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Policies and Practices in Language Teaching and Information Technology in South-East Queensland High Schools

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Statement of Originality

I declare that the work presented in this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, original and my own work, except as acknowledged in the text, and that the material has not been submitted, either in whole or in part, for a degree at any other university.

Peter B. White

ABSTRACT

This study investigates the impact of language and computer policies on teachers of Languages Other Than English (LOTE). An essential part of successful implementation and continuation of these policies is clear communication between policy makers and the implementers of the policies, that is, language teachers in Queensland high schools. How policy makers and central office managers perceive the objectives of these policies is not necessarily how language teachers see them, or how the policies are carried out.

This study is based on communication and organisation theories as propounded by Taylor (1993, 1994), Taylor et al. (1996), Fairclough (1995), Cherry (1985), Bateson (1972, 1979), Thompson et al. (1991) and others. The main thrust of the argument is that organisations are comprised of human conversations that result in the development of artefacts, such as policy documents and organisational structures, that are devised to meet common aims of the participants in the conversations. Australian national language policies were established in a socio-political environment which reinforced the concepts of multiculturalism and the need for Australians to learn a second language. Queensland followed the thrust of the national policies and promulgated a language-in-education policy that has been the basis upon which languages are currently taught in Queensland schools.

While the Commonwealth Government has encouraged the use of computers in education, it has left the development of computer-in-education policies to States and Territories. Education Queensland also promulgated a comprehensive computer policy, which has enabled schools to be connected to the Internet, as well as providing a basic computer infrastructure in schools. As part of this policy, all teachers were directed to achieve a basic competency in using computers, and further, were to integrate the use of computers into their work plans.

The combination of the two policy movements regarding the teaching of languages and the use of computers in schools, has meant that schools, and particularly LOTE teachers, have had to carry out the directives of these policies, often with little or no

understanding of them. This study investigates the impact of these policies on language teachers, with a particular emphasis on how teachers understand the policies, and then how they implement them in their daily work.

Twenty-seven language teachers in thirteen different high schools in the eight education districts in the greater Brisbane area were interviewed. A set of questions was used that looked at teachers' knowledge of policies, how they found out about them and how they communicated their concerns about them to their peers and superiors. Additionally, questions were asked about teachers' use of computers in language teaching, and the issues surrounding this area. Finally, teachers were asked what pressures they felt most strongly in their language teaching.

To obtain evidence on a broader scale, a questionnaire was sent to 504 language teachers in State high schools throughout Queensland. A return of 115 (24.3%) valid responses was received. The questionnaire used both closed and open-ended questions. Additionally, two principals and one non-language teacher head of department were interviewed to obtain a broader school perspective on issues relating to language and computer policies. Three officers of Education Queensland's central office were interviewed to gain an understanding of how the Department perceived the implementation processes of the policies, and the problems they saw in these processes. Finally, five other language specialists in Australia were interviewed to gain an interstate perspective on issues relating to language and computer policies.

A text analysis of major policy documents was also undertaken in order to gain an understanding of the contexts in which they were developed, and how the texts themselves indicated who was to be responsible for implementation, and who the beneficiaries were intended to be.

The findings indicate that teachers were very vague about specific policy documents and their contents, particularly about national policies, and had little input in their development. However, policies that related directly to their daily work were more likely to be understood, such as specific language syllabuses and the requirement to attain minimum standards of computing. Formal and informal communication patterns within the education system were also investigated to discover how policies

were disseminated to teachers, and how teachers could provide feedback on issues relating to the policies. Teachers communicate and network mostly with their peers within the school, and then with colleagues and mentors outside of their school. Slightly more than half the teachers who responded belong to a professional association such as the Modern Language Teachers Association of Queensland, and of these, a smaller number are active in the work of the association.

The findings also show that most language teachers do use computers in their work, but mostly for the preparation of lesson plans, and for administrative and assessment work. There are difficulties in most schools that preclude the use of computers for language teaching, and these include a lack of adequate hardware and software, limited access to existing computer equipment, inadequate software for computer-assisted language learning (CALL), and a serious lack of specialist training for teachers. Additional concerns of the teachers are a perceived low status of foreign language teaching within the schools themselves and within their communities. There is also pressure by school administrations on language teachers to actively market their language in order to increase the number of students who continue their language study beyond the compulsory years.

The study concludes with recommendations that will assist language teachers and the Department to improve language teaching in high schools in Queensland. These include: enhancing the patterns of communication within the Department to allow for improved feedback from teachers to decision-makers through the use of the Department's intranet; provision of adequate computer infrastructure to schools so that subject areas such as languages will have equitable access to it; specialist training of language teachers in the use of computers; enhancement of teachers' understanding and interpretation of relevant policies; and the development of a marketing campaign to improve the community's attitudes towards language teaching.

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Glossary of acronyms

AFMLTA	Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers' Associations
ALL	Australian Language Learning Guidelines
ALLC	Australian Language and Literacy Council
ALLP	Australian Language and Literacy Program
ASLLP	Australian Second Language Learning Program
AUSINDO	Australia-Indonesia Association
BOSSS	Board of Senior Secondary School Studies
CALL	Computer-assisted language learning
CLE	Community Languages Element (part of CSLP)
CLT	Communicative language teaching
CLTR	Centre for Language Teaching and Research (at The University of Queensland)
CML	Computer Mediated Learning
COAG	Council of Australian Governments
CSLP	Commonwealth School Languages Program
DE	Distance education
DEET	Department of Employment, Education and Training
DEETYA	Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs
DETYA	Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs
DG	Director General
DOEM	Department of Education Manual
EdNA	Education Network Australia (On-line project of DETYA)
EQ	Education Queensland (the Queensland education department)
ESL	English as a Second Language
HOD	Head of department
HTA	History Teachers' Association
GUI	Graphical User Interface
INTJ	Introverted, Intuitive, Thinking, Judgmental. A Briggs-Meyers classification
IT	Information technology
KLA	Key learning area
LACU	Languages and Cultures Unit (part of Education Queensland)
LAN	Local area network
LATTICE	Language and Technology Centre (Part of NLLIA)
LOTE	Languages other than English
MALT	Management and Learning Technology Plan
MLTAQ	Modern Language Teachers' Association of Queensland
MOO	Multi-user domain, Object Oriented (an text-based virtual domain, used for language teaching across the Internet
NALSAS	National Asian Languages And Studies in Australian Schools Strategy
NBEET	National Board of Employment, Education and Training
NGO	Non-government organisation
NLLIA	National Language and Literacy Institute of Australia
P & C/P & F	Parents and Community associations/Parents and Friends associations
PCAP	Priority Country Area Program
PD	Professional development
PLANLangPol	A committee established to discuss the development of a national language policy

PLE	Priority Languages Element (part of CSLP)
QIEA	Queensland Institute for Educational Administration
QMCC	Queensland Multicultural Coordinating Committee
QSCC	Queensland State Curriculum Council
QSITE	Queensland Society for Information Technology in Education
QTU	Queensland Teachers' Union
QUT	Queensland University of Technology
SAC LOTE	Subject Advisory Studies Languages Other Than English
SIG	Special interest group
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TAFE	Technical and Further Education (colleges and institutes of)
URL	Uniform Resource Locator. A World Wide Web address
WAN	Wide area network
Web	The World Wide Web
WWW	The World Wide Web

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1.0 Introduction

1.1 Background

Over the past fifteen years there have been two developments which have generated great changes in Australia's schools: the development and implementation of language policies, and the introduction of computer technology. Both these developments have caused a large number of changes in the classroom. They have created many significant changes in curriculum, resource allocation, teacher education, teacher supply, and even the design of classrooms. These two developments in themselves have evolved quite separately, but both have a major impact in the language classroom, where the two developments converge. This in turn has generated considerable concern and confusion among language teachers.

Both developments are policy-driven, that is, imposed from the top of the hierarchy. Current language policies originally emanated from the Commonwealth government and were subsequently endorsed by States and Territory governments, who then developed their own language policies, most often as language-in-education policies (Judd, 1992; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997; Baldauf, 1997). The policies on the use of computers in schools, however, have been developed by State governments, and most particularly by departments of education. The language-in-education policies are now being affected by the introduction of computers into the schools. In the case of Queensland state schools, Education Queensland (EQ) has mandated that all teachers will achieve a basic level of computer literacy by the year 2000 (EQ, 1995). This has created issues of how language teachers ought to use computers in their teaching. For example, how does the development of the Internet relate to language teaching in a high school? It is apparent that two policy areas are converging at the school level, with the language teacher the "pivot of policy" as the title of a Commonwealth report indicates (NBEET 1996a).

Language teachers, then, are obliged to carry out the tasks as mandated by these policies and related directives. This study will investigate the issues and concerns that language teachers in Queensland state high schools and other educationalists have raised in their attempts to work within a policy framework that includes a detailed language-in-education policy (EQ, 1991), and a set of policies dictating the use of computers in teaching (EQ, 1995).

1.1.1 Organisations and communication

Language teachers in Queensland state high schools work within a complex, hierarchical organisation that includes a number of levels. Simply put, from the bottom up, teachers work within a department within a school. The school in turn is part of a school district, which is then part of the greater education department – Education Queensland (EQ). From the top down, EQ's central office is the hub of policy analysis and development, and from there, policies and directives are disseminated throughout the organisation. From the bottom up, that is, from schools and teachers, performance standard reports and administrative reports are sent to the district and central offices. This implies that there are communication channels within EQ that facilitate the passing of information.

How well communication flows within a complex organisation is an important indicator of how well a policy will be implemented in that organisation, and also is an indicator of how well the organisation functions overall (see Fullan and Stiegelbauer, 1991). This is particularly important if one follows Taylor's concept (1993, 1994) that organisations are nothing more than a collection of conversations, or discourses, which can be reified through technology and become the organisation's texts (Taylor, 1993,1994). Policy documents, for example, are such organisational texts, and are disseminated through communication media. These policy texts may be seen as the basis for the enactment of policy, which is carried out throughout the organisation and includes implementation, continuity and evaluation (Fullan and Stiegelbauer, 1991). The study will use Taylor's organisational communication theories to assist in developing the overall framework for analysis.

Communication within an organisation also suggests that there is a common language used by members of that organisation. However, within a complex organisation that is divided hierarchically through a chain of command and vertically through specialisation, the use of a common language may not be all that apparent. As an example, information technology specialists will use language and concepts that are quite different from those used by educationalists (Taylor, 1993). Decision-makers will be versed in other concepts and language. Taylor (1993) discusses just this point and suggests that the different professional languages used by specialists frequently lead to serious miscommunication, resulting in poor decisions or confusion in interpretation by others within the organisation. Taylor (1993) suggests that a shared language is the basis upon which an organisation operates successfully.

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If communication is the key to organisation as Taylor maintains, then a common language is the key to communication. In other words, this common language is the element that connects people, organisations, policies and programs. Thus, language may be considered as the "pattern which connects" (Bateson, 1972, 1979).

A related concern regarding language use in an organisation is how messages, either oral or written, are interpreted by the recipients. Interpretations of messages rely on not only a common language, but also the *contexts* in which the message was prepared, sent and received (Taylor, 1993, 1994; Taylor et al., 1996; Fairclough, 1995; Luke, 1995). As Taylor (1993) indicates, there is often considerable misinterpretation or poor understanding of policy messages by recipients within and across organisations.

Within this framework, this study asks questions regarding how a policy text is disseminated, interpreted, and then implemented by people within an organisation. More specifically, there are questions on how language teachers receive, interpret and then implement policy texts relating to language teaching. How teachers communicate with one another about policies and issues related to them is another area of interest. Within their own networks, how teachers react to, interpret and implement computer policies needs to be investigated. And finally, how policies are made and disseminated to teachers within a complex organisation such as EQ is an important area of the study.

1.1.2 Policies and change

Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) tie policy-making and changes in schools together as a process. This policy process can be seen as an important sub-set of the overall communication framework of the organisation. Policies emanate from an education system and are then promulgated to the rest of the organisation through the medium of the policy texts. Senior levels within the organisation make the policy decisions, with the implementation of these policy decisions resting with other levels in the organisation. This often creates difficulties for the organisation as a whole, because policy making is seen to be both more compelling and more exciting than policy implementation, at least from the perspective of the decision-makers. However, Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) state that the implementation phase of the policy process is the critical path towards final success of the policy.

In Queensland, the 1991 language policy document (EQ, 1991) followed the lines of the Commonwealth and mandated that every child will be taught a second language. However, implementation of the policy faced difficulties initially because of the lack of appropriately trained language teachers to carry out the policy (EQ, 1991). Information technology (IT) policies (EQ, 1995) have mandated that schools will be connected to the Internet and will have a ratio of one computer for every ten students, but this implementation may have left schools with inadequate provision of financial resources to maintain or to enhance the computer infrastructure.

Policy makers need to ensure that while they may develop policies in specific areas such as language teaching or information technology (IT), they should be developed in relation to each other, rather than separately. For example, an IT policy for Queensland high schools needs to consider incorporating within it a specific section on the provision of adequate hardware and software for the purposes of teaching the priority languages. In order to begin to understand the processes underlying these sorts of policy developments, it is necessary to understand how public policy processes work.

Davis et al. (1993, p. 15) describe the essential ingredients in policy making as "the complex interplay of values, interests and resources guided through institutions and mediated by politics." The ultimate end of this process is the decision to generate the policy. The artefact, or product, of this process is the policy document.

The process of developing a policy and getting it through to the decision-makers is a complex exercise which will be full of compromises, hedges, and an odd mixture of rhetoric and specific commitments of resources which will ultimately lead to implementation (Davis et al., 1993). Hawker et al. (1979) state that there are five major influences which shape public policy: social and economic conditions, prevailing ideas, institutions and individuals, technical and analytical procedures, and general theories about how policies are made.

Parsons (1995) suggests that there needs to be a considerable development of coalition-building, where different groups of people who have a stake in the outcome of the policy can work together. First, such a coalition needs to put a case together. Second, the case then has to be brought to relevant tiers of decision makers. Finally, the nascent policy needs to be

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guided through the bureaucratic and political processes, which includes the attachment of resources to the policy to make it worth implementing.

Peddie (1992) also emphasises the importance of finance. He states that once a policy is created and decided upon, it must then be tied to the allocation of resources to relevant organisations or individuals within a specified time frame. Additionally, there will be directives about the means of evaluating the outcomes of the policy's implementation. In Australia at least, policies are generally of the 'top-down' variety (Davis et al., 1993, p. 6). In creating policies, the policy makers rely on information from a coalition of experts, community groups, political parties and others, and through the policy processes a policy is developed. But this process seldom generates programs that the target group can feel that it owns (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; Wickert, 1997).

Ownership of a policy and its processes is an important point to consider, particularly when policies and resources flow from the top. Fullan (1993) stresses this point very strongly in his analysis of why educational change goes wrong. It is essential that the teachers — the main implementers of any educational policy — are not only mandated to carry out the policy, but are also part of the development and ultimate implementation of the policy. A successful policy requires a bottom-up approach as much as a top-down approach (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991). These approaches rely on communication to succeed. While policy makers develop and promulgate policies through formal, hierarchical channels, there also need to be mechanisms in place to ensure that those responsible for carrying out the policy can report back on the positive and negative aspects of the policy. Further, what means there are to ensure that the policy is correctly interpreted and implemented requires some investigation. These include how teachers can contact and discuss problems with decision makers, and what sorts of reporting mechanisms exist to expedite communication.

What has been discussed thus far is the development and implementation of policies within an organisational framework, and the critical need for good communication to occur within an organisation to ensure successful policy outcomes. Another area that needs to be discussed in some length is the introduction of computer technology into schools and its impact on language teachers. The use of computers in schools is the basis of a major policy area for the Department (EQ, 1995). The policy provides direction and resources to the

incorporation of networked computers into schools, and discussion documents relating to the policy (EQ, 1995) provide suggestions on how computers might be used in different subject areas. In terms of language teaching, however, the suggestions do not provide detailed approaches.

1.1.3 Language teachers and computers

Computers have been used in language teaching even before the development of the personal computer (Ahmad et al., 1985; Levy, 1997a), but the advent of cheap, powerful personal computers with multimedia capabilities has resulted in a rapid expansion of their use in schools. With the development of the hardware has also come a rapid development of specialist software for language learning, a field usually referred to as computer-assisted language learning (CALL). Many of these programs have been adopted by language teachers. Additionally, because of EQ's computer policies, all schools are linked to the Internet, thus enabling teachers to use computers in the schools as communication devices. Using the computer as a stand-alone tool and as a communication link is incorporated in the computer policy (EQ, 1995).

Such use of computers has an impact directly upon the teachers and the students, and through the school, to the relevant school communities. However, there is anecdotal evidence to suggest that there are a number of issues relating to the use of computers brought about by the promulgation of the computer policies (see White, 1996), and this study aims to describe and clarify these more explicitly.

CALL can be seen as a specialised set of programs for the purposes of language teaching and learning. Often these programs have been developed by language teachers who are also computer enthusiasts (Levy, 1997a), whereas others have been developed by commercial software companies. Language specific programs can also be found on the World Wide Web (Web). Additionally, language teachers are also using more generic applications such as email and Web-based programs like *WebWhacker* in their language teaching. Basically, any use of computer technology to enhance language teaching and learning may be considered as part of CALL. Over the past several years, CALL has emerged as a discipline in its own right, with over 170 journal articles and book chapters being published in 1999 alone (Levy, 2000). A number of special journals cater to CALL practitioners and developers, such as the

CALICO Journal, ReCALL, CALL-EJ, and the *CALL Journal*. But while these developments are gathering strength at the tertiary educational level, there are serious questions about their impact on primary and high schools relating to hardware, software, networking and teacher education (van Lier, 1998, 1999). The usual approach to date seems to relate more to the purchase of hardware and some basic software with a one-off capital grant, with little or no provision for staff training or ongoing maintenance (White, 1996). This study discusses in detail these issues as seen from the perspective of language teachers and other language professionals.

The impact of all these changes on the students' ability to gain the requisite level of competence in a language should be paramount in any use of technology and in any method of educational delivery. Kelly stresses this when he says: "The students must be the prime concern, of course, and then we go down the line with the teachers, the parents, the educational instructions, the community, the government and the companies" (Kelly, 1992, p. 8).

It is evident that Kelly recognises the complexity of the educational domain simply by citing all the various actor groups. But in spite of this array of different groups within the domain, he clearly emphasises the needs of the student. The use of technology in schools, then, ought to be seen in this context — does it assist the students? Narrowing the focus, we may ask, does CALL assist the students? There is growing evidence that CALL does enhance students' language learning (Chun, 1994; Warschauer, 1996, for example), but there are many concerns raised by language teachers on just how CALL might be used, given the classroom environments that State high school teachers work in.

At the moment, the first step in this process is discovering just what language teachers are doing, how they think about the use of CALL in their discipline, and how they see the future. It is also important to ascertain how they perceive their abilities to get their points of view heard by decision makers at school, at State and at Commonwealth levels. Networks of teachers and other interested people have made a significant contribution in the past in the development of current language and language-in-education policies. Certainly such bodies as the Modern Language Teachers' Association of Queensland (MLTAQ), and the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations (AFMLTA) in particular are key organisations in this area. How teachers, and their allies, network to get their voices heard is

an important part of the policy domain, and also can be seen to provide the essential feedback mechanism to the larger systems which assists in maintaining the dynamic interchange of communication which is crucial to the system as a whole.

1.2 The research questions

A number of questions has been raised in the discussion above. For this study, these have been encapsulated in three questions, which are the basis for the research design.

The principal research question is:

- How are educational information technology and language policies communicated and implemented in high schools in southern Queensland?

Subsidiary questions are:

- How do language teachers implement these policies in their classroom teaching?
- What sort of relationship is there between government language teaching and government information technology (IT) policies in the teaching of languages within Queensland high schools?

1.3 Overview of the study's structure

The study consists of six chapters: Introduction, Literature Review, Methodology, Findings, Discussion and Conclusion. The study is introduced here in Chapter One. Chapter Two is the literature review and covers a range of topics relevant to this study. These include communication theory and organisation theory, policy analysis and a review of specific policies, technology and computers, computers in education, and CALL developments and use. Chapter Two also reviews some essential literature relating to change, policies, practices and communication in schools, particularly the writings of Fullan (1993), and Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) and their work on change in schools, and how policies effect change.

Chapter Three, Methodology, provides the description of the methodology that was used in the study. It provides details of the study's design, including a description of the sampling techniques and the instruments used. Data collection methods and then data analysis techniques are described in detail following the principles and methods as discussed in Miles and Huberman (1994). The chapter concludes with a section on text analysis methods.

National and Queensland language policies, and Education Queensland's computer policy are analysed using techniques as discussed in Silverman (1993).

The findings of the study are described in detail in Chapter Four. First, the results of the text analysis are described. Next, findings from the questions asked in the teacher interviews are discussed. These include areas of communication and networks, teachers' awareness of policies, their use and knowledge of computers, training issues, and their perceptions of major pressures they face in their work. Results from the questionnaire sent to teachers across Queensland are discussed at length in the next section. These include details on the respondents' schools, how respondents network and communicate, their awareness of policies, their use of computers and their opinions on training. Several smaller sets of respondents were also interviewed: officers in the central office of Education Queensland; interstate language specialists, and school principals and heads of departments. Their responses, based on interview questions, raise issues relating to policies, training, computers in schools, networking, and the effects of politics in the school on resource allocation.

The findings are analysed and discussed in Chapter Five. This chapter consists of nine sections, which provide details of specific themes emanating from the findings. These include issues relating to communication patterns within the school and within the education domain, teacher networks, policies, funding, computer use, and fears and concerns of language teachers.

More specifically, the first section of Chapter Five looks at the results of the various sets of interviews and responses from the questionnaire, and then brings together themes that were common across all the different sets, using a cross-case matrix approach as suggested in Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 207-208). The second section brings the communication theories as discussed in Chapter Two into play, and looks at how communication — or the lack of it — reflects on policy development and implementation, particularly from the view of the teacher respondents. Communication within the school itself, amongst peers, and through school committee systems, is discussed in some detail, based on the responses from teacher respondents.

The results also provided much information relating to how respondents understood policies that directly affected them. This is discussed in the context of the overall development of

language and computer policies, and the changes to these policies that have had an impact on language teachers, and other school personnel. An issue that is related to policy, and which has significant impact on teachers, is that of funding. This area is discussed in relation to how funding is allocated within the school and the effects of funding on school computer infrastructure and staff training.

How language teachers use computers was a major area of the research, and responses from teachers who were interviewed and who responded to the questionnaire provided considerable information on issues related to this area. The Department's computer policies are analysed in order to set the framework in which teachers use computers. Respondents also provided much information on their perceptions of CALL, and their attitudes to the use of computers for language teaching, and these are discussed in this section of the chapter.

Respondents raised a number of other concerns, and these are discussed in Chapter Five. Specific issues raised are: teachers' fears; the status of language teaching within the school and the school community; issues relating to time pressures; primary school to secondary school articulation in languages taught; and issues relating to pre-service training in computing for new language teachers. The chapter concludes with a synthesis which looks at the issue of communication, then policies, and provides some analysis from a top-down and a bottom-up perspective.

