gained significance in the 1990s when discourse around Languages learning shifted from one focussing on multicultural awareness to strategies that supported economic development and a greater social awareness, hence a greater need to be able to apply Languages learning in a wider context. Available federal resources

and a discourse that spoke of inclusion saw Languages learning as relevant to all learners from a much earlier age – a different perspective from previous decades where Languages were available to only the more academic secondary school learners.

Table 5.7 *As children learn a LOTE, they use skills that they may also use in other learning areas*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	0	4	13	41	17	0	75
3	0	0	7	48	26	0	81
Total	0	4	20	89	43	0	156

When looking at first year responses compared to third year responses, it became evident that the percentage of third year pre-service teachers agreeing or strongly agreeing is not significantly greater than first year pre-service teachers. 91% of third year participants as opposed to 77% of first year participants agree that Languages learning suggests transferrable skills. This further supports and enhances data collected from Theme one regarding the integration of Languages across curriculum areas as it implies the use of transferrable skills.

Another area, of more recent relevance in Languages learning is revealed in Table 5.8 – 90% of third year pre-service teachers and 84% of first year pre-service teachers see the cultural aspect as integral to Languages learning. This study did not provide an avenue for the researcher to determine the ‘shape’ of such learning, but the recognition of its relevance is of significance.

Table 5.8 *Learning about the culture in which the LOTE is spoken is an integral part of learning a language.*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	0	2	10	34	29	0	75
3	0	1	7	47	26	0	81
Total	0	3	17	81	55	0	156

The data reflects that pre-service teachers recognise and support two very significant pedagogical beliefs about Languages learning. Firstly, the Intercultural Language Learning (IcLL) component of Languages learning and secondly, the capacity for Languages to be part of a curriculum enabling the acquisition of skills transferrable to other learning areas. This supports the discussion presented in the Literature review and in particular the structure of the *Tasmanian Curriculum*.

Browett & Spencer (2008) take this into account in *Teaching Languages in the Primary School: Examples from current practice* whereby the text is designed to allow teachers to view Languages learning from a variety of interdisciplinary perspectives with specific links to literacy learning and Information Technologies (IT). In particular, the text provides practitioners with practical examples of how to implement this stance.

Pre-service teachers' comments further strengthen this idea:

- ...*I never realised that learning a second language had the ability to add so much to children's learning until I saw how my prac teacher this year integrated it into literacy and SOSE.*
- *when I was learning German at school, I used to get bored because I couldn't see why I had to do it until about grade 6 when a new teacher who*

was also my regular teacher, actually linked it to other things we were doing in the class.

These findings align with the findings within the first theme – namely that pre-service teachers see Languages successfully being a part of a primary school curriculum. These two findings provided further evidence of the capacity of Languages to be part of an integrated curriculum that impact upon children’s learning in a variety of ways. For pre-service teachers to note this is encouraging and relevant for those working with pre-service teachers.

Whilst there was no evidence to suggest that pre-service teachers had a deep understanding of these concepts, these initial data suggested a greater understanding of Languages learning and the capacities of Languages learning than was initially anticipated by the researcher. It was also of significance as IcLL, as outlined in the literature review, plays a substantial role within the Tasmanian Languages teaching and learning curriculum.

IcLL is seen as a significant aspect of Languages teaching and is incorporated into the three strands of The *Tasmanian Curriculum* – Languages framework. Here learners consider that a “critical dimension of understanding language in use, is that language cannot be separated from its social and cultural context.” (p. 5). There is a fundamental intention that IcLL enables Languages learning and culture learning to be intertwined and interdependent to provide learners with a rich, diverse and deep understanding about the language, its speakers and its environment. Scarino & Liddicoat (2009), suggest that “a stance to languages learning that has IcLL at its heart involves developing with students an understanding of their own ‘situatedness’ in their own language and culture, and the recognition of the same in others” (p. 33).

Sitting within the English learning area in the *Tasmanian Curriculum*, Languages has the position to “strongly support the development of literacy, language and communication skills. When studying a language, students make comparisons, recognise patterns and view their first language from a different perspective” (DoE, 2007).

Within this theoretical framework, the data shows where pre-service teachers are positioned in regard to their beliefs regarding the make-up of a Languages program. Figure 5.3 extends the information regarding their beliefs and begins to itemise components to provide the researcher with a clearer picture of the overall stance.

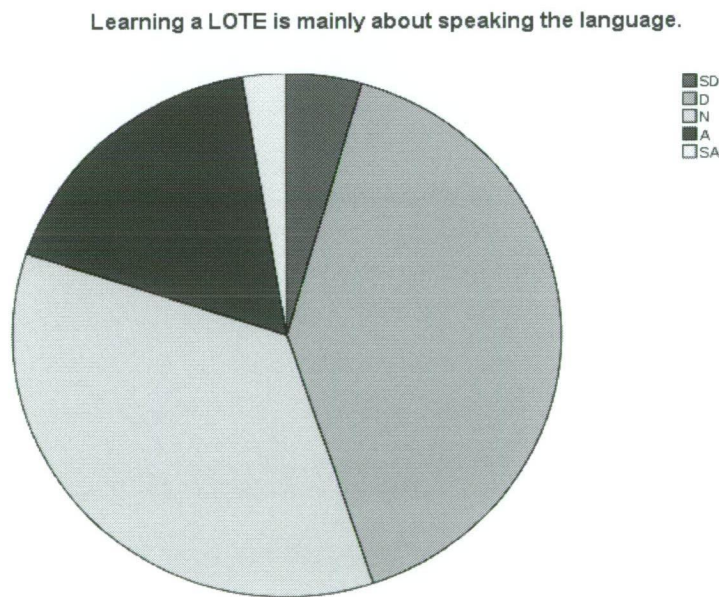


Figure 5.3

An interesting result and one slightly unexpected by the researcher was that the majority of pre-service teachers held beliefs that were not necessarily strong beliefs – only 7% held a strong belief regarding this issue. This could suggest that pre-service teachers, while holding a belief, were in a position to restructure that belief

given further exposure to learning opportunities. This information has been interrogated further by the following table:

Table 5.9 *Learning a LOTE is mainly about speaking the language*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	3	25	29	15	3	0	75
3	4	38	26	12	1	0	81
Total	7	63	55	27	4	0	156

There was slight evidence of this as 33% of first year pre-service teachers disagree with this statement and 46% of third year pre-service teachers disagreed. Richardson (1996) suggests that studies of teacher beliefs indicate that many different life experiences contribute to the formation of strong and enduring beliefs about teaching and learning but it is through a “learning and teaching framework during the teacher education program that these beliefs should be surfaced and acknowledged if the program is to make a difference in the deep structure of knowledge and beliefs held by the students” (p. 106). The data from this statement also indicated that many pre-service teachers’ beliefs were not set with 35% returning an N result, signalling neither agreement nor disagreement.

The following figure and table represent a different aspect but with similar results:

Learning a LOTE is mainly about translating from the LOTE to English and vice versa.

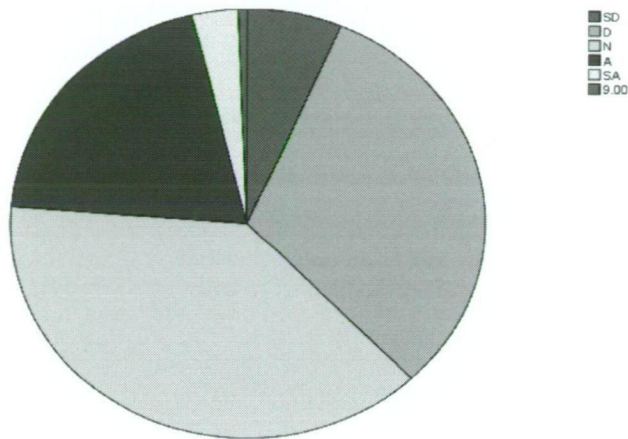


Figure 5.4

Table 5.10 *Learning a LOTE is mainly about translating from the LOTE to English and vice versa*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	6	19	32	15	3	0	75
3	4	30	28	16	2	0	81
Total	10	49	60	31	5	0	156

Of interest is the *N* component of these two results. Richardson (1998) suggests that “some pre-service courses effect change while other do not; some programs affect certain types of students and not others; and some beliefs are more difficult to change than others” (p. 111). This implies the individuality of the learner and the necessity of varying learning opportunities. On reflection, further study would benefit the researcher’s understandings in determining the types of inputs that are required to have an impact upon the pre-service teachers learning experiences. This may then influence beliefs to a greater extent as well as providing the researcher with the capacity to improve teaching practice to more adequately meet the needs of pre-service teachers.

The following figure and table represents the remaining features that are predominantly a part of Languages programs. As with the other information, pre-service teachers have not held strong views, but, once again, of great interest to the researcher is the percentage of *N*. The data has been presented in a similar way so that this pattern can be clearly discerned.

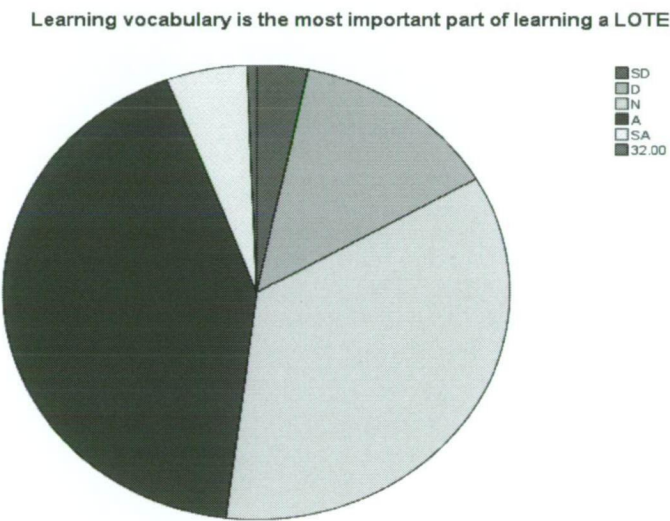


Figure 5.5

Table 5.11 *Learning vocabulary is the most important part of learning a LOTE*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	3	8	25	34	4	1	75
3	2	13	30	32	4	0	81
Total	5	21	55	66	8	1	156

Richardson (1996) discusses ‘confronting beliefs’ (p. 112) as a means of providing an opportunity for beliefs to change for without this confrontation, asserts Richardson, beliefs may not change nor impact upon practice. It is also difficult to determine if one course or one program has the capacity to impact on belief systems. The results of the data as expressed in the first and third year pre-service teacher

results, suggested that caution and further analysis and investigation would be required before certain conclusions could be deemed authoritative. But a positive word from Pajares (1992, p. 307) who suggests that “the beliefs which teachers and pre-service teachers hold influence their perceptions and judgements, which, in turn, affect their behaviour in the classroom and understanding the belief structures of teachers and teacher candidates is essential in improving their professional preparation and teaching practices.” This perception, coupled with the notion put forward by Richardson provides the researcher with a base from which to further explore pre-service teachers’ future potential to implement or more likely, support, a Languages program.

Grammar learning provided a large *N* response from participants. This statement was worded a little more generally than others regarding issues around Languages learning and was expected to provide a more definite response. This was not the case with 36.5% remaining neutral. It was interesting that there were no strongly disagree responses, with the strongly agreeing being the highest percentage for the statements within this theme

Table 5.12 *Learning grammar is an important part of learning a LOTE*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	0	3	29	33	10	0	75
3	0	3	28	42	8	0	81
Total	0	6	57	75	18	0	156

The above data provided the researcher with findings that were similar to previous results within this theme and provided some worthy discussion points that will be presented in a later chapter.

It is apparent that all students surveyed saw the above aspects of Languages learning as important, however data indicated that not one of the above aspects was more significant in Languages learning and should therefore not play a major role. For example, 24% of first year pre-service teachers and 20% of third year pre-service teachers considered that learning a language was mainly about speaking the language. Only 3% of the total surveyed pre-service teachers saw Languages learning as mainly translations, 6% of the total saw vocabulary learning as being of greatest significance and 59% saw grammar as being an important part of a Languages program.

This was supported in pre-service teachers' comments:

- the best LOTE learning I had was in primary school where my class teacher taught us and she would bring it in to many lessons. I can remember in Maths playing a game where we had to use Indonesian numbers.*
- ...our Music teacher used to teach us French songs that we would then sing to our French teacher when she was in the class. She always seemed very surprised and pleased with us.*
- The worst part of my Languages learning was in high school when we seemed to spend so much time learning vocab and writing sentences using different tenses. In primary school, our teacher would support the LOTE teacher's work by saying good morning in Japanese and singing songs and reading stories. This all disappeared in high school and Languages learning became quite separate to everything else we did.*
- I can remember my teacher teaching us vocab using songs. It was fun!!*
- In primary school I remember learning grammar – I thought having masculine and feminine words was funny!! But it was only a part of what we did and seemed to make sense with what else was happening.*

and finally

– I can remember learning vocab in primary school but it was part of an activity that we were doing. It all seemed to fit together and it made sense.

These comments considered the issue of integration and the idea of embedding Languages into the curriculum as a way of providing relevant experiences to learners. It can be seen, therefore, that the ideas in theme one are supported and strengthened by findings in this area and certainly were strongly supported by the discussion in the literature review related to integration. Comments also supported the data in that pre-service teachers did not highlight one aspect of Languages learning as being of greater significance than another.

They did, however, see the learning of culture as significant to their programs. For example:

– ...I don't remember much except the basket the teacher bought in with her that had some games in it. I remember a cook up and dress up day we had.

– In Grade 7 we made traditional Indonesian puppets and had a puppet show and we had to make a poster advertising the puppet show

– I remember trying to make the Eiffel Tower out of straws and plasticine. It took me ages and I remember showing it in assembly.

– In Grade 6 we had a visit from an Indonesian puppet group. They then showed us how to make a shadow puppet and we made up our own plays.

These remarks provided an insight into the teaching of culture within Languages programs. Within the literature review, the ways in which culture is and has been taught within the Languages framework to “represent different views of the nature of culture, different levels of concern for the relationship between language

and culture, the different understandings of the place of culture in languages education” (Liddicoat et al. 2003, p. 5) is considered. From pre-service teachers’ comments, the teaching of culture appeared to represent the Cultural Studies paradigm as the ‘exotic’ is focussed upon and there appeared to be little link to a dynamic approach to second Language learning. The puppet experience had the greatest potential, but it was unclear from the comments how the event was integrated into the overall program.

For the researcher, this data was significant as it provided an insight into pre-service teachers’ beliefs and understandings that was not initially conceptualised. There appears to be a much wider perception of what Languages learning is by the pre-service teachers.

Within each of the statements an interesting phenomenon occurred – a high percentage of *N* responses were recorded. 35% were neutral regarding speaking, 38% translating, 35% vocabulary and 36% grammar. This data was significant as it appeared that many pre-service teachers, both in 1st and 3rd year, were unable to determine the extent of the relevance of these factors in the overall Languages learning experience. Critical are the experiences that are offered to pre-service teachers in assisting in the development of pedagogical beliefs and understandings as the data suggested that many pre-service teachers had not yet fully determined these beliefs and understandings.

The data analysed from this theme areas suggested to the researcher that pre-service teachers had an understanding of the elements of Languages learning and the tasks involved but were unsure of the role and of the importance of many of these elements in learning a language. This was represented both by the high percentage of *N* responses to statements and the low responses to strongly agree and strongly

disagree. A third year pre-service teacher, female aged between 18 and 25, best summarised this position:

I know that it is important to learn how to read, write, speak and listen in the second language and to learn about the culture of the country where the language is spoken, but I am not sure if I could organise my teaching to include all of this and not make it too heavy with one bit. The idea of integration is important, but getting the balance right is just as important.

5.5.3 Languages as a Learning Area

Languages for all has had a slow development within the Tasmanian and indeed the Australian context. As outlined by MCEETYA, (2005 p. 4) “languages education for all students is a relatively new concept in the history of Australian schooling.” For those who were able to access a Languages program, historically, it was necessary for them to be academically able secondary students. This position began to change in the 1990s when states and territories began to introduce Languages programs more widely and began to include primary schools in the implementation process. This was in response to the *National Goals for Schooling* (DEEWR, n.d.) that stated that all compulsory school-aged children should have “attained high standards of knowledge, skills and understanding through a comprehensive and balanced curriculum in the compulsory years of schooling encompassing the agreed eight key learning areas.” Languages was one of the identified eight key learning areas. In Tasmania, this program began in 1994 with the federally funded NALSAS program.

This study aimed at investigating this theme within the questionnaire framework to determine pre-service teachers’ beliefs and perceptions of the position of Languages as a learning area within the curriculum. The previous themes’ results

indicated that 72.9% of pre-service teachers articulated their beliefs that Languages need to be part of an integrated curriculum. The following data provided responses more generally to issues of accessibility for primary school learners, Languages learning for all and teacher proficiency. This theme further developed ideas introduced in the previous themes and expands the idea of Languages to the learning area rather than to the classroom domain.

These statements were also investigating pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding Languages for all learners. Ingram (1990), when discussing the reasons for Languages learning suggested that "... the most fundamental need of an educational system is to seek to ensure that all children ...develop those attitudes that will enable them to live harmoniously, fully and most rewardingly in the multi-cultural societies of which they are part" (p. 17). Prior to the IcLL development, Van Hoof and Shaw (1996) maintained that children who had studied a language had "increased confidence in the use of their own language which reflected a heightened awareness of languages generally" (p. 4). This awareness was then transferred into first language learning in a variety of ways – understanding language as a system, developing strategies to deduce meaning, recognising patterns in both oral and written language. No matter the learning issues, all children had the ability to benefit from a Languages program but the extent of the benefits depended upon the support that was provided to the learning. Here the teacher provides a pivotal role in adapting the program to suit the needs of the learner.