Chapter Six is the final chapter of the study. It discusses how the issues raised by respondents relate back to some of the key issues on policy and implementation as raised by Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) and discussed in Chapter Two. Concerns about the future of language teachers and their use of CALL are raised and discussed. Chapter Six then provides a number of suggestions that decision-makers in EQ, or in other educational organisations, should consider in any future policy changes to language teaching in schools.

2.0 Literature Review

2.1 Overview of the chapter

This study aims to examine the use of computers in the language teaching domain from the perspective of language teachers. Therefore, the literature reviewed in the study is broad, and covers a range of inter-connected areas. These include: communication and organisational theory, public policy development, language and language-in-education policies, the use of computer technology in schools, and educational change. These fields are covered to discover what happens when language teachers are attempting to implement policies and related programs, and are considering how these affect their language teaching.

Following this overview, Section 2.2 discusses the literature relating to organisational communication theory following Taylor (1992, 1994; Taylor et al., 1996) and others. First, an overview of communication theories is presented. This is then linked to Taylor's concept of communication defining an organisation. This larger framework serves to provide the theoretical framework for the further development of the study.

Taylor's communication theory and its relationship to organisations are discussed further in Section 2.3, and is supported by other writers who state that organisations are dynamic entities based on communication. The section then discusses specific organisational systems in the form of hierarchies, networks and domains, which comprise the structures within which teachers and other educationalists carry out their work. These types of organisations include government departments, schools, teacher networks, and language policy domains. Organisations are frequently hierarchical in nature, and studying how the communication between levels within a hierarchical organisation works will lead to an understanding of how policies affect implementation. In general, this is done through the dissemination of texts, such as policy documents and directives, by different levels of an organisation. These texts are then interpreted by other levels, and these interpretations are affected by the order of discourse (Fairclough, 1995) and the concept of worldview (Taylor, 1993) inherent in each level, or within each school, or within a department within a school. This study will use communication and organisation theories to show how education and language-in-education policies are implemented at the school level.

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Section 2.4 discusses the literature on how public policies are made, implemented and changed. The theories of how public policies are formulated is based on various understandings of communication and organisational theories (Considine, 1994; Davis et al., 1995; Parsons, 1995). There is a rich literature in this area, and this section of the review reports on the major writers and their frameworks. Part of this literature reflects on the implementation of new policies, or of changes to existent policies. Such activities cause changes to the implementing organisations; in the case of language-in-education policies, this means changes within schools.

Section 2.5 of the review discusses the key policies and related documents which have established language teaching as an integral part of school education. The national policies (Lo Bianco, 1987; Dawkins, 1991) established a national framework within which Queensland and other states established their own language policies. In the case of Queensland, the main policy may be considered principally as a language-in-education policy (EQ, 1991). Additionally, Queensland has also promulgated substantial policies relating to the introduction of computers in the schools, and their incorporation within the curriculum. These policies have had a major effect on schools in the State, and Section 2.6 discusses some of the literature that relates to policy implementation and change in schools. How high schools and more specifically language teachers implement these policies is also discussed in this section.

Section 2.7 looks at the literature relating to the understanding of the links between technology and education. The introduction of computer technology and the Internet into schools is having a major impact on how teaching and learning are carried out. This section also discusses some of the literature on cybernetics and computers and the development of computer-assisted language learning (CALL), and its use in the language classroom. Finally, Section 2.8 summarises the literature review and puts the various elements together to set the environment for the remainder of the study.

2.2 Theories of communication in organisations

The nature of this study means that several areas need to be explored simultaneously: public policy; computer technology; education systems and people within them, particularly school principals and language teachers; and the use of computer technology in language learning. The difficulty in attempting to make sense of all these elements and how they fit together can be resolved by attempting to find something that links them, or put in the words of Bateson (1979), finding *the pattern which connects*. This is an essential concept, because all too often the various elements of public policy definition and implementation are considered separately, with little or no understanding of the links between the social, political, technical and educational environments.

When one attempts to analyse how policies are formulated and implemented within an organisation, the pattern which connects the various hierarchical elements of the organisation is that of communication, through the medium of human language (Taylor, 1993, 1994; Taylor et al., 1996; Capra, 1996; Mingers, 1992). This section will present issues and descriptions of how this pattern of communication strongly affects the development, implementation and continuation of policies within organisations. Communication theory is a large and complex area of study. The main element to be discussed is how communication theory can assist to see how organisations are defined by the communication that occurs within them.

2.2.1 Overview of communication theory

In 1949, Shannon and Weaver proposed a communication theory which is still used today, and while well regarded, is used as a base for more detailed theories such as those espoused by Taylor. It has been particularly important in the development of radio and television networks, and more recently, computers and expert systems as well. This model (in Deaux & Wrightman, 1998; Taylor, 1993) supposes that an information source sends a message via a transmitter which converts the message into a signal. The signal may be impeded by noise. The receiver gets the signal after being filtered by whatever noise may exist and decodes the signal back to the message for the destination. Deaux and Wrightman point out that while Shannon and Weaver's theory has had considerable influence on the technological side of

communication, contemporary communication theorists such as Taylor consider the model too simplistic to account for person-to-person communication.

Taylor and other writers state that human communication needs to be seen as a "shared social system" (Deaux & Wrightman, 1998, p. 129; Cherry, 1985; O'Sullivan et al., 1983; Reddy, 1979). These writers make a clear distinction between a mechanistic definition of communication as in 'message sent = message received', and provide more socially based definitions in focusing on the relationship between the elements needed for meaning to occur. Cherry supports Taylor's concepts when he defines communication as the "potential for organisation" (Cherry, 1985, p. 31).

2.2.2 Communication linking people

Human communication is manifested principally through the medium of conversations, which in turn links people into various relationships. Fairclough (1995, p. 6-7) puts it another way: he states that language serves to establish and maintain social relations. Conversation can be seen as an interactive flow of discourse involving multiple participants using both language and paralanguage (Taylor, 1994; Deaux and Wrightsman, 1988; Hicks, 1996). Within every natural language, every conversation that takes place may be seen as a discourse event and is a form of social practice (Fairclough, 1995); it becomes a text once uttered. According to Luke (1995-96), discourse also systematically builds a version of the natural and social worlds (Taylor calls this worldview) as well as putting the speakers into a power relationship. This latter point thus infers hierarchy in social relations.

Human conversations, then, generate texts (Taylor, 1993; Taylor et al., 1996; Fairclough, 1995). Fairclough sees texts as "...social spaces in which two fundamental social processes simultaneously occur: cognition and representation of the world, and social interaction" (1995, p. 6). These texts may be written or spoken discourses, and may include other artefacts such as graphics on a Web page. It is through the medium of these texts that human conversations can move through time and space independently of the originators.

Briefly, when people converse, their ensuing discussion can be seen as a discourse event. The text can then be put into various forms: oral, written, graphical or some other artefact

which expresses to some extent the intended meaning of the initial conversation. The discourse event also establishes: power relations (hierarchy), information exchange, organisation of some duration, and cooperative activity.

2.2.3 Communication defining organisation

When two or more people work together in some form of shared social setting, on the basis of their discourse events, an organisation is formed. The organisation can then be seen as a network of conversations and an artefact in its own right (Cherry, 1985), and it will take many different shapes. The organisation then generates further texts which lead to the creation of artefacts of different forms.

All human organisations carry out these activities. Within an organisation, or within a collection of organisations, there will be a variety of texts and discourse events which taken together make up a shared order of discourse (Fairclough, 1995). This order of discourse provides a mutually understandable milieu for the participants. Difficulties of interpretation and understanding arise when within, or across organisations, the texts are interpreted and understood differently by different subgroups within the same organisation, or across organisations. Within a government department, for example, when a policy document is disseminated from the central office to regional offices, the latter may well interpret these documents differently from the original intention, which will generate further difficulties in the implementation of the policy. Taylor (1993) provides insights into this phenomenon, which is endemic across most organisations.

There is a shared worldview held within each regional office, which differs from that of the central office. This regional worldviews, then, are the basis upon which there is the generation of *antitexts* (Taylor, 1993) by the regional offices. The antitexts are the regions' attempts to firstly understand the policy document, and then to fit this understanding into their own worldview. While these antitexts are generally oral, through their shared discourse they become the actual working texts on which implementation is carried out. Across organisational boundaries, the same phenomenon can be observed in a greater effect because the worldviews and orders of discourse vary considerably more than within a given organisation.

The model as outlined above provides a basis upon which organisations and networks can be defined further; it may also be seen, through discourse events and the resulting cooperation of participants, as a 'network of commitments' (Winograd & Flores, p.150). But within this broad understanding, networks may take many different forms, and the next section will elaborate on this point. Networks as structures will be seen in the first instance as organisations, and then the term 'network' will be used with modifiers, e.g., policy networks, teacher networks, to indicate less formal structures which frequently cut across those networks we call organisations.

2.3 Organisational systems

This section of the review discusses different types of organisational systems, following Taylor's concepts of organisation theory (Taylor, 1993, 1994; Taylor et al., 1996). Much of his theoretical stance is supported by other writers (Capra, 1996; Winograd & Flores, 1986; Fleischaker, 1992; Geyer, 1992; Mingers, 1992; Macy, 1991, 1995), who describe organsations as dynamic entities that are self-defining, closed systems. From this theoretical base, other writers such as Thompson et al. (1991) elaborate on what these organisations may look like through what they term models of coordination, such as markets, hierarchies and networks. This section includes discussion of three major organisational types: hierarchies, networks, and domains.

2.3.1 Hierarchies

A hierarchy is an organisational form which "...depends on ideas of organisation, task specialisation and rationality" (Thomson et al.,1991, p. 105) being used as a basis for the structure of an organisation. Based on the concepts of Max Weber, Thompson et al. (1991, p. 10) look at hierarchy as the "overt operation of relations of superordination and subordination in the process of coordination". They look at the essence of coordination as the bringing into a relationship of otherwise disparate activities or events (1991, p. 3.). Further, Taylor (1993, p. 228) suggests that coordination may involve an intersection of worldviews, that is, the coordinating entity has the task of reconciling different worldviews from different units within any give organisation. Hierarchy is also a vertical structure of separate units or events

under one umbrella. Hierarchies are developed as an 'organisation of work' which can allow complex tasks to be separated into a series of steps or categories (Thompson et al., 1991).

Virtually every organisation has some hierarchical, or vertical, structure. When organisations become very large, the distance between the 'top' of the organisation and the 'bottom' is equally large, which creates communication problems because of the distance between them, and the differing 'worldviews' or interpretations of texts being disseminated throughout the organisation (Taylor, 1993, 1994). The originators of text within an organisation are generally those 'higher' in the hierarchy and, as writers and disseminators of texts, are the spokespeople for the organisation (Taylor, 1993). These texts, i.e. policy documents and directives, are disseminated 'downwards', and differ from those texts which rise 'up' in the organisation, e.g., reports, statistics, and summary documents. A fundamental element in the flow of authority in a hierarchy is the recognition of the authority of the spokespeople. A policy text that is disseminated downwards within a hierarchical structure has the authority of senior spokespeople at the central office. This text with its hierarchical *imprimatur* is then interpreted by the lower echelons, who implement the policy on the basis of their interpretation. This interpretation is the antitext as discussed by Taylor (1993, p. 221). The two interpretations of the policy, the central office version and the local version, need to be negotiated in order to ensure that the policy is maintained. On the other hand, texts emanating from lower echelons in the organisation that are to be sent to a higher level must have some sort of endorsement from managers or coordinators; these are the people who then provide their own antitexts to those of the rising texts and which are generally used for further decision-making or policy making at senior levels (Taylor, 1993, p. 221 ff).

So while hierarchies are important in allowing multiple tasks to be carried out for the benefit of a larger whole, there are also problems of coordination, communication, and structure which actually impede the overall effectiveness of the organisation. Taylor sums up part of the difficulties in this regard when he says "...of all the contextual influences that have been identified by field researchers studying the introduction of technology, none is more powerful than company politics" (Taylor, 1993, p. 23).

When one attempts to investigate how an organisation is hierarchically structured, the normal way is to look at the organisational chart, which vertically defines the various elements within

the organisation, and which elements control other elements. Koestler (1967, p. 51) calls this particular form of structure a *control hierarchy*. But another way of looking at hierarchies is to consider the units within a hierarchical structure as *layers* which are nested within one another, with each layer of the system having a level of decision-making pertinent to itself. Bateson (1979) suggests that decisions based on one layer may not necessarily be relevant or appropriate to another layer. This is a particularly pertinent concept in relation to the formulation and implementation of public policy, as Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) and Davis et al. (1993) point out. Bateson adds: "The effect of any such jumping of levels, upward or downward, is that information appropriate as a basis for decision at one level will be used as a basis at some other level" (Bateson, 1972, p. 215).

Looking at a hierarchical structure in this way will also assist in seeing the organisation as a formalised structure of networks, with related communication patterns that essentially hold the organisation together.

2.3.2 Networks

Organisations may be seen principally as control hierarchies, but networks as defined by Thompson et al. (1991) are not necessarily so. They state that networks are often thought of as 'flat' organisational forms; they are informal, cooperatively run, and are used frequently to lubricate social relationships within an organisation or across organisational boundaries (Thompson et al., 1991, p.14). But this definition depends on the nature of the network. In this study, four sorts of networks will be investigated: teacher professional networks, teacher informal networks, policy networks and hierarchical networks. Most writers in this area see social relations as the major building blocks of networks (Thompson et al., 1991, p. 175; Taylor et al., 1996, p. 28). The relations are manifested in conversations and in discourse events (Luke, 1995-96; Taylor, 1994; Hicks, 1995-96; Fairclough, 1995). But networks also can have different types of relations and these identify the type of network even if the elements of the network are the same. A network can be generally defined as a specific set of relations linking a defined set of persons, objects or events (Mitchell, 1969). Within this broad definition, however, the structure of any network depends on the relations between the actors and the location of individual actors; it is these two points which provide the

behavioural, perceptual and attitudinal consequences for the network (Thompson et al., 1991, p. 175-176).

A network can also be defined by the role it takes, and this is equally true of organisations and the sorts of networks mentioned above. Writers in these areas have discussed networks as 'vertical or horizontal' (Thompson et al., 1991; Taylor, 1993), formal and informal, and to some extent, 'internal or external'. White (1978, 1988) used similar concepts when looking at policy networks, and provided the taxonomy as illustrated in Figure 2.1:

Figure 2.1: Dimensions of networks
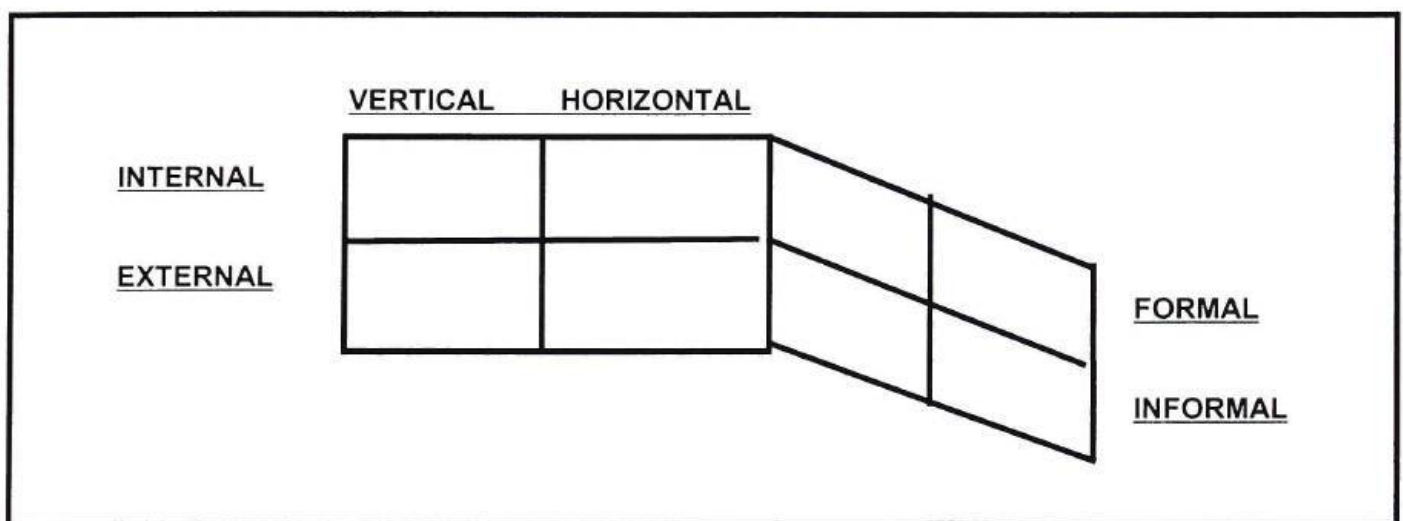
(After White, 1988)

- An *internal* network is one which operates within a defined organisation.
- An *external* network is one which operates outside of any given organisation.
- A *vertical* network is one which occurs between different levels within an organisation or at different levels between systems.
- A *horizontal* network is one which moves across the interface between systems at any given level.
- A *formal* network is one which is established by law, regulation, or agreement among the actors within the network.
- An *informal* network is one which is tacitly developed between the entities involved.

Any network will have each dimension, so that there are eight varieties of network:

- internal, vertical, formal
- external vertical, formal
- internal, vertical, informal
- external, vertical informal
- internal, horizontal, formal
- external, horizontal, formal

- internal, horizontal, informal
- external, horizontal, informal

This taxonomy, which will be used in this study, is useful for framing a detailed description of how these various network types are used within an organisation. Internal, vertical, formal networks, for example, can assist in defining how various units or people within an organisation relate to one another in their official capacities, whereas external horizontal informal networks assist in defining how various members of one organisation relate to people outside the organisational structure. When investigating the dynamics within a domain, an understanding of the various network types is of great value in understanding the dynamics that comprise the activities of the domain.

2.3.3 Domains

For domains to be understood clearly, it is critical to appreciate the significance of discourse events as suggested by Fairclough (1995), in that they only make sense within their own social context. Luke (1995-96) likewise insists that discourse needs to be studied within a social context. These points are raised here in order to link the concept of communication and organisation theory discussed above to that of a 'domain' or a sphere of interest. A domain may be considered a concatenation of all social groups and/or individuals with a shared interest, and a shared order of discourse (Fairclough, 1995). Thus, policy and other network types operate within a domain which includes organisations, other networks, individual actors, and external environmental concerns. Domains also consist of actors and networks of actors from any or all of the above groups. In the arena of public policy development, a domain will include many different organisations, networks, and individuals working within a variety of networks as described in the previous section.

To provide an example, the Queensland education domain includes, but is not limited to:

- Education Queensland
- separate schools and their communities
- commercial interests specialising in educational resources
- community networks
- special interest networks, e.g. language teachers' associations
- universities and TAFE colleges
- private schools

All of these organisations and individuals relate in a complex fashion to influence the shape of the overall domain, which also may be seen as the superstructure of education within a community. The concept of a domain therefore is a way to portray how all the various actors and units from many different organisations and communities interact in some form of mutual interest. It also assists in showing that decisions taken by the top echelons of a hierarchical system will have direct impact on subordinate units of that system, and also the rest of the actors within the domain.

To illustrate this, Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991, p. 227-243) and Fullan (1993) discuss the complex interplay between a school and its local community, in terms of collaborative work in implementing desired changes. Fullan (1993) discusses the integral collaboration that is "...a two-way relationship between a learning organization and its environment" (p. 6). This leads back to Capra (1996) when he states in his concluding chapter that systems, particularly ecosystems (and by extension) human systems are "...sustained by pervasive cooperation" (1996, p. 293). One of the manifestations of the last statement is that domains, and the networks within them, work towards common aims. One such aim is the development of specific public policies, such as the Queensland language-in-education policy. The challenge for the domain, then, is to ensure that communication among the groups of policy actors is clear, and has built-in mechanisms to deal with issues emanating from the interpretation of the policy texts, and to ensure that the antitexts of the actors do not countermand or misinterpret the overall aim and thrust of the policy texts. This is a critical element in the implementation and continuation of the policy process.

2.3.4 The language teaching domain

The language teaching domain (after Friend et al., 1977) is a sub-set of a larger Queensland education domain. While the larger domain contains all educational structures and ancillary organisations within it, the language teaching domain does not. It is that part of the educational domain which relates to the teaching of languages other than English (LOTE). It consists of all the actors, networks and institutions which pertain to language teaching. This includes, as indicated in Figure 2.2, elements of political and policy making domains, social and technological systems, external and internal forces impacting on it and within it.

Figure 2.2: The language teaching domain

External forces

Communication/Networks

Social systems

Educational systems:
Language-in-

High School

Technology

Computer technology
Technology-in-education

Political & policy-making domain

The School

School community
↓
Principal
↓
Head of department
↓
Language teachers
↓
Language students

Internal forces

* Principal's attitudes

* Community's attitudes

* Language teachers' attitudes

* Resources

* Time & space

* Networking

The language teaching domain: definitions

Figure 2.2 is a partial conceptual picture of the language teaching domain. It is seen holistically, showing at the top the major overall concepts which directly affect activities further down the picture. Thus, the concepts of communication and organisation theory as previously discussed are implicit in all activities and actor relations in the different areas of the domain.

There are two key *external* forces impinging on the schools relevant to this research. The first is the development of educational policies and language policies at any level which have an impact on school systems and hence on individual schools. These policies lead to specialist policies, which Baldauf (1997) calls 'language-in-education policies'. Educational systems can be seen as a social system of an order higher than a school. But a school is also a social system and as such has its own internal forces which are discussed below.

Within the realm of technology, computers and their use in language learning (CALL) are also affected by policy making, first in the broader context of 'technology-in-education', and more specifically by language-in-education policies regarding the use of technology (EQ, 1995).

These policies impinge on the school, its LOTE staff and the language students, and it is assumed that these policies, which are external forces, are activated by networks, mostly external to the school itself. The people and groups in the policy development area may or may not have language teachers involved within the languages policy network (Considine, 1994). There is anecdotal evidence from teachers and education department public servants at a variety of levels to suggest that people who comprise the computing and CALL areas are a disparate network. It consists of educators, government decision-makers and departmental staff, and computer experts and marketeers. The networks involved in general educational changes are heterogeneous and may or may not include language teachers. These latter networks include educators from various educational levels, politicians, community and business representatives and administrators in educational departments. A result of this sort of network is Education Queensland's introduction of the Leading Schools program (EQ, 1997).

Arguably, the areas of language policy-making, technology policy-making, and professional organisations work in isolation from one another (see Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; Fullan, 1993), but their planning, decisions, and implementation strategies each have a direct impact on the school. In some cases the areas may be tied together through a decision network comprising elements of all three. An example of this is the development of a handbook of Internet-based projects which can be used by language teachers in the classroom (AFMLTA, 1997). This handbook was developed by Dr Vicenza Tudini in collaboration with the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations (AFMLTA) and the Commonwealth Government through Education Network Australia (EdNA). The contents of the handbook were provided by various language teachers. As part of the overall project, there were the development of a Special Interest Group (SIG) of the AFMLTA, a special email discussion group, and wide dissemination of requests for teachers to contribute their projects for dissemination through the Web as well as in print.