For this theme, pre-service teachers responded to the following statements:

- learning a LOTE is very difficult for primary aged children
- to be good at LOTE, students need to be academically very capable
- all primary school children should have access to learning a LOTE

- teachers need to have a high level of competency in the LOTE before they can teach it
- LOTE is a difficult subject to teach
- all children are capable of learning a LOTE
- having learnt one LOTE, it would be easy for children to learn another.

The following two Tables were investigating pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding accessibility of Languages to children within the primary sector.

Table 5.13 *To be good at LOTE students need to be academically very capable*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	12	34	14	14	2	1	75
3	12	46	15	6	0	0	81
Total	24	80	29	20	2	1	156

Table 5.14 *Learning a LOTE is very difficult for primary aged children*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	14	21	19	17	3	1	75
3	11	36	21	12	1	0	81
Total	25	57	40	29	4	1	156

Of the pre-service teachers, 66% disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement regarding academic capacity and 52% disagreed or strongly disagreed that Languages learning is very difficult for primary ages children to learn. Once again the *N* category was significantly supported with 18.5% of pre- service teachers standing neutral on the academic statement and 25.6% remaining neutral on the difficulty for primary aged learners statement.

Interestingly, the year of study significantly impacted upon results with a 16.4% difference between first and third year pre-service teachers either disagreeing or strongly disagreeing with the academically very capable statement and a 12.4% difference between first and third year pre-service teachers disagreeing or strongly disagreeing with the statement regarding the difficulty for primary aged learners and Languages learning.

The above questions were triangulated with the question below and the response indicated a similar trend to the above statement with 69.8% of pre-service teachers agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statement. Similar year results were observed with an 8% variance between first and third year pre-service teachers agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statement.

As there was a wide range of ages within the cohort, an investigation was warranted to determine if age had an impact on the above statement. When comparing ages, there was no significant differences between 18–25 year olds and 26–35 year olds responses, regardless of years of study, as represented in Table 5.15

Table 5.15 *All children are capable of learning a LOTE*

Age								
			SD	D	N	A	SA	Total
18–25	year of study	1st year	2	2	8	30	19	61
		3rd year	0	1	7	40	20	68
		Total	2	3	15	70	39	129
26–35	year of study	1st year			1	2	4	7
		3rd year			1	4	6	11
		Total			2	6	10	18
36–45	year of study	1st year				1	5	6
		3rd year				1	1	2
		Total				2	6	8
Over 46	year of study	1st year					1	1
		Total					1	1

Preceding this is the statement regarding accessibility. Pre-service teachers were very positive in their response indicating an 86.5% agreement or strong agreement to the statement regarding accessibility as shown in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16 *All primary school children should have access to learning a LOTE*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	0	3	12	38	22	0	75
3	0	1	5	47	28	0	81
Total	0	4	17	85	50	0	156

This matches current positions surrounding national and state statements and curricula and is strongly reinforced by the Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians (2008) that articulated for our children to be active and informed citizens they need to “relate to and communicate across cultures, especially the cultures and countries of Asia” (p. 9) and schools, in promoting a world class curriculum, will enable students to develop knowledge in the “disciplines of English, mathematics, science, languages, humanities and the arts...providing inter-disciplinary approaches to innovation and complex problem solving” (p. 13).

For such programs to be implemented appropriately, prepared teachers need to be available. The Australian Federation of Modern Languages Teachers Associations (AFMLTA, 2005) produced guidelines which outlined requirements for being an accomplished teacher of Languages:

Being an accomplished teacher of Languages and cultures means being a person who knows, uses and teaches language and culture in an ethical and reflective way. It involves a continuous engagement with and commitment to learning, both as a teacher and as a life-long learner. It means more than teaching

knowledge of languages and cultures and includes teaching learners to value, respect and engage with languages and cultures in their own lives and to interact with others across linguistic and cultural borders. It means creating a culture of learning which approaches language, culture and learning with respect, empathy, commitment, enthusiasm and personal responsibility (p. 1).

These standards highlighted that accomplished Languages teaching can only occur in a teaching context that is supported in all its forms and so the standards document included not only standards for accomplished teaching, but also programs standards, which the profession believed are necessary for accomplished teaching to occur.

While pre-service teachers acknowledge the importance of such accomplishment, as outlined in the table below, it would not be feasible to expect that they know what that competency may involve.

Table 5.17 *Teachers need to have a high level of competency in the LOTE before they can teach it*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	1	6	12	36	20	0	75
3	0	29	24	22	6	0	81
Total	1	35	36	58	26	0	156

One of the limitations of this research was the ability to determine the depth of pre-service teachers' knowledge and understandings that was being brought to statements, but it does provide insights into those understandings that could be developed further.

As a wider community of educators it is necessary for us all to play a role in supporting young teachers in their development. The AFMLTA (2005) acknowledged that quality teaching is not merely the result of an application of pre-specified skills

but “effective languages and cultures teaching is influenced by the context in which the teaching happens, including the conditions in which the program operates”. The AFMLTA believed that quality teaching was the collective responsibility of teachers, school leaders, and the school community.

Pre-service teachers certainly emphasised the impact of the teacher on their Languages learning as more relevant than the teacher’s competency in the language. In the discussions, no students commented specifically on the knowledge of the teacher in Languages delivery, but commented heavily on the capacity of the teacher to deliver the Languages program:

- The teacher didn’t teach Latin and French in a way that was interesting ...in the end I couldn’t be bothered.*
- ...I came to learn French in Grade 3 when I moved to a new school and walked straight into my first class where all the students were speaking the basics well and I was basically left to sink or swim. Fortunately I swam and really enjoyed the subject until Grade 8 when I was placed with a bad teacher and I lost enthusiasm.*
- My teacher was so enthusiastic that I think it rubbed off on me and I really enjoyed Japanese at primary school, even though it was hard.*
- I still value my primary Japanese experience as the teacher taught in a way that was exciting and integrated her passion for Japan into lessons.*
- For me it was the teachers who made the LOTE. I went to a private girls school and learning at least one LOTE was compulsory. I learnt Japanese and French and even though the Japanese was harder I really enjoyed it because the teacher made it so interesting. I think it was because*

she was enthusiastic. Even learning the grammar was sometimes quite fun.

From these illustrations, it can be seen that the teacher's capacity to teach greatly impacted upon the pre-service teacher's desire and willingness to learn. An essential element of successful Languages teaching therefore is a program that is motivating, but delivered in such a way as to encourage learners to be involved and want to learn and suits the needs of the learner no matter their capacities to learn.

In relation to teacher competence, there is some tension between pre-service teachers' idea of competency and that of the profession, but it is up to the profession to support and guide the young professional in developing the skills to gain that recognised competence.

5.5.4 The Rationale for Learning Languages

For this theme, five statements were presented to explore pre-service teachers' responses.

This theme was selected to gain pre-service teachers views on Languages learning and to ascertain if they were able to determine the purpose of Languages and where their views sat in relation to those provided within the framework of the literature review. In particular, the researcher referred to the *Tasmanian Curriculum* (Department of Education, 2007) which states:

Students with proficiency in another language can communicate more effectively in an increasingly globalised world. Learning a language is recommended for its contribution to the overall education of students, particularly in the areas of communication, intercultural understanding and literacy. It provides a foundation for later language learning and supports educational, career and life pathways (p. 6).

Languages is in the English-literacy area of the curriculum as it strongly

supports the “development of literacy, language and communication skills. What we learn to do in one language helps us with any other language and strengthens all literacy practices” (Department of Education, 2007, p. 6).

This statement clearly articulates the purposes of Languages and provided a solid base from which to explore this theme.

Separating years of training could provide a small window to view changes in beliefs and understandings as pre-service teachers progressed through their preparation courses. The researcher is, however, cognisant of the fact that there may be too many variables for this data to be relevant. To fully appreciate this phenomena, a longitudinal study, following the 1st year cohort would better explore this phenomena.

The statements related to this theme were as follows:

- learning a LOTE offers many future opportunities for children
- learning a LOTE will enable children to learn about the culture of the country in which the LOTE is spoken
- it is important for Tasmanian primary school children to be able to select a LOTE that they can study
- learning a LOTE enables children to better understand other peoples and culture
- learning a LOTE would help learners learn in other curriculum areas.

These statements were very general and provided an initial focus for the research, but it must be recognised that responses to this theme provided many questions and springboards for further investigations that are outlined in a later chapter. Learning a language should provide learners with an opportunity to learn

about the culture in which the language is spoken. The following table indicated that pre-service teachers saw this as an important aspect.

Table 5.18 *Learning a LOTE will enable children to learn about the culture of the country in which the LOTE is spoken*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	0	2	14	32	27	0	75
3	0	3	6	49	23	0	81
Total	0	5	20	81	50	0	156

The above statement was supported by the following responses as outlined in the initial data representation, and provided an avenue to check pre-service teachers’ beliefs. Whilst there was a subtle difference, responses were similar, thus this idea was perceived as a relevant aspect of learning a language.

Table 5.19 *Statement S 20*

S20	Learning a LOTE enables children to better understand other peoples and culture.	Agree 83.3%	N 1.9%	Disagree 14.7%
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The statement, *learning about the culture in which the LOTE is spoken is an integral part of learning the language* was introduced to determine pre-service teachers’ understandings about the place of learning about culture. Using the word ‘integral’ was significant as the researcher wished to explore where pre-service teachers placed culture learning without to overly ‘leading’ in the search for their opinions.

Table 5.20 *Learning about the culture in which the LOTE is spoken is an integral part of learning the language*

	Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid SD	0	0	0	0
D	3	1.9	1.9	1.9
N	17	10.9	10.9	12.8
A	81	51.9	51.9	64.7
SA	55	35.3	35.3	100.0
Total	156	100.0	100.0	

With 87.2% of pre-service teachers either agreeing or strongly agreeing and only 1.9% disagreeing, this statement was strongly supported and could be interpreted as being seen as a significant element of a Languages teaching and learning program by pre-service teachers, as it is within the *Tasmanian Curriculum*.

In a previous discussion, pre-service teachers strongly supported the idea that Languages learning has transferrable skills into other learning areas. Here pre-service teachers were asked to respond to the notion of Languages' capacity to provide information and knowledge that may help learners in other learning situations. Once again there were differing results between first and third year pre-service teachers.

Table 5.21 *Learning a LOTE would help learners learn in other curriculum areas*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	1	5	31	29	9	0	75
3	0	2	18	49	11	1	81
Total	1	7	49	78	20	1	156

Whilst this statement is strongly supported, of interest here to the researcher is determining what those transferrable learnings may be and how do they impact on the learning in other curriculum areas? Given the positioning of Languages within the English framework, there is an obvious link, but pre-service teachers' voices indicate other areas where skills can be transferred. Some have been mentioned previously but one pre-service teacher made a particularly interesting link:

I can remember in primary school learning about what to do in the yard if we were bullied. We had charts on the wall and would often, as a class, talk about the options. One day in LOTE we watched a video about children in a school somewhere in Indonesia and in the video a group of boys (I think) were having a disagreement about a game's rules, or something like that, and their way of solving the problem was different to what we would have done. Looking back now, it made me realise that firstly it was not only us in our school that had these issues but kids everywhere needed ways to solve their problems.

Table 5.22 *It is important for Tasmanian primary school children to select a LOTE that they can study*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	0	3	26	31	15	0	75
3	0	6	20	39	16	0	81
Total	0	9	46	70	31	0	156

Table 5.22 represents a statement that in most schools is not able to be met, but the data has shown that pre-service teachers saw it as being of significance. Conversely, comments by pre-service teachers indicate a different stance. Comments

suggest that while choice would have suited some learners, most were not in a position to have the knowledge to choose, if indeed there was a choice:

- *I would liked to have learnt Italian as I have an Italian background but this was not possible at my school.*
- *Learnt German at primary school and chose to continue with it at high school.*
- *I had to learn Japanese – that was OK. If I had had a choice I have no idea of how I would have chosen one over an other.*
- *I learnt Indonesian at primary school because that was what was offered. I didn't know much about languages so if there were a choice I would not have been able to make an informed choice.*
- *Learning the LOTE was the important thing – didn't matter which one.*

Figure 5.6 below represents the long-term perspective of Languages learning as perceived by the pre-service teachers. This table indicated, more clearly than others, that pre-service teachers saw the long-term benefits of learning Languages with 89.7% seeing Languages as offering long term opportunities to learners.

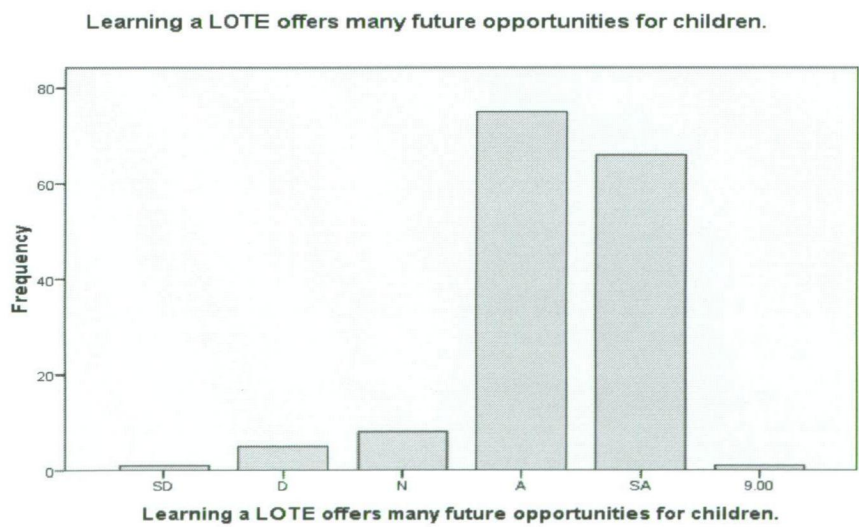


Figure 5.6

From the information, it can be seen that the majority of pre-service teachers agreed with policy makers and curriculum designers about what the purposes of a well constructed Languages learning program should include and provide for learners. Pre-service teachers agreed that Languages learning provides opportunities beyond the acquisition of language skills. To flesh out those opportunities would be a logical extension for further study.

It is imperative, therefore, that the experiences of learners whilst at university support these beliefs and provide opportunities for pre-service teachers to reflect on and respond to situations that enable them to deepen their understandings and begin to see how all of these elements can be combined into a teaching and learning program.

5.5.5 The Participant as a Languages Learner

Investigating this theme provided data regarding the impact of pre-service teacher's knowledge and beliefs about Languages and their readiness or otherwise to accept into their teaching repertoire this learning area.

As primary teachers we have expected our pre-service teachers to have a knowledge and a capacity to teach the recognised eight learning areas. The Melbourne Declaration (MCEETYA, 2008) redefined these learning areas and schools are expected to incorporate them into the curriculum "with breadth, balance and depth of learning appropriate to the students' phases of development." (p. 14). Languages (especially Asian languages) are an articulated learning area and there is an expectation that schools reflect these learning areas in their curriculum to meet the needs of the local context. Thus, theoretically, Languages learning needs to be made available to learners and that requires teachers. Pre-service teachers have already supported the notion of Languages being available to learners and have expressed a

willingness to be involved in programs, but what of their personal attitudes toward their own learning development and preparation to teach within this learning area?

To explore this, the following four statements were presented:

- given the opportunity, I would like to learn a LOTE
- I would find it easy to learn a LOTE
- I would like to learn a LOTE so as I could teach it in the primary classroom
- my LOTE learning has greatly influenced my beliefs about LOTE learning.

The following results are a summary of this theme and raised issues for the researcher which will be further developed in a later chapter.

Table 5.23 *Given the opportunity, I would like to learn a LOTE*

	Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid SD	1	0.6	0.6	0.6
D	5	3.2	3.2	3.8
N	22	14.1	14.1	17.9
A	56	35.9	35.9	53.8
SA	72	46.2	46.2	100.0
Total	156	100.0	100.0	

This statement provided the researcher with an insight into pre-service teachers’ perceptions towards Languages as it suggests a personal response by the individual that leans very heavily in favour of learning a language – 82.1% of participants indicated that they would like to learn a language.

Personal responses from pre-service teachers indicated that many saw the relevance of Languages learning and would be better prepared to learn a language:

- Now I am older and been overseas, I can see the advantage of LOTE learning and would be keen to teach it.*
- ...having students from Japan stay with my family, I can see the importance of learning another language and I would like to teach it to my class.*
- Learnt French many years ago but I never thought I would use it so gave it up. Nowadays my thinking has changed considerably and I think it is really important. I have an international student living with my family so I have a new appreciation of other languages and their importance for today's children.*
- ...on my last prac there were two children from African countries who were able to speak another language. To me this was fantastic I began to think how 'language sheltered' our kids are in schools.*
- When I was at school, I struggled with Indonesian – I wasn't really interested and therefore didn't really make much of an effort. Last year I went to Bali and now I wish I had tried harder – if only I knew then what I know now!*

These comments reflected very strongly the pre-service teachers' beliefs that Languages learning was important for a variety of reasons. This importance has grown as a result of a significant event in the life of the pre-service teacher. Nespor (1987, p. 320) articulated that "critical episodes or experiences gained in early teaching careers were important to present practices". Whilst this idea was in relation to in-service teachers, there was relevance and connection to the above observations by pre-service teachers. The observations revealed the impact of life events on the

pre-service teacher and the possible capacity for this to impact on their future practice. This impact will depend upon the capacity of the pre-service teacher to access the appropriate avenues through which learning can occur.

As a method of checking, the Table 5.24 indicates a similar result to those above thus confirming pre-service teachers’ willingness to be involved in learning and teaching a language.