Internal forces, which are based within the school's domain, also play an important role in language teaching. They can be defined as those forces which impact upon various activities within an organisational setting, in this case a high school. Some of these are:

- Attitudes and motivation of the principal and senior teachers towards languages, new technologies, and policy changes;
- Attitudes and concerns of the school community to these areas;
- Attitudes and concerns of the language teachers to these areas;
- Attitudes and concerns of language students to these areas;
- Resources available to the school for the policy implementation;
- Time and space;
- Degree of networking and collaborative work among school faculty members.

The *school community*, as one of the main internal forces of a school, can be defined as those people within a geographically or otherwise defined community who provide some direct input into the management or maintenance of a specific school. These people can be parents who help run the tuck shop; the official Parents and Community (P & C) or Parents and Friends (P & F) committee; local merchants who provide some assistance to the school's infrastructure; and other community members. The impact of the school community can vary, depending on the dynamics between the school and its community, and external forces affecting how the school relates to it. An example of this last point is the establishment of the Community Relations Unit in Education Queensland over the past several years, with a

mission to encourage communities to have a larger say in the management of the local school (EQ, 1998).

The hierarchies within schools may vary depending on the nature of the school (primary, secondary, special), the system to which the school belongs (State, Catholic, Independent), and industrial and contractual arrangements between the staff and the school. In the case of Queensland State high schools, the school hierarchy begins with the principal as the chief executive officer, supported by deputy principals and an administrative staff. Heads of departments are answerable to the principal.

Within this environment, the language teacher must deal with the daily schedule of the school, unique demands of students and lessons, plus any extra-curricular activities which may be assigned. In Queensland high schools these factors, plus the introduction of a new languages syllabus and a rapid growth in computer technology, have put additional strains on language teachers.

This part of the review has discussed various organisational systems: hierarchies, networks and domains, and how each of these organisational types work with one another. One of the activities that organisations undertake is that of policy development, and this will be discussed in the next part of the chapter.

2.4 Public policy development

This section provides an overview of how public policies are made and implemented. Part 2.4.1 provides a general overview of the public policy arena in Australia. Part 2.4.2 discusses the general frameworks of public policy as seen by some of the principal writers in the field. Part 2.4.3 builds on these frameworks and discusses how networks are an essential part of the policy making process.

2.4.1 Policy systems in Australia

Public policy formation and implementation is primarily the work of the Commonwealth and State and Territory governments, their parliaments and respective ministries and departments. There is a dynamic tension among these various domains, which is compounded by the myriad actor networks which attempt to influence and to be part of the policy making and implementation processes. This tension, though, is in effect the democratic process in action (Davis et al., 1993; Considine, 1994).

Australia is a federation, with powers distributed between the Commonwealth and the various States and Territories according to the Australian Constitution. Each State and Territory has its own parliament and ministries, with attendant departments and other statutory authorities which carry out the will of the Government of the day. The traditional approach of governments in Australia has been the Westminster system, as it was constituted and defined in the nineteenth century. It calls for a separation of powers between various government instrumentalities, which allows for a separate and equal judiciary, a functioning parliament which is the forum where the 'will of the people' is carried out, and a bureaucracy which implements the Governments' mandates and is answerable to the government, but not to the electorate directly. There are nine of these governments in Australia: one Commonwealth, six States and two Territories with a degree of self-rule.

Constitutionally, the States and Territories have responsibility for education. Education Acts and other legislative acts in the various jurisdictions provide the legal establishment of schools, colleges of technical and further education (TAFEs), and universities. However, the Commonwealth government, through such instrumentalities as the former Education Council of Australia, has maintained a powerful role in the formulation and implementation of education policy in the respective jurisdictions (Davis et al., 1993).

Government departments are responsible in the main for the implementation of government mandated policies, services and the allocation of resources to organisations outside of themselves. These departments (used here generically to describe all government instrumentalities) are structured in a fairly rigid vertical hierarchy, with strict controls on communication governing who can talk with whom about what. It is the senior ranks of these

departments (Secretaries, Assistant Secretaries), who along with the Minister of the day and his or her staff, are the key policy makers in the Australian system. Some policy-making and resource allocation powers may be devolved to lower levels of the department, but generally with tight controls and a limited brief. These departments might be seen as an apex of a policy system, with numerous other organisations and actor networks making up the bulk of the system. The next part describes how public policy is developed within this system.

2.4.2 Public policy frameworks

> Public policy is the complex interplay of values, interests and resources guided through institutions and mediated by politics. (Davis et al., 1993, p.15)

Authors such as Davis et al. (1993), Parsons (1995), and Considine (1994) have attempted to analyse the formation of public policies in a theoretical way, to give some substance to the domains and interplay which take place before policies are decided upon, and then implemented. It is not a directly linear progression. Davis et al. (1993) put the process into a nutshell by stating that: "Policy making is the politics of the feasible" (1993, p. 46). On a more philosophical note, Ingram (1992, p. 84) suggests that policy making is also theory making, because policy is a theory about the nature of a problem and how to solve it. Lankshear et al. (1997) say that: "The conventional or commonsense view is that policy constitutes an informed statement of principles and recommendations that are intended to shape and guide practice, and even to direct or instruct it" (1997, p. 79).

School education in Australia is the result of public policies at State and Commonwealth levels. Before launching into specific policies, though, the overall theoretical structures in public policy formulation need to be discussed, because once a structure can be defined, real policies and their impacts on education and language teaching can be seen within this broader context.

Considine (1994) discusses policy development in terms of a *policy system*. Such a system comprises various organisations and people within those organisations whom he defines as *policy actors*. Thus, policy development is the continuing work done by groups of policy actors who use available public institutions to articulate and express the things they value (Considine, p.4). While *policy actors* may be people from any socio-political system

(including the bureaucracies) in a given governmental domain, the actual *policy makers* are those key politicians and bureaucrats who have command of the institutions which must give approval to any decision or program. But the policy makers cannot work effectively in an information vacuum; they need the support of interest groups such as political parties, the media, and social movements. These latter groups can be seen as virtual partners in a larger set of relationships which shape government behaviour. The sum of these policy actors and makers, and their respective organisations, is a *policy system*. Policy systems then become a means for the generation, organisation and distribution of resources.

Policy systems are dynamic entities. Davis et al. (1993) state that "policy choice cannot be separated from process" (p. 6), and process implies movement, and change. There is a continual shift of allegiances, movements, people, economic conditions, etc. which the policy system must take into account if it is to remain relevant. One of the fundamental points Considine makes is that policy systems are systems in the classic cybernetic sense because they have feedback loops and they work on a process of input and outputs. Taylor's theory of the autonomous network (Taylor, 1994) also applies to policy systems. To remain relevant, however, policy systems need to develop in-built regulatory mechanisms to allow for dissent and discussion while gaining an overall consensus, which follows the self-regulating concepts of human networks as discussed in Capra (1995), Taylor (1994), Fleischaker (1992), and Mingers (1992).

According to Davis et al. (1993), in order to be effective, people involved in public policy need to understand the major influences on the shape of public policy. One of these major influences is an understanding of the general theories about how policies are made. Public policy theories that are currently in vogue are drawn mainly from economics, and some of them are discussed below. Davis et al. (1993, p. 13) point out that one such is the "public choice" theory, and is also described as the economic rationalist theory. This theory claims that people are rational actors, aware of their interests and willing to pursue those preferences. The current Commonwealth government favours this particular theory and has used it extensively in the development of many of its policies.

A related theory is also discussed in Saul (1993), which he calls the managerialist theory of public policy. Saul discusses this particular theory in considerable detail, as does Franklin

(1990). Considine (1994) also raises some concerns about how this theory has informed management ideologies, which have come to dominate thinking about the role of public organisations. He claims that managers are basically rationalists. They exercise organisational power which is the base of their input into the policy system. They not only have a major role in all aspects of policy making, but also coordinate the roles of all other contributors.

Another theory which Davis et al. (1993) discuss is the evolving theory of New Institutionalism, which seeks to place public choice within a realistic political and bureaucratic setting. But Davis et al. are not convinced that the yardsticks of efficiency and the 'bottom-line' mentality are necessarily the most sensible approach. They state:

> Program objectives of efficiency and effectiveness may reduce the emphasis of other important measures of 'success' in policy implementation, such as equity, democratic accountability and enhancement of electability for the government... Schools and hospitals required to manage their own budgets without additional resources may be required to reduce the time or quality of their services to students or patients (Davis et al., p. 197-198).

Public policy theories are the basis upon which policies are built, whether they are explicitly identified or not. The processes of policy making are another important element in public policy. Wickert (1997) discusses the processes of policy making. Like Considine and others, she believes that there is considerable '*ad hocery*' in policy making in Australia. And even when there is some agreement (shared worldviews) between groups of policy actors, the end result, the policy, may not be what was initially desired, due to the dynamics of negotiation, political expediency, and metapolicies (Wickert, 1997, p. 25). She claims that the *Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (ALLP) (1991) is an example of the unforseen effects of a policy commitment during periods of rapid change when the policy generates changes which appear to be far in excess of those indicated by the policy text itself.

Part of the policy process is implementation. Policies generate change, which in turn will change the policies. For example, the 1987 *National Policy on Languages* was significantly changed in 1991 with the promulgation of the ALLP. Policy changes frequently mean changes to the organisations which were charged with implementing the policies. With changes of policy and attendant changes in organisations, it is important that policy systems can manage these changes with some alacrity. Considine (1994) provides some innovation

strategies which have worked successfully in both the public and corporate sectors; his points are also amplified by Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1991) and Fullan (1993) in regard to the education sector. Considine's list is:

- authoritative agreements regarding the nature of problems and issues to be tackled
- willingness to reform processes as well as specific programmes
- clear leadership roles for key experts and managers
- use of existing professional ideological commitment to achieving change
- supported networks for links between organisations and the knowledge community
- continuous links between suppliers, providers and consumers
- team work through project based institutions
- priority attention to using the knowledge of staff at the front line
- disciplined project management
- practical material and status incentives for employees and citizens or community interests to contribute
- political recognition of successful efforts and achievements (1994, p. 272).

Considine (1994) uses the term "policy culture", which is the ethos in which the actors perform. Taylor's (1993, 1994; Taylor et al., 1996) concept of 'worldview' is another way to understand the communication that links the actors in the policy culture. Fairclough (1995) looks at a 'culture' in relation to a 'policy culture' as manifesting its texts within a specific 'order of discourse'. Considine suggests that there are five major elements which make up a policy culture: values, assumptions, categories, stories and languages. Values may be seen as the basic elements of culture. Actors within a policy culture will find unique ways of behaving and specific ideals concerning outcomes. Assumptions are "a second line of judgements" (1994, p.14), which are not necessarily stated, but underpin the stated values. Values and assumptions are linked into what Considine refers to as 'categories', which "provide the observer or analyst with important evidence of what is being communicated". (1994, p. 14). These categories assist people working in the same field to eliminate uncertainty. These categories will be communicated through common stories, which highlight the values and assumptions of the policy culture. One might consider these stories as 'myths and legends' which reinforce the bonds of the policy culture. Frequently these ingredients of a policy culture are using a specific language or policy discourse (1994, p. 15), which uses the terms and jargon relevant to that culture.

2.4.3 About networks in public policy

Considine (1994) and Davis et al. (1993) both make strong points about the dynamic of public policy making in their descriptions of the work of networks and more specifically actor networks. Davis et al. state: "networks are important in guiding policy formulation to its main end — a decision" (1993, p. 6), that leads to a resourced policy. An example of the latter is the work of the policy network that saw the 1987 language policy through to its adoption by the Commonwealth. Networks are so important in the policy-making process that Considine devotes a whole chapter to the 'actor network', which he defines as: "the informal and semi-formal linkages between individuals and groups in the same policy system" (1994, p. 103). The inter-organisational character of networks gives them a dynamic quality which often places them at the centre of the processes directed towards innovation, or within systematic change. Actor networks are in practice the evolving communication mechanism which enable sub-groups within the policy system to develop shared policy preferences and common methods for representing these interests. Actor networks play a key role in the understanding of how policy systems learn, innovate, and in other ways act upon themselves.

Actor networks do not operate outside of systems in Considine's approach. Systems and institutions establish patterns and pathways through which actors are encouraged to move. Actor networks are a system (within systems) of inter-group, inter-interest cooperatives which provide possibilities for repeated, regular activity. They are "self-producing systems of identification and recognition" (Considine, 1994, p.113), which work at both levels of a policy system. They include a wide variety of individuals and groups. Their openness is their strength, making them more amenable to innovation and change than the formal organisations with which they deal.

Because these networks work through domains in both vertical and horizontal fashions, the taxonomy of networks as indicated in Figure 2.1 displays how actors relate to one another within a defined network, or within their respective organisations. The taxonomy assumes that individual actors have a set of relationships which can be formal or informal, horizontal or vertical, internal or external. In a practical sense, this sort of analysis is important because it focuses on how individual actors perform and communicate within the network or within a

defined organisation. It may lead to some clues regarding communication flows, blockages, decision-making limitations, and ways to overcome these.

The skills and abilities of individuals within actor networks, as well as their positions within the network, need to be used well in order to achieve success of the network's aims. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) and Fullan (1993) emphasise the need for individual teachers, for example, to become part of the change process. Public policy is a critical area which frequently predicates change, as well as being influenced by change.

Certain individuals within an actor network frequently take on leadership roles, or what Friend et al. (1974) call *reticulists*: people who are the connectors, those who link the various elements of the actor network to one another, to decision and policy makers, and who ensure that communication throughout the network is maintained at a high level. Lieberman and Grolnick (1996) also state that leadership is critical to the development and success of networks, and that this leadership implies cross-cultural brokering, i.e. the ability to reticulate the various elements of an actor network. And like Considine (1994), they maintain that leaders take on the role of keeping the values of the network visible.

2.5 Policies relating to the teaching of languages in schools

2.5.1 Language policies

The development of language policies in Australia can be placed into an analytical framework, or a template, as proposed by Considine (1994). There is the *policy system*, comprising government departments such as the Commonwealth Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs (DETYA), State and Territory Education departments, professional associations such as the AFMLTA, university language departments and related bodies, ethnic groups, and community groups, to name but a few. The *policy actors* include members of all these groups who have frequently acted collectively to propose policies which in turn have had impact on resource allocation (funds to departments and schools for language programs), on universities (research projects in language teaching and learning), and the formation of specific bodies such as Language Australia and the former Australian Language and Literacy Council (ALLC). It must be noted, however, that there may well have

been quite strident debates leading up to the writing of the final policy texts within the policy system (see for example, Ingram, 1992). Policy actors' own interpretations of events (antitexts) on which they based their points of view may or may not have been incorporated into the final policy documents, although their views may well have made a significant difference to the final outcomes.

The *policy culture* maintains values such as multiculturalism, a second language for all Australians, English literacy for all, and the preservation of indigenous languages (Lo Bianco, 1987). Its assumptions consist of both intellectual and economic beliefs that language is essential to the well-being of Australians. Its categories are made up of its values and assumptions and provide the philosophical matrix which then generates the specific language used in its discourses, which are told in a variety of submissions and documents from policy actors to policy makers, and to a lesser extent to the general public through the media. It is within this policy culture that there are often concerns raised which challenge the way the policies are implemented if they appear to criticise the policy culture.

Ingram (1992), for example, cited a 1986 conference which raised the point that Australian economic development was lagging because of a national inability to communicate with and to understand potential trading partners. The concern related principally to the development of an adequate language policy for Australia that was based on more than economic concerns:

> Improved, rational and systematic language policy-making realised through sound language-in-education planning lies at the heart of human development for the 1990s and the next century (p. 78).

Ingram further claimed that whilst Australia had adopted the recent national policy *Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (DEET, 1991), policies still needed to be more than a collection of good ideas which can meet the values quoted above. And like Saul (1992), Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) and Franklin (1990), Ingram is sceptical about adopting the 'management principle' in decision making — the practice popular amongst bureaucrats of putting eminent persons, political affiliates, or others who have no practising experience in the field into positions of authority. Scarino (1998), too, discusses these points in relation to the evolution of national language policies, and also queries the current devolution of the national language policy as other issues and political agendas have taken higher priority.

Peddie (1992) takes a slightly different approach to Ingram, in terms of how language policies are implemented in the schools, and the socio-economic forces behind this implementation. In a comparative study between Victorian (Australian) schools and New Zealand schools, he concluded that historically speaking, European languages were taught to maintain the class system. The superior classes of people were knowledgeable in a European language other than English. The more recent concern over languages was based on principally economic factors, which in turn lead to a 'utilitarian' approach to the teaching of languages in schools. The latter point also relates very much to the rapid introduction of Asian languages into schools in both countries.

2.5.2 Language-in-education policies

Over the past decade in Australia the federal government has promoted the teaching of languages other than English (LOTE) first through its *National Policy on Languages* (Lo Bianco, 1987), then through the newer policy, *Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (DEET, 1991). These policies have been reinforced by the Commonwealth School Languages Programme, which provides special funds to school systems for community, Asian and priority languages.[1]

In 1994, the LOTE element of the Australian Language and Literacy Policy was given a boost by the release of a Council of Australian Governments (COAG) report entitled *Asian languages and Australia's economic future* (National Asian Languages and Cultures Working Group, 1994), commonly known as the Rudd report. The report recommended very strongly further development in the teaching of Asian languages, and these recommendations were subsequently adopted by the Commonwealth government, and were the basis for the development of the NALSAS program. Preceding the Rudd report, Garnaut (1989) provided the rationale for the furtherance of Australian links with Northeast Asia, and suggested that Australia's economic future rested substantially on the nation's ability to communicate and trade with Asian nations.

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[1] The Commonwealth School Languages Program (CSLP) is administered by the Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs (DETYA). The CSLP consists of three elements: the Community Language Element (CLE), the Priority Languages Element (PLE), and a more recent Asian languages element (NALSAS). The CLSP is funded by the Commonwealth.

Each Australian State and Territory has followed the Commonwealth government's initiative and has developed its own language policies. In Queensland the State government has provided considerable financial and physical resources for language teaching in primary and secondary schools. At the end of 1995, 6.6% of all Queensland primary school children and 23.9% of secondary students were receiving some LOTE teaching (NBEET, 1996a, p. 205-206). More recently, the primary and secondary students receiving LOTE teaching has increased substantially in the compulsory years of years 5-8.

However, Herriman and Burnaby (1996) are concerned that language policy in Australia has devolved from the clearly stated directions of the *National Policy on Languages* (Lo Bianco, 1987), to what is now in their view a "…set of programs, mainly funded by the Commonwealth which address quite specific language needs and prioritise those needs" (1987, p. 60).

In Queensland State schools,[2] the 1991 policy is still extant with some modifications. Queensland now teaches seven priority languages. Italian and Korean have been added to the original five, which are Chinese, French, German, Indonesian and Japanese. However, this has exacerbated existing problems of obtaining enough qualified language teachers to meet the demands. LACU recruits actively from education faculties in Queensland universities, which are the primary source of new teachers, as well as advertising nationally and internationally. There is a rapid population growth in Queensland with corresponding growth in the number of new school students. The attrition rate of language teachers is rather high, with some estimates going as high as 15% per annum (NBEET 1996a, p. 24). There are continuing difficulties with finding and then placing language teachers into remote schools. At the primary level, there is a policy of using itinerant language teachers, with one teacher responsible for language teaching in several different schools.

There have also been significant changes within the Department. The regional structure has been scrapped, with 36 new districts replacing the eleven old regions. The districts function more as school inspectorates, compared to the regions which offered a variety of services as well as oversight and administration. The impact of this change on languages has been dramatic, in that regional LOTE coordinators were disbanded along with the regions and were

transferred back to the schools. Thus, the support staff for language teachers has been diminished. However, LACU still maintains a cadre of language advisors, and in collaboration with them runs a series of professional development activities which include immersion weekends and afternoon teleconferences. The language advisors travel throughout the State to provide advice and support. There is also a very comprehensive LOTE library in Queensland which provides resource materials for any school in the state.

A more significant change has been the development of a new language syllabus for years 4-10, which is taking a new approach to language teaching called the 'embedded' approach. It is based on the immersion principle, and develops its content and its resources on what the rest of the school is teaching. This approach will, it is believed, make the learning of a language more relevant to the student. All new resources developed under this new syllabus will be first put on CD-ROMs, and then developed into World Wide Web pages for ease of access to the teachers and the students. At the same time, all new products will also contain new content. The developers believe that as the computer will be the main method of accessing the materials, resources for the new syllabus should be written for a computer screen and not for a book. Additionally there is a project to link as many language-oriented Web sites as possible to the new resources. LACU believes that computers are there to help the teachers, and not to replace them. As part of introducing this new syllabus, a language advisor will be assigned to each of the 36 districts for one year to assist teachers in adopting and using it.

Catholic and independent schools in Queensland, however, need not follow the criteria and language priorities as mandated by the department. Languages need not be compulsory in these jurisdictions. However, most non-State schools do offer some languages in their respective curricula. Non-state schools also have direct links with the Commonwealth Schools Language Program, and obtain separate funding for both PLE and NALSAS languages.

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[2] This information was obtained through an interview with an officer of Education Queensland's Languages and Cultures Unit of EQ, on 12 February 1998.

2.5.3 Computers-in-education policies

In Queensland, there are two policy initiatives at work: one relates to the introduction of technology, specifically computers and computer networks, and the other to language teaching. At the moment, there appear to be no specific policies relating to the use of technology for language teaching, other than orthogonally through other policies, such as the Queensland Board of Senior Secondary School Studies' Syllabus documents (BOSSS, 1995), and some references as to how computers might be used for language teaching in the Education 2001 computers in school documents (EQ, 1995).

In terms of language teaching, recommendations to the Minister for Education, Training and Youth Affairs from NBEET included the need for adequately trained LOTE teachers with a competency in the use of modern technology (NBEET, 1996a, p. 171-172). It is unknown at the present time what the federal government intends doing with NBEET's recommendations; whatever the case, they are more salient now than when they were first formulated. The Junior language syllabus for Queensland schools is currently being re-written, and Education Queensland's Languages and Cultures section is overseeing the project. Languages and Cultures has considerable interest in the use of technology for language teaching and has actively promoted its use in schools. An evaluation of an Innovations in Languages Other Than English (ILOTES) project carried out by LACU in 1995,[3] indicated that a number of teachers involved in a pilot Internet scheme were keen to continue using it in their daily teaching. However, there were real logistical problems, particularly with remote schools due to poor telephone connections and lack of consistent technical help. Since that time, however, the development of new hardware, software, and the Queensland government's initiatives to enhance Internet connectivity in rural areas, have ameliorated these problems significantly (EQ, ND).

A second NBEET report (1996b) provides a relatively thorough investigation of the use of technology — particularly computer networks — in schools, and the concerns that the report raises are in keeping with the issues raised by Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) and Fullan

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[3] The ILOTES program was funded by the Commonwealth government until the financial year 1996, when it was terminated. This program funded special projects in language teaching in schools which promoted innovative approaches in language teaching. The project mentioned here was a large, two year project and was partly aimed at piloting the training of language teachers in the use of the Internet for language teaching.