Table 5.24 *I would like to learn a LOTE so as I could teach it in the primary classroom*

	Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid SD	2	1.3	1.3	1.3
D	8	5.1	5.1	3.6
N	18	11.5	11.5	17.9
A	77	49.4	49.4	67.3
SA	51	32.7	32.7	100.0
Total	156	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.25 provided data shows that while pre-service teachers were keen to improve their skills in Languages, it may not be an easy task. A small percentage, 14.1%, remained neutral which indicated an uncertainty but not necessarily a deterrent. Comments from pre-service teachers further supported this notion:

- I would like to learn a LOTE, but I struggled at high school and am not sure if I want to go through that again.*
- I found Japanese hard to learn, but I think it was because I wasn’t particularly interested. I think I would like to try again. We learnt this year that once you have learnt a language it makes it easier to learn another. Maybe that will be the case with me.*

- *I have watched my kids learn Indonesian. It seems a lot easier than when I learnt a language – I think I would be OK learning a language now.*
- *...now that I am at Uni, I know that I would like to travel and maybe work overseas, so knowing a language would be useful.*
- *...but mixing with and meeting overseas students it would be good to have an idea of how languages ‘work’.*

All comments were a reflection of a past experience. As was discussed in the literature review, pre-service teachers’ beliefs regarding language learning stem from their experiences as Languages learners, mainly from school. They have listened and observed their teachers and through this ‘apprenticeship of observation’ (Lortie, as cited in Buchmann, 1987, p. 152) have internalised a belief system around the teaching of languages as well as beliefs about teaching. This system can strongly influence perceptions, behaviour and the pre-service teachers’ capacity to make adjustments to their beliefs.

In conclusion, beliefs have been structured from experience and it is through what Nespor (1987) refers to as ‘critical episodes’, that beliefs may impact on practice. What has been made aware to the researcher is the variety of critical episodes that may influence the learner – in this case the pre-service teacher.

Responses to, *given the opportunity, I would like to learn a LOTE* and *I would like to learn a LOTE so that I could teach it in the primary classroom*, suggested a strong desire, particularly in the third year pre-service year group, to learn a language.

Table 5.25 *Given the opportunity, I would like to learn a LOTE*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	1	4	16	26	28	0	75
3	0	1	6	30	44	0	81
Total	1	5	22	56	72	0	156

Table 5.26 *I would like to learn a LOTE so that I could teach it in the primary classroom*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	1	7	13	36	18	0	75
3	1	1	5	41	33	0	81
Total	2	8	18	77	51	0	156

This section provided the researcher with insights into the knowledge of pre-service teachers. For Connelly and Clandinin (1999), practical knowledge is dependent on the impact of past experiences. This knowledge is gained through experience and sits within a context. Pre-service teachers have, therefore, used their previous experiences to a large extent to respond to most of the statements presented in the survey. Some of these responses have highlighted negative experiences to Languages learning but the majority of pre-service teachers saw the relevance of the learning area and indicated a willingness and a preparedness to learn a language so as, firstly, to increase their own knowledge but also to help them within the classroom in the support of a Languages program.

Responses referred to in Table 5.27, were of significance as they indicated the impact of prior experience, with 58.3% of participants agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statement, *my LOTE learning has greatly influenced my beliefs about LOTE*

learning. Of that 58%, 70% of third year pre-service teachers strongly agreed or agreed while 45% of first year pre-service teachers agreed or strongly agreed.

Table 5.27 *My LOTE learning has greatly influenced my beliefs about LOTE learning*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	2	6	31	24	10	2	75
3	0	3	20	35	22	1	81
Total	2	9	51	59	32	3	156

Pre-service teachers have illustrated Pajares’ (1992) stance in that the findings illustrated that beliefs are formed early and tend to persevere against contradictions arising from reason, time and experience. Beliefs are connected and may be prioritised according to those connections.

Cross (2006) argued that “the knowledge base of languages teacher education has subsequently tended to neglect the need to understand what languages teachers themselves bring to the classroom” (p. 1) and we need to “understand more about how language teachers conceive of what they do: what they know about language teaching, how they think about their classroom practices’ (Freeman & Richards, 1996 cited in Valez-Rendon, 2002, p. 465).

5.6 Conclusion

The data presented the researcher with a perception of the pre-service teachers’ beliefs and understandings about Languages teaching and learning within the Tasmanian context. The responses to the survey, both the questionnaire and the responses gained from the open-ended statement have enabled a picture to be painted concerning the stated aims, namely: to explore pre-service teachers’ perceptions and

beliefs regarding the teaching of LOTE in primary schools within the Tasmanian government school sector.

- What perceptions and beliefs of Languages teaching do pre-service teachers hold?
- How do pre-service teachers perceive Languages teaching and learning?
- How confident are pre-service teachers in being involved in Languages teaching?

The issues that have been raised reflect the context in which pre-service teachers have had an exposure to Languages learning and their responses were a response to that context and the influences that have been present. It was seen throughout this analysis, and supported by the literature, that the teacher has a great impact on the learner and it is their beliefs that influence teaching practice. It was important, therefore, that exploring the beliefs of pre-service teachers – both personal and pedagogical – be completed so that information can be gathered to inform future decisions in regard to pre-service teacher learning. It will be necessary to provide, determine and deliver experiences to future pre-service teachers that reflect their perceptions of Languages learning and value their experiences so that further experiences build upon that base understanding and further develop their beliefs regarding Languages education in a positive manner.

This analysis provided data that indicated that pre-service teachers saw the value of Languages learning by primary aged children, that it has the capacity to enrich learning in other curriculum areas, has a lifelong benefit to learners, should be available to all, is relevant to today's world and can provide learners with an ability to understand and communicate meaningfully with others.

The next chapter is focussed upon the in-service teachers and their responses to the interview process.

Chapter 6

Presentation and Analysis of In-service Teacher

Interview

6.1 Introduction

Developing upon the theoretical stance and the contextual background of the previous chapters, this chapter will provide an analysis of the in-service teacher survey data. The data was analysed and discussed using the five organising themes framework previously outlined to provide a structure through which the data could be analysed in a logical and systematic manner. The analysis will continue to reflect the aims of the study, be informed by the theoretical underpinnings as outlined in the literature review and demonstrate the implementation of the previously proposed methodology.

In particular, this chapter will provide an outline of the analysis of collected data based upon the research objective three, namely:

To investigate in-service teachers' perceptions and beliefs on Languages teaching in primary schools:

- What pedagogies are employed in classroom instruction?
- How is a teaching and learning program structured to maximise student learning?
- What factors impact upon Languages teaching and learning?

In addition, this analysis will seek to explore in-service teachers' understandings of and involvement in the historical developments of Languages teaching within the state.

This process was investigated using the interview as the data gathering technique.

6.2 The Interviews

Analysis of semi-structured interviews conducted within a variety of contexts was the primary means of exploring the beliefs of the in-service teachers. Two of the interviews were held in the homes of the interviewees, and four were held in their workplace after school hours. These places were negotiated with each individual participant.

The results and analysis of the qualitative data for the in-service teachers are presented in this chapter. Six 45 minute semi-structured interviews were conducted with in-service teachers in the period December 2008 – April 2009. These interviews were carried out on a one-to-one basis as the researcher felt this would allow for greater control of the process, and allow for ease of arrangement and later location of ideas that were related to a specific person. The place and time of interview was determined by the participant.

Initial contacts, once approval had been obtained, was by telephone. All arrangements in regard to meeting times were arranged either by phone or by email. Once participants had agreed to the interview, the schedule of questions was supplied to them and they were given time prior to the interview day to consider their responses. All participants were enthusiastic contributors to the research process. Within the interview activity, information was shared willingly and for both

researcher and participant, the activity was positive. One participant provided the researcher with further information via email after the interview as other issues had come to mind after the interview had been completed.

The researcher used a schedule of questions for the interviews, however, the semi-structured nature of the interview allowed for a more conversational and informal approach. This informal tone sometimes led to valuable digressions from the schedule which allowed participants to share their stories and, for the researcher, to better “access the perspective of the person being interviewed” (Best and Kahn, 2006, p. 265). This also reduced the likelihood of interview data being biased and misleading, as the perspectives of the researcher were less likely to dominate the communicative transaction. As “at the heart of the interview, is the desire to encompass the ‘hows of peoples’ lives – the constructive work involved in producing order in everyday life, as well as the whats – the activities of everyday life” (Fontana & Frey, 2000, p. 646), it was critical that the researcher attempted to “quarantine” or minimise preconceived notions or beliefs regarding the study. Such an endeavour was critical inasmuch as such pre-conceptions might potentially undermine the objective of gathering information in as natural a manner as possible.

All interviews were recorded and subsequently transcribed and the participants were assigned a pseudonym to protect their identity. The transcripts were supplied to each participant for accuracy. Any changes were minimal, mainly associated with sentence structure or a grammar correction. One of the participants, Jane, emailed further information that she wished to be included. Another participant, James, phoned asking to include some mention of an aspect that he had forgotten to talk about in the initial interview.

6.3 The Participants

Purposeful selection was utilised to allow for a range of experience and views within the limited population of primary Languages teachers. The selection of in-service teacher participants was drawn from primary school settings within the Tasmanian government school sector. The participants also represented diversity in terms of their location and teaching experience, in that two teachers were long-term teachers in rural settings, three teachers were teaching in urban settings and one teacher had a role both within a school and as a team leader within a school district. This was considered to be important as their own schooling experiences and their engagement with differing social, political and curricular educational contexts would provide a fuller picture of Languages teaching, as well as provide the researcher with a wider perspective on individual beliefs and understandings. Every participant had experienced Languages teaching in their own teaching practice for at least four years and all participants were currently involved in teaching Languages, but in different capacities. Of the six teachers interviewed, one taught Japanese, three taught French and two taught Indonesian.

6.3.1 Biography of Participants

A brief biography of the participants follows. This will allow the reader to gain some insights into the participants and allow for some capacity to distinguish one participant from another and provide some relevant background information associated with the participant. In general terms, through the interview process, all participants indicated that they began to learn their second language at high school and had continued with that learning in a variety of ways since completing their teacher training. All participants had travelled extensively overseas and all had

opportunities to study within the country where the language they taught is spoken as a first language. It also became obvious to the researcher that all participants were passionate advocates for Languages teaching. Each participant has been given a pseudonym as a means of maintaining privacy.

6.3.1.1 Kate

Kate has two teaching jobs. She is a French teacher in a low socioeconomic urban government school for two days per week as well as a French teacher in a small privately operated urban school for one day per week. Kate also has a supporting role with new teachers supporting them and providing professional learning in Languages within her school district for two days per week. Kate is also heavily involved with the Modern Languages Teachers Association of Tasmania (MLTAT) group both at a local and state level.

Kate has been a French teacher for many years and is in the latter stages of her career. Previous to her present work load, Kate taught French both in high schools and in primary schools. Kate was fortunate to have won a scholarship to further her Languages study overseas.

Kate's personal Languages learning started in high school in a very traditional approach and setting. She continued with French, but has had experiences of learning Indonesian, Chinese and Japanese. Kate has spent time in France studying and travelling.

6.3.1.2 Jane

Jane has taught Japanese in a small rural district high school for many years. As well as Japanese, Jane teaches a variety of other subjects within the school from Prep to Year 10. Jane's expertise has been recognised in a variety of ways and, like Kate, she supports many young teachers in their development. Additionally, Jane has

conducted research herself, being heavily involved in national projects investigating pedagogical practices and conducting action research projects in her school context.

Jane's first Languages learning experience was at high school. Her teachers had a major impact on her Languages learning and she learnt both Japanese and French. Jane's first experience of Languages teaching came about fortuitously. In response to a need at the school where she worked for someone to teach Languages, Jane, who had been to Japan and studied it at matriculation level, offered to be the teacher. What followed represents many years of intensive learning on Jane's part – both formal courses, in-country experiences and by contact with her sister who is a linguist in a Japanese university.

6.3.1.3 Simon

Simon is and has been for a significant number of years, an itinerant French teacher covering both urban and rural schools in North-West Tasmania. At present he teaches French in four primary schools – a total of 18 classes per week.

As a mid-career teacher, Simon sees this role as unsustainable for the long-term, but sees the advantages of being able to open many children's eyes to the benefits of Languages learning. Simon is one of very few French teachers in his area and is regularly called upon to support younger teachers.

Simon, too, was strongly influenced by his high school French teacher who fostered in him a love of the language. He trained as a Maths/Science teacher, but after travelling to Europe in the early 90s, the opportunity arose to retrain as a Languages teacher. He did so and says "that sort of sparked the light in teaching for me."

Simon has continued his affection for all things French and has recently returned from an extensive stay in France.

6.3.1.4 Claire

Claire is an Indonesian teacher in a small low socioeconomic urban school. Claire has been teaching Indonesian for many years and is in the latter stages of her career. Claire teaches Indonesian to all of one year group and takes interest groups within the upper primary classes.

Claire holds a senior position within the school and is involved in district activities that support Languages programs.

Claire learnt Indonesian at matriculation and was fortunate enough to move with her family and live in Bali for a period of time. It was not possible for her to continue with Indonesian at university so it was, as an in-service teacher, that she developed her skills and became a qualified Languages teacher.

At present, as a senior staff member of her school, Claire is very active in promoting Languages learning to the school community.

6.3.1.5 Meg

Meg teaches Indonesian in a large rural school for one day per week as well as in a large urban school at the higher end of the socioeconomic scale for two days per week.

Meg's teaching career has been varied and she has taught Indonesian in a variety of school settings as well as being a class teacher and a teacher of Physical Education. As with most of the other teachers, Meg is involved in district activities to promote the teaching of Languages.

Meg's initial desire to be a Languages teacher contributed to her decision that 'if I am going to do this properly I need more qualifications, so off I went!' Meg has been an ongoing learner of the language through formal courses as well as travelling

extensively through Indonesia. Meg recently was awarded a scholarship to further her study.

6.3.1.6 James

James is a French teacher who this year is working within a large urban primary school where he teaches three days a week as a French teacher. He has no other commitments within the school. James also works in the local high school teaching French to Year 7s for one day per week.

James is a bilingual speaker and, unlike all other interviewees, did not complete his teacher training in Australia, but has been teaching in Tasmania for 12 years.

6.4 Analysis of Interviews

The analysis of the interview data was conducted within the same framework as the questionnaire data. The five organising themes were employed to provide this framework that enabled a later comparison of results to be examined. This served to meet the following project objective:

To investigate in-service teachers' perceptions and beliefs on languages teaching in primary schools.

- The role of IcLL in classroom instruction?
- How is a teaching and learning program structured to maximise student learning?
- What factors impact upon Languages teaching and learning?

6.4.1 Languages as Part of the Primary School Curriculum

In-service teachers considered Languages to be an important part of the primary school curriculum, expressing no doubt about the capacity of Languages to provide

learners with a unique perspective on their learning. Importantly, what in-service teachers noted was the increasing need to provide a curriculum that encouraged what Scarino and Liddicoat (2009) term an “intercultural capability...the capacity to negotiate meanings across languages and cultures” (p. 8). The negotiation of meanings associated with “intercultural capability” was noted by the teachers to articulate well with other areas of the curriculum, and this articulation was considered to enhance literacy development more generally.

I think that it (LOTE) is very enriching in the primary curriculum. I think one of the strengths that I've found as an English teacher and a Flying Start teacher is how learning another language helps students with their literacy particularly those who are struggling. It gives them another context to play with language – Jane.

We use language to interpret and make meaning. The above comment, by Jane, provides a context in which both second and first language learning are, in effect, participating in a ‘dialogue’ that effectively enhances meaning making process across both languages. It is within this social practice of making meaning that Languages can be an integral part of the primary school curriculum, in particular supporting first language learning. Simon’s comments help to clarify and personalise this idea:

I see the strongest and the most obvious way to include Languages in a balanced curriculum is through literacy learning. Learning a first language and a L2 requires the same skills. Why should it be different? We want students to be competent speakers of their L1 so as they can go into the community and talk confidently and appropriately. Ultimately isn't that what we would like for L2 learning?

Simon augments the idea that as meaning making processes, Languages learning ought to be conceived as contributing to students' literacy development, by introducing the concept of 'balance'. On this view, Languages form part of a balanced curriculum by providing links with first language learning. The notion of balance implies equilibrium between learning areas whereby all areas play different, but equally significant roles in the education of the learner.

As a society, we use language to communicate and learning a new language involves "learning how to use words, rules and knowledge about language and its use in order to communicate with speakers of the language" (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009, p. 16). Kramsch (1994) considers that this body of knowledge goes beyond being something to be learnt, in the sense that what is learned is conceived of as existing as static knowledge outside the learner – knowledge that has to be retained and applied correctly. Rather, Kramsch (1994) avers it is a social practice in which the learner participates. It is something that we do in our daily lives and it is used to "express, create and interpret meanings and to establish and maintain social and personal relationships" (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009, p. 16). As with first language learning, learners are part of the fabric of the learning and have a capacity to shape what is happening and engage with the various elements within the process.

Traditionally Languages learning was seen as learning a code whereby words were learnt, structures were established, rules were memorised and applied in the appropriate contexts. Knowing these enabled the learner to put words together into set sentence structures, but did not adequately allow for the infinite complexities of communication. The learner was external to, and independent of, the language and perhaps found it difficult to gain relevance and meaning from the experience. Meg expressed a concise understanding of this concept but described it as:

*... not just about the words and numbers and where the adjectives go,
it is about getting on with other people and how they see themselves
in the bigger picture.*

It is classroom teachers' beliefs on Languages learning that impacts greatly on the status of Languages in a primary school curriculum. If Languages or first language learning is seen as a code to master – acquiring grammar, vocabulary, rules and structures – then learning becomes a chiefly intellectual exercise whereby the capacity to memorise and regurgitate is paramount, and the provision to engage in any quality and meaningful social practice is assigned a subordinate status. Such a paradigm necessarily engenders, to a greater or lesser extent, elitist and exclusionary practices, for if memorisation and correct application of rules and structures is the privileged activity of Languages learning, only those students with learning styles suited to this approach are likely to succeed. Alternatively, if learning is seen as part of social practice, then Languages learning becomes more closely aligned to the cultural context of the learner.