(1993). The authors consider it essential that technology be effectively integrated into the mainstream practice of language education. The report also raises questions about pre-service teacher training, in-service training, and the mechanisms for developing sound professional development in the use of technology. But again, it is not known what the Commonwealth government intends doing with the recommendations arising from this report. However, more recently, various States and Territories have been investing heavily in computer infrastructure for schools. Victoria is investing $50 million in *VicOne*, a departmental-wide intranet to which all Victorian schools are connected (Murphy, 1998; Goodfellow et al. 1998). Other States are also moving ahead with integrated computer infrastructure planning for their schools, but in different directions and different ways (Murphy, 1998).

Education Queensland has formulated a policy which in brief states that all Queensland teachers will be computer literate by the year 2000 (EQ 1995). In terms of schools, the government has provided funds to ensure that every school has a link to the Internet. A new initiative, the Centre for Teaching Excellence, located in the department's headquarters in Brisbane, will provide professional development in the use of computer technology. There is also the development of the Leading Schools program, with nominated schools being provided with extra funding to take more local initiatives, which will often mean enhancing the schools' computer hardware and software.

These policy initiatives in Queensland have generated a great many changes within the secondary education domain. The process of change itself, based upon these policies, is an important area to investigate, because how the necessary changes are promulgated, communicated, and implemented leads directly to the relative success of the aims of the policies. The next section discusses these.

2.6 Change, policies, practices and communication in schools

This section ties together elements of the policy process that have been discussed in earlier sections, and links them into the education domain. It also brings in the concepts of communication, and how all of these elements are crucial in successful implementation and continuation of policies. In Part 2.6.1, the concepts of Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) will be used extensively to provide a model of change in schools that other writers have also used

(Rigby, 1997; Turner, 1997; Elmore, 1996; Cuban, 1988). Part 2.6.2 provides further discussion on the impact of specific computer policies and the changes emanating from them.

2.6.1 Change in schools

Major policy initiatives, such as the Queensland policies on LOTE and computers in schools generate substantial changes not only in the Department and in state schools, but also for the teachers. Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1991) and Fullan (1993), in particular, discuss the impact of change on schools in considerable detail. Fullan and Stiegelbauer say:

> We have to know what change looks like from the point of view of the teacher, student, parent and administrator if we are to understand the actions and reactions of individuals; and if we are to comprehend the big picture, we must combine the aggregate knowledge of these individual situations with an understanding of organisational and institutional factors that influence the process of change as governments, departments, universities, teacher federations, schools systems and schools interact (1991, p. xi).

The introduction of compulsory and universal foreign language teaching into Queensland high schools over the past decade has been policy-driven from both a national and a State perspective, and has led to many significant changes in schools. New language subjects have had to be developed and integrated into the timetable, and space has had to be made available in each school. New language teachers have had to be trained and employed and accommodated in the schools. At the same time, the teaching of languages had to be introduced and promoted within the school community, as well as to other staff and the students. Concurrently, computers and computer networks were introduced into schools, generating another massive set of changes. This was also policy-driven and has had significant impact on how schools and teachers carry out their roles.

What can be seen from these events is that change in schools needs to be investigated as a phenomenon in its own right. In brief, change in schools can be seen to be:

- dynamic and non-linear (Fullan, 1993)
- complex and systemic (Newmann, 1993; Fullan, 1993)
- affecting everyone in the system.

Thus, in order for a change to be successful, all personnel in the system need to understand the implications of the change, and all personnel need to play a part in the implementation

and continuation of the change. In order for this to occur successfully, the change needs to be seen as valuable and worthwhile to all the people in the system.

In the case of policy-driven changes, the whole education domain is involved. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) see the change process as initiation (policy promulgation), leading to planning and implementation, then to continuation and thence to outcomes. To make it work, teachers — who are the chief implementers — need access to information, training and resources. But more importantly, they need to become stakeholders in the policy and thus have a commitment to it. Fullan (1993) suggests that the starting point of change is the understanding of purpose and vision.

The leaders of the educational system need to be the initiators of this process. Peterson (1995) provides six steps for successful change implementation:

1. a clear and collective educational vision and institutional mission;
2. a strong and committed teaching community within the educational system;
3. a learning environment that promotes high standards for student improvement;
4. sustained professional development;
5. successful partnership with parents, universities, and other community organisations; and
6. a systematic process for planning and implementing the changes.

These six steps support Fullan's concepts. Any implementation plan for a policy needs to include these. The steps assume also that the organisation is dynamic, complex, and has many different stakeholders within the educational domain. While the decisions within a hierarchical system may come from the top, the plans for implementation and continuation must consider the overall ecology of the system. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991, p. 253) are somewhat critical of governments' attitudes and expectations relating to policy reform and implementation, and suggest that decision makers and planners need to gain a critical understanding of the school environment as part of their planning processes. They also need to ensure that the teachers are able to provide input in the planning processes so that the final implementation strategies actually represent reality. While the policy and changes made thereunder may be perfectly understandable to the planners themselves, it is essential that they are also understandable to the teachers and other staff within a school.

This leads to an important point for the ultimate success of the policy, and that is the development of a shared vision and ownership of the policy by those who implement it and

continue it. Elmore (1996) raises concerns that policy makers must be aware of the gap between policy expectations and the practices carried out at the school level. One key recommendation Elmore makes is to create structures that promote the learning of new practices and incentive systems that support them (Elmore, 1996, p. 20). This implies that the organisation has developed feedback loops between teachers and administrators that are more than written reports. Part of the planning process and the resultant implementation strategies must then not only recognise the differences in the understanding of the policy between planners and implementers, but also take into account that the processes of implementation need to cater for what works in each of the respective schools, and allow for the necessary flexibility in the plan.

The processes of implementation and continuity are critical for the ultimate success of any policy. In the context of education, Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) discuss implementation in some detail, and raise many points that need to be addressed in the implementation phase of any policy-based program, because no policy will succeed without it. They do this through a system of variables which can be split into two parts: *key factors* and *key themes*. Because these variables relate directly to the implementation of language-in-education policies, they are considered in some depth here.

Key factors

The first key factor is composed of several parts, which Fullan and Stiegelbauer call the *characteristics of change*. These include need, clarity, complexity, and quality and practicality. Any change must meet some expressed or felt *need* within the milieu of the proposed change. In other words, schools must understand the need for the change. The second characteristic is *clarity*. School staff need to have a clear idea about the policy and the roles they are expected to play in implementing it. They need to know about goals and means. The task for policy makers and planners in this regard is to ensure that the practitioners and implementers of the policy are fully aware of and clear about what they are supposed to do. *Complexity* is the third characteristic. The implementation of complex policies requires equally complex implementation plans, with many more people involved in developing them and a larger resource allocation. The fourth characteristic is called *quality and practicality*. Quality and practicality means that the change is actually achievable,

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particularly in the minds of the teachers, and the tools and the knowledge are there to carry out the implementation.

In addition to the characteristics of change, the second key factor is the impact of *local characteristics* in the change. Successful implementation requires leadership and motivation throughout the system, as well as planning and orchestration at all levels. The main agents of change at the local level are principals and teachers. Principals are gatekeepers of change and their positive or negative reactions to changes dramatically influence the implementation of any particular change. The principal is responsible for resource allocation within the school, as well as overall management on the day-to-day operations of the school. The role of the teachers, on the other hand, is also critical because the teachers are the people who carry out the day-to-day tasks relating to implementing the mandated changes.

Fullan and Stiegelbauer describe *external factors* as those which place the school within the context of a broader society (1991, p. 78ff). The school is influenced by policies and directives emanating from the education department, from Commonwealth policies and programs, from university faculties of education, research and development centres, and so forth. What the school teaches, how subjects are to be taught, and what resources are provided to teach, are in part influenced by all of the organisations mentioned above, as well as the State or national perspective on education. One of the issues relating to the impact of external factors on the implementation of a policy in a school is that of different worldviews and different approaches. "We have a classic case of two entirely different worlds — the policy maker on the one hand and the local practitioner on the other" (Fullan and Stiegelbauer, 1991, p. 79). And further: "To the extent that each side is ignorant of the subjective world of the other, reform will fail" (p. 79).

Key themes

The second set of variables Fullan and Stiegelbauer discuss is called *key themes* which are: vision-building, evolutionary planning and development, initiative-taking and empowerment, staff development and resource assistance, monitoring and problem coping, and restructuring.

Vision-building is a process which requires the input of teachers and administrators at the school level working together to look at the change processes, and what these will mean for

the well-being of the school and all within it. *Evolutionary planning and development* is one of adapting plans to cater for developments in the school and to take advantage of unforeseen advantages and possibilities. This in turn requires good communication between teachers and administrators to turn issues into positive results: in other words, good feedback.

Initiative-taking and empowerment can come from different sources, but: "when it comes to implementation 'power sharing' is crucial" (Fullan and Stiegelbauer, 1991, p. 79). They state that successful implementation relies on the encouragement of initiative-taking in the school, the empowerment of staff to take leading roles in the implementation, and then support those who do. They consider *staff development and resource assistance* as important. Staff development needs to be meaningful and long-lasting, and ongoing training during the implementation phase of a change is required. *Monitoring and problem-coping* is the ability of an organisation to keep track of the implementation process, and then to act if necessary on problems that arise. A good monitoring system will incorporate measurements that are clear to all the participants in the change, and will incorporate ongoing feedback mechanisms to allow for practitioners to discuss the positives and negatives in their work of implementation.

Restructuring relates more to how the school is organised, rather than departmental restructuring. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) write that in the fast-moving world in which schools operate, restructuring may well be essential to meet the needs of the students and the community.

Continuation

Once a change is implemented and is part of the operations of a school, the question then becomes one of continuing the change. Frequently major changes are policy-driven, politically motivated and funded for a set period of time. When the funding runs out, or political priorities change, the change may lapse, or undergo significant devolution. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991, p. 88) discuss this point, and suggest that projects can be discontinued because of :

- lack of interest from funding sources
- lack of money for staff development
- lack of staff support for new and continuing teachers
- lack of interest and support from the central office

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These points also raise issues about the *quality* of a change over time. In the case of policies, the initial enthusiasm and resources to implement the policy will fade with time. It is frequently the case that once implementation has been completed, it is then up to the recipient organisation to then find its own resources to continue the project.

2.6.2 Computer policies and change

Current policy directions from governments at Commonwealth and State levels have assisted the development of innovative uses of computer technology in the schools. There is a rapidly growing literature internationally on teachers' use of computers in language teaching, for example (Warschauer, 1996; Debski et al., 1997; Chun, 1994; Lamy & Goodfellow, 1999). Nationally, the Gateways Project (ACT Department of Education & Training and Children's Youth & Family Services Bureau, 1996) provides some interesting approaches; the Internet itself is being extensively used by such organisations as the Modern Language Teachers Association of Queensland (MLTAQ) and the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations (AFMLTA) to provide contacts, links and advice; a special discussion group called *LOTE-Internet* was established in 1996 aimed specifically at language teachers; and the Education Network Australia (EdNA) provides a Web site and discussion forums for language teachers among others. The Education Department of Western Australia maintains a comprehensive Web site for secondary and primary teaching of languages (WA Department of Education, 1999).

In the past, the various teachers' associations have been instrumental in providing policy input into the development of the *National Policy on Languages* (Lo Bianco, 1987), and the later policy, *Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (Dawkins, 1991; Herriman and Burnaby, 1996). They are also instrumental in providing computerised resources via the World Wide Web to their constituents, and through their respective professional journals provide instructional help and resources for the use of computers in language teaching. Thus, these organisations can be seen as part of a languages policy network as described by Considine (1994). Their methods of keeping their members informed have increased to use all the available technologies, ranging from the quarterly newsletters to Internet groups to the World Wide Web. They also fall primarily into the category of the demand driven information network as described by Considine (1994), but also have some impact on policy

directions, although only in the earlier, fact-finding stages of the policy process. One such example of this is the AFMLTA's establishment of a Special Interest Group (SIG), which has been working on a Commonwealth project to create a Web-based archive of best practice approach in using the Internet for language teaching (AFMLTA, 1997).

It must be noted, however, that while these sorts of innovative projects for teachers (and students) are now available on the Internet and in some schools' intranets, there is by no means a majority of schools or of language teachers who are conversant with the use of the Internet, or for that matter, computers in general for language teaching purposes. In two reports, NBEET (1996a, 1996b) is very pessimistic about the future of language teaching in schools in general. It also raises deep concerns about the quality of teacher education, and the lack of the integration of technology into the overall curriculum, and echoes the concerns of other authors, such as Levy (1997b) on this matter.

What appears to be happening, in general, is that teachers who have some knowledge and motivation to use computers in language teaching have become the pioneers in such developments, and they go on to provide their resources and knowledge to others — often through the Internet. There also appears to be an international trend towards the incorporation of communicative language teaching principals into CALL (Levy, 1997a, p. 154) and particularly Internet applications. Much of the more recent literature on CALL seems to be focused on the role of the Internet in language teaching.

However, the place of CALL in schools, even with policy directives from the education departments, still appears somewhat shaky, perhaps due to a lack of a cadre of skilled teachers. Shneiderman says: "Systemic change begins with the creative individual who has a vision, but it takes a global vision of devoted workers to spread the message" (Shneiderman, 1997, p. viii).

Shneiderman's quote is highly relevant to the current state of computers and language teaching in schools. Burston (1996) and others have written about the precarious position in which CALL finds itself in terms of any sort of systemic developments within school systems. It is still very much the idea of the 'lone operator' providing the motivation and the lead in a given environment, be it a primary school or a high school (Shneiderman, 1997).

With the advent of a new Junior language syllabus for Queensland State schools, there will be considerable pressure on EQ, individual schools, and individual teachers to begin considering how they will change their approaches to accommodate these new initiatives. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) and Fullan (1993) discuss just such issues in terms of education change.

In terms of policies, the fact that EQ has kept core (compulsory) language subjects following on from the CLSP and the attached funding, and that resources for the new Junior syllabus will be of a networked and/or multimedia nature, means that although unstated in a policy document, EQ intended to maintain a languages presence in schools. The policy network, which involved the teachers, the education department, and other key actors and institutions — such as Queensland university faculties of education — is one of the areas for research in this study.

The introduction of networked computers into schools, and policies that direct that all teachers should be computer literate and use computers in their teaching has been a significant catalyst for changes in schools. This use of computer technology for teaching has had a long history. The next section will discuss some of the facets of computer technology and its use in the teaching of languages.

2.7 Technology and education

This section discusses various aspects of the use of technology for language teaching. It begins with Part 2.7.1, which discusses issues relating to the overall technological environment in which society and schools have to operate. Part 2.7.2 discusses issues to computer-assisted language learning. First a brief historical overview of CALL is given, followed by concerns on how CALL might be integrated into the language teaching curriculum and how the Internet is accelerating the uses of computers for teaching. Part 2.7.3 provides an overview of current CALL use in the classroom.

2.7.1 The technological environment

The use of computers in schools is the latest technological development that has been adopted by educational authorities. It can be argued that educationalists are simply adopting current

social trends in using technology. The investigation of these technological trends and their impact on society and organisations is relevant to this study, because these trends influence policy-makers and politicians as well as teachers and students.

According to writers such as Postman, technologies change human social structures. Postman (1992) takes a holistic view when he says: "A new technology does not add or subtract something. It changes everything" (p.18). There is a belief, he says, "that technique of any kind can do our thinking for us" (p. 52.) Both Postman and Saul (1997) claim that common sense frequently disappears in the face of the 'whizz-bangery' of new technologies.

Postman's view is supported by Franklin (1990) when she states that society shapes technology which shapes society in a continuous cycle which has gone on for centuries. "Technology has built the house in which we all live" (1990, p. 11). But the social impact of technology needs to be considered carefully, which is rarely done because most frequently the new technologies suit the needs of the power brokers in the society, who are also often the technologists, and not necessarily the ultimate users, such as language teachers. Cherry (1985) also looks at technology as part and parcel of human existence and claims that human society is not just human beings in communication, but human beings and their artefacts. Cherry states further that communication technology is of a different class of technology, because it is the technology of sharing (1985, p. 42). This is a significant point in the development of computer networks, because it has allowed organisations to expand through space and time. "It is all these information services which make possible the highly rational, organised 'bureaucratic' element of industrial society" (Cherry, 1985, p. 48).

An alternative view of technology comes from Negroponte (1995), in which he discusses the rapid development of digitised multimedia and how it is beginning to affect various social systems, including education. He says:

> While a significant part of learning certainly comes from teaching — but by good teaching and good teachers — a major measure comes from exploration, from reinventing the wheel and finding out for oneself. (p. 199)

One way of "finding out for oneself" is through the use of the Internet which provides "...a new medium for reaching out to find knowledge and meaning" (1995, p. 202). It is the Internet which has bridged the gap between computing and communication technologies.

Toffler (1990) lucidly explains how each ensuing communications technology, from the printing press to the Internet, has significantly altered how human institutions and societies organise themselves new technologies, which are then are adopted as an integral part of a society. In the latter half of the twentieth century, computers have become pervasive, particularly after the development of the transistor and integrated circuits, which enabled their use in many different technologies, and in particular those relating to communication. In the development of computers into the powerful machines in use today, there lie some fundamental philosophical, scientific and technical concepts that have spread across many fields of endeavour (Winograd & Flores, 1986).

The key to Winograd and Flores' approach goes back to the work of Maturana, and his approaches to autopoiesis, and Martin Heidegger's concepts of human thought, as the basis for further design of computer programs. Since this book was written, there have been huge jumps in computer technology, particularly in the areas of Graphical User Interfaces (GUI), the power of the microcomputer, and the firm establishment of the Internet as a communications tool. In terms of designing a computer system which relates to these concepts, Winograd and Flores look to systems such as the Apple Macintosh, in which they see "...exactly the kind of readiness-to-hand and ontological simplicity." (1986, p.165); in other words, a system which is matched to the needs of the user.

Winograd and Flores (1986) also make the point that computers have become a major tool for social and economic uses. In an example (1986, p. 167-174), they outline a business problem and discuss how the use of a computer system might be of benefit. They put the discussion into their theoretical framework in which they state "computers are not the 'solution' but may be useful in taking actions that improve the situation" (p.167-168). They stress that a computer system in their example should be seen as a technical adjunct to the "network of recurrent conversations" which make up the business. "Computers are a tool for conducting the network of conversations" (Winograd & Flores, 1996, p. 172). Barson (1997) agrees with these concepts when he says:

> Rather than calling on computers to mimic human intelligence, let us use them to reflect and convey it (p.35).

This approach is highly relevant to the use of computers in language teaching, and it is within this framework of a socio-technological paradigm shift which computers and advanced communications technologies have made computer-assisted language learning (CALL) possible.

2.7.2 Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

The study and use of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is evolving into a field in its own right, although it is not yet seen as such by many practitioners and teachers (Levy, 2000). Nonetheless, the use of CALL in the language classroom is increasing, particularly as the technology itself is becoming cheaper and more powerful. As this use spreads, so too is the literature on CALL. As mentioned in Chapter One, over 170 articles and chapters of books were written about CALL in 1999 alone. In this part of the literature review, three main areas will be discussed: an historical overview, the use and integration of CALL into classroom teaching, and finally the impact of the Internet and the World Wide Web (Web). These elements will then be seen within the context of current EQ policies and programs relating to language teaching in State high schools.

Historical overview

An historical overview of the use of computers for language teaching is provided in order to gain an appreciation of the current issues relating to CALL. Computers have been used in language teaching for over thirty years, with the first attempts being developed in universities using the mainframe computers of the day. However, with the advent of the microcomputer, CALL had the potential to reach a much larger audience in schools. Ahmad et al. (1985) provide a basic text for teachers at all educational levels who are interested in using computers for language teaching. While the book is now somewhat dated, particularly in the discussion of the specific equipment and software, it still has relevance in terms of basic concepts and introduces the concept of wide area networks and study by distance (1985, p. 5). The authors also provide some cautionary advice about some of the pitfalls that enthusiastic but unskilled teachers may fall into, such as compatibility of hardware to software, the time it takes to develop one's own programs, and the accessibility of appropriate hardware within the school environment (1985, p. 6-10). Collis (1996) discusses what she calls the "first wave" (1996, p. 21) of computing for language teaching, and states categorically that even as the

technology has evolved, the teacher is the key figure "in the eventual success or lack of success of any computers-in-education initiative" (1996, p. 21).

Levy (1997a) and Ahmad et al. (1985) both provide an historical perspective on the development of CALL from the early days of the 1960s, such as the PLATO project and the Stanford foreign language project (1985, p. 27 ff). Over time, the development of CALL programs has gone through similar evolutions as computers in general. The key early philosophical and pedagogical approaches to CALL were frequently based on the behaviourist theories of B. F. Skinner, in the use of programmed instruction (Ahmad et al., 1985, p. 36). Three principles were stressed in this approach: minimal steps, individual learning pace and immediate reinforcement (1985, p. 36). One of the major elements of programmed instruction was the understanding of the importance of feedback.

There has been some criticism of this approach and one of the main concerns in the use of programmed instruction in language learning is its fragmentation of a language into bits. The concern expressed is whether a student can then reintegrate these bits into linguistic structures (1985, p. 38). Ahmad et al. summarise the main points of the programmed instruction approach with respect to CALL as the directive, small steps approach, which is still in use in CALL program design. However, the authors stress that its application to areas such as morphology, syntax and vocabulary is a major problem for the "integration for communicative purposes" (1985, p. 39).

In the 1980s the advent of the microcomputer and simple programming languages such as BASIC provided many teachers with the opportunity to write their own CALL programs, some of which evolved into full commercial products (Levy, 1997a). This decade also saw the introduction and rapid take-up of hypertext techniques, most specifically in the introduction of the Apple Corporation's *Hypercard* program, which was an early multimedia approach to easy-to-use authoring programs.

Levy also stresses the role of teacher-programmers in that they not only wrote much of the material, they also used it effectively in the classroom. There were also concerns (and still are) about how the use of CALL could be integrated into the overall language curriculum. This is an essential point, because all too often the integration of computer technology into

the language teaching curriculum has not occurred across the profession. The onus has been on the individual language teacher who has some computer skills to use CALL within an often poorly resourced school environment. Burston (1996) stresses that CALL materials must be integrated into the classroom and within the curriculum. The whole CALL process could be "...unplugged overnight" (1996, p. 32) with negligible effects on the language teaching curriculum. Levy (1995) further emphasises the need for integration of CALL into the curriculum.

In Queensland, the current computer policies of the Department (EQ, 1995) have directed that all subject areas are to integrate computers into their respective curricula. There are numerous issues relating to how this is to be done, which are summed up by van Lier (1998, 1999) and Debski (1997b).