The in-service teachers certainly see Languages learning as more than a static representation of a linguistic form. Their comments suggested an appreciation of the dynamic nature of Languages learning that not only allows learners to interact on a more practical level, but encourages engagement with diversity at a more individual and personal level.

James alerts us to the dilemmas encountered by many itinerant Languages teachers in relation to the above discussion, but suggests ways to overcome such problems:

It needs to become an integral part of the classroom. It is often possible to find out what the class is studying and doing and try and fit LOTE into that, so that it is relevant, but practically sometimes it doesn't work out.

The above discussion illustrates the importance of what Borg (2003) in his discussion of 'teacher cognition' termed teacher practical knowledge. That is, the general knowledge, beliefs and thinking which shaped by background experiences, are often drawn on by more experienced effective teachers in reflecting on their practice. The teachers in this study believe in their capacity to teach and to think professionally as to how to implement their knowledge and beliefs in the contexts in which they work. Their pedagogies are based squarely on what might be termed "experiential capital."

Their experiences as learners and their classroom practice both influence their ongoing practice, no matter their location within their career. They see professional learning as imperative to their ongoing development and have a capacity to actively reflect on their practice and that of others to regularly assess the effectiveness of their classroom work.

As Jane concludes:

When I think back to the first unit I did on Family in 1993, I was very focussed on linguistic terms. We had this amount of vocab to learn and a particular language pattern. So that's what I wanted to do. A few years later I was given an opportunity to make literacy connections with that unit. So I took the family unit and embedded all the literacy outcomes for the unit. Out of that came an ICT learning object so I could layer the ICT over the unit. Lately we have had intercultural teaching principles so I've overlaid it again. So all the time you're enriching and learning and I think teachers who do that are able

to produce a really good LOTE program that mirrors what's happening in primary classrooms.

It is within this framework of mainstream educational research and practice, that teacher cognition is evidenced because, according to Borg (2003), “teachers are active, thinking decision makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically orientated, personalised, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs” (p. 81).

In-service teachers expressed their beliefs regarding Languages inclusion within the curriculum in a concise manner giving examples of practice and basing their discussions of their own reflective practice and the developments within the field of Languages study.

6.4.2 Core Content of a Languages Program.

The *Tasmanian Curriculum* (Department of Education, 2008) provides core content through three interrelated strands. These strands being:

- *communication*
- *language as a system*
- *language and culture.*

The *Tasmanian Curriculum* emphasises that

communicating is the central focus of Languages learning. The learning that takes place in the language as a system and language and culture strands enables students to develop the knowledge and skills that they need to communicate more effectively. The relative emphasis given to each strand in teaching programs will vary according to the specific language and the needs of students.

Communication:

Students use their increasing knowledge of language and culture to communicate effectively, confidently and responsibly. They use the macro skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Language as a system:

Students learn to identify, explain, apply, and compare language features, conventions and patterns and to understand languages as systems. They articulate what they discover about the similarities between their first and second languages. These skills and understandings support their English literacy skills and provide a foundation for future learning.

Language and culture:

Students learn to recognise, compare, apply, reflect on, and analyse cultural features, conventions, and patterns through language interactions. They identify and examine their own cultural values and develop an awareness of diverse cultural systems (p. 6).

These strands provided the framework in which participants situated themselves during the interview.

Throughout all of the interviews, the in-service teachers could clearly articulate the core elements or factors constituting Languages learning. Their ideas and discussion points centred on recent pedagogical positions, but those positions had been trialled, reflected upon and contextualised, and thus there was a conviction in the in-service teachers' positions regarding Languages education. This conviction was expressed not only through words, but through the intonations and emphasis of voice during interview, through their willingness to talk about what they do and the enthusiasm with which they spoke. Similarly, the body language of the participants

was open and congruent with their verbal message. The combination of content and paralinguistic framing cues provided the researcher deeper insights into their positions and gave the researcher confidence when considering the interview data's trustworthiness.

Jane took a macro level approach, emphasising the role of a robust pedagogical framework, the need for resourcing and support across all strata of the school community, for Languages education to flourish:

Languages learning needs to be well resourced. The school community needs to support it, the senior staff need to support it and the Languages teacher needs to have had good linguistic training and hold strong methodology practices. The teachers also need to hold appropriate pedagogy and connect to research trends in teaching and learning. The Essential Learnings was an interesting time because it gave teachers time to engage with high pedagogical principles like questioning, developing higher order thinking skills and getting kids to actively construct information through a range of ways.

Kate related the theme of core Languages content to the immediate classroom situation and fleshed out the details of what Jane referred to above as strong methodology, appropriate pedagogy and connection to teaching and learning research trends. Kate noted:

...second language learning should have lots of speaking and listening time. Allow the kids time to play with the language and have fun with it – games, songs. There needs to be opportunities to read and write – lots of modelling to start with though. LOTE learning needs regular ongoing contact to build on knowledge. It has to be interactive and supportive of literacy development.

James was mindful of the *Tasmanian Curriculum* Languages guidelines and the structures that teachers work within and his response certainly reflected those ideals. He conceived the essential elements of a Languages program thus:

There needs to be a balanced approach to LOTE learning. The kids need to be able to communicate and interact – they need to be able to speak, read, write and listen to the language. A good program should have a balance of the four and the teacher needs to plan for the four areas to be part of what is going on. From this they make connections to how the language goes together and how it is similar or different to English. Kids also need to learn about the culture of the country in a way that links it to the language and has some meaning. This often requires good resourcing as you can't actually take the kids there.

A common thread discernable through all of the responses centred on the need for interaction opportunities in the Languages classroom. In-service teachers consider interaction as central to their work and as core to a Languages program. Yet what sort of interactions are they referring to? They all see interaction in terms of its enabling potential, as a means of using language in a socially purposeful way, and each endeavours to maximise opportunities for this to occur. Jane talks about 'authentic experiences', Simon, on the other hand, likes to bring 'artefacts' to the classroom to encourage discussion, whereas Meg carries with her "a box of stuff that I have collected from Indonesia that I can pull out to use to talk about." They are very concerned with the idea that their interactions need to be purposeful and be relevant to the learners' learning. In-service teachers are also cognisant of the importance of interaction occurring with artefacts from the country of the L2. In particular the notion of 'mediated activity' informed by the social constructivist theories of Vygotsky, has tremendous currency for in-service teachers since it is through "the use of mediatory

tools and other cultural artefacts that humans have the capacity to act upon and regulate the environment within which they exist” (Cross, 2009, p. 25).

These approaches represent the notion of interaction as a social process whereby learners are involved in a process of “meaning making” and interpreting their world through the various available symbolic resources. The “...educational value of interaction grows out of developing and elaborating interaction as a social process [as] it is through interaction that learners engage with ideas and concepts” (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009, p. 39).

Scarino & Liddicoat (2009) progress their discussion by suggesting that the participant must be both performer and analyser of what is happening and that the interactions need to occur amongst a wide selection of participants.

As James suggests:

The best interaction occurs when the kids are involved in something that has meaning to them.

Jane has struggled with this process of interaction, but offered this small vignette:

I want children to develop a disposition, where they see someone who looks and sounds different from them but they feel that they can make a connection, and interact with that person and not just run away and make derogatory comments. In my Prep class I teach the students about how to meet someone and have a conversation. I want children to be open and engaging with others, not necessarily people from different nationalities but just with Tasmanians! We have a lot to learn from each other. I hope that as the children grow and as their LOTE teacher I begin to introduce them to

what being Japanese is about, they can transfer that learning to this new situation.

According to Scarino & Liddicoat (2009), it is important to consider, “what students will gain from doing the task, what they will take away from the learning experience and be able to draw on in other contexts and at other times” (p. 40).

In- service teachers raised particular issues relating to the curriculum. One such issue recurring throughout the responses was the need for a Languages program to be linked to other curriculum areas and be part of a whole curriculum.

Browett & Spencer’s (2008) ‘transdisciplinary approach’ to Languages teaching and learning suggests that establishing strong links between Languages programs and other curriculum areas encourages learners to develop better and deeper understandings and increases the learner’s capacity to make connections across the curriculum and between disciplines. Browett & Spencer (2008) suggest that “in transdisciplinary learning a languages program is supported by a collegial approach to teaching. Each area of learning is acknowledged as possessing its own body of knowledge, skills and processes” (p. 10). As each teacher’s strength is brought to the table, so a depth is brought to the program.

Jane provides an example of a successful link in her school:

I try to make lots of links across the curriculum. Through my own work and with other teachers, we do a lot of work with literacy and numeracy and some teachers have taught Science through LOTE. I have a unit of work on water in Japanese so we can compare and contrast how people in Japan use water and people in Australia use water. It’s all done through language. ICT is important and embedded into the LOTE classrooms.

Through the voices of the in-service teachers the the core content of Languages was aligned with a sociocultural framework in which learning occurred within a social framework, where interaction between learners and their learning material provided opportunities meaningful learning episodes to occur and where they, as the more expert, involved learners in active learning. Linking with other curriculum areas was one way of achieving this.

6.4.3 Languages as a Learning Area

All in-service teachers saw the importance of Languages as part of the primary school curriculum. This is to be expected, as all are practicing Languages teachers. Interestingly, they placed little importance on the historical stance of Languages in the primary curriculum, but rather were positive and forward thinking in their personal beliefs about the place of Languages as a discrete learning area and how it could be included in the future as part of the curriculum.

James, as a non-native Australian did, however, relate initial difficulties in providing enquiring students and members of the school community with rationales for the inclusion of Languages, to historically specific experiences of Languages learning:

In my growing up, LOTE was just there as part of the curriculum from an early age, probably about Grade 1 or 2 we started learning. It took me a long time to be able to answer kids here who say 'why do I have to learn French' because it was never a question that I asked myself – it was like doing Maths and Science – it was part of what we did in school.

James highlights an interesting point. For the other interviewees, their current beliefs about Languages learning were shaped in terms of the approaches/paradigms of their earlier experiences, (e.g. learning a language when it

was simply taken for granted that was what you did). This has informed their beliefs and practices as teachers later on. James had difficulty in providing a rationale for his teaching because he himself had encountered Languages learning when it was simply considered to be of value, in and of itself...no justification required.

Kate, through her experiences, sees Languages learning in the primary school a little differently:

I think that it is really important for Languages to be in the primary school curriculum. I have been teaching in primary for a few years now and see how quickly they pick it up without being self conscious. I was a secondary teacher for such a long time, and as students come in and begin their Languages learning in high school, they bring with them the sensitivities and unsureness of early adolescence. This reflects in the Languages classroom into behaviour management issues and an unwillingness to really have a go in front of others. I don't see that as much in the primary school. They are still learning their first language and they seem to connect more readily and respond more spontaneously.

I see it as very important in primary school and at the earliest possible age. I can also see how this foundation would enable a much smoother high school experience for students.

Jane feels very passionate about her rural students having access to a foreign language and sees it as an integral and embedded part of the school culture and is always looking at ways to engage all of her learners. In particular, Jane is focussing on activities that, no matter the potential of the learner, there is the capacity to succeed in their Languages learning.

When students come to the Languages classroom, I always am thinking 'will I engage all learners and what I need to do to make sure little Johnny can be involved in what we are doing.' Having an authentic task is important and a purpose for doing it. For example, we were doing letters as we have regular letters coming from students in Japan. All the children could see a reason for writing and were keen to respond. The best bit was that they had looked at this text type in literacy and were able to transfer the letter format to a new situation. This is when I get excited – when I can make natural connections to what is happening in the class. Being in the school full-time allows me to have those conversations to know what is going on.

And, as James has suggested:

... the best interaction occurs when the kids are involved in something that has meaning to them as this, too, expresses a belief about learning incorporating authentic activities.

Claire's context strongly impacts on her Languages program and how she implements it.

I have to get kids interested. I need a framework and I need to work out what these kids need to know and how and where that fits in the curriculum – both the Languages curriculum and the class curriculum. So I have goals and work out ways to meet those goals. But I have to achieve those goals in a fun and enjoyable way, because if the kids don't enjoy it, they won't come on board and it is this environment that has been a big challenge.

Scarino & Liddicoat (2009), suggest that planning for languages is “more than a description of activities and goals ... it includes the planning of conceptual and affective learning and centres around a focus on language conceived as interpersonal

and intrapersonal meaning-making and interpretation” (p. 77). In-service teachers reflect this idea strongly in what they do. Jane is very aware of the need for this to be considered when working with her classes as she sees their total involvement will only come about when there is a clear purpose, it has meaning to the learner and is supportive of their experience of school and Claire can see Languages operating successfully in her context when the learners are involved affectively.

Meg concludes by saying:

Languages fit in very nicely. What we try to do with kids is make them see that they are part of a global community. So it is not just about the words and numbers, but it's about getting on with other people and how they see themselves in the big picture. I think it is really important because it is not just about language, but about culture and where the kids see themselves and how they feel towards the culture of the language.

Once again the sociocultural stance is evident in how in-service teachers see the learning area. For in-service teachers it was not Languages should be included in the curriculum but how it can be effectively incorporated into what happens in a primary classroom.

6.4.4 The Rationale for Learning Languages

In-service teachers saw the rationale for Languages learning as stated above, reflecting pedagogical beliefs about Languages learning that are reflected in policy statements and guidelines. However, there were two distinct purposes that emerged that are worthy of consideration. These two purposes involved the capacity for Languages to enhance other learning, especially literacy and the capacity to provide learners with an intercultural understanding. These purposes are in conjunction and closely linked to the acquisition of language.

Figure 2, located in the literature review, provides a clear picture that illustrates how Languages learning can equip our students with the skills to make “connections with local, regional and global communities” (Browett and Spencer, 2006, p. 2). These ideals are reflected by in-service teachers in a variety of ways that have been reported upon previously, as all in-service teachers see Languages teaching as not only having the capacity to contribute to other curriculum areas, but also being able to widen learner’s perspectives, increase global understandings of humanity by deepening knowledge, developing skills and attitudes that will engender tolerance, acceptance and celebration of otherness.

Jane very succinctly presents this view when she reports:

I want children to be open and engaging with other people, not necessarily always people of different races, but also Tasmanians with whom they come in contact. We have a lot to learn from each other. I think we (teachers) have to broaden our horizons as we are educating the child to develop as a whole child and to work, not just locally, but globally. I want my students to have a sense that they have a culture but be able to stand back and deconstruct who they are and to be able to see how they live and where they’ve grown up and how this shapes who and how they are. This is a particular wish of mine as I teach in a rural area that doesn’t have many different cultural groups as part of the community.

Simon, when asked about the benefits of Languages learning to children, became very animated and excited:

Well there is an element of excitement. It gives a broader perspective on the world and introduces children to other cultures and people and places around the world. On the North-West, we don’t see a lot of people from different

backgrounds. It's quite rare, so that's really important that children have access to that learning.

I always talk about the culture and the language. The culture is in the language and I often say things like 'French consider it very polite to say ...'. Kids also need to realise that there are other cultures and things may be done differently. Often, as a beginning French teacher, when I introduced a new idea someone might say 'that's weird or silly' whereas now I will frame it with 'isn't this interesting, French people.....how is this the same or different to what we do'. For me it is important to appreciate sameness and difference and for kids to be accepting.

These in-service teachers strongly reflect a pedagogical stance that is practised by languages teachers. Intercultural language learning develops in students their own position within their own language and culture at that of others. Liddicoat (et al. 2003) provides the following understandings regarding this practice:

Intercultural language learning involves deepening with learners an understanding of their own language(s) and cultures(s) in relation to an additional language and culture. It is a dialogue that allows for reaching a common ground for negotiation to take place, and where variable points of view are recognised, mediated and accepted.

Learners engaged in intercultural language learning develop a reflective stance towards language and culture, both specifically as instances of first, second and additional languages and cultures, and generally as understandings of the variable ways in which language and culture exist in the world (p. 46).

It is through intercultural Languages learning that learners develop the ability to understand and account for the way we communicate and interact. Jane talks about doing so both within our community and further abroad and Simon considers his developing ways to provide children with those understandings that encourage a more sophisticated approach to the learning. Both teachers are trying to get students to notice sameness and difference, to clarify their thoughts, to describe and to interpret situations. In doing so they “engage with interpreting their own and other’s meanings, with each experience of participation and reflection leading to a greater awareness of self in relation to others” (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009, p. 34). Scarino and Liddicoat (2009) conclude by suggesting that “intercultural language learning is best understood not as something to be added to teaching and learning but rather something that is integral to the interactions that already (and inevitably) takes place in the classroom and beyond” (p. 34).

The voices of the in-service teachers indicate this integration as crucial, but also feel the struggle in meeting the contextual needs of students, for as Kate indicates,

I have worked in two vastly different schools in terms of their socioeconomic status. In one school travelling overseas was common place but in the other going to the city was a highlight for many of the children. Engaging children in intercultural learning for this group was very different but it was important for me to be aware of the experiences and how they had shaped children’s perceptions of their world.

Jane sees other aspects as core to her work:

I want students to have the cognitive benefits through Languages learning. There is a lot of high order thinking involved and there are a lot of learning

techniques that are being used. I want students to think about how they think. That's really important and needs foregrounding in class. When it comes to having trouble remembering vocab, for example, I will often get them to ask others about how they might remember. Often the students come up with some novel ideas and a learning strategy that works for them. I see questioning as really important. I want students to look at things with a critical literacy lens to see what's in the image but more importantly to see what's missing.