Integration of computers into language teaching

In order to integrate CALL into the curriculum, it is important to recognise that there is more than one variety of CALL activity (Levy, 1997a; Chapelle, 1997). CALL is now much more than the programmed instruction type of program, and reflects to some extent the current thinking on communicative language teaching (CLT), and to a lesser degree the thinking of SLA theory. Burston (1996) discusses the need for mutual reinforcement between CALL and SLA, which would benefit both. However, Levy (1997b) makes the point that while there are some compelling reasons for the use of SLA in CALL development, there are many different SLA theories at present and thus the question of which theory to use to develop CALL programs is very problematic. Levy (1997b) suggests that the model of SLA to be used must link in with the available hardware, software, and the learning environment. But Chapelle (1997) argues that SLA theories need to be used to assist in the further development of CALL theory and practice. She maintains that CALL projects, particularly the newer Intelligent CALL projects (ICALL) seldom relate to the theories of how people learn, or how the project might assist them in learning better.

Another important distinction in looking at CALL programs has been made by Levy (1994, 1995, 1997a) in his concept of the computer as a *tutor* or a *tool*. The *tutor* might be regarded as the 'teacher in the machine', where the computer is directive and aims to replace the teacher, at least temporarily. The computer as tutor also can evaluate the student's activities.

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CALL programs as tutors hark back to the programmed instruction mode. The computer as *tool*, on the other hand, is subservient to the teacher and the students, and is used to augment human capabilities.

The differences between using the computer as a tool versus using it as a tutor is a fundamental one and directly relates to how CALL can be integrated into the overall language teaching curriculum. Levy (1994) suggests that in order for CALL packages to be used effectively, they need to be evaluated in terms of the tutor/tool dichotomy. CALL – of either variety – challenges the current roles of teacher while providing new opportunities for them. Other factors which need to be considered other than appropriate evaluation of the respective CALL packages, are the more practical ones of curriculum design which will work within the specific environment of the school. In writing about this latter issue, Levy (1995) provided five points for consideration. The first was that teachers needed to establish the aims of the course and student needs. Computer resources then needed to be established in the organisation. Once the computer infrastructure was in place, there was a need to negotiate the timetable, including the allocation of classroom space and the rules governing self-access. Then relevant materials for student use needed to be found or authored and finally, the students had to be trained to use the materials, one program at a time. Thus, proper integration of CALL into the curriculum requires the preparation of physical space, hardware, software and the preparation of the teachers. As Collis (1996) has clearly stated, teachers are the key to CALL integration in the wider educational environment.

Teachers need to gain a perspective on what CALL can bring to the learning process, and from that point CALL can be more successfully integrated into the curriculum. Barson (1997) believes that language learning is a process unfolding over time, fuelled by communicative needs which have emerged as integral to the classroom community and its sense of identity. The classroom (or other learning space) can be transformed by the use of technology to an environment where various types of language can be used. The change is from learning a language to more of 'languaging', which is using the new language in interesting and meaningful ways. Computers can help this, particularly if the students can tinker — Barson uses the term '*bricolage*' — with the programs and discover for themselves the appropriate language in a given situation. Barson makes a strong point that computers are tools: instruments to be used by intelligent human beings.

Debksi (1997b) claims that an integration of computer technology and language education is most likely to take place in learning environments in which students can easily exercise their creativity, engage in goal-driven activities, and combine their language learning with reflection about language and learning strategies. He follows Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) concept of the process of creativity being more important than the end result. If this creative activity, a very important part of which is the *bricolage* of Barson, was to be seen as part of the language teaching approach, it would open up new opportunities and roles for the teachers and the students.

Egbert et al. (1999) suggest that the integration of computer technology into language teaching requires a broadening of language teaching philosophies, methods and approaches as well. It is not enough simply to put a computer into a classroom. They suggest that there are eight conditions that have to be met to optimise language learning, and the introduction of computers into the classroom must take these points into account:

1) learners have opportunities to interact and negotiate meaning
2) learners interact in the target language with an authentic audience
3) learners are involved in authentic tasks
4) learners are exposed to and encouraged to produce varied and creative language
5) learners have enough time and feedback
6) learners are guided to attend mindfully to the learning process
7) learners work in an atmosphere with an ideal stress/anxiety level
8) learner autonomy is supported (1999, p. 4).

Hanson-Smith (1999) states that as language teachers become more proficient in the use of computers in their teaching, "the pedagogy of instructional technology has moved away from simple drill-and-respond tasks to more authentic tasks...motivating enough to fully engage learners" (1999, p. 137). The computer used properly can provide authentic tasks for language learners, using CALL programs, generic programs, or different Internet applications such as the Web.

Using Internet applications for language teaching

The 1990s saw another computer and communications revolution in terms of the phenomenal growth of the Internet. Zakon (2000) provided a timeline which showed the very rapid growth of the Internet and related computer networks. In October 1990, for example, there were 313,000 registered 'host' machines (Internet linked computers), which has grown to

19,540,000 hosts in July of 1997. This immense growth of the Internet is making a powerful impact on language teaching as will be seen below. Collis (1996) stated that the introduction of the Internet into teaching is a second wave of computer technology in education; the first wave was the introduction of the microcomputer into schools. She suggests that there is a number of parallel points in the development of both waves and that teachers can learn from experiences from the first introduction of computers into language teaching when using the Internet.

If Postman's axiom about technological change changing everything is true, it follows that the introduction of networked computers into schools will have a significant effect on language teaching in the schools. The development of the new Junior language curriculum in Queensland, which will be based on multimedia and Web technologies, will generate major changes in teaching. The move towards using the Internet as a major tool in the development of innovative teaching and learning approaches is best highlighted by the various authors in Debski et al. (1997), Collis (1996), Opp-Beckerman (1999), Turbee (1999) and others.

One of the main themes discussed by numerous writers is the ability of Internet applications to provide authentic language, through different communicative applications, as well as to provide opportunities for teachers and students to engage in real language use with native speakers. Opp-Beckerman (1999) discusses some of the pedagogical issues around defining authentic audiences, and suggests what the roles of students and teachers are in using the Internet. She points out how Internet applications can be used in different tasks. She defines different methods such as newsgroups, discussion groups, MOOs, and the creation of Web pages. Turbee (1999) elaborates further on how MOOs can be used in a language teaching class. Turner (1998) discusses one of her projects in the use of a MOO for ESL teaching.

Other innovative uses of the computer as a communicative tool are discussed by Donaldson and Kötter (1999), in a tandem learning experiment between two groups of students using a MOO as their point of contact. They make the point that the use of computer technology, and its ability to connect disparate user groups together, is a highly motivating point for language learners. Kitao and Kitao (1999) look at the use of on-line chat to support communicative language teaching, and provide a number of URLs for readers to access.

The use of the Web and MOOs in lieu of stand-alone CALL programs on CD-ROM, has also been reported by Harrison (1998) and Crompton (1999). While CALL programs — what Crompton (1999, p. 438) calls "agentive software" and Levy considers the "tutor" — have a place in language learning, both these writers see greater communicative advantages in the use of the Internet, specifically the Web and MOO programs. Harrison (1998) provides a taxonomy of Internet tools which he lists as: tools for natural language processing such as concordancers and thesauri; tools for communication, such as email; tools for gathering information and for creativity, e.g. the Web; and tools for collaboration, which is a combination of the other tools.

In another aspect, Crompton (1999) sees the Internet as a *sine qua non* for further work in learning a language by distance, and discusses the advantages of the Internet over the CD-ROM approach to distance learning. And like Harrison (1998), he sees a combination of communicative applications as the way to develop distance learning programs, e.g. using the Web in tandem with email and real-time chat, so that students can collaborate over distance, as well has having good access to the teachers.

The literature of CALL has pointed out numerous ways that CALL is being used in language teaching. It has provided an historical perspective on CALL development. It has shown that there are important points to consider when introducing computer technology to language classrooms. It has also provided many caveats on what not to do, based on lessons learned from previous experiences. It has attempted, and is attempting, to generate theoretical bases on which further work may be done towards the integration of CALL into teaching methodology. The successful integration of CALL and the Internet into high schools will require committed and knowledgeable teaching staff, as well as government policies and resources.

Language-in-education policies and computers

There are several major factors affecting the development and implementation of languages policies in Queensland schools. There is the commitment of the Queensland government to continue to implement core language teaching in State schools. There is the development of a new LOTE syllabus, which links with the State's commitment to continued language teaching and places a great deal of emphasis on the use of computer technology. The implementation

of this new LOTE syllabus will require adequate hardware and software to be available in the schools. It will also require teachers who know how to use the equipment and software. The education department has established a centre for professional development of teachers, which will ostensibly train language teachers, in collaboration with LACU, in the requisite skills.

There is no guarantee, however, of any sort of uniformity of teaching methods, computer resources, or curriculum designs for language teaching across the school systems. Some of the independent schools are very well equipped, but there is no uniformity across the independent schools. Catholic schools appear to be less prepared to enter the CALL 'age' of language learning (NLLIA, 1993).

There is also the concern that new teachers coming into the field from Queensland's universities' education faculties have limited skills in the use of computers for language teaching, because until recently, there has been no university in Queensland which provides this sort of training (White & Burnett 1998).[4]

2.7.3 Current CALL use in the classroom

CALL literature has included numerous reports about how various teachers and schools are using CALL, including a developing literature on the theoretical aspects of the use of computers in language teaching, and the corresponding impact on pedagogy (Barson, 1999; Maingard, 1999; van Lier, 1999). As discussed above, the key innovation in the newer uses of CALL has been the advent of the Internet, and its adaptability for the concepts of communicative language teaching. Levy (1997a) suggests that newer and more powerful computers allowed the rapid development of multimedia packages, and the combination of the Internet and multimedia have provided an extremely powerful system which can be adapted for language teaching purposes.

This combination of multimedia and Internet (i.e. networked computing) has generated innovative CALL projects as outlined for example in Jung and Vanderplank (1994), Warschauer (1995), and the ACT Department of Education (1996). Debski et al. (1997)

provide some directions on future directions for CALL, particularly in the integration of multimedia and networked CALL into curriculum design through the use of project-based language teaching.

Patrikis (1997) provides a good summary of how computer technology is changing the way languages can be taught, and reviews some of the elements involved. In terms of the changing sites of language learning, the Internet and the Web have removed students from the 'captivity' of the classroom and the language laboratory, and enable them to communicate readily with the outside world thereby widening their learning site to cover a world-wide matrix of sites relevant to their language learning. The use of this new technology, however, requires a definitive re-thinking of how languages are taught. The use of the computer with programmed learning "drill and kill" (1997, p.168) programs, which reflect an older pedagogy, are often counter-productive.

Patrikis (1997), Levy (1995, 1997a), van Lier (1998) and others make a strong point in the need for the development of appropriate environments within schools to allow appropriate use of computers for language teaching purposes. New facilities and new approaches also require a multi-disciplinary approach to provide the best environment, programs, technology, etc. for the students. While some universities (Barson, 1997; Patrikis, 1997; Negroponte, 1995) have developed very innovative language/computer facilities, the development for high schools is substantially lagging.

Computer networks have evolved into a powerful, world-wide communication system, the Internet, which has great potential for teaching and learning. At the same time there has been parallel development in multimedia applications for the teaching of languages. However, the integration of these two developments in language teaching is at a very early stage.

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[4] In 1999, the Faculty of Education at QUT developed a compulsory unit in technological literacies for all B.Ed students. The Graduate School of Education at The University of Queensland also now has a similar unit.

2.8 Summary

This review has covered a number of different fields which, when taken together, provide a picture of the dynamic environment within which education policies and the use of CALL in the schools are linked through communication and organisation theory on the one hand, and technology on the other. The whole process of policy-to-practice is based on the fundamentals of communication among people, and Taylor's theories have been used to conceptualise this process. This approach has been supported by others, such as Considine (1994) and Fullan & Stiegelbauer (1991), who have discussed similar issues using their own orders of discourse.

The dynamic of policies leading to changes in schools was discussed through the introduction of Fullan and Stiegelbauer's key factors and themes. These are crucial for the success of policy-driven changes, both in terms of implementation and then the continuation of the projects emanating from the policy.

The making of public policy in Australia is carried out by coalitions of governments, their departments, and policy and community networks which make up a domain, and from a policy analyst's point of view, a policy system. It is the dynamic interplay among these bodies that leads to policy decisions, the development of projects supporting the policy, and implementation of the projects at the base level.

The use of computer technology, first to enhance communication between the various actors within the domain, and second, in the development of CALL, ties in to the overall communication and organisation theories which have been discussed in this chapter.

When it comes down to the actual implementation of language-in-education and computers-in-education policies at the schools level, there appear to be gaps and concerns raised by a number of people, which have been expressed in the NBEET reports on the one hand, and in some of the current education journals on the other. What this study now needs to do is to gather some empirical evidence to find out where the issues really are. Is it a problem of policy with no resource back-up; or a lack of understanding between the various actors in the domain; is it a lack of good communication procedures throughout the domain so that policy

makers, the policy implementers and the project operators cannot converse clearly with one another; or is it a combination of all of these factors?

The research then must first look at communication patterns within a hierarchical system: who talks to whom about what? It must look at the subtleties relating to the policy documents themselves. It must also investigate the worldviews, opinions, and processes of implementation at various levels within the education domain's hierarchy, and particularly at the schools level because the critical person in the whole domain is the teacher. The language teachers, their school colleagues and administrators will provide the essential picture of the links between the policies, and the practices, and through this, will reinforce the constructs which have been discussed in this review. The next chapter will discuss how this will be done.

3.0 Methodology

3.1 Overview of the chapter

The purpose of this chapter is to provide details on how the research was conducted and the research methods employed. Section 3.2 describes the methodological and personal orientation, including an overview of the qualitative and quantitative methods which are used, the voice of the author and the contributors, and information on the author's background. This is followed by Section 3.3, which discusses the design of the study, describes the methods used in greater detail, and provides a rationale for the design and methodology. Section 3.4 describes the sample to be used in the study, which includes practising language teachers, other school personnel, senior officers of Education Queensland (EQ), and other language specialists. The instruments used for the study are discussed in Section 3.5, and Section 3.6 describes the methods of data collection and other procedures. Section 3.7 sets out the data analysis. The chapter concludes with Section 3.8, which provides a detailed rationale and methodology for the analysis of the national and Queensland language policy and computer policy texts. These texts provide the basis for the development and implementation of language teaching and computing in Queensland high schools, and thus are important documents for analysis.

3.1.1 The research questions

The principal research question is:

- How are educational information technology and language policies communicated and implemented in high schools in southern Queensland?

Subsidiary questions are:

- How do language teachers implement these policies in their classroom teaching?

- What sort of relationship is there between government language teaching and government information technology (IT) policies in the teaching of languages within Queensland high schools?

3.2 Description of the methodology

3.2.1 Overview of methods

This study will use qualitative methods as the main approach, though they will also be supported by quantitative measures. Salomon (1991) suggests that qualitative methods are better suited for studies that look at the interdependence of phenomena, and how changes in one related item will generate changes in all the others; quantitative methods are generally used for analytic approaches, which are suited for phenomena that can be isolated for study. Following from this suggested systemic approach, Peshkin (1993, p. 23) states that qualitative research should begin with the question: "What is its generative promise?" In other words, what are the results from the research which will provide the necessary detail to: 1) describe the dynamics under question; 2) interpret the dynamics to offer details for further generalisations of the research findings; and 3) provide insights leading to the development of new concepts.

However, the use of quantitative methods to support the research is also important. Miles and Huberman (1994) support the concerns of Salomon, and additionally state that:

> quantitative data can help with the qualitative side of a study during *design* by finding a representative sample and locating deviant cases. It can help during *data collection* by supplying background data, getting overlooked information, and helping avoid "elite bias". During *analysis* quantitative data can help by showing the generality of specific observations, correcting the "holistic fallacy"... and verifying or casting new light on qualitative findings (p. 41).

Krueger (1994, p. 28) states that qualitative research provides in-depth information with fewer cases whereas the quantitative approach provides more breadth of information across a larger sample. This study will use quantitative data in support of the qualitative findings, first by providing methods to assist in the design of the questionnaire, to obtain the samples, then by assisting in developing the generality of the observations.

The nature of this study is such that the answers which are needed will be achieved mainly through the use of qualitative approaches. It will require in-depth research into the dynamics of elements within the education domain, and that is what qualitative research does best (Peshkin, 1993; Lazaraton, 1995; Krathwohl, 1993). Krathwohl (1993, p. 352) suggests that

the use of qualitative methods is indicated when there is a lack of research in an area, and this is true of this study.

In the first instance, it is important to develop a holistic description of the processes of communication and policy implementation within organisational structures, because these areas have direct impact on how language teachers carry out their roles. The literature review has discussed these areas in detail and provides a context within which the remainder of the study can be carried out.

How these elements work, and what their impact on language teaching at the high school level is, requires an understanding of the language teachers' environments, and their methods and their networks which can only be discerned by talking with them. Qualitative research methods appear to be the most effective way to obtain an in-depth picture of the language teachers' worlds and their worldviews (Krathwohl, 1993; Taylor, 1993; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

The main methods which will be used in this study are description and interpretation (Peshkin, 1993, p. 24). Description, according to Peshkin, is a term of analysis which can provide a number of outcomes: processes, relationships, setting and situations, systems, and people. In this study, the emphasis will need to be on the processes of communication among various levels in Education Queensland, including language teachers within the schools. Peshkin states that "When we understand the processes by which a life or small town or classroom takes on its particular character, we understand something of value" (Peshkin, 1993, p. 24). Relationships are a fundamental part of these processes (Taylor, 1993, 1994; Capra, 1996) and in particular the relationships among the various actors that are bound by organisational structures. Likewise, the relationships between members of professional networks are an important element because it is through these bodies that members can make their voices heard in a very different way than through official channels (Wickert, 1997).

The setting and situation are also relevant here, because writers such as Fairclough (1995), Luke (1995-96), and Pierce (1995), argue that a dynamic such as communication and policy implementation cannot be understood adequately unless it is placed within the environment in which the actions occur. In this study, the dynamics of communication and policy

implementation relating to the use of CALL must be seen from the ground up, within the school setting. The situation of the teachers within the schools, including the provision of hardware and software, logistics, timetabling, etc. will be investigated, as will the communication between the teachers and their superiors at the school level, the dynamics of communication between the principal of the school and his or her superiors at the district and department level, and the dynamics between the primary resource providers: State and Commonwealth government departments.

But then, what will good description of these events and situations provide? Peshkin looks at interpretation as an important step in qualitative research, because it is the interpretation of descriptive data which will generate research outcomes "…that explain or create generalisations, develop new concepts, elaborate existing concepts, provide insights, clarify complexity, and develop theory" (Peshkin, 1993, p. 25). In this research, the description will lead to an understanding of how policies in language teaching and CALL are implemented in a selection of high schools, which will provide in turn insights into the development of generalisations relating to the overall secondary education field. There is also the opportunity to develop theoretical concerns relating to how communication will affect the implementation of policies.

3.2.2 Voice

Qualitative research puts a great deal of emphasis on the questions of objectivity/subjectivity in a research project. There will always be the underlying biases of the researcher which will influence the questions that are being investigated, and the methods which are used to produce the data for analysis. Pierce (1995, p. 570), for example, suggests that critical research rejects the view that any social research can claim to be objective or unbiased. If qualitative research methods are going to be used to investigate the dynamics of human interaction, it will need to be aware of the inequities of these dynamics with respect to power, status, and hierarchical levels in order to provide a full understanding (Pierce, 1995; Taylor, 1993; Fairclough, 1995; Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). This latter point is doubly critical when the research is looking at communication patterns and policy implementation because the latter is carried out through the medium of the former, within a domain which is principally

hierarchical in nature having distinct nodes of power as manifested in the decision-making process.

The researcher's voice, the "I", places the researcher squarely within the research itself: "The voice of subjectivity takes an I, the first-person singular, the attestation that a particular person was in a particular place for a particular purpose" (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992, p.101).

In this research, I will use the "I" when it refers to my opinions, interpretations and biases of which I am aware. I cannot, however, speak for the many other people who have provided details for the study through the interview and questionnaire processes. Their words will speak for them, in their own voices. The literature review also represents the work of others, and hence will be in the third person.

3.2.3 The author's background

Since 1990 I have been involved with language and technology, first as an information manager, then Director, of the National Language and Literacy Institute of Australia's Language and Technology Centre (NLLIA-LATTICE), which was a part of the Centre for Language Teaching and Research (CLTR). In the first instance my job was to develop on-line databases of information relating to languages and language teaching for access via the Internet. As time went on, I also began to work more and more with language teachers, particularly in providing them with training in using computers and the Internet for their own teaching and research purposes.

This was frequently a frustrating exercise for me and also for many of the teachers, because while the CLTR could provide them with sound training in an environment with good equipment at the university, the teachers did not have the latter in their schools. While this is changing, as this study will indicate, an adequate distribution of hardware and software through the schools systems is yet to come.

At the same time as the CLTR and other institutions were offering this training, both Commonwealth and State governments were actively formulating policies and programs for boosting LOTE teaching in schools, and, more recently, Queensland has promulgated

computer policies which will ultimately bring all teachers up to a general level of competence in computer literacy (Education Queensland, 1995). My concerns and frustrations lay in the interface between what policy makers were saying, and what was actually happening to language teachers, and thus what was happening to the students learning LOTE.

I have a policy analysis background, having completed a Postgraduate Diploma in Public Policy, as well as having been a public servant for eight years in New South Wales. I have been close to the planning and policy making processes within a government department. I have also been a community organiser in Australia and in the United States, and have worked with various multicultural communities. But for the purposes of this research, what I need to understand is what happens in schools when language policies, language-in-education policies, and computers-in-education policies 'trickle down' to them. I also need to understand the communications patterns in which these policies are turned into curricula and into teacher education and into hardware and software: that is, the implementation of the policies.

I am, according to the *Meyers Briggs Type Indicator* (Briggs-Meyers and McCaulley, 1985) an INTJ (Introverted, iNtuitive, Thinking, Judgemental) personality. As such I enjoy the development of policies, can provide good analytical skills and can make decisions. I am not necessarily fond of process for its own sake. The down side of this is that I can act precipitously.

Thus, entering into this research has been difficult for me in that the qualitative approach is much more an in-depth *process* of analysis, rather than the more definitive quantitative approach. Learning and using these qualitative processes has required me to learn new skills, and throughout the research process these skills were continuously being enhanced.

3.3 Design of the study

3.3.1 Approaches

The primary research question can be answered in different ways by different people in different networks. A policy analyst in DETYA, for example, may come up with very different answers compared to the teacher who is faced daily with the reality of policy

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changes and teaching demands. The school's principal may also have a different set of answers. The IT specialist in the school will have yet another perspective.

The approach in this research will be to look at answers from the perspective of practising language teachers primarily, which will then be reinforced by responses and documentation from other actors and arenas within the language teaching domain. This approach is suggested by Davis (1995) and is considered to be an "interpretive qualitative study" (Davis, 1995, p. 433). Such an approach uses interviews and other data collection approaches to gain a 'thick' perspective (Davis, p. 433; Peshkin, 1993, p. 24). The reason for taking this approach is to focus on the "shared meanings and interactions between cultural groups" (Davis,1995, p. 433). In this case, the cultural groups are language teachers, EQ central office personnel who are language policy analysts, other school personnel and other language professionals. This overall approach can also be considered as "exploratory-qualitative-statistical" after Nunan's taxonomy of research paradigms (1992, p. 6.). Using such a mixed form will assist in promoting external validity and reliability, as Miles and Huberman (1994) point out. They state that:

> Quantitative studies "persuade" the reader through de-emphasising individual judgement and stressing the use of established procedures, leading to more precise and generalisable results. On the other hand, qualitative research persuades through the rich depiction and strategic comparison across cases, thereby overcoming the "abstraction" inherent in quantitative studies (p. 41).

One way to ascertain how well the respective policies were implemented, is to look at them from the different perspectives in the domain, and doing so in supportive but different ways. This is one way of using a 'triangulation method', that is, using multiple sources and methods, and applying them to the questions (see, for example, Mathison, 1988; Davis, 1995; Lazaraton, 1995; Krathwohl, 1993; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Provisional frameworks which show how the various data sets relate will be used. The data will then be re-examined to establish a second framework which will be the basis of the interpretation of the data, on both the qualitative and the quantitative sides.

3.3.2 Methods of data collection and analysis

Three methods will be used:

- Interviews with:
  - teachers and other school personnel
  - officers from Education Queensland
  - other language professionals
- Questionnaires to language teachers in all Queensland high schools
- Text analysis (discussed in Section 3.8)

Interviews with teachers and other school personnel

Language teachers practising in state high schools in the greater Brisbane area were interviewed in order to obtain a deeper understanding of how they perceive their teaching environment and the impact of computing and language teaching policies upon it. The interviews with teachers comprise the central part of this study. This part of the research model provides the "thick" description of the interplay between policy and practice within a high school language teaching setting (Davis, 1995; Peshkin, 1993). In order to gain greater depth of understanding of the dynamic within schools, additional interviews were sought from school principals and other school personnel.

Interviews with officers of Education Queensland

There are officers within the central office of Education Queensland who provide specialist support for the department's language and computer policies, as well as managing the implementation of these policies. Interviews were sought with these officers in order to ascertain their perceptions and understanding of the policy dynamic they work within, and to establish their opinions and beliefs concerning how language teachers are performing their roles. No titles or names have been used in order to protect the anonymity of the respondents.

Interviews with other language professionals

Nationally and within Queensland there are a number of language education professionals who, while not teaching languages in schools, have considerable expertise in the development and evaluation of language-in-education policy, CALL, and language pedagogy (see Section 3.4.4). In order to obtain a broader overview of the areas covered by the research questions, key individuals in these areas were contacted by electronic mail or by phone to discuss the overall concepts and concerns in this research. These interviews provided an overview of the

implementation of language policies, language-in-education policies, and IT policies within educational organisations.

The questionnaire

A questionnaire was devised and distributed to language teachers in state high schools throughout Queensland. The purpose of this questionnaire was to provide a broad picture of how language teachers in Queensland State high schools saw themselves in relation to the implementation of the language teaching and IT policies, and to compare the data thus obtained with the data obtained in the personal interviews. It also assisted in obtaining a broader picture of how relevant policies and projects are communicated to language teachers. Survey instruments cannot provide an in-depth analysis of activities such as can be obtained through interviews, but can provide a quantifiable overview of the field.

Using these different methods provided a more comprehensive picture of how different respondents at different levels in the education domain perceived the issues. From these perceptions, a comprehensive picture of what the overall education system is doing in the language teaching area can be developed. Other language professionals provided input into a broader, national perspective on language policies, and the issues surrounding the use of computers for language teaching. The investigation into how communication works among the various groups within the education department has provided information about the feedback loops inherent in the system.

3.4 The sample

This section discusses in detail how the various groups within the sample were selected, the reasons for this selection, and the operations used to gain access to the groups.

3.4.1 Practising language teachers

Interviews

The sample of language teachers to be interviewed was selected from two high schools in each of the eight education districts making up the greater Brisbane area, giving a total of sixteen high schools in all. A sample of sixteen schools was deemed to be adequate to

provide sufficient breadth for the study, particularly in the light of the time allocated for the interviews. Once permission from Education Queensland was gained, a letter was sent to the relevant principals seeking entry into the schools for the purposes of interviewing the language teachers. The letter is located in Appendix A, and covers the twelve points as outlined by Glesne and Peshkin (1992, p. 32).

Section 3.6 details the procedures which were used to gain access to language teachers in the schools. Ultimately, a total of 27 language teachers from thirteen high schools in the target area agreed to be interviewed.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was sent to 504 language teachers across Queensland, based on mailing lists obtained from the LOTE Centre. 115 valid responses were received. Section 3.6.5 provides details on the administration of the questionnaire. Section 4.4 of Chapter Four provides the results from the questionnaire.

3.4.2 Other school personnel

The initial plan was to set up three focus groups in three selected schools to gain more details on how LOTE and computing was seen by the schools. However, the pressure of time on school staff and the logistics of getting all the prospective participants in the one place at the one time became too difficult in the time constraints of this study.

In all, I gained interviews with two school principals and one head of department who was not a language teacher. However, the Head of Department in one school organised all the teacher interviews for me, and this included an interview with the Principal. She herself was not a LOTE teacher, and did not want to be interviewed on tape, but nevertheless spent over an hour with me describing the school's ethnic population, the particular difficulties the school faced by being in a low socio-economic area, and what the school languages program was attempting to do. Notes from this meeting were included in the non-teacher analysis. Similarly in a second school, I negotiated with the Principal directly, who was happy to assist and as an aside suggested that I should also interview him, which I did. The Head of Department in which LOTE was located also agreed to an interview. While not necessarily

representative of schools at large, this collection of interviews provides valuable information regarding the common issues that language teachers and school administrations face.

3.4.3 Officers of Education Queensland (EQ)

Three officers of EQ were selected for interviews because they are in positions of direct policy development and implementation, and could provide information from a State perspective. They also provided direct language-related services to language teachers. Additionally, a former regional LOTE advisor was also chosen because of expertise in working in LOTE teaching at a regional level, as well as being a qualified teacher. Within the central office of EQ, one officer from Languages and Cultures was interviewed twice, one officer in the Centre for Teaching Excellence was interviewed once, and one officer in the LOTE centre was interviewed once. The officer in Languages and Cultures has been working in the languages area in Queensland schools since 1989 and has excellent expertise and awareness of the issues facing language teachers and the department in implementing and continuing the languages program. The officer in the Centre for Teaching Excellence was recommended for interview by the officer of Languages and Cultures and provided details on pre-service and in-service training and the development of the schools' computer infrastructure project. The former regional LOTE advisor provided an historical background of the early implementation phase of the LOTE program in schools, and was knowledgeable in the early introduction of computers and CALL into school classrooms.

3.4.4 Other language professionals

An attempt was made to contact language professionals in Australia who had taken lead roles in the development of the national and the Queensland language policies. Those professionals who ultimately granted interviews were those who were accessible during the time of the research.

The respondents were:

- The Vice-Principal of the Victorian School of Languages. This person is very active on a national basis through the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Association (AFMLTA), and has also demonstrated a keen interest in the use of technology for language learning. He ran a symposium on the use of technology in schools at the 1998 WorldCALL conference in Melbourne.
- A private language consultant from South Australia. This person was formerly a director of a unit of Language Australia, and has developed CALL products for use in schools, as well as participating in a number of policy-driven studies in language teaching, both from a South Australian and a national perspective.
- A tertiary language educator from South Australia. This person has written major reports for NBEET and has been involved in researching and teaching language pedagogy at her institution. She is also developing a technical Special Interest Group (SIG) for the AFMLTA.
- Professor David Ingram, an internationally known expert in language-in-education policy, provided in-depth details leading up to the development of the Queensland LOTE policy. Professor Ingram stated that he was happy to have his name mentioned in this study.

3.5 Instruments

The instruments for this study were designed to elicit responses which would assist in answering the research questions. In the case of teachers and other school personnel, the interviews were based on a prepared set of questions. In the case of Education Queensland personnel and other language professionals, the interviews were open-ended, with guidance from the interviewer, as discussed below.

3.5.1 Questions for teacher interviews

The interviews were guided by a series of prepared questions, which were based on information and perceptions gained from policy documents, reports, journal articles and discussions with language teachers who were studying at the CLTR. A draft of the questions was submitted to staff members of the CLTR for their comments, after which the questions were redrafted and then used on a small pilot sample of three currently employed language teachers who were studying at the CLTR. The questions were then redrafted and resubmitted to faculty members for their comments, and then redrafted in a final form for use.

The respondents were asked initially if the interview could be tape-recorded. It was explained that no personal names or school names would be used, and that the information on

the tapes would generally be used in an aggregate form so no individual would be identifiable. Where specific quotes or details are to be used, no personal reference would be given. If the respondent did not wish the interview to be taped, note-taking would be used. All respondents consented to have their interviews tape-recorded. Questions used for the interviews are included in Appendix B.

3.5.2 Questionnaire for teachers

The development of the questionnaire went through a similar process to the one used in the interview questions for teachers. However, after a first re-draft, the questionnaire was piloted on ten teachers and other language professionals at the university. Based on their comments, the questionnaire was redrafted and resubmitted to faculty members for their comments. The questionnaire is included in Appendix C.

The questionnaire was designed to elicit responses from language teachers throughout Queensland with specific foci: details on the school and its computer infrastructure; what languages were taught in which years; teachers' awareness of specific policies and programs; teachers' awareness and use of computers and CALL; and personal details about which languages teachers taught and their years of teaching experience.

3.5.3 Questions for other school personnel
The questions for interviewing other school personnel were drafted and followed the same process used in the preparation of the questions for teacher interviews.

3.5.4 Questions for EQ personnel and other language professionals

As mentioned above, the interviews with these respondents were conducted in a free-form manner. The data from these interviews provided a broader perspective on the research questions, fitting in between the policy documents and reports and interviews of language practitioners in the schools. While no set questions were used in these interviews, the general orientation used was based on the research questions. The objective was to gain these respondents' perspectives on how policies were being implemented, how they saw the use of

computers and CALL in language teaching, what they saw as problem areas. Section 4.5 in Chapter 4 reports the findings of these interviews.

3.6 Data collection and other procedures

3.6.1 Selection of schools

Using Education Queensland's on-line schools database, a profile was compiled of all the high schools in the eight school districts which make up the greater Brisbane area. Sixty-two high schools were included. Each of the school profiles included information on school population, which languages were taught, and the number of students enrolled in each language (and other subjects) by grade level. The data were current up to 1997. From these sixty-two schools, two each were randomly selected from each of the eight school districts, comprising sixteen schools in all.

Following this, a letter was drafted for school principals which followed the steps discussed in Glesne and Peshkin (1992, p. 32). This letter was then reviewed by members of the CLTR staff and redrafted ready for use. While this was proceeding, approval was sought from Education Queensland, Office of Productivity Research, which has the responsibility of granting approval for research to be undertaken in Queensland State schools. Approval was given in February 1999, at which point an address list of selected schools was developed and used to send out the letters to principals. Each letter contained: the cover letter, a copy of the approval form from Education Queensland, a list of the questions which were to be asked of staff. The letter is included in Appendix A.

3.6.2 Obtaining access to schools

Gaining access to teachers in high schools was not an easy task. Once letters had gone to principals, I then followed up within a few days by telephone to contact them and to organise with them whatever needed to be done to gain access to language teachers. Most schools took at least two calls to reach the principal, who most often informed me that they had passed on the request to the relevant staff in the school, either the head of department, or the language teachers themselves. I asked the principals at that time if it was permissible to

contact these people directly, and in most instances approval was given to do this. In one case, the principal directed the head of department to arrange an interview schedule, and the first contact I had with the language teachers was at the interview times. In two other schools, the principal referred me to the head of department, who then gave permission to contact the teachers directly.

Of the sixteen original schools selected, three schools refused entry for a number of reasons. The main reason was that schools are inundated with research requests and those schools which refused were simply not interested in participating in yet another study. On a follow-up call, the principal of a fourth school reported that my request had been in committee and was still pending. In order to keep the original target of sixteen schools, four other schools were then selected from the selected school districts, and the process of contacting them was undertaken again. Of the latter, two allowed entry and provided excellent hospitality and two agreed, but did not in the end follow through. Finally, thirteen schools gave permission for interviews, and the Table 3.1 indicates the process school by school.

Table 3.1: High school interview schedule

School No.	Dates of interviews	District	Number of teachers interviewed	Number of students
1	24/2/99	Mt Gravatt	2	413
2	4/3/99, 17/3/99	Corinda	2	719
3	9/3/99	Coopers Plains	2	1340
4	15/3/99, 18/3/99	Stafford	3	662
5	15/3/99, 22/3/99, 29/3/99, 12/4/99	Stafford	4	1130
6	18/3/99	Logan	1	570
7	24/3/99	Bayside	2	1600
8	25/3/99	Bayside	2	755
9	29/3/99	Mt Gravatt	1	785
10	12/4/99	Logan	4	1460
11	22/4/99	Geebung	2	571
12	27/4/99	Corinda	1	1380
13	7/6/99	Murrumba Downs	2	1300

The interviews themselves, once times were established, went according to schedule. I attempted to arrive at schools early so I could get a basic sense of the layout of the school. In all cases I went to the administrative area and stated who I was and that I had an appointment

with the relevant staff members. The person at the desk then generally contacted the teachers involved, who came to the administration block and then escorted me to either a staff room or a common room where the interviews took place.

The teacher interviews were all tape-recorded, using a portable tape recorder which in general gave very good sound quality. The only difficulty I found was the background noise in a school, particularly during the lunch hour, or just after classes when the students were all outside. All teachers who agreed to participate in the interviews provided useful information and were quite happy to volunteer considerable extra details.

The approach was to begin the interview telling the respondents that all their comments were totally confidential; that no names of teachers or of schools would be used in the study. I also reiterated that there was no right or wrong answers, that I was interested only in getting their opinions and comments on the issues at hand. While every teacher was asked the same questions, other areas of interest were also explored when they arose. One example of an area of interest was the difficulty in school curriculum design, which makes finding time slots to ensure continuity of LOTE studies from one semester to the next very awkward. Once the interview concluded, I thanked them for their time and was usually escorted back to the administration area. In two schools I had to sign in and out, and was given a visitor's badge to wear while I was on campus.

3.6.3 Ethical considerations, gateways and logistics

The University of Queensland's Office of Research and Postgraduate Studies was contacted and the guidelines and questionnaire were downloaded from the University's Web site. In the opinion of the Ethics Officer, this research is exempt under Section II of the Guidelines (University of Queensland, 1996) as all details of interviews and questionnaires will be confidential.

Appropriate forms were filled in and sent to the Performance Measurement Office of Education Queensland to seek permission to contact school principals for participation in the research. Approval was subsequently granted. The approval form from Education Queensland may be seen in Appendix D.

3.6.4 Interview transcripts

All interviews with school personnel, with the exception of the head of department mentioned above, were taped and then transcribed. A half-hour interview is the equivalent of about ten A4 pages single spaced (4,600 words), and each interview took approximately four hours to transcribe, depending on the sound quality and the background noise. The transcripts were then filed with other notes school by school, which would then be used for further analysis, coding and memoing (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

3.6.5 Administering the questionnaire

I requested a mailing list of current LOTE teachers from Education Queensland, and was provided with a list after I had explained what I was doing, and that I had approval from the department to conduct the questionnaire. The lists arrived, which covered six of the priority languages currently taught in state schools:

- Chinese
- French
- German
- Indonesian
- Italian
- Japanese

While other languages are taught in schools, these were the lists I had to use for the mail out of the questionnaire. Again, a package was assembled which included: a cover letter, the approval form from Education Queensland, the questionnaire and a self-addressed return envelope. The cover letter to the teacher respondents followed a similar pattern to that of the letter to principals covering the same points, and may be seen in Appendix E. The questionnaire packages were then posted.

3.6.6 Entering questionnaire data

The return of data began within ten days or so after posting. Data entry began immediately using a spreadsheet program for the quantitative information from the questionnaire, using six worksheets with one row per case across all six sheets. This number of worksheets was needed in order to facilitate the analysis. Each worksheet contained responses to a set of questions as indicated by the layout of the questionnaire. The layout of these worksheets may be seen in Appendix F. All cases were given a unique code number. The text responses from respondents were compiled in MS Word in a table format using the same codes. As data entry continued, a memo page was also kept open for comments and ideas as they occurred to me, which would be used for the later analysis of the data (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

3.7 Data analysis

3.7.1 Overview of data analysis techniques

In this study, the responses from the different groups of people who participated in the study were analysed. Each of these groups was considered a 'case', as discussed in Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 25 ff). Each case has a distinct boundary, which in this study is defined by the *role* of the case (p. 26). The term I will use in this study will be a 'case set', which differentiates the groups and also allows more than one respondent within a case. The case sets do not overlap.

The analytical process used in this study follows a system which was outlined in Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 92). In brief, the system works from data collection towards a final synthesis in the following broad steps:

- transcriptions
- coding and check coding; annotations and memos
- searching for relationships within the data
- cross-checking findings; matrix analyses of major themes
- synthesis: integrating data into one framework

The analysis begins with an attempt to find common ground *within* a case set, and having done that, to find common themes across case sets. The first step in the process is to structure the data (interviews and questionnaire information) to find common ground. In this study this

has been done through the medium of coding, which Miles and Huberman define as "...tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during a study." (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 56). The codes were then used to retrieve details from the data for further analysis.

After I completed the initial coding of the case sets, a second coder, who is a member of CLTR staff, used the same codes to code the data independently. This is called "check coding" by Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 64), and greatly assists in refining the definitional clarity of the codes being used and leads to a clearer end analysis. Both coders also used the techniques of marginal annotations and memoing as discussed in Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 70 ff), to record ideas and thoughts that assisted later in pulling the data together, and to provide pointers towards linkages between case sets.

Once the coding was completed, the next process was to use the coded data to find common themes and issues within each case set, and then across case sets. This was done through the use of tables (matrices), which enabled the compilation of the codes from each case set to find the paramount themes that emerged. The codes from each case set were tabulated together and then sorted to indicate the major and minor themes that were common across all respondents within the case set. These themes were then cross-checked again against the transcripts for verification, and also to check if less overt themes could be gleaned from the data. This process was done in conjunction with the marginal annotations and memos, which assisted in finding themes which were less apparent, but which were important in the later analysis.

Once each case set was analysed in this fashion, cross-case analysis was done. This was carried out to find common themes across case sets, and to see which themes were unique to each case set. Following this process, a final synthesis was undertaken, again using a series of matrices. Cross-case analysis in this sort of study is essential, because it deepens understanding and explanation (Miles & Huberman, 1994, pp. 172-173), and allows for a greater definitive synthesis, which describes the common themes, while at the same time providing an understanding of the effects of local boundaries and conditions on these themes.

The following parts of this section discuss the specific techniques used for the analysis of this study: interviews, questionnaire, data compilation, cross-case analysis, and concluding with the time frame in which the study was undertaken.

3.7.2 Analysis of interviews

The interviews with teachers and other school personnel were transcribed, following Miles and Huberman (1994). They were then coded, using the set of codes which were developed during the initial reading of the transcripts. The list of codes can be found in Appendix G. The codes were then applied to the responses to each question from each interview, following a "chunking" approach as discussed in Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 57). A 'chunk' is simply a unit of text, and in this study refers to one response to one question in an interview, or one open-ended question in the questionnaire. In order to ensure a higher reliability in coding, the second coder went through the same interviews with the same set of codes, and coded independently of the researcher. The second coder also suggested new codes to be incorporated.

As the coding progressed, a series of marginal remarks and memos was written which would be used in the final analysis. The marginal remarks to each block of text – in this case responses to each question – were annotations that related to the content of the responses and would assist in further analysis. Another technique, memoing, according to Miles and Huberman (1994) puts concepts and theoretical concerns into statements against blocks of coded data. One of the main reasons for using memoing is to "tie different pieces of data into a recognisable cluster" (p. 72).

The two coded sets were then amalgamated and the two coders discussed the differences between the two, and made specific decisions about which codes to use throughout. The codes used in the interviews were then edited to concur with the decisions made by the two coders about which codes were to be used in specific instances. After this task, the codes were then tabulated to provide an indication as to which themes were emerging from the data.

The interviews with the Education Queensland and other language professionals were not coded because the questions asked of each respondent varied depending on their area of

expertise. However, annotations and memos were used. Some of the interviews were recorded and transcribed, but others were not, because either the venue was inappropriate, or a tape recorder was not available. For those interviews that were not transcribed, the analysis relied on notes from the researcher. The notes were then reviewed and key themes were highlighted, providing the basis on which the overall themes from these respondents could be ascertained.

3.7.3 Analysis of questionnaire

The questionnaire contained two types of data: closed questions (quantitative) and open ended (qualitative) questions. The latter were analysed using the same methods as the interviews. The former were analysed using a combination of spreadsheets and tables. In the first instance, each questionnaire received was given a unique number and then the data were entered into a spreadsheet (the quantitative questions) or into a word processing program (the qualitative, or open ended text questions).

Once the deadline for the receipt of questionnaires was reached, the questionnaires were then compiled in a master spreadsheet file and then totals, frequency distributions, averages and percentages were calculated for each question. Tables were then set up for each question. In selected instances cross-tabulations across questions were carried out to find out further details about the data set. The open ended text questions were analysed in the same manner as the interviews, using the same code set.

3.7.4 Data compilation

A series of matrices (tables) was used to ascertain which themes were emanating from the various data sets. This was done by putting all the codes used in the interviews, and the text questions from the questionnaire, into tables, organised by number of each code used, then quantified. A cross check was then made from the quantified codes back to the original texts to ensure that the codes were indeed providing a consistent analysis.

3.7.5 Cross-case compilation

After each data set was analysed, a cross-case matrix (Miles & Huberman, 1994), was developed to see what themes were common across the data sets. The data from this cross-case matrix were then cross-checked back to the original data to ensure again that what was emerging was true to the original data sets. After this cross-case matrix analysis was completed, the researcher then cross-checked the data on the basis of the various memos written throughout the analytical process, and coupled these notes with annotations in the transcripts. On the basis of these memos and annotations, plus the cross-case matrix, less overt themes were gleaned from the data, and provided an overall structure within which further discussion could take place with assurance of the soundness of the analytical processes used.

3.7.6 Time frame

The interviews, questionnaire development and administration, and the text analysis took place over a period of two years. Details of the time frame for the research can be seen in Appendix H.

3.8 Text analysis

3.8.1 Rationale for text analysis

A text analysis of relevant policy documents was undertaken. These documents were introduced in Chapter Two, and were analysed more deeply in regard to the research questions. The analysis indicated how the authors of the policy texts directed what tasks the various actors were to carry out to meet the aims of the policies. How these various documents were routed through various organisations was also of interest, because these were the major texts which were promulgated by policy makers to the implementers. The analysis of the documents provided a general picture of the language teaching environment as it has existed over the last several years. The policy documents outline what the desirable outcomes of the policy should be when it is implemented.

One of the main considerations in policy documents is their routing through the relevant systems, and how they are interpreted and acted upon by those responsible for carrying out implementation. In terms of educational systems, Luke suggests:

> The construction of official knowledge in schools involves discourses that traverse a range of texts and sites, from the legislative and policy documents prepared by civil servants; to curriculum texts prepared by academics, teachers, and corporate publishers (Luke, 1995-96, p. 28).