In the development of first language skills, all, of the in-service teachers were able to clearly articulate the benefits to first language learning as identified earlier in these analyses and by these further comments.

– You need to teach the structure of the language, in doing so you support first language learning. If you are working on a grammar point it is logical to look at this in L1 as well as L2 to see if it is the same or different (Meg).

– In the primary school, I have been surprised at how easy it is to link aspects of language learning to L1 literacy learning. Just talking about verbs and reinforcing the idea of 'doing' words has been so beneficial (Kate).

– Learning a scripted language allows children to work on their visual discrimination which then transfers across to their L1 literacy (Jane).

Claire felt very strongly about the role of Languages in assisting in the development of L1.

It (Languages) teaches them strategies that can be transferred, especially into literacy. People ask (and this can include other staff member) 'why would you teach LOTE if the child can't speak their own language well?' For me, it is emphasising learnt skills. My strategy here is to say to teachers that the time they are spent in a LOTE class is a time when they are still using the

same strategies that you want them to use in literacy. They are learning structure and grammar and when they compare with English they are revising, deepening and sometimes learning something new about English.

All of the above are further enhanced and supported by the *National Statement and Plan for Languages Education in Australian Schools 2005–2008* that draws attention to the potential of learning with an intercultural language learning outlook as learners will be able to:

- Communicate, interact and negotiate within and across languages and cultures.
- Understand their own and others' languages, thus extending their range of literacy skills, including skills in English literacy.
- Understands themselves and others, and understand and use diverse ways of knowing, being and doing.
- Further develop their cognitive skills through thinking critically and analytically, solving problems, and making connections in their learning (p. 3).

There is evidence of considerable synergy between in-service teachers' beliefs and those of current pedagogies.

6.4.5 The Participant as a Languages Learner

I believe that I have to have a strong language component because that's the nature of the game. I have completed a variety of courses, both award bearing and non award bearing to make sure my language is up to scratch.

I make sure that I have authentic objects, so if it is an animal unit I am doing I try and get pictures that come from the country. Over the years I have

collected a bit and I think that that is really important. I think I can give children a rich and deep understanding of Indonesia now. If I had to teach another language I wouldn't be the same. I could probably teach French by being one step ahead but I don't think that would be enough (Meg).

Meg's words echo the sentiments of all the in-service teachers. They see themselves as ongoing learners, who utilise authentic resources and learning experiences to enhance their practice. All have visited and have a bond to the host country in which the language they teach is L1. They all see themselves as facilitators of learning and providing an avenue through which learners can begin to explore their world and the world beyond through Languages learning and the associated pedagogies that enable the knowledge, skills and attitudes to develop.

In Meg's case, her desire to deepen and broaden her knowledge has meant she has maintained her professional learning and taken it upon herself to use in-country experiences to provide another avenue of professional learning. Similarly, Kate has spent time studying in France, while Simon regularly visits French speaking countries. Jane has a sister in Japan with whom she keeps in regular contact to ensure accurate representation of cultural and language issues. As a native speaker, James makes regular visits to his place of birth. Other than James, none of the in-service teachers had spent much time in the target country prior to becoming a Languages teacher.

All of the in-service teachers have a passion for languages teaching which has stemmed from varied experiences. This came through in the interview by the way they spoke enthusiastically about their work and their expressive and positive body language whilst talking. They all have a deep understanding of the context in which they work and its impact on their capacity to implement strategies and design a

teaching and learning program that meets both contextual needs and systemic expectations.

– They see their work as challenging and identified issues of concern to them.

I would like more time. Scurrying through groups in 45 minutes once a week is not going to deliver the outcomes we need. I would like to see an opportunity for students who are capable of learning the language to have access to some sort of facility – virtual classroom, more face to face (Jane).

– It was easier for me when I was a classroom teacher as I could introduce Indonesian at different times of the day and it would be a natural part of what we were doing. Now it is more difficult but as I have been here for three years, children will say good morning to me in Indonesian when they see me (Claire).

– I would like there to be a greater acceptance of second language learning by students parents and the wider community. I guess growing up I never questioned learning French as I had many opportunities to use it (James).

Referring to the *Professional standards for accomplished teaching of languages and culture* (AFMLTA, 2005) a synergy can be seen between the document and the in-service teachers interviewed. The document provides Languages teachers with strategies to work towards to become an accomplished teacher of Languages. This is characterised by:

...being a person who knows, uses and teaches language and culture in an ethical and reflective way. It involves a continuous engagement with and commitment to learning, both as a teacher and as a life-long learner. It means more than teaching knowledge of languages and cultures and includes teaching learners to value, respect and engage with languages and cultures in

their own lives and to interact with others across linguistic cultures and borders. It means creating a culture of learning which approaches language, culture and learning with respect, empathy, commitment, enthusiasm and personal responsibility. Accomplished languages and culture teaching is reflected through the following dimensions which occur in an appropriate and supportive teaching context:

- educational theory and practice
- language and culture
- language pedagogy
- ethics and responsibility
- professional relationships
- awareness of wider contexts
- advocacy
- personal characteristics (p. 2)

These in-service teachers all exhibited characteristics of such teachers as expressed through their discussion during interview. They saw themselves as lifelong learners so that, through their continued professional growth, they would maximise learning for themselves and for students. When considering this theme the notion of professional standards and practice was important as it enabled all teachers to consider their own practice and their own capacities in a reflective and critical manner.

Claire, in her confident and assured manner, encapsulated what most of the interviewed in-service teachers felt towards their work as Languages teachers:

My LOTE has been a lifelong thing. From the time I started studying it has been part of my life. It's been part of my goals and my enjoyment as a teacher and as a person. It'd been my network in my professional life.

6. 5 Teacher Beliefs

The above discussion provided many insights into the professional lives of Languages teachers. Within the framework of this study, the beliefs and understandings surrounding Languages teaching and learning was of prime concern and the following discussion provides some reflective insights by the researcher into the issues raised in the interviews.

The belief systems that teachers hold and incorporate into their professional practice provide purposeful points of reference for day-to-day classroom decisions and actions. Richardson (1996), identified three areas of experience that contribute to the development of belief systems: personal experience, experience with schooling and instruction and experience with formal knowledge. The interview transcripts provided data that enabled the researcher to discern some of the belief systems that the in-service teachers had developed in relation to their teaching and in particular, their teaching of Languages, as they discussed their own personal experience, their experiences of schooling and instruction and their understandings of subject and discipline area knowledge.

Jane demonstrates this as she makes links between first language learning and second language learning. Jane utilises her beliefs about visual discrimination and its relevance and importance in first language learning and transfers that belief into the context of second language learning and is able to see the relevance and significance of visual discrimination as a skill in second language acquisition. What Jane has also

done is accepted a much bigger premise – that second language learning requires many of the skills required in first language learning. James also shares this premise:

– Learning a first language and a L2 requires the same skills. Why should it be different? We want students to be competent speakers of their L1 so they can go into the community and talk confidently and appropriately. Ultimately isn't that what we would like for L2 learning?

– Learning a scripted language enables children to work on their visual discrimination which they can then transfer across to their L1 literacy. Their /b/, /d/ reversal problems are the same as in Japanese. 'Chi' and 'sa' in hiragana are the reversed scripts. In hiragana you need to be aware of the shapes to stop confusion, just as you do in English (Jane).

Green (1971) identified belief systems as a set of relationships between primary and derivative beliefs. A primary belief is one that does not depend on any other belief for its existence. Primary beliefs serve as 'organising principles' around which other beliefs are positioned. The primary beliefs articulated by Jane are that learning a second language requires similar skills and experiences as for first language learning and through the incorporation of similar teaching practices into second language settings, a worthwhile connection is made between one learning area and another.

Jane's teaching practice reflected the impact of this primary belief upon her other beliefs about teaching and second language teaching in particular. If education holds the possibility of transformative potential, then everything that Jane included in her teaching practice has, as a goal, to empower students. Jane's primary belief, and the way in which she described her teaching practice, is an example of a link between a teacher's beliefs and their teaching practice.

A characteristic of belief systems that can be identified in the in-service teachers' discussions and reflections is that belief systems can hold both affective and evaluative features. Nespor (1987) notes that the feelings that a teacher has towards a subject area domain may be linked to their belief system and this linkage is also supported by Abelson (1979) who suggested that beliefs are informed by emotional states and emotional responses to stimuli. These feelings that teachers have towards their students, their physical and social environment, different teaching methodologies and subject area domains can, therefore, impact upon their belief systems. Jane indicated that her belief system had affective and evaluative elements when she described some of her experiences of teaching:

I'm really glad that I became a Languages teacher. I've taught in a lot of areas K-10 and I really love teaching languages and I find languages interesting as the whole history of a people is embedded in the language. It's really exciting to learn about it and by learning you enrich your own life. We have a wonderful opportunity, as Language teachers, to really give our kids a sense of wonder and excitement and we have an exciting culture to impart to our students and I think they enjoy the mental gymnastics of learning a language.

This sentiment is echoed by James who reflects that:

Being a LOTE teacher has enabled me to bring a whole new perspective to my teaching. It has given me a new perspective on difference and a greater appreciation of otherness. I feel more connected to the global community and want children to also begin to feel the excitement of the unknown and to feel that they have a capacity to get out there and be part of it all. We live in

a beautiful part of the world, but there is so much more and it is through Languages learning that children's eyes can be opened to the possibilities.

And Kate:

I feel strongly that learning a language benefits children in so many ways. It has enabled me to do so much and I think it equips children with a skill that should enable them to become a global citizen. Some of my children that I teach will have a career that brings them into contact with the wider world and a language will benefit them – make them have a greater confidence in their ability to interact. For students who don't and who may stay in their own backyard it still gives them support for their literacy development and through Languages, other curriculum areas like music, art and drama can be enriched.

The belief systems of each in-service teacher reflected the contexts in which the belief system was formed. Relevant to this discussion regarding belief systems is the impact that the social and cultural contexts in which they are formed have on their development and the consequent impact on teachers work. Whilst all of the in-service teachers were within a structure in which there were expectations, (Education Department of Tasmania), their differing contexts and their personal beliefs provided challenges to their capacity to meet those expectations. Beliefs are highly individualistic and intimately connected to an individual's sense of identity. They are formed as a result of complex interactions between perceptions, experiences and understandings and are consequently highly distinctive in nature. They can be the product of an individual's life experiences and personal cognitive and psychological characteristics, but beliefs can also be socially constructed to perpetuate cultural values (Abelson, 1979; Pajares, 1992). Therefore the social, cultural, political,

historical and ideological environments the teacher engages with must, have some impact on the teacher's belief system. Through professional learning, Meg, Kate and Simon have made significant contributions to their teacher knowledge, beliefs and identity, but as this has occurred within a particular cultural setting, the beliefs are those that enable the culture to be perpetuated.

6.6 Conclusion

As suggested by Borg, (2003) what teachers know, believe and think impact upon their professional lives within the classroom and shape their practice. It also indicated that teachers are “active, thinking decision makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically orientated, personalised, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs” (Borg, 2003, p. 81). The in-service teachers interviewed as part of this research, exhibited these qualities and demonstrated the capacity for context-based application of their cognitions. It is from this information and data gained from pre-service teachers that the final chapter is developed. Implications are considered and recommendations made.

Chapter 7

Discussion and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction

The previous two chapters presented the results of the research and an analysis of those results with conceptual links to theoretical underpinnings as outlined in the literature review. This chapter looks specifically at the results, compares and contrasts the findings from the pre-service teachers and the in-service teachers within the structured framework and within the bounds of the literature review. Conclusions are drawn and recommendations for further investigation suggested.

Some of the findings of the research are not congruent with those anticipated by the researcher and also perhaps those of Languages teachers. This reinforces the ideas forwarded by Burns (2004) earlier in this paper when he raises the issue of “subjective bias” (p. 473) as a possible negative impact on case study research.

7.2 Review of Research

The project objectives and the guiding questions to support the objectives were as follows:

Research Objective 1:

To examine historical developments regarding Languages teaching in Tasmanian primary schools.

- What factors, nationally and internationally, have influenced and helped shape the development of Languages teaching in Tasmanian primary schools?
- What are the characteristics and features of present Languages programs in Tasmania?

This objective was interrogated within the literature review and linked to data analysis both within the pre-service teacher and the in-service teacher chapters.

Research Objective 2:

To investigate in-service teachers' perceptions and beliefs on languages teaching in primary schools.

- What is the role of IcLL in classroom instruction?
- How is a teaching and learning program structured to maximise student learning?
- What factors impact upon Languages teaching and learning?

The semi-structured interview provided the data for analysis of this objective. The results were reported in Chapter Five.

Research Objective 3:

To explore pre-service teachers' perceptions and beliefs regarding the teaching of Languages in primary schools within the Tasmanian government school sector.

- What beliefs about languages teaching do pre-service teachers hold?
- How do pre-service teachers perceive Languages teaching and learning?
- How confident are pre-service teachers in being involved in Languages teaching?

The questionnaire and the open-ended statement supported this objective and provided the data for analysis. Results are evident in Chapter Four.

Research Objective 4:

To compare beliefs of classroom teachers and pre-service teachers on Languages teaching in primary school in terms of pedagogy, teaching and learning programs.

- What are the identified similarities and differences in beliefs

and perceptions held by pre-service and languages teachers?

- How does this impact upon the position of Languages in the Tasmanian primary school curriculum?

This study investigated pre-service teachers' and in-service teachers' beliefs and understandings of Languages teaching within the framework of the Tasmanian Education sector. Through a questionnaire, using a Likert scale model, an open-ended question and a semi-structured interview process, data were collected and analysed to investigate those beliefs and understandings. The theoretical framework provided the researcher with the conceptual boundaries appropriate to case study research and the selected tools utilised to collect the data were considered appropriate to this type of research.

The research included the distribution of questionnaires to first and third year students in the Bachelor of Education at the University of Tasmania. Of the distributed questionnaires, 156 were returned and used as the research data. There were six in-service teachers interviewed from the primary sector of the Tasmanian Education Department – these teachers were in differing contexts throughout the state and at different stages of their professional careers.

7.3 Theme Comparison and Contrast

To enable these research objectives to be interrogated in an ordered manner five organising themes were designed to assist in the filtering of data. Those themes were as follows with identified links to research objectives in brackets following:

- Languages as part of the primary school curriculum (R.O. 2, 3 & 4)
- Core content of a Languages program (R.O. 1, 2 & 3)
- Languages as a learning area (R.O. 1, 2, 3 & 4)
- The rationale for learning Languages (R.O. 2, 3 & 4)

- The participant as a Languages learner (R.O. 2, 3 & 4).

Throughout the analysis chapter, each theme was investigated thoroughly and results from both the in-service teachers and the pre-service teachers were presented within the structure of the theme. In this chapter, the comparison and contrast of the five themes investigated in the study will be completed to assist in drawing conclusions and developing recommendations from the study.

7.3.1 Languages as Part of the Primary School Curriculum

The researcher anticipated that pre-service teachers' responses would be characterised by a degree of apathy towards Languages teaching and learning, and a reticence about becoming involved either as a teacher or as a supporter. This viewpoint was reached as a result of general community apathy towards Languages, within the Tasmanian context, as expressed through the falling percentages of primary schools offering Languages, low retention rates throughout secondary schooling and low numbers in Year 12 classes. Fortunately this was not the case, with results showing that 82% of the student cohort would like to learn a second language so that they could teach it, and 82% would be willing to assist/support such a program in their classroom.

Such support for Languages education has a major impact on a school's capacity to operate a Languages program at some level. In 2007, 71% of primary schools within the state had a Languages program of some sort operating. This had fallen considerably since 2001 when 90% of primary schools operated a Languages program. The research data suggested, however, that there were pre-service teachers willing to support and learn a language. Thus, these findings suggested that it would be advantageous to investigate ways to further enhance experiences in pre-service teacher preparation that may continue to support this positive response.

The data suggests a tension between the relationships between the support of Languages programs since 2001 (90%) and the support of Languages by pre-service teachers as noted in this study. This finding (the pre-service teachers' support of Languages) is at odds with the trend mentioned above (the diminution of Languages programs). Why could this be the case? Does it suggest that factors – financial, teacher availability, community support - other than teachers' willingness to support Languages education influence whether schools have Languages programs? Is there a difference, between the pre-service teachers and more experienced in-service teachers, in respect of the enthusiasm for Languages teaching? Are pre-service teachers more idealistic in their attitudes and beliefs or might the initial desire to learn a language in order to teach it give way to other competing workplace demands once they join schools? These questions have arisen as a result of this research and warrant further consideration.

Continuing this support for Languages education, 86% of pre-service teachers suggested that primary school children should have access to Languages learning in school. This primary belief scaffolded and supported the former belief: i.e. the belief that students should have access to Languages learning. This would most likely ensure support for such a program in the classroom and therefore the pre-service teacher might be more predisposed to learning a language to ensure this access than someone who does not hold the primary belief. The research indicated that this may be the case, for as Bryan suggested, beliefs play a central role in how pre-service teachers interpret “pedagogical knowledge, conceptualise teaching tasks, and subsequently enact their teaching decisions” (Bryan, 2003, p. 836).

In relation to the in-service teachers, there was no question regarding the support for Languages education. As a dedicated, interested group this response

would seem to be obvious, however, there were tensions that came with this stand.

For as James indicated:

As a Languages teacher I seem to have to be always on my guard to ensure that Languages gets a fair deal in terms of time allocation, financial support and class teacher and senior staff support. I always have to be ready to defend and promote Languages. This does become tiring and soul destroying at times, you feel like an island.

On the other hand, Meg indicated that

In both of my schools, everyone is very supportive of Languages and of me being there. I'm not sure why this is but perhaps there has been a history of Languages teaching in the schools and it has become part of what the school is...

This could account for why beginning teachers may not be keen to venture into the Languages realm in a school once they begin their careers. Most beginning teachers would not have either the confidence or the credibility to take such a stand as James, so some of the realities of practice could outweigh the theoretical stance, unless beginning teachers were able to gain a position in a school like Meg's whereby the supportive structures would encourage participation.

The context in which this study occurred was strongly influenced by the contexts in which the pre-service teachers and the in-service teachers operated. An underlining feature of this study was to look at the relationship between the participants and Languages education. This involved reviewing the relationship to the historical 'place' of Languages in the curriculum both locally and nationally, the impact of developments in Languages pedagogy on the practice in classrooms and the role of past experiences of both pre-service and in-service teachers. It also involved

reviewing how their beliefs and understandings have impacted upon their enthusiasm for, or willingness to support a second language program in the Tasmanian primary school context. This research analysed pre-service teachers and in-service teachers' personal and professional positions surrounding Languages teaching and learning and endeavoured to ascertain some overarching beliefs that have shaped their pedagogies and thus influenced present and future programs.

Pinar (2003, cited in Scarino and Liddicoat, 2009) discusses professional self-awareness in program design and delivery rather than relying upon a prescriptive curriculum that is handed down by a bureaucracy. In-service teachers, in developing their positions within a curriculum framework, ideally made appropriate judgements and contextual decisions to ensure the development of appropriate teaching and learning situations. They brought professional experiential knowledge and perspicacity to bear upon decisions that are made. This was an obvious source of contrast between in-service and pre-service teachers. The challenge therefore, is to be able to build positively on the pre-service teachers' current beliefs to ensure that they maintain their present outlook and have a capacity to carry this positiveness forward into their professional lives.

This could be done by providing pre-service teachers with the experiences that will advance their understandings regarding Languages. It has been established that belief systems are developed from an early age, and it is possible that these beliefs may persist, despite the influence of schooling, life experience or maturation (Pajares, 1992). One of the reported characteristics of teacher beliefs is that they are resistant to change, especially if the beliefs are formed at a young age (Abelson, 1979; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992) and for belief change to occur, several conditions must be

present: there must be a level of dissatisfaction with an old belief and the new belief must appear to be a logical replacement for the old belief.

The data in Tables 7.1 and 7.2 shows a clear difference in the relative levels of agreement with the statement between the 1st year pre-service teacher cohort and the 3rd year pre-service cohort when asked to respond to the following statements: *LOTE needs to be an integral part of the primary school curriculum* and *LOTE is an important part of primary school children's learning*.

Table 7.1 *LOTE needs to be an integral part of the primary school curriculum*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	2	4	27	25	17	0	75
3	0	1	14	46	20	0	81
Total	2	5	41	71	37	0	156

and

Table 7.2 *LOTE is an important part of primary school children's learning*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	2	5	17	38	13	0	75
3	0	1	3	52	25	0	81
Total	2	6	20	90	38	0	156

Could these findings suggest that the exposure to theories, approaches, and scaffolded professional experiences, as part of their participation in the university teacher preparation program has provided opportunities for beliefs to be ‘logically replaced’? This would be speculative because there is no way of isolating the various influences that have contributed to the change as the data represents a snapshot of one

set of views and another set of views and not a change over time of one cohort. A longitudinal study of one group across time would need to be done to further explore the questions raised in this discussion. An observation at this stage however could be that the 3rd year cohort, in contrast to the 1st year cohort, view Languages education as more important and more integral.

The challenge here will be to determine if the actions of the pre-service teachers will match their beliefs but, as Richardson (2002) deliberates, “do beliefs guide actions, actions – and particularly the results of actions – guide beliefs, or do they interact such that beliefs or action may be dominant and affect the other depending upon many factors” (p. 5).

In many instances, in-service teachers have had wider experiences that have impacted upon their belief system and the actions they take in relation to their Languages learning. One example from Claire is as follows:

Living in the country where my second language is L1 provided me with insights that I never thought possible. Here were people living, breathing the language, I was part of it and could be part of it. It brought to me a great amount of joy that I have always kept with me and when I am having a bad day with the kids I remember that incident and it helps me go on.

All of these beliefs impact upon what Scarino & Liddicoat (2009) refer to as a ‘personal stance’. First year pre-service teachers rely heavily upon their past experience to arrive at their present personal stance, but the data suggests that third year pre-service teachers have been influenced so enabling their personal stance to be different. Again, as the research did not study the 3rd year cohort in their first year as pre-service teachers it is not possible to say why their beliefs are different. It could be suggested, however, that as the views of the 3rd year cohort are not the same as the 1st

year cohort studied, and their increased value of Languages could be due to greater awareness as a result of participating in a teacher preparation program at the university. It therefore puts the onus on the pre-service program to ensure that there are sufficient opportunities for personal beliefs held by pre-service teachers to be challenged and built upon in a supportive and appropriate manner. It is through “classroom readings, dialogue and classroom experimentation” (Richardson, 2003) that these beliefs may be challenged and this development occur.

It is, at this point, worth considering the history of Languages teaching within the Tasmanian context, as this impacts upon teacher beliefs. The Languages learning experiences of the in-service teachers were invariably circumscribed by historical developments introduced earlier in this thesis, and such experiences have contributed to their individual belief systems. Meg, Kate and Jane started Languages learning at high school in the 1970’s and report that

– I learnt the traditional way – through translations and grammar from Grade 7 through to Grade 12 and then at university. Foreign language learning was compulsory for me (Meg).

– I did French at high school – quite traditional, but the first teacher I had was just brilliant and excited me about learning languages. It was compulsory for my grade to learn French from Grade 7 to 10 (Jane).

– I started learning when I went to high school. It was compulsory for our stream from Grade 7 to Grade 10. I loved the language and the teacher was great (Kate).

This was not always echoed by pre-service teachers who, in many cases, did not have continuity, nor does it seem, a great purpose for learning a language.

– I started with Indonesian in Grade 7, but when the teacher left, there was no one to take her place and that was it.

– We did a bit of French and a bit of Indonesian – that was good – like a taster.

– It wasn't compulsory after that so I stopped. We had to do French in Grade 7, but after that it wasn't compulsory.

– I learnt Indonesian at primary school and when I got to high school I had to learn Japanese for two years. I quite enjoyed that, but didn't want to go on with it after that.

– In primary school our librarian taught us a bit of French e.g. Numbers 1–10 and a few simple words and some numbers in Indonesian. She taught us these because they were the languages offered at high school where most of us were going.

– In primary school I remember doing Japanese in 3rd term in the 6th grade. We learnt numbers and sayings such as 'hello', 'good morning' etc. I don't remember any of the words that I learnt. I couldn't do a language at my high school.

The above examples, in-as-much as they highlight many of the inconsistencies of delivery and the often limited opportunities to access Languages learning, fairly well characterise the preponderance of the pre-service teachers' responses. All of the pre-service teachers cited above are in the 18–25 age bracket so would have been in primary school, during the late 1990s and early 2000s. During the 1990s and into the 2000s, Languages learning (according to the NALSAS program that provided much of the funding for languages in the 1990s) needed to be an integral part of the curriculum and an important aspect of a school's balanced curriculum. There was to

be access to a pathway of language learning with children being ensured continuous language learning from Year 3 to Year 12. This was a major mind shift for our schools, but support through teacher training in Languages, professional development for class teachers, curriculum and materials development, advice and support for schools and communities, extra staffing and a technology package enabled many schools to have the capacity to incorporate a Languages program that was ongoing, sustainable and, hopefully, embedded within the school culture. From the results of this survey, that may not have been as practicable as first anticipated, nor had the impact on learners in the manner it was originally intended.

While there are elements, such as Languages programs being available and teacher’s willing to operate Languages programs, of the above policy practice present in the pre-service teachers’ voices, they perhaps fall short of the aspirational goals of policy makers and many school communities. Such views do, however, represent a positive shift from the earlier Languages teaching and learning paradigm, where Languages learning was seen as the domain of the intellectually able and thus an elitist activity available to only a few. The following table provides further evidence of the historical shift in beliefs regarding ability with 76% of pre-service teachers disagreeing with this statement.

Table 7.3 *To be good at LOTE students need to be academically very capable*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	12	37	14	14	12	3	75
3	12	58	15	6	10	0	81
Total	24	95	29	20	22	3	156

Throughout the interviews, the in-service teachers highlighted that all learners in their classes accessed Languages learning and the challenge to them was how best to provide learning experiences that were going to be beneficial to those learners who were not able to access mainstream learning. The idea of the differentiated curriculum was evident in the in-service teachers' comments. James underscores this issue when he says:

I sometimes struggle with a couple of kids who have special needs in one of my classes. I want them to have, and they deserve it, the same access to Languages learning as the rest, but it is how to provide them with the experiences that they are going to benefit from that I find challenging.

Past experiences provided an introduction to Languages learning for many pre-service teachers and the cohort within the 18–25 age range commented favourably on their Languages learning and suggested that:

– I didn't learn a lot as I didn't see the relevance until I did it as a Liberal at uni. I think I have a greater maturity to look beyond where I was when I was younger and I would be encouraging children to learn a language.

– I learnt Dutch and would like to continue with my LOTE learning.

– It is an area that I would like to have more knowledge – especially as I want to travel I think if I had learnt a language earlier it would have been easier than starting now.

– We have an international student living with us and I now have a greater appreciation of languages and Languages teaching.

– Had some tasters at primary school, but never enough to acquire much language. I would like to learn a language though.

These are positive indicators and, though school-based Languages experiences may have been minimal, there is an interest to learn a second language and, if nurtured well, these pre-service teachers may have an incentive to incorporate it into their future teaching.

The pre-service teachers and the in-service teachers had a variety of Languages learning experiences during their primary and high school years. In-service teachers had a much more continuous program, due often to the mandatory nature of Languages learning in the 1970s for capable students. However, pre-service teachers have had a greater variety of second language learning experiences at different levels of schooling. These experiences, whilst often temporally fragmented, incorporated teaching pedagogies that were emerging in conjunction with a greater political awareness of the need for languages learning by all Australian students and a greater awareness of the benefits of Languages learning.

The pre-service teacher's response to statement 30, which assesses respondents' willingness to assist a Languages teacher in delivering a Language program in the assisting teacher's classroom, augurs well for the future of Languages. Figure 7.1 provided this information with 72% of 3rd year pre-service teachers and 52% of 1st year pre-service teachers willing to be involved in Languages education.

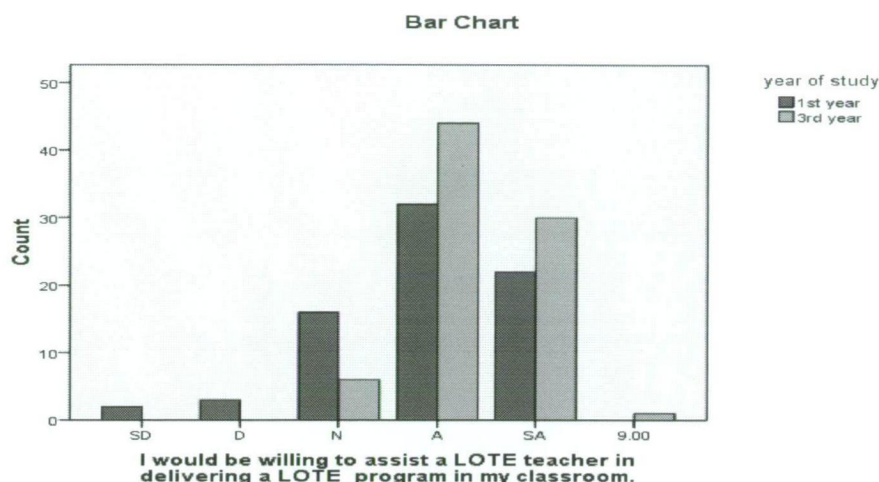


Figure 7.1

Both the in-service teachers and the pre-service teachers will have challenges ahead with their Languages learning and teaching because “the nature, contexts and purposes of using language and languages for communication are increasingly complex and ever-changing in our multilingual and multicultural world where people use different languages and dialects for different purposes in a range of different contexts” (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009, p. 6), but this study has highlighted the need for ongoing, professional opportunities for practicing teachers and ongoing quality support for pre-service teachers as the research indicated a high level of interest by pre-service teachers in being involved in Languages education in schools, either as a teacher or a support teacher.

7.3.2 Core Content of a Languages Program

The results from this theme indicated that both the pre-service teachers and the in-service teachers identified similar elements as being central to Languages learning.

The capacity to communicate is of paramount importance and though perhaps obvious, both groups of participants saw language as more than just a code that was waiting to be deciphered through the learning of rules and words. Pre-service

teachers saw these formal aspects of Languages learning as being necessary, but did not ascribe them such significance that they failed to appreciate other important features in developing a balanced approach to Languages. The table below represents the pre-service teachers’ data in relation to some of the aspects of second language acquisition.

Table 7.4: *Core content of a Languages program*

	Statements	Agree	Disagree	Neutral
S2	Learning vocabulary is the most important part of learning a LOTE.	47.6%	17.2%	35.2%
S7	Learning grammar is an important part of learning a LOTE.	59.7%	36.5%	3.8%
S13	As children learn a LOTE, they use skills that they may also use in other learning areas.	84.6%	2.6%	12.8%
S18	Learning about the culture in which the LOTE is spoken is an integral part of learning the language.	86.1%	10.8%	3.1%
S22	Learning a LOTE is mainly about speaking the language.	19.8%	44.8%	35.4%
S27	Learning a LOTE is mainly about translating from the LOTE to English and vice versa.	23.8%	38.4%	37.8%

Looking at the highest ‘agree’ results in Table 7.4, it can be determined that pre-service teachers saw grammar learning, transferability of skills learnt in Languages and cultural integration as vital aspects of the learning program. These notions fit appropriately within the *Tasmanian Curriculum* where the three identified core content strands as identified within the literature review, are represented by the above views.

In-service teachers indicated the relevance of these views too, but were also very keen to indicate that with the four macro-skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening needed to be part of a balanced approach. In fact, at some levels some skills were seen as more appropriate and have a higher profile than others.

From an early age you need to teach the structure of the language but to start off with it is through speaking and listening, singing and playing games. I have very few written tasks at the early stages of learning (Meg).

In the previous chapters, the comments made by pre-service teachers and in-service teachers suggested an opinion that supported many elements of the “language awareness” (LA) approach (Svalberg, 2007) to Languages instruction. Svalberg (2007), echoing Borg, highlights five features of language awareness approach as follows:

1. It involves an ongoing investigation of language as a dynamic phenomenon rather than awareness of a fixed body of established facts.
2. It involves learners in talking analytically about language, often to each other.
3. It considers essential the involvement of learners in exploration and discovery.
4. It aims to develop not only the learners’ knowledge about and understanding of language but also their learning skills, thus promoting learner independence.
5. The aim is to involve learners on both a cognitive and an affective level (pp. 290–291).

Svalberg (2007) further expanded on these five features and completed the discussion by suggesting that “the picture of LA pedagogy which emerges is one

which aims to engender LA by learner engagement with the language, including the use of languaging, to construct knowledge about the language in any of its domains affective, social, power, cognitive, and performance” (p. 293). The notion of learner engagement is of significance within this study as it is supported strongly through the comments of in-service teachers and by the comments of the pre-service teachers.

The researcher expected pre-service teachers to have pre-conceived ideas, based upon their experiences, about core learning and what it encompassed. This was not the case with pre-service teachers indicating a high percentage of *N* for many of the statements, with S2, S27, with S22 having the highest percentages. Collectively these three statements fall within the communication ‘core strand’ and perhaps indicate that a strong stance has not been established for this area. To be carefully considered, though, is the meaning of *N* to the pre-service teacher as it could be ambivalence, an unsureness or an undecided position on the matter. This result could be due to their “conceptions, perspectives, perceptions, orientations, theories and stances” (Richardson, 1996, p. 102) towards Languages learning being at very different stages in relation to core content as discussed in the analysis and evidenced by the data. It provided information relevant to the researcher as it suggested that pre-service teachers are open to various approaches in their consideration of what constitutes core teaching and learning, and tend not to disproportionately privilege one element in reflecting on appropriate Languages pedagogy. It also suggested that pre-service teachers do not have strong, entrenched beliefs about Languages teaching and what it may entail. This receptivity suggested that opportunities in teacher education to provide experiences and learning that are designed to challenge and enable pre-service teachers to reflect upon their own experiences to further develop their understandings and capacities, are likely to be well received. It enables

Svalberg's (2007) perspectives as outlined above, to be introduced into the pre-service teacher's knowledge development.

7.3.3 Languages as a Learning Area

As a learning area, Languages is exposed to a multitude of expressions ranging from the mild ignorance of the need for Languages learning to the passionate embrace of the learning area in the education of children.

During the course of this study, this continuum has been reflected in the discussion with in-service teachers and seen in the responses of the pre-service teachers. All responses were contextual with all participants sharing their Languages learning and teaching contexts (in the case of the pre-service teachers, these were mainly as high school students) and learning contexts in a much broader sense. This encompassed both formal professional learning experiences and the personal incidental occurrences that have happened during the in-service teacher's professional life. Both groups have indicated the need for both professional and personal development in an ongoing and sustained manner. The pre-service teachers saw the interruptions to their learning as extremely detrimental to their learning but not necessarily to their attitude towards Languages learning as reflected in the data. Such interruptions could not have been too detrimental to their Languages attitudes as the data indicated that 82% of the pre-service teacher cohort would like to learn a second language so that they could teach it, and 82% would be willing to assist/support such a program in their classroom.