Luke (1995-96) also states that the interpretation of a policy is uneven and idiosyncratic across the various units within a system. How a policy is interpreted is also unpredictable, because of the uniqueness of any given unit, and the worldviews the personnel within the unit hold.

In my investigations into text analysis, it has become apparent that one can perceive a text as a 'solidified discourse', following on from the discussion in Chapter Two. A text stands as an artefact which has recorded on it, in one medium or another, the ideations of its creator(s), and it is aimed at a specific audience by those creators. In order for this text to be meaningful, and for communication to take place, the text, the authors, and the audience must share common frames of reference (Fairclough, 1995; Silverman, 1993; Taylor, 1992). These frames of reference include a shared language and culture to begin with, and more specifically, a shared understanding of the subject matter of the text. This is the *context* in which the text resides.

It would follow then, that the more the authors and the audience share common ground, the easier it is for the text to be mutually understood. This presupposes, however, that the text is written in such a manner to convey the message of the authors as clearly as possible. The message of the text has to be prepared in such a way as to ensure maximum understanding by the intended readership.

This study analysed the policy texts using both internal and external approaches. The *internal* focus carried out a narrative analysis and an agent analysis, as outlined by Silverman (1993). These approaches provided a way to analyse the documents internally in a consistent fashion.

The *external* focus puts the text within the context and orders of discourse of the respective organisations involved as discussed in Fairclough (1995).

When the text is investigated for its *internal make-up*, as well as within the context in which it will be read, a more complete understanding of the messages can be obtained. Silverman (1993) makes a strong case for analysing a text in and of itself without recourse to external elements, because the actual structure and content of the text will generate their own portrayal of reality. Johns (1994) further discusses the need for a 'semantic' approach for the whole text, and not just part of it, in order to see the full meaning of the text. According to Johns, text semantics is concerned with the truth and falsity of statements which can be derived from within the text as a whole and with the cross-referential relationships set up within the texts (1994, p. 104-105). Silverman (1993) supports Johns' concerns and states that texts frequently are used to prove an external point ("We can see that…") and therefore can misrepresent what the author had to say.

In a complex society or institution which is organised in a hierarchical fashion, but also split horizontally by specialty, the dissemination of a text from any level to any other level, either hierarchically or horizontally, is replete with traps of potential misinterpretation. Taylor's concept of "worldview" (1993, 1994) is important here, because each of the elements of the organisation will have interpreted the text in its own way, to support its own *raison d'être*, and to support its own aims and goals.

These concerns are frequently raised even within an organisation, with official pronouncements of the proper interpretation of a policy or directive being disseminated through an organisation to ensure compliance. There is also a hierarchy and specialisation of texts within an organisation, which frequently need to be read and understood by other levels and groups within the system. For example, the information technology team in an organisation will provide their recommendations on the purchase of a new system to decision-makers who have neither the same worldview, nor the same specialised language. Taylor (1993) discusses the pitfalls this particular example caused in establishing a computerised office, where mutual misunderstandings from both sides resulted in inappropriate decisions for the integration of computer systems into the operating procedures of the organisation.

Texts are artefacts of an organisation and in fact define the organisation (Taylor, 1993). How these texts are read and understood, and then acted upon, will thus define the ability of the organisation to meet its own aims and objectives. The writers of the texts ideally will need to be aware of the context in which the text will be prepared. This may be seen as the *external* analysis of a text. Additionally, writers will also have to have skills in writing the text such that it communicates the desired results to the targeted readership.

From an outsider's viewpoint, the text should be clear in and of itself, that is, *internally*. Silverman (1993) discusses a variety of techniques to look at a text in such a way. One of his approaches, following a structuralist method, is to look at the *system of narration* of the text. The text tells a story using a framework of "functions" and "spheres of action" which together make up the overall structure of the plot (Silverman, 1993, p. 72-75). Reissman (1993) suggests that our narratives — and one might include written texts here — are stories. The story metaphor stresses that we construct our texts in particular contexts. The sphere of action of a policy document is one of a "structural relation" (Silverman, 1993, p. 74) of subject versus object (hero saving victim), using contractual structures (providing direction and funds) to save the victim (the target groups) from a villain (criminals, ignorance, etc.)

Another technique discussed in Silverman is the analysis of 'subjects' or 'agents' (1993, p. 76-78), which in turn follows his discussion of narrative structures (1993, p. 72ff). In this technique, chief subjects of the text are analysed in terms of their roles or actions, and then these are broken into categories, which may then be used for the internal analysis.

But the analysis of the text *within its context* is equally important because only within its context does the text acquire a social meaning (Fairclough, 1995; Taylor, 1992, 1994). The analyst should thus place the text within the organisation or social structure from which it has come, and according to Fairclough (1995), consider the relationship of organisations' 'orders of discourse' plus an ethnographic account of each of the ideological discursive formations within and among the organisation or social structures of the text. Linking this with the public policy arena, Parsons (1995) mirrors Fairclough's idea that a principal task for a policy analyst is to understand the discourses and frameworks which make up the policy problems, content, and processes.

One approach which can be used for both internal and external text analysis is that of Hammersley and Atkinson's ethnographic criteria:

- How are documents written (Internal: structure/content: using Silverman's approaches to narrative)
- How are they read? (External)
- Who writes them? (External – profile of the writers if known, or organisation if not)
- Who reads them? (External: intended audience)
- For what purposes? (External - why audience reads them [interpretation])
- On what occasions? (External)
- With what outcomes? (External)
- What is recorded? (Internal)
- What is omitted? (External; from whose perspective?)
- What is taken for granted? (External)
- What does the writer seem to take for granted about the readers? (External)
- What do readers need to know to make sense of them? (External)
  (After Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983, in Silverman, 1993).

This list is broad in its scope, and indicates both internal and external foci in its approach. As such, I have indicated in parentheses which elements might be used for either internal or external analysis. Even this 'binary' approach to text analysis is not necessarily the best approach, but it appears that there is no 'best' approach. What the researcher is doing is providing an interpretation of the text which meets standards of validity. Reissman (1993, p. 2) says that interpretation is inevitable because narratives (and, I believe, written texts) are written in specific contexts; in other words, the same story can be told differently to different people because the context of the telling is different.

Any researcher, when analysing a text, needs to know that he/she is at the end of a series of processes of telling, writing, transcribing and analysing an original set of experiences or ideas. (Reissman, 1993) puts this process into what she calls 'levels of representation'. While she is discussing personal narrative, it could work for other texts – such as policy documents – as well. Reissman's levels of representation are:

- A primary experience (or idea) leads to
- Attending (mentally 'sculpting' an experience or an idea for transmission), leading to
- Telling (the performance of a narrative – experiential or ideational) leading to
- Transcribing (taping or writing down the telling), leading to
- Analysing (putting the narrative/text into a theoretical framework for analysis), leading to
- Reading experience (what the reader encounters in the written report).

Thus, any text will be considerably distant from the initial experience or idea, and will by its nature be only a partial portrait of the actual experience, filtered through authors, transcribers, analysts and ultimately the reader.

With these caveats in mind, each of the policy texts was analysed using internal and external templates as discussed above. From this analysis, a composite picture can be generated which portrays how the texts in the first instance describe the agents and their tasks. Then, through this internal portrayal the external, or contextual, environment of the text will provide the overall conceptual environment within which policy implementation — teaching and learning — is carried out.

3.8.2 How the texts were analysed

With the exception of the policy document, *Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (DEET, 1991), which was marked by hand, the rest of the selected policy documents were scanned into a computer and converted to text documents. The *internal* analysis of policy documents consisted of, first, investigating the texts in their own terms, using a narrative framework suggested by Silverman (1993) as outlined above. This includes:

- outlining the narrative framework
- generating a list of 'agents', that is, groups of people mentioned in the policies (Silverman, 1993, p. 76ff)
- placing the agents into a set of hierarchical categories.

I then merged a number of the terms into general categories which seem to provide the flow of the activities of the text. Then, to further refine these categories, I stratified the terms ranging from a national to an individual perspective. A list of agents in the policy documents may be seen in Appendix I.

Tables and graphs were generated indicating the frequency and percentages of these two stratifications and can be viewed in Chapter Four, Section 4.2. Cross-tabulations were also used to gain further understanding of how the actors were situated in the text.

The *external* analysis investigates the context from which the texts emanated. This is outlined through commentaries of other writers, many of whom were actively involved in the policy processes which led up to the promulgation of the national policy documents (Clyne,

1991; Ingram, 1991; Sussex, 1991). In the case of Queensland policy documents, the context was set through a review of documents which were either generated in Queensland, or which contained significant information about policies in Queensland (Ingram & John, 1990; Djite, 1994), and through interviews with officers of Education Queensland and Professor Ingram.

The two national language policies from 1987 and 1991 were also cross-tabulated by agent categories to provide insight into how the latter policy altered the approach of the former. The Queensland policies followed the same analytical template, but the categories were slightly different, as the documents themselves were situated in a different milieu, but still within the language policy space.

The context for the Education Queensland LOTE policy was principally based on details found in the Ingram and John report (1990). Additional contextual information was obtained in an interview with Professor Ingram obtained in September 1999. The context for Education Queensland's computers-in-schools policy was obtained from comments by respondents from Education Queensland's central office, the LOTE Centre, and from teachers who were interviewed.

4.0 Findings

4.1 Overview of the chapter

This chapter presents the findings of the study. It is divided into eight sections, each of which presents details of one of the areas examined. Each section begins by discussing the processes used in the analysis and how it is laid out, and refers back to the relevant sections of the methodology chapter. The sections are then subdivided into thematic areas which were identified in the initial analysis of the data.

The presentation of findings undertaken in the sections follows the discussion in Section 3.6 of the Methodology chapter, with the exception that the interviews with school principals and head of department are discussed separately here. The eight sections of this chapter are:

- Overview of the chapter(4.1)
- Policy and program text analysis (4.2)
- Findings from teacher interviews (4.3)
- Findings from the questionnaire (4.4)
- Responses from Education Queensland officers and interstate language specialists (4.5)
- Findings from principals and head of department (4.6)
- Findings on teacher networks and professional associations (4.7)
- Summary of the chapter.

Quotes from respondents who were interviewed and those who replied to the questionnaire are cited with a unique code. Interviewed respondents are represented by:

- teachers: [tintxzz] where the first digit (x) is the teacher and the second two digits (zz) represents the school
- officers of EQ: [eqintx, rcintx] where the digit (x) is the coded number of the respondent
- interstate language specialists: [vic1int]
- school principals and head of department: [prinxzz, hodxzz], using the same convention as the teachers' codes described above.

Quotes from respondents to the questionnaire are coded by a single number, e.g [14].

4.2 Policy and program text analysis

4.2.1 Processes and structure

This section on texts provides findings on key policy documents from the Commonwealth and Queensland governments relating to language policies, language-in-education policies, and computer-in-education policies. Methods of analysis of these texts are introduced in Chapter 3, and specifically in Section 3.8.1. First, the Commonwealth policies from 1987 (Lo Bianco) and 1991 (DEET) will be analysed separately, and then compared against each other, because of the significant changes to national language policy initiated by the 1991 policy. Then the Queensland 1991 policy will be analysed, followed by the Education Queensland IT policy (EQ, 1995).

National language policies

Language policies have emanated principally from the Commonwealth Government but language-in-education policies are primarily a State affair, and Queensland's LOTE policy (EQ, 1991) is a good example of this. There is, however, a continuity of policy aims between national and State perspectives in terms of overall language policy and the recognised necessity of teaching foreign languages in classrooms.

The two principal policy texts, *National Languages Policy* (Lo Bianco, 1987) and the *Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (DEET, 1991), can be seen as the two significant documents which have stimulated and provided a national focus for language teaching in Australia. As such, they warrant some detailed analysis to find out why this has been the case. These texts lend themselves to analysis using a narrative approach as discussed in Silverman (1993), and the methods outlined at the beginning of this section will be used to provide both an internal and an external analysis of these two documents.

Computer policies for schools

Information technology policies for schools are developed by the States. To date, the Commonwealth has developed no over-arching policy for the use of computers for education, or more specifically, for language teaching. The national government has funded the

establishment of Education Network Australia (EdNA) and has left computer-in-education policies *per se* to other jurisdictions.

4.2.2 National Policy on Languages (Lo Bianco, 1987)

Overview

This document consists of four main sections:

- Rationale
- Policy
- State and territory contributions, and
- References and selected bibliography

The document is 283 pages in length. For the purposes of this study only the Policy section (p. 70-188) was analysed.

Summary of the policy

The section of the policy entitled "The teaching and learning of languages" has three major elements: English for all, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander languages and A language other than English for all. The following section discusses the provision of language services. English is recognises as the primary spoken language of Australia, and the development of ESL services is seen to be of significant importance. The Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander languages are seen to be endangered, and require assistance in terms of preserving them, or providing language maintenance in the more common languages. Also included are sections regarding special education in English for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. The third section discusses the need for a language other than English for the Australian community at large and addresses both the community languages and the more traditional languages taught in schools. The section provides directions for eductors on language issues. The language services section provides guidance for translating and interpreting services, languages and technology, public libraries and language testing.

Narrative structure

The first task was to look at the narrative structure of the document using the methods suggested in Silverman (1993). In brief, the narrative format this policy document follows is one of a contractual function within a sphere of agents working on objects. The narrative

develops through the accomplishment of a task by a benevolent power. The benevolent power, or subject, in this case is the Government, who through the accomplishment of consultation and resource allocation to others (the objects, as providers and recipients), solves a problem.

Agents

According to Silverman's approach (1993, p. 76ff), as discussed in Chapter 3, Section 3.8.2, the next task in the internal analysis of the text was the definition of the agents, who are people or organisations carrying out their roles or activities. This collection of agents was then put into categories. In this policy text, the first set of categories is:

- Government
- Government advisory
- General
- Advisory
- Recipients
- Providers

"Government" represents Commonwealth and State and Territory governments and their departments and ministers. "Government advisory" represents commissions, committees, and other government-established instrumentalities whose principal function is to advise respective governments, such as the Australian Research Council (ARC). "Advisory" is the term used for all those other committees and non-Commonwealth or State government organisations and individuals who provide formal advice to governments. "Providers" is the term used for all those organisations and individuals who deliver a service to some element of the population. In this case, no differentiation is made between Commonwealth, State, or non-government institutions or individuals who deliver the service, because the categories will be placed into specific levels later on. "Recipients" are those organisations or individuals who receive a service from the "providers" as defined above. "General" is a category which lumps together all other agents such as "Australian population", or "the international marketplace" who do not fit into any of the other categories. A full list of agents is included in Appendix I.

Figure 4.2.1: Percentage of agents by category
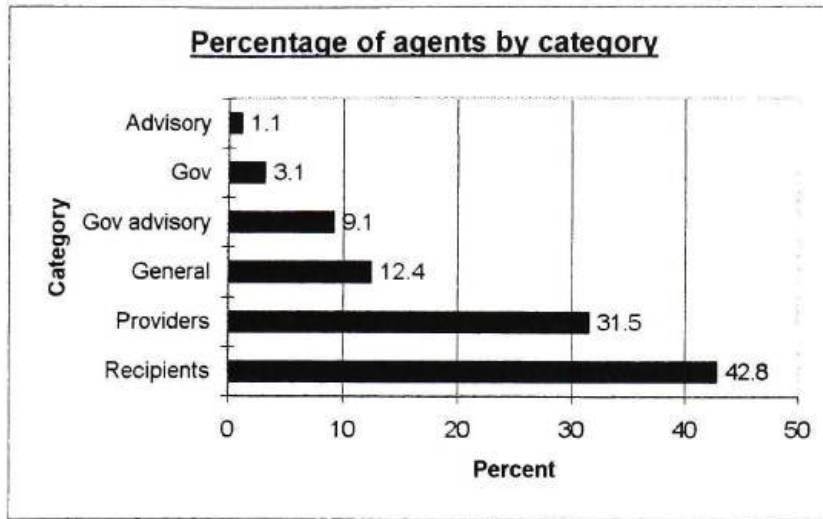
Comments

Based on the numbers in Figure 4.2.1, the policy emphasises the recipients and providers more than the other categories. It is also noteworthy that government advisory bodies are mentioned frequently. So in this initial analysis, the policy seems to say that the government is very concerned about a wide variety of providers and recipients of services, and there are numerous government-appointed advisory bodies to assist in the development and implementation of the policy. There is also an apparent concern with the impact of the policy (or its lack) on the overall population, as indicated by the relatively high numbers of 'general' agents.

Agent category levels

Having looked at this breakdown, I then wanted to see how the various categories could be broken into levels, in this case referring to the Commonwealth government as the pinnacle of a hierarchy which represents a national approach, down to the individual person who is a recipient or a provider of some service initiated through a Commonwealth policy or program. The five categories are:

- Commonwealth
- States/territories
- Systems
- Non-government organisations (NGO)
- Individual
- Other

"The Commonwealth" in this stratification represents the national government, and any national program or project stemming from its initiative, such as the Australian Second Language Learning Program (ASSLP). The next level is that of "State and Territory governments", who often work collaboratively with the Commonwealth in the provision of services, and are themselves recipients of Commonwealth resources. "Systems" refer to government systems, such as education or health which, through its various outlets (schools, hospitals) provide services to the population. "Non-government organisations" is a term used to identify all those groupings of people, either formal or informal, who provide and/or receive a service, and who may offer advice to governments. This term includes cultural groups, such as Alliance Francaise, business, professional associations, etc. "Individuals" defines those agents who are providers or recipients of a service. "Other" represents those terms for agents which are too broad to be put into any other category, such as "parents", or "the society".

Figure 4.2.2: Percentage of level of agent
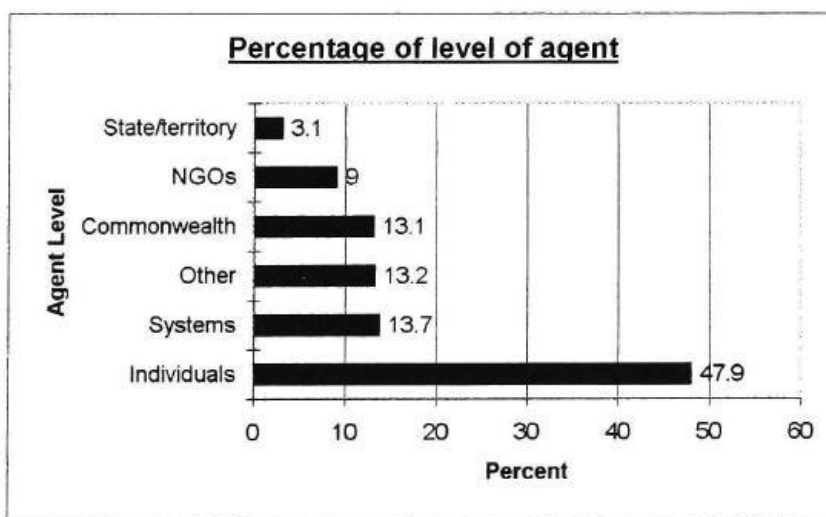
Comments

This analysis of agents indicates that individuals (both provider and recipient) represent almost half of all agents named in the policy. While the Commonwealth and government systems take lead roles in developing and implementing the policy, the actual day to day implementers of the policy would appear to be individuals within systems, as discussed below. There is also a relatively high number of 'other', which places the policy in an overall societal context.

To further break down the categories of agents, I then did a cross tabulation of agent by level for the policy. The following table indicates the results of this.

Table 4.2.1: Internal analysis of language policies, 1987: by categories of agents and levels

		Categories of agents						
		Gov.	**Gov. Ad.**	**Advisory**	**Providers**	**Recipients**	**General**	**Total**
L	Commonwealth	11	95	0	47	0	0	153
e	State/terr.	12	9	0	17	0	0	38
v	Systems	0	1	0	88	0	0	89
e	NGOs	0	10	11	126	27	128	302
l	Individuals	0	0	2	151	416	28	597
s	Other	0	0	0	0	99	7	106
	Total	**23**	**115**	**13**	**429**	**542**	**163**	**1285**

Comments

The table shows clearly that Commonwealth government and its attendant advisory bodies are seen as having both advisory and provider roles, whereas the State and Territory governments have a provider role. Systems' main role is that of provider almost exclusively. The same is the case for NGOs. Individuals are seen mainly as recipients, but a large number are providers in their own right.

Context of the policy

The 1987 National Policy on Languages (Lo Bianco, 1987) was the culmination of over a decade's work in gathering popular support for a national language policy. Clyne (1991) discusses this history and claims that the initial thrust towards a national policy came from first, "…acceptance of cultural diversity and our changing self concept from a British outpost to an independent nation" (Clyne, 1991, p. 7). This led to a concerted development to 'ethnic rights' which included the right of Australian citizens to use their own language, and to provide language maintenance programs to continue the linguistic and cultural ethos of various nationalities. The second stage of development came principally from language professional groups such as the AFMLTA and language academics. One of the early documents which resulted from over five years of collaboration was the report from the PlanLangPol group (1982).

This led to the Senate inquiry of 1984, which was a massive undertaking and was developed in a "...context of consultation with the communities" (Clyne, 1991, p. 9). The teaching of languages other than English was by far the largest section of this document and reflected the understanding that in order to first maintain existing community languages, and to bring Australia out of a mono-lingual cultural mindset, massive changes in language education were required.

From this background, Joseph Lo Bianco was appointed to write the national languages policy. The policy was comprehensive and included policy issues, social justice, language services, but the major emphasis was on language education (Clyne, 1991; Smolicz, 1995). The data from the Senate inquiry report as discussed amply justifies this statement, as does the contention that language in education is seen as the most potent resource for bringing about language change (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). The data also support Clyne's contention that the policy was the result of a coalition of interests ranging from professional groups, communities and business interests.

In essence, then, the policy document itself is a manifestation of many years' work by many groups and individuals who had a stake in language policies in Australia. The results were well regarded internationally, with a number of authors stating that Australia's language policy was a template for other nations to follow (Clyne, 1991; Smolicz, 1995; Ingram, 1991, Sussex, 1991).

The policy also provided the impetus for other States and Territories to promulgate their own language policies. These include New South Wales (Clyne, 1991; Croft, 1992), and Queensland (EQ, 1991).

4.2.3 Australian Language and Literacy Policy (DEET, 1991)

Overview

The *Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (1991) comes in two volumes. The first is the policy itself, and the second is supporting documentation which states that it is "a fuller and more detailed statement of language and literacy needs. It will be of particular relevance to everyone with a special interest in language and literacy policy issues" (1991, p. iii).

The policy contains specific sections on various language issues. Each section has a set of goals and implementation strategies and includes a financial commitment by the Commonwealth government. The sections of the policy are:

- National Goals
- English Language and Literacy
- Children's Literacy
- Adult Literacy
- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Literacy and ESL
- English as a Second Language
- Children's ESL
- Adult ESL
- Languages other than English
- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Languages
- Language and Literacy Services
- Language and Literacy Research and Awareness
- Language and Literacy Advisory Bodies
- Financial Program Summary

Summary of the policy

The policy places a stronger emphasis on English for all, but maintains the four main language areas as promulgated in the 1987 policy: English for all, a second language for all, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander language maintenance and development, and the provision of language services. The policy outlines specific programs and funding arrangements under each of the four areas for the years 1991-1994. It also establishes the Australian Language and Literacy Council and provides funding for this body.