The in-service teachers saw the benefits to themselves and to children when a continuous supported program was in place. Jane echoes the words of the in-service teachers when she says:

A LOTE program is successful when it is well resourced, where the school community supports it, the senior staff support it, where the LOTE teacher has had appropriate training with good linguistic knowledge and methodological understandings. It is good when it is connected to the school program.

The in-service teachers all had self development as a cornerstone of their practice and proactively sought avenues through which this could occur, while pre-service teachers saw their development as being something that they may not have control over. Many wanted to continue with their Languages learning but did not express the same level of commitment as in-service teachers. The following students' responses reflected this idea.

– I haven't learnt any more since high school – I was thinking about it at university, but didn't.

– I want to learn Spanish – it is not offered at university, so I haven't done anything about it.

– Having travelled I have a new appreciation of Languages learning and would like to follow it up.

– I regret not continuing and would seriously consider learning a LOTE now.

Mann (2005) sees self development closely linked to self direction which is defined as the “characteristics of an individual that predispose one towards taking primary responsibility for personal learning endeavours” (p. 104). As our pre-service teachers are in ‘teacher preparation’ and consequently are being introduced to methodological approaches to Languages teaching and exposed to the terms and concepts that may be considered the foundations of Languages learning, this attitude is understandable, but it must be the task of such ‘preparation’ courses to develop in

pre-service teachers the deeper understandings. The data has shown that pre-service teachers are prepared to develop their understandings and willingness to learn and this needs to be capitalised upon through foundation courses which introduce and strengthen pre-service teachers' understandings through the modelling of identified 'good practice'.

7.3.4 The Rationale for Learning Languages

In-service teachers were very clear about their underlying principles for learning a LOTE. Jane's comment provided this research with a summary of in-service teachers' views on the purpose of Languages.

I want children to be open and engaging with other people, not necessarily always people of different races, but also Tasmanians with whom they come in contact. We have a lot to learn from each other. I think we (teachers) have to broaden our horizons as we are educating the child to develop as a whole child and to work, not just locally, but globally. I want my students to have a sense that they have a culture but be able to stand back and deconstruct who they are and to be able to see how they live and where they've grown up and how this shapes who and how they are. This is a particular wish of mine as I teach in a rural area that doesn't have many different cultural groups as part of the community.

Pre-service teachers, through their responses to questionnaire statements and comments supported similar ideas in relation to engagement with a global community, understanding of one's own cultural position and the culturally specific processes and products involved in the formation of identity and exposure to difference. Pre-service teachers agreed in high percentages with those statements that were related to this theme. These results can be seen in the following table:

Table 7.5: *The rationale for learning languages*

	Statements	Agree	Disagree	Neutral
S4	Learning a LOTE offers many future opportunities for children.	86.3%	8.6%	5.1%
S9	Learning a LOTE will enable children to learn about the culture of the country in which the LOTE is spoken.	83.9%	3.2%	12.8%
S15	It is important for Tasmanian primary school children to be able to select a LOTE that they can study.	64.7%	5.7%	29.6%
S20	Learning a LOTE enables children to better understand other peoples and culture.	83.3%	1.9%	14.7%
S29	Learning a LOTE would help learners learn in other curriculum areas.	84.6%	2.5%	12.8%

There was strong support in both study groups for the learning of culture within the Languages program. The literature review provided a detailed exploration of this issue and outlined the major developments in the study of culture with the five major paradigms being evidenced as pedagogies for teaching culture. Scarino and Liddicoat (2009) provided the researcher with considerations that must be taken into account when working with pre-service teachers. “The way in which we understand language, affects the way we teach culture in language learning. In developing our stance, there are two fundamentals issues to consider:

- What we understand ‘culture’ to be
- How we understand the place of culture in language learning” (p. 19).

Scarino and Liddicoat (2009) suggested that culture is not simply a body of knowledge but rather a “framework in which people live their lives and communicate

shared meanings with each other” (p. 19). The Culture as Practice paradigm runs parallel to this notion and could be seen therefore as an appropriate paradigm to support culture learning. In-service teachers reflected this through their comments and pre-service teachers will need support to gain these understandings so that culture can be approached in a dynamic manner as compared to a static methodology.

Within the responses to this theme, pre-service teachers responded very positively to S4 as expressed in Table 7.5. Pre-service teacher comments also indicated strong support here:

- *Having exchange students live with us I can see how useful it would be to speak another language.*
- *Being older now and having travelled, I can see the benefits of learning a LOTE.*
- *Having worked overseas and met many people, I wished that I had some knowledge of another language.*
- *Meeting students at Kerslake (a university residential block) who can speak other languages, makes me feel a bit ignorant.*

These representative comments suggest that pre-service teachers, in hindsight, see Languages learning as having a relevance to them now that it may not have had when they were younger; providing learning opportunities which make Languages learning relevant and meaningful to younger students, may encourage further Languages study. Pre-service teachers held very strong views in regard to the importance of learning a second language in understanding others and developing an understanding of ourselves as part of a global village. Through technology access to various representations of the events which shape our world are at our fingertips and through the media we are provided with graphic details about world events, often as

they are happening. Once again it provides those involved with developing Languages programs for pre-service teachers with a need to ensure that pedagogies such as the Intercultural Languages Learning stance, which encourages cultural competencies, is encouraged and understandings strengthened in pre-service teachers so that Languages can be the vehicle by which such understandings can be explored with young children.

With few exceptions, pre-service teachers valued Languages as a learning area and could see the benefits for learners and for themselves. This valuation contrasted markedly with the researcher's initial expectations. The often heard question – 'why should I learn a foreign language – I'll never use it' was expected to be voiced, but it was not. This suggested that the participants saw education not only as acquiring skills appropriate to the contemporary workplace trends/needs but also as developing the ability to think critically and reflect on one's place in society and what it entails to be a member of a global community.

American studies since the year 2000 (American Council of Education 2000; Hayward and Saya, 2001) have indicated that students entering college are more likely to see foreign language learning as an important part of their education. Price & Gascoigne(2006), in seeking to explore perceptions and beliefs among incoming college students towards foreign language learning, found that "little systematic study has been made of how students perceive their foreign language experience when given an open opportunity to comment on them, unrestricted by surveys or forced questionnaires" (Tse, 2000, p. 69). Their findings indicated overwhelming support for foreign language study with 57% strong pro-foreign language study with cultural understanding representing the strongest reasons for foreign language learning. The authors cite current events and recent history as strongly influencing the entering

college students' change of perspective from the early 1970s when students expressed a desire to eliminate foreign language learning from their college curriculum (Schotta, 1973; Walker, 1973 as cited in Price & Gascoigne). This finding is supported by the current research in that there is a strong belief that foreign language learning is important and relevant and provides learners with a greater capacity to understand otherness. Whilst drawing direct parallels between US research and this research may be difficult...the contexts may well be very different and the reasons for any shift in perspective may be reflective of different socio-historically specific factors... it begins to provide a perspective worthy of consideration.

From pre-service teachers

– *Learning a language will help kids understand other people and other cultures.*

– *We all have to live on this earth and we need to understand and listen.*

Learning a language will help with this.

– *As I've got older I realise how much I don't know about others. I think that learning a language and learning about the culture would be useful for students to begin to have the knowledge that is necessary.*

– *We hear about the "global community". Learning a LOTE should help kids to begin to make some of those connections.*

Pre-service teachers echo many of the sentiments echoed by the Price & Gascoigne (2006) study that concludes by saying that "beliefs about language learning and its importance are woven into the fabric of society. They are influenced by history and current events as well as hopes and fears about our future" (p. 2).

Tse (2000) raises another issue regarding foreign language learning that is relevant to this thesis and warrants some consideration. Tse indicates that,

although extensive work has been done on learner beliefs about second language (L2) acquisition and language teaching, we know almost nothing about student attributions of success or failure in the foreign language (FL) classroom and how those attributions may affect their beliefs about their ability to learn languages, which in turn affects whether they will continue their study in FL programs” (p. 69).

This issue was raised by several pre-service teachers:

- I didn’t like languages learning at school so I would be hesitant to teach it to students.*
- I found it really hard and not very interesting. Not sure if I want to teach it.*
- I found learning French as a school child very boring, but as an adult have learnt Spanish and found it really fun – the way it was taught was so different to when I was at school.*
- Fantastic teachers – would love to teach LOTE to kids.*
- I loved Indonesian at primary school – found it really interesting so would be happy to teach it.*

These comments indicate the impact of pre-service teacher’s school experiences of Languages learning and support the notion put forward by Tse (2000). I believe that there is further work to be done in this area and, as a result, a more specific look at pre-service teacher’s prior experiences and the impact of these experiences would add greatly to the body of knowledge and be a continuation of this research.

7.3.5 The Participant as a Languages Learner

It was encouraging to view results that clearly indicated that pre-service teachers were willing to consider involvement in Languages teaching and learning

program in the class and that they would also consider learning a second language, even though it may be a challenge. This support was also shown by an American Council of Education, 2000, survey indicating that 85% of Americans aged over 18 revealed similar responses in regard to the importance of having knowledge of a foreign language.

Table 7.6 *The participant as a Languages learner*

	Statements	Agree	disagree	Neutral
S5	Given the opportunity, I would like to learn a LOTE.	82.1%	3.8%	14.1%
S10	I would find it easy to learn a LOTE.	27.5%	31.4%	40.3%
S16	I would like to learn a LOTE so as I can teach it in the primary classroom.	82.1%	6.4%	11.5%
S25	My LOTE learning has greatly influenced my beliefs about LOTE learning.	58.3%	7.1%	32.6%

Looking beyond these results indicated some points worthy of consideration. Freeman (2002) suggested that a central challenge for teachers is to find meaning and to make meaning from our experiences. Pre-service teachers, in relation to their Languages learning, relied heavily on past experiences to make meaning and to position themselves as second language learners. Pre-service teachers begin their professional preparation with personal beliefs about teaching, about teachers and about themselves as teachers and as students. Freeman (2002) suggested that reflective practice must be an integral part of pre-services teacher’s education as it is through reflective practice that “their position in the activity of teaching and the role of input – theory, prescriptions, and the experience of others – lies in how these can help the individual teacher to articulate their experience and thus make sense of their work” (p. 11). He links articulation and reflectivity and suggests that “articulation and

reflectivity are reciprocal processes – one needs the words to talk about what one does, and in using those words one can see it more clearly” (p. 11).

As Languages learners, pre-service teachers were able to reflect upon their formative experiences – some positively and others negatively – but it indicated to the researcher that pre-service teachers were able to reflect critically on those foundational experiences and provided some insights into their current belief structures.

– I love LOTE. I studied French for 10 years with fantastic teachers. I would love to teach and share what I learnt.

– I have an Italian background and learnt it at school. I would love to be able to teach it in the Catholic system.

– I learnt Indonesian at high school – I wasn’t that good. I couldn’t see the relevance of it. Don’t know if I want to teach LOTE as I didn’t really like it.

– I learnt Indo in primary school and French in high school. I enjoyed it but found other students really hated it so am a little unsure about teaching it.

– French was horrid! Awful teacher who had no control and I didn’t learn much. Not keen to teach it at the moment.

– I learnt German and Italian and enjoyed them both and was good at them. I would like to teach a LOTE and travel so as I can use the language and find out more about the culture.

– When I was in primary school I learnt Italian and when I got to high school we did the same stuff again – it was boring and I lost interest. I would like to teach a LOTE, I think.

Here Languages teachers from the past have been formative in shaping the affective responses of the pre-service teachers, and their self image as learners is a

salient feature of their belief landscape. This idea is supported by Zembylas' (2007) work and his recognition of the importance of affective knowledge in relation to the formation of beliefs. In-service teachers were able to be reflective of and on their practice. While pre-service teachers had the capacity to draw on past Languages experiences as sources for critical reflection on current beliefs, values, prejudices, assumptions, in-service teachers had the ability to draw on a wider set of experiences. They were able to highlight strengths and weaknesses in their practice and often were able to provide solutions to issues. For example, Jane was able to draw on her sister in Japan as a resource if she had queries regarding linguistic and cultural correctness and Meg, having visited the country several times where her language is L1, purposefully collected artefacts to help her provide more authentic learning experiences for learners.

With experience has come a self certainty and a confidence to articulate issues and reflect upon their teaching and themselves as teacher. In-service teachers have a greater range of experiences to draw on, including both successes and failures giving authority to their advocacy, whereas pre-service teachers – particularly if they have perceived of themselves as inadequate Languages students – have a narrower range. As a result the pre-service teachers may lack confidence and consequently the ability to be a strong advocate for languages.

My LOTE has been a lifelong thing. From the time I started studying it has been part of my life. It's been part of my goals and my enjoyment as a teacher and as a person. It'd been my network in my professional life (Claire).

It is important to reflect on one's classroom practice – I'm really big on this; otherwise how do you get better! For my professional learning I need to take an investigative stance through professional learning opportunities eg ILTLP, PSP, LOTE-literacy projects through the Learning Services LOTE funds etc. This enables me to better provide for differentiating classroom instruction to cater for the needs, interests and proficiency levels of your students (Jane).

From this discussion there arises an issue worthy of consideration. We have here two groups of teachers – the early career teacher and the more experienced teacher. This study has ascertained that the teacher has the capacity to access knowledge and implement appropriate learning experiences and so it makes sense that experienced teachers should play a mentoring role for those who are learning – sharing what they know about their work. Pre-service teachers are keen to participate in Languages teaching but need to be provided with networks of support to maximise the potential of any future Languages initiatives they take on. Additionally, the beliefs that stymie Languages teaching and learning developments need to be supportively challenged by colleagues who can draw from a rich reservoir of experience. Kagan (1992) notes the importance of actively utilising prior learning experiences as reflective tools for pre-service teachers. As objects of critical reflection, prior learning experiences may be exploited to develop a model of professional learning that casts into relief the experimental infrastructure of current beliefs across a range of issues and areas relevant to teaching. To put it another way, past experiences can be drawn on by pre-service teachers as a way of better understanding some important assumptions, values and beliefs they hold about teaching.

Pre-service teachers’ results as compared to in-service teachers differ considerably.

The table below provides data from pre-service teachers.

Table 7.7 *Teachers need to have a high level of competency in the LOTE before they can teach it*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	1	6	12	36	20	0	75
3	0	29	24	22	6	0	81
Total	1	35	36	58	26	0	156

And Jane’s comments provide a succinct view of where in-service teachers are in terms of their learning:

...and the LOTE teacher needs to have had good linguistic training and hold strong methodology practices. The teachers also need to hold appropriate pedagogy and connect to research trends in teaching and learning. The Essential Learnings were an interesting time because it gave teachers time to engage with high pedagogical principles like questioning, developing higher order thinking skills and getting kids to actively construct information through a range of ways. We are, pedagogically in a much stronger position now and this should only continue to strengthen as our knowledge of learners increases.

Pre- service teachers supported Languages teaching and learning. This needs to be explored and worked within the structure of the pre-service teachers’ university program. Previously, Jane outlined the keys to that support – sound linguistic training, strong methodology and appropriate pedagogy development.

The learning area’s professional body has provided guidelines regarding professional standards as discussed in a previous chapter. Whilst in-service teachers

see the need for these standards to be maintained, pre-service teachers need to be encouraged to be aware of the standards and see the importance and relevance of working towards meeting the standards because these standards reflect an ideal for languages and cultures teaching to which teachers should aspire. Teachers can, therefore, use them to understand and to develop their own professional practice. “These standards are intended to benefit teachers at all levels of schooling, and act as signposts for on-going professional learning and as a resource for evaluating their own knowledge and practice” (AFMLTA, 2005, p. 1).

This research provided the opportunity to view responses from two separate years within the undergraduate program. As noted earlier, 3rd year pre-service teachers had just completed a unit related to Languages/ESL teaching and learning while the 1st year cohort had no exposure to Languages methodology units while at university. Responses from the third year cohort sometimes differed dramatically to the first year cohort as can be seen by the data in the tables below.

Table 7.8 *LOTE is an important part of primary school children’s learning*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	2	5	17	38	13	0	75
3	0	0	3	52	25	0	81
Total	2	5	2	90	38	0	156

Table 7.9 *Learning a LOTE offers many future opportunities for children*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	1	5	6	30	33	0	75
3	0	0	2	45	33	1	81
Total	1	5	8	75	66	1	156

and

Table 7.10 *LOTE needs to be an integral part of the primary school curriculum*

Year	SD	D	N	A	SA	NR	Total
1	2	4	27	25	17	0	75
3	0	1	14	46	20	0	81
Total	2	5	41	71	37	0	156

This data provided the researcher with information through which the effectiveness and the relevance of the undergraduate program in assisting in the development of undergraduates’ beliefs and perceptions of Languages within the primary school sector, can begin to be gauged. The pedagogical approaches that are presented to undergraduates in undergraduate courses reflect current thinking and theories within the mainstream Australian context as there are, as outlined in the literature review, common understandings and an organised, collaborative approach between all educational sectors within Australia to the pedagogies surrounding Languages teaching.

Of particular interest to the researcher is the impact of such courses on pre-service teachers and what pre-service teachers may do as a direct result of this impact. How does the course impact upon beliefs and understandings and what needs to be considered to ensure that the environment is conducive to positive learning? To answer these questions further research is required, but what this research has done is highlight the fact that this examination is worth undertaking as undergraduates are keen to participate in Languages teaching and learning.

A recommendation from this research will be to track more closely the first year pre-service cohort and, when they are in the final year of their degree, complete the questionnaire again and compare their results to responses to this study.

A further area worthy of further exploration is that of the perceptions of the pre-service teachers in regards to their preparedness as possible Languages teachers. Whilst the in-service teachers saw professional learning post initial training as being vital and useful in their learning, it has not been possible, within the bounds of this research to determine the effectiveness of teacher preparation course activities. It appears from the results of the questionnaire that pre-service teachers are confident to teach a second language, but what impact pre-preparation courses had on this perception and how effectively it would be translated into classroom practice cannot be predicted. Translation to classroom practice in itself brings many problems to the fore and it would be interesting to explore how the pre-service teachers who are keen to implement Languages learning deal with the myriad of issues that may arise within the school setting.

Indications from the analysis of the in-service teacher data suggest that their capacities as Languages teachers is drawn from their teacher knowledge which is informed by their beliefs and is contributory to who they are as a teacher – their identity. The reflections of the in-service teachers provide a key to understanding the conditions required for successful teaching in its broadest sense.

The types of teacher knowledge that existed between the pre-service and in-service teacher cohorts was substantively different in that the in-service teachers had the capacity to draw upon a ‘bank’ of personal pedagogical experiences that were directly linked to their own teaching practice. The ‘bank’ that the pre-service teachers had to draw upon was less connected to their first hand knowledge of the teaching

experience and instead was often mediated as a form of experience, theory, anecdote or curricular directive. A pathway to lessening the gap between those two ‘banks’ is of further interest to the researcher.

7.4 Summary

The above discussion has highlighted the responses to the research objectives. As a result of this research, four throughlines have become evident, related to the teaching of Languages. These are:

1. *Languages learning is significant to an individual’s growth and development*

Pre-service teachers indicated that the learning of a language provided an extension to their world view. In-service teachers supported the notion of Languages learning having the capacity to extend our children’s thinking. The data indicated that this learning will only occur in a classroom where the teacher is committed and passionate about the subject and can present information in a way that has some relevance to the learner.

2. *There is an emerging role for Languages learning in the community*

Pre-service teachers indicated that a growing awareness and sensitivity towards other cultures could result from learning a language. In-service teachers saw this notion as an important part of their work in classrooms. Languages learning is emerging as a means of supporting tolerance and understanding between cultures and a means of breaking down barriers.

3 *There are struggles that need to be attended to*

Issues of numbers, language choice, availability of staff, appropriate teaching qualifications and competencies, school support and stress are concerns that have emerged as significant in this study, in particular with in-service teachers. The

interpretation of policy makers, of school leaders and of practitioners does not always run parallel and the voices of those stakeholders may not always be in alignment. Jane and James mentioned the need for organisational support. Such support in schools is vital as all the enthusiasm in the world won't go far and a beginning teacher can easily be disheartened, if there is little organisational or school community support for Languages education.

4 The teaching of Languages in our tertiary institutions plays an important role in shaping understandings and perceptions

Languages learning is more than playing games and cooking. While these activities may be integral to a program and support the learning program, they are not stand alone learning units. Within the university setting, our future classroom practitioners need to have undergone explicit experiences which support best practice and ones which encourage the enthusiastic practitioner.

The results of these themes have provided the researcher with recommendations and thus future directions for investigation. Of particular interest is pursuing other stakeholders within the process – children, policy makers and more experienced teachers to determine their stance around Languages teaching and learning. In particular to listen to their voices and look for tensions and synergies and how these may affect the implementation of a Languages program. The findings from the present research project suggest that the investigation of teacher beliefs is a significant and important area of research. Further research directions could involve exploration of teacher beliefs involving greater numbers of participants in the in-service teacher cohort. Completing a longitudinal study with pre-service teachers during the teacher preparation time and early career experiences would determine

more clearly how the theoretical, practical, contextual and affective factors impact upon classroom practice.

7.5 Conclusion

Primarily, this research began with the need to find out more about how, where and why Languages fitted into to both in-service and pre-service teachers' beliefs – to find out the extent of their investment in teaching Languages and how this investment was articulated through their beliefs about Languages and notions of teacher knowledge and teacher identity. Several matters of significance have emerged from the study that highlight the central role that knowledge plays in the construction of teacher identity and the significance of belief systems for supporting adaptive and pedagogically responsible teaching practice.

The pre-service teachers indicate that Languages are an important part of the curriculum and has a role to play in the development of the learner. In-service teachers were able to define and articulate pedagogical processes to progress the Language learner.

Languages mattered to both study groups and they see it as an integral component of the primary school program. Their beliefs about Languages were connected to a primary belief about the purpose and value of education and encompassed a sense of social empowerment as they viewed Languages to enable greater participation of learners in social contexts wider than the immediate environment.

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Appendices

Appendix A

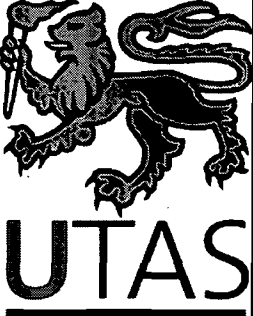
Principles and Pedagogy

Principle	Pedagogy
Active construction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • is task orientated • includes the use of effective questioning • caters to the requirements of individuals • incorporates graphic organisers and other visuals to help connect understandings. • encourages a gradual shift from the descriptive to the conceptual • highlights particular linguistic and sociocultural considerations.
Making connections	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • is designed in line with learner's development and builds on previous knowledge • combines learning of language and culture with the development of understandings across the curriculum • encourages learners to explain, integrate and inquire • builds connections across texts and contexts.
Social interaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • facilitates interactions that promote intercultural communication • builds accuracy, fluency and complexity • includes interactive talk as an essential part of all tasks • includes scaffolding to extend the intercultural connections individual learners are making • involves listening to learners and incorporating their responses into the conversation • includes making comparisons across a range of languages, cultures and contexts.
Reflection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • includes reflecting critically on one's own attitudes, beliefs and values • involves conceptualising connections between languages and cultures • mediates the process of developing multiple perspectives on language and culture in all societies and acting in non-judgemental ways • highlights comparing, analysing and synthesising aspects of language and culture from a universally human perspective
Responsibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • involves setting personal goals and self monitoring • fosters engagement with difference and includes awareness of multiple perspectives • investigates ethical uses of knowledge.

(Browett & Spencer, 2007, p.4)

Appendix B

Questionnaire for the Pre-service Teacher cohort

<p>Locked Bag 1307 Launceston Tasmania 7250 Australia Telephone: (03) 63243263 Facsimile (03) 63243048</p>	
<p>SCHOOL OF EDUCATION</p>	

Questionnaire for Pre-service teachers

Part 1:

Please tick the appropriate response:

- Gender: a. __ male b. __ female
- Age: a. __ 18-25yrs b. __ 26-35yrs c. __ 36- 45yrs d. __ over 46yrs
- Year of study in B. Ed course: a. ____ 1st yr b. ____ 3rd yr.

Part 2:

Beliefs and understandings about LOTE teaching and learning

Directions: There are no right or wrong answers for the following questions – I would like to know what you really believe. Please read each statement carefully and circle a number to indicate if you agree or disagree with the statement.

Strongly disagree

Strongly agree

5

No	Questions	SD	D	N	A	SA
1	LOTE is an important part of primary school children's learning.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Learning vocabulary is the most important part of learning a LOTE.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Learning a LOTE is very difficult for primary aged children.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Learning a LOTE offers many future opportunities for children.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Given the opportunity, I would like to learn a LOTE.	1	2	3	4	5
6	LOTE needs to be part of an integral part of the primary school curriculum.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Learning grammar is an important part of learning a LOTE.	1	2	3	4	5
8	To be good at LOTE students need to be academically very capable.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Learning a LOTE will enable children to learn about the culture of the country in which the LOTE is spoken.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I would find it easy to learn a LOTE.	1	2	3	4	5
11	In today's world it is not important to have learnt a LOTE.	1	2	3	4	5
12	It is important to be able to communicate in another language.	1	2	3	4	5
13	As children learn a LOTE, they use skills that they may	1	2	3	4	5

	also use in other learning areas.					
14	All primary school children, should have access to learning a LOTE.	1	2	3	4	5
15	It is important for Tasmanian primary school children to be able to select a LOTE that they can study.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I would like to learn a LOTE so as I could teach it in the primary classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
17	It is important to be able to know another language.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Learning about the culture in which the LOTE is spoken is an integral part of learning the language.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Teachers need to have a high level of competency in the LOTE before they can teach it.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Learning a LOTE enables children to better understand other peoples and culture.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I would feel comfortable to teach a LOTE.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Learning a LOTE is mainly about speaking the language.	1	2	3	4	5
23	LOTE is a difficult subject to teach.	1	2	3	4	5
24	All children are capable of learning a LOTE.	1	2	3	4	5
25	My LOTE learning has greatly influenced my beliefs about LOTE learning.	1	2	3	4	5
26	I would be able to support a LOTE program in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
27	Learning a LOTE is mainly about translating from the LOTE to English and vice versa.	1	2	3	4	5
28	Having learnt one LOTE, it would be easy for children to learn another.	1	2	3	4	5
29	Learning a LOTE would help learners learn in other curriculum areas.	1	2	3	4	5
30	I would be willing to assist a LOTE teacher in delivering a LOTE program in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5

Part 3:

I am also interested in finding out about your previous LOTE learning experiences before coming to University and whilst you have been here. Briefly, outline your encounters with learning a LOTE.

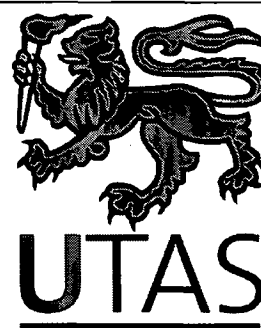
This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

Thankyou.

Appendix C

Interview Schedule – In-service Teachers

Locked Bag 1307 Launceston
Tasmania 7250 Australia
Telephone: (03) 63243263
Facsimile (03) 63243048



SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Interview Schedule

I would be interested in hearing about your Languages learning experiences.

- What do you remember about being taught Languages at school and since leaving school?
- Could you be specific as to the age/grade that you remember, the strategies used and how you were taught?
- Were your teachers successful in teaching you a language? How did you as a student make that judgement?
- How do you think your own experience of Languages learning has impacted on the way in which you teach Languages?
- What languages learning experiences have you had, post initial teacher training?

1. How do you see Languages fitting into the primary curriculum?

- In primary school, what conditions are necessary for the learner to successfully learn a language?
- How do you see Language fitting into the English curriculum?
- How do you see the notion of interdisciplinary learning occurring with Languages?

2. What should a 'good' LOTE program look like?

- How do you structure your learning program? Why do you structure it in this way?
- What is core learning for children in Languages?
- Which resources do you use/find useful/hinder learning?

3. How do you see LOTE benefiting the children?

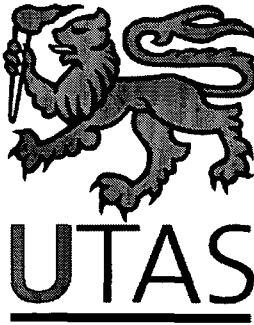
- Why should children learn a Language?
- What purposes can learning a language have for children?

4. As a LOTE teacher what do you see as the most important aspects of your work?

- What sort of knowledge do you think teachers need to use in their day to day teaching of Languages?
- What kinds of training or experience can help teachers develop this knowledge?
- How do you consider your teacher knowledge? What sort of value do you place upon it?

Appendix D

Information sheet to Pre-service Teachers

<p>Locked Bag 1307 Launceston Tasmania 7250 Australia Telephone: (03) 63243263 Facsimile (03) 63243048</p>	
<p>SCHOOL OF EDUCATION</p>	

Student Information Sheet

May 29th 2008

Title of investigation:

A Tale of Two Discourses: University pre-service teachers' and in-service primary school LOTE teachers' beliefs and understandings on Languages teaching within the Tasmanian context.

Name of chief investigator:

Mr Thao Le
Senior Lecturer
Faculty of Education
University of Tasmania

Name of Doctoral student:

Mr Greg Ashman
Lecturer
University of Tasmania

Invitation:

You are invited to participate in a research study that aims to investigate your beliefs and understandings about LOTE teaching.

Purpose of the study:

It is through this study that I intend to explore the beliefs and understandings of pre-service teachers and practicing primary school LOTE teachers and to examine where, in the state primary school sector of the Tasmanian Department of Education, LOTE education is situated.

The study will investigate pre-service teachers and classroom teachers' beliefs and understandings of LOTE teaching in Tasmanian primary schools. Pre-service teachers and practicing teachers' beliefs about languages teaching will be identified and analysed using a range of formal, practice-orientated and experiential measures designed to ascertain pedagogical understandings, the role of LOTE in a primary curriculum and the requirements needed for successful languages teaching.

Why have you been chosen to participate in this study?

You have been chosen to participate in this study as you are a pre-service teacher who is in either first year or third year of the Bachelor of Education program in Launceston.

Participant benefit:

Investigating how the beliefs and understandings of teachers and future teachers are gained, expressed and translated into classroom programs will provide policy makers, teachers and University staff working within the LOTE learning area insights to shape and define future developments as well as providing suggestions for informing practice. As the study is situated within the Tasmanian context, the study will provide rich contextual information and recommendations that can easily be translated into the local learning environment. The participants involvement in this study will indirectly contribute to the refinement of LOTE teaching in Tasmania.

What does this study involve?

You will be asked to complete a short questionnaire, which should take approximately 20 minutes.

Possible risks or discomforts:

There are no specific risks anticipated with participation in this study.

Confidentiality:

Your confidentiality will be ensured as there is no need for identification on questionnaire forms.

Freedom to refuse or withdraw:

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may withdraw from the project at any time.

Contact persons:

Mr Greg Ashman
Lecturer in Literacy/LOTE
Faculty of Education
University of Tasmania
Locked Bag 1307
Launceston TAS 7250
Ph 6324 3063
Greg.Ashman@utas.edu.au

Dr Thao Le
Senior Lecturer
Faculty of Education

University of Tasmania
Locked Bag 1307
LAUNCESTON.
Ph 6324 3696
Thao.Le@utas.edu.au

Concerns or complaints:

This study has been approved by the Tasmanian Social Science Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have concerns or complaints about the conduct of this study you should contact the Executive Officer of the HREC (Tasmania) Network on (03) 6226 7479 or email human.ethics@utas.edu.au. The Executive Officer is the person nominated to receive complaints from research participants. You will need to quote the [*HREC project number*].

Results of the investigation:

All participants are invited and welcome to attend and will be informed of the details closer to the event.

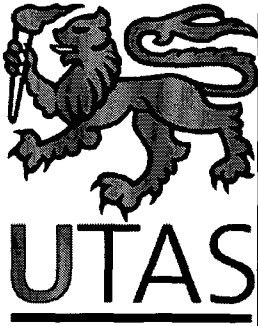
Thank you for taking the time to consider this study.

If you wish to take part in it, please sign the attached consent form.

This information sheet is for you to keep.

Appendix E

Information sheet to In-service Teachers

<p>Locked Bag 1307 Launceston Tasmania 7250 Australia Telephone: (03) 63243263 Facsimile (03) 63243048</p>	
<p>SCHOOL OF EDUCATION</p>	

TEACHER INFORMATION SHEET

Title:
A Tale of Two Discourses: University pre-service teachers’ and in-service primary school Language Other Than English (LOTE) teachers’ beliefs and understandings on Languages teaching within the Tasmanian context.

Chief Investigator:
Dr. Thao Lê (Supervisor)
Greg Ashman (EdD Student)

Purpose of the Study:
This is a research project to meet Doctor of Education requirements. One of the aims of the study is to gain insights about teacher beliefs and understandings surrounding LOTE teaching and learning

Teacher Selection Criteria:
This study involves Tasmanian government primary teachers. Teachers will be invited to participate on the basis of whether they have taught for two or more years and have a teaching responsibility in LOTE of at least a 0.4 loading.

Study Procedures/Research Tasks:
You will participate in one private interview. The interview, conducted by the research students, will be held in Term 3 2008 at a venue that is mutually convenient to yourself and the doctoral student. The exact dates and times will be finalized once the participant selection process has been completed. The interviews will be an hour in duration and will be structured with open-ended questions that will be based on teacher beliefs and understandings surrounding the teaching of LOTE.

Confidentiality:
Absolute confidentiality and anonymity of your participation in the interview will be maintained. The privacy of the information divulged during the session with you will

be maintained. During the project, data will be stored on audio tape and kept in a secured locked cabinet.

Once the study is completed, the audio tape data transcribed and analysed, the audiotapes and transcripts will be stored in a secure locked cabinet at the University for a period of 5 years after which they will be destroyed (erased/shredded).

Participants may view a copy of the transcript of their interview and will have the right to check, modify, delete or reject any portion of the information contained within the interview transcript.

The school and you will not be identified by name and extra care will be given to the way the schools profile is recorded in the data so that its identity cannot be definitively ascertained from the information in the data.

Freedom to Refuse or Withdraw:

As participation in this study is entirely voluntary, you may withdraw from the study at any time without any effect. Any data that you submitted during the interviews may also be withdrawn at that time. Data collated at the point of withdrawal from the study will also be withdrawn and can be destroyed at your request.

Contact Persons:

Dr. Thao Lê (Chief Investigator/Supervisor) (03) 63 243696

Email: T.Le@utas.edu.au

Greg Ashman (EdD Student)

(03) 6324 3063 (work)

Email: Greg.Ashman@utas.edu.au

Results of Investigation:

You will be asked if you would like a copy of a summary of the study's results and subsequent analysis.

Direct Benefits:

Investigating how the beliefs and understandings of teachers and future teachers are gained, expressed and translated into classroom programs will provide policy makers, teachers and University staff working within the LOTE learning area insights to shape and define future developments as well as providing suggestions for informing practice. As the study is situated within the Tasmanian context, the study will provide rich contextual information and recommendations that can easily be translated into the local learning environment. The participants involvement in this study will indirectly contribute to the refinement of LOTE teaching in Tasmania.

Information sheet and consent form:

You will be given copies of the information sheet and statement of informed consent to keep.