Narrative structure

The narrative format this policy document follows is similar to the 1987 policy, where the narrative format is one of a contractual function within a sphere of agents working on objects. The narrative develops through the accomplishment of a task by a benevolent power. The benevolent power, or subject, is the Government, who through the accomplishment of consultation and resource allocation to others (the objects, as providers and recipients), solves a problem.

Agents

The development of agents in this policy used the same methods as the 1987 policy, with the same outcomes in terms of developing the categories of agents, with the same definitions as provided for the 1987 policy:

- Government
- Government advisory
- Advisory
- Recipients
- Providers
- General

Figure 4.2.3: Percentage of agents by category
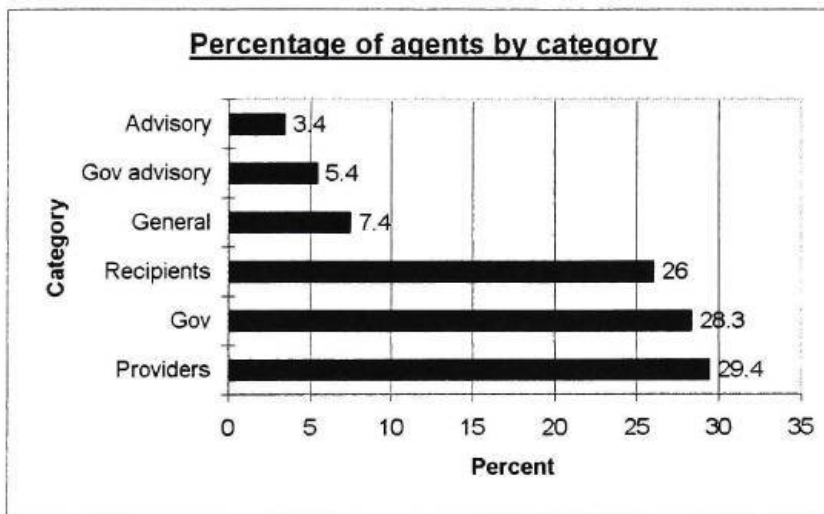
Agent category levels

This policy lends itself to the same levels of agent categories as the 1987 policy. Both are Commonwealth policies dealing with the same policy area. There is a substantial increase in the number of "Government" agents compared to the 1987 policy, 3.1% to 28.3%. It would appear that there is a stronger "government" input into this policy compared to the 1987 policy.

Like the 1987 policy, the six categories, with the same definitions are:

- Commonwealth
- States/territories
- Systems
- Non-government organisations (NGO)
- Individual
- Other

Figure 4.2.4: Percentage of levels of agents

Percentage of levels of agents

Level	Percent
NGOs	3.4
other	12.6
State/territory	13.1
Systems	15.1
Commonwealth	24.6
Individuals	31.1
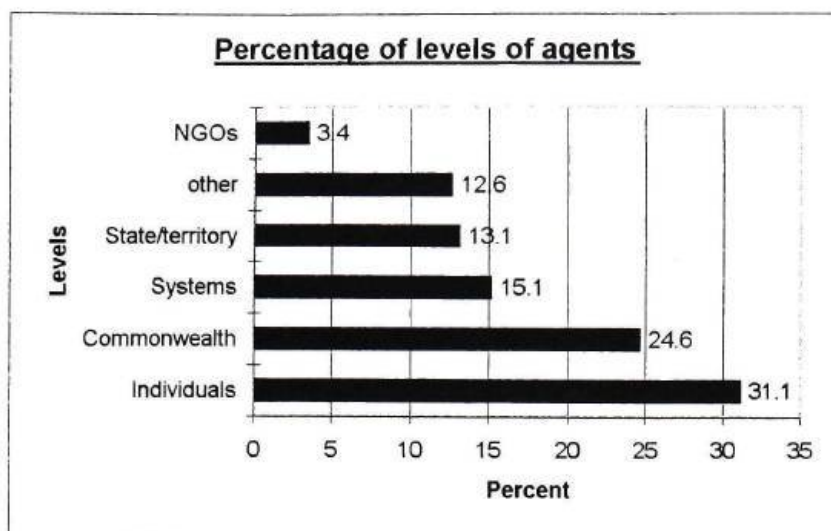
To further break down the agents, I then did a cross tabulation of agent by level for both policies. The following table indicate the results of this.

Table 4.2.2: Internal analysis of language policies, 1991: by categories of agents and levels

		Categories of agents						
		Gov.	Gov. Ad.	Advisory	Providers	Recipients	Other	Total
L	Commonwealth	64	16	3	4	0	0	87
e	Sate/terr.	35	2	1	15	0	0	53
v	Systems	0	0	0	44	0	0	44
e	NGOs	0	1	4	9	1	15	30
l	Individuals	0	0	4	30	86	8	128
s	Other	0	0	0	1	4	3	8
	Total	**99**	**19**	**12**	**103**	**91**	**26**	**350**

Comments

Reading across the table by row, the Commonwealth government can be seen as the major agent in this policy, with some national bodies seen as advisory to the government. States and Territory governments are also highlighted, with a slightly greater role in the provision of services. Reading the table down by column, the overall thrust of the policy document is aimed towards providers followed by governmental input.

Context of the policy

Toward the end of 1990 there was an initiative from the Commonwealth Government to review the national language policy, and the Government sought advice from a number of public servants and language professionals. The initial report of this initiative was called the "Green Paper", and was written by officers of DEET with active input from the Minister, The Hon. John Dawkins (Sussex, 1991). This discussion document was published widely and met with considerable alarm from the stakeholders in the 1987 policy. Two of the major changes suggested were a de-emphasis on multiculturalism and community language maintenance, and more on English literacy (Sussex, 1991, Clyne, 1991), leading to a "more monolingual Australia" (Sussex, 1991, p. 40). The number of written submissions to the Green Paper, (over 300), and the comments of persons attending various forums about it suggested that there was general community unrest over many aspects of the document, which were outlined in some detail in Sussex (1991), Clyne (1991), Moore (1991) and Ingram (1991). However, Sussex stated cogently that "Languages and literacy are now clearly issues, rather than merely education and curricular problems. And because of this language and literacy are susceptible to political use and misuse" (1991, p. 49).

Also raised in the critique of the Green Paper was the concern that the communication links between teachers and language professionals and the policy-makers and administrators were poor, and much needed to be done to ensure that mechanisms were put in place to enhance communication between workers and decision-makers (Sussex, 1991). But the most salient critique comes from Clyne (1991, p. 15), who states that the Green Paper: "...departed from the principles and the spirit of previous documents by deleting the guiding principle on the provision of services in languages other than English". Moore (1991) also raised concerns that the Green Paper indicated a stronger centralisation of control of language programs, tighter scrutiny by DEET, and a reduction of funding to external language agencies.

While the Commonwealth heeded a number of reservations raised in the comments on the Green Paper, the White paper which followed was in essence a similar document with similar content. Unlike the National Policy on Languages (Lo Bianco, 1987), the White Paper — *Australia's Language* — was promulgated with the language and ethnic stakeholders un-impressed. Ingram (1991) gives qualified support to it, but cautions that "...it is not so much

a language or a language education policy as partial guidelines on language education policy in Australia for the 1990s" (p. 4).

Authors also point out that the emphasis in relation to languages has changed to a position that has more emphasis on economic issues and less on multicultural aspects including community languages (Ingram, 1991, Clyne, 1991). Ingram (1991) also believed that the Commonwealth Government was backing away from the 1987 policy and in so doing was placing more responsibility on State and Territory Governments for language education policy.

There has been a greater emphasis placed on the teaching of Asian languages as recommended by the Rudd report (1994), and a development of the NALSAS program. More recently There has been more emphasis on English literacy and on learning a second language than on community language maintenance and development, and at least one writer discusses the concern that the language policy has been held captive by economic rationalism (Ingram, 1991).

4.2.4 Comparison of 1987 and 1991 policies

These two Commonwealth policies have set the language and literacy agenda for the nation up to the present time. There are differences between the two policies which reflect a change in perception and a change in implementation. Many of these differences were discussed by writers on policy as discussed, and the data from the internal analyses also provide evidence of these changes. Figure 4.2.5 and Table 4.2.3 indicate how the policies vary, using categories of agents.

Figure 4.2.5: Comparison of categories, 1987 & 1991 policies

Comparison of categories: 1987-1991 policies

Recipients: 26 (91 Pol %), 42.8 (87 Pol %)
Providers: 29.4 (91 Pol %), 31.5 (87 Pol %)
Government: 28.3 (91 Pol %), 3.1 (87 Pol %)
Gov. advisory: 5.4 (91 Pol %), 9.1 (87 Pol %)
General: 7.4 (91 Pol %), 12.4 (87 Pol %)
Advisory: 3.4 (91 Pol %), 1.1 (87 Pol %)
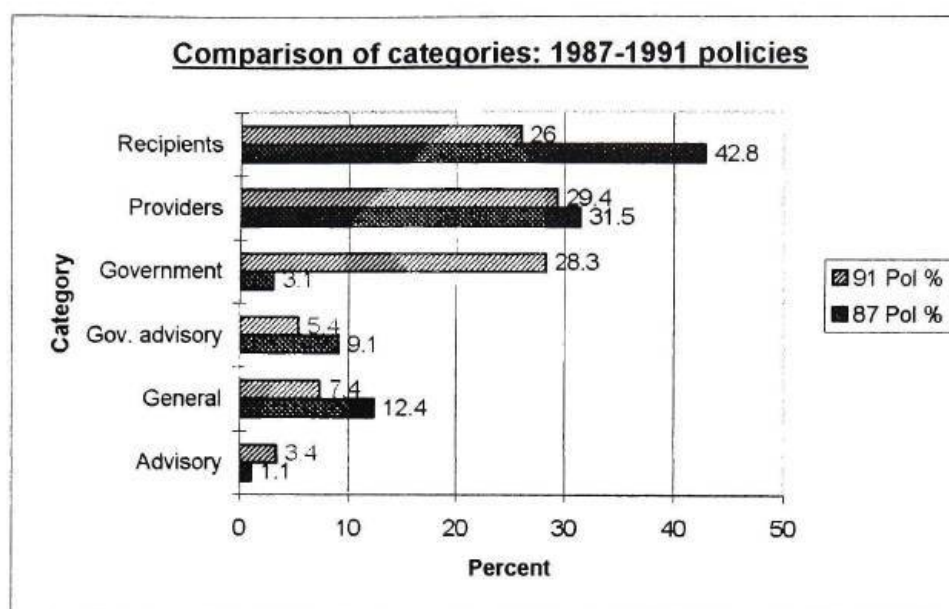
Table 4.2.3: Internal analysis of language policies, 1987 and 1991: by level of agent

Level	1987	Percent	1991	Percent
Commonwealth	163	13%	86	25%
State/territory	39	3%	46	13%
Systems	174	13%	52	15%
NGOs	114	10%	12	3%
Individuals	607	48%	109	31%
Other	163	13%	44	13%
Total	**1260**	**100%**	**349**	**100%**

Comments

The most significant difference between the two policies based on the categories in Figure 4.2.5 is that the 1991 policy is far more government oriented – one might say more centralist in approach, and has less emphasis on providers and ostensibly relies more heavily on advisory groups. The 1987 policy emphasised providers most, a full 40% of all mentions, with much less emphasis on a centralist approach. The 1987 policy also relied more on official government advisory bodies than does the 1991 policy. The 1991 policy is also more specific in its categories than the 1987 policy — less 'general'.

Commonwealth computer policies

Other than the NBEET (1996b) report, there has been no official policy or publication emanating from the Commonwealth in respect to language learning and computing, or in computing in schools in general. In a query to the responsible officers at DETYA, I received an email from the Languages and Civics Education Section (private email, 30/7/99) stating that there was no publication or policy relating to this topic in the department.

4.2.5 Queensland 1991 language-in-education policy

The key policy document for the teaching of LOTEs in Queensland State schools is the 1991 policy statement by the Hon. Mr Paul Braddy, MP, the then Minister for Education (EQ, 1991). The document itself is the text of a speech by the Minister. It subsequently attained the force of a policy, and was informed by the Ingram and John report (1990) in its ultimate drafting.

Summary of the policy

The policy document provides direction in the LOTE program for Queensland schools on the basis of six main principles: expansion of LOTE in the schools, continuity in learning language, quality in teaching and learning, diversity in methods and materials, balance among languages, and integration of languages teaching with cultural and other studies. These six principles are based on three reasons: the impact of language learning on the intellectual development of children, cultural development and expansion of awareness and economic interests, with specific mention of the relationship of Australia to Asian nations.

Agents

This document was scanned into computer-readable text, and then analysed for agents as outlined in Silverman (1993, pp. 76-78).

Narrative

The genre of this document is that of a political speech. But in many respects it resembles a policy document. In looking at the story line, the Minister (hero), through the medium of his department (the hero's helpers), will establish a far-reaching program of language education,

but not without difficulties which include lack of resources, different worldviews, community pressures, and the like. It follows a narrative structure similar to the Commonwealth policy documents.

Categories

Where possible I attempted to keep the categories as similar as possible to the Commonwealth policies and in the main this approach worked. Of interest, however, is that the Queensland policy mentioned specifically many international links which the national policies did not. As a result, a category of 'International' was included to represent mentions or links to other nations. However, where a foreign government provides some form of assistance, I have listed the actor as a 'Provider'. Figure 4.2.6 indicates the frequency of categories, and Table 4.2.4 provides a cross tabulation of categories by level.

Figure 4.2.6: Percentage of categories

Queensland policy: percent of categories
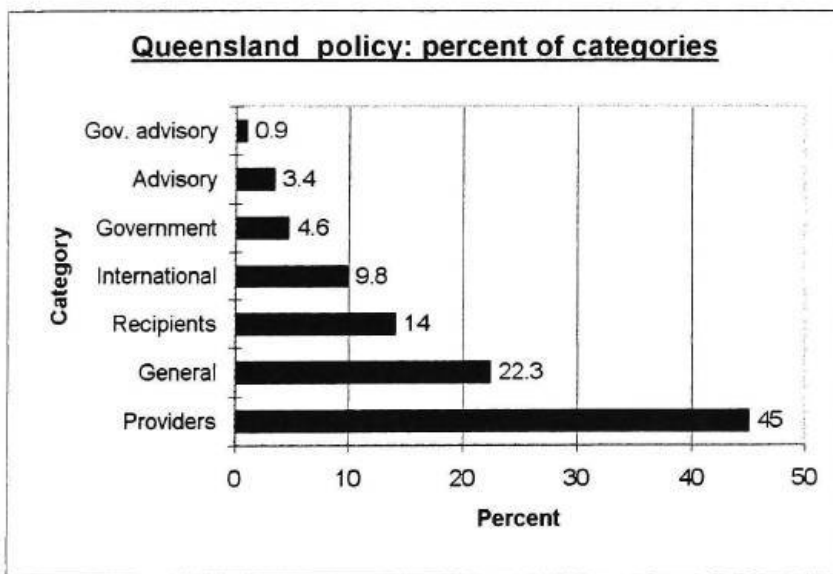
Table 4.2.4: Cross tabulation of categories by level: Qld LOTE policy

Level	Gov. Adv.	Gen.	Gov.	Providers	Advisory	Internat.	Recipients	Total
Individuals	0	2	0	64	6	0	44	116
System	0	1	0	71	0	0	1	73
State	0	25	14	2	0	0	1	42
Country	0	15	0	0	0	23	0	38
Community	0	17	0	3	5	4	0	29
Other	0	13	0	7	0	5	0	25
C'wealth	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	4
Total	3	73	15	147	11	32	46	327

Comments

The Queensland LOTE policy statement is much more a language-in-education policy than the national policies. From Figure 4.2.6, it is clear that the policy's emphasis is on the providers, a full 45% of all actors. Of interest in this policy document is the frequent mention of other countries and foreign governments, giving this policy a deeper international focus than either of the two national policies.

The policy document itself is based on a speech by the then Minister for Education, Mr Paul Braddy, but has maintained its status as the 'official' education policy for LOTE in Queensland up to the present time. Some changes have been made to the original document which were mentioned in the NBEET (1996a) report on language teachers.

The document was clearly informed by language-in-education experts, and follows a format as outlined in Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) and Baldauf (1997) which suggests that subsidiary policies of curriculum, personnel, materials, community and evaluation are required to successfully initiate any language-in-education policy. While these policies have been promulgated by the responsible government department, Education Queensland, their effect on schools is clearly shown in both the interview data and information from the questionnaire.

Table 4.2.4 indicates that the policy document represents the providers first as individuals and secondly as systems — teachers working in schools. Recipients are seen nearly exclusively as individuals, generally as students. What is interesting is that there are no State-based government advisory bodies; the Commonwealth is represented, but no State bodies, whereas

advice to the department and/or the Minister would appear to come from either individuals or community groups.

Context

The Queensland LOTE policy initiatives ran in tandem with the national efforts, and were based on the same overall concepts of multiculturalism (Djite, 1994). The Queensland Multicultural Coordinating Committee (QMCC) was set up in 1979 and in collaboration with the MLTAQ prepared a position paper on LOTE in context of using language learning as an "educational strategy for a multicultural society" (Djite, 1994, p. 34). The Australian Second Language Learning Program (ASLLP) was established under the aegis of the National Policy on Languages (Lo Bianco, 1987), which provided funds for the establishment of primary LOTE education in Queensland schools from 1991.

The ASLLP funds were split in half, with half going to State schools through the department, and the other half split between Catholic and independent schools. Through this funding, the primary LOTE program was started in Queensland, and new resources for LOTE teaching were produced (Djite, 1994).

After the Goss Labor government was elected in 1989, a major part of its education policy was the establishment of LOTE learning in Queensland primary schools. A report was commissioned (Ingram and John, 1990) which provided recommendations covering the whole spectrum of LOTE education in Queensland. The 1991 LOTE policy was a direct result of that report, although the content of the speech itself was prepared by Professor Nancy Viviani in collaboration with the Languages and Cultures Unit [eqint3, eqint4, ingram999].

It appears that Queensland — as with the Commonwealth and other States — developed a language-in-education policy related to national goals, but which was developed and implemented within the Queensland educational milieu. Langdon (1992) outlined in some detail what the Languages and Cultures Unit was doing in the implementation of LOTE policy in Queensland. It also reflected back on the earlier work done by Ingram and John (1990) and the long history of LOTE and multiculturalism in Queensland which led to the development of the Queensland LOTE policy.

In essence, while there were many participants in the lead-up to the development of the policy, the key actors were relatively few in number. And like the evolution of the national policies, Queensland took the path of direct central government control of the policy and its implementation through the establishment of LACU. Ingram [ingram999] stated that this was not the preferred option as outlined in the Ingram and Johns report; they recommended that a ministerial council or an advisory body with broad community and industry representation should have been the leading unit; however he concedes that LACU has done an excellent job in implementing the policy. The concern still remains, however, that once LACU was established, there was little in the way of input channels to the decision makers for any of the original groups and people who were instrumental in preparing the groundwork for the establishment of the LOTE policy.

Langdon (1992) also acknowledged that the imposition of compulsory foreign language teaching into schools at the same time there was a devolution of power to the regions and schools themselves, created some difficulties.

4.2.6 Education Queensland computer policies

The department has written and promulgated a series of computers-in-schools policies. The most recent is *Schooling 2001: Computers in Learning Policy* (EQ, 1995). Its major impact on teachers stems from the directive entitled *Minimum standards of learning technology competencies for teachers: Level one* (EQ, 1997) which states that all Queensland teachers employed by Education Queensland will have reached a minimum competency in the use of computers by the year 2000.

Computers in Learning Policy
This policy is the key document in the use of computers in Queensland State schools. This document replaces an earlier 1983 version of the Department's computer policy. It is linked directly to the Departments' Corporate Plan 1995-1999 (EQ, 1995), and is part of the Schooling 2001 program of the Department.[1] Because this document is an internal document of Education Queensland, the categories of agents could not be the same as other policy

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[1] Education Queensland's *Schooling 2001* program can be found on the Web at http://education.qld.gov.au/tal/2001/home.htm

documents. It addresses issues and problems directly within the Departments' ambit. The categories selected for this policy, and the ensuing Minimum Standards are:

- *Department* means Education Queensland (EQ) central office
- *General* means non specific agents not otherwise included
- *Government* means Queensland government departments not EQ
- *Providers* are teachers, in this policy
- *Recipients* are school students
- *School exec* means a school's administrative/executive cadre

Summary of the policy

The policy provides principles and directions in the use of computers in schools, with specific mandates for schools and teachers to ensure that the equipment and skilled staff are available to provide students opportunities to learn the necessary computing skills required in the workplace. The policy also mandates the inclusion of computers into the curriculum. Other principles are the development of continuity of learning, empowerment, equitable access and participation, the provision of a supportive environment, teacher education and resource management.

Narrative

The narrative structure of this document is that of a bureaucratic directive. Education Queensland (the directors) have mandated that state schools and the employees within them (the providers) will undertake activities to update their schools with modern computer technology. Figure 4.2.7 indicates the number and percentage of agents by category.

Figure 4.2.7: EQ computer policy percentage of agents by category
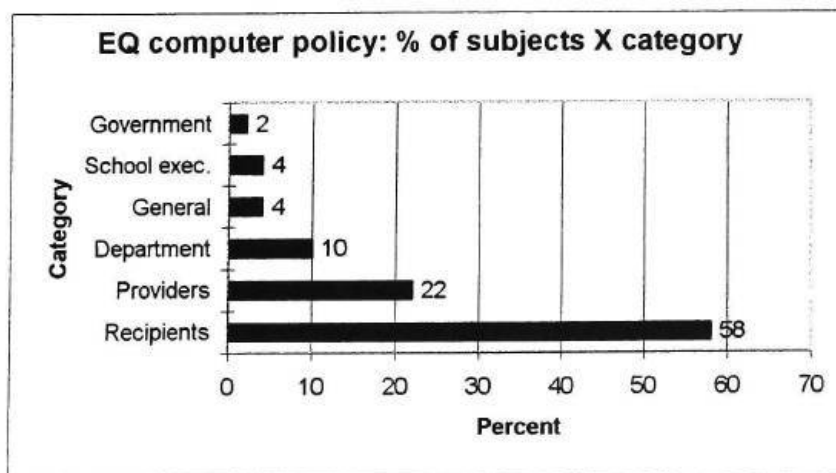
Comments

While the policy is explicitly about using computers in learning in State schools, the highest category is 'recipient' at 58% — students, followed by the 'provider' category at 22% — teachers. In terms of the agent structure of the policy it appears to follow similar patterns to the other three policy documents analysed in this study: the few dictating to and resourcing the many.

4.2.7 Summary

The investigation of the policy documents in this section shows that first, there was a significant change in Commonwealth government strategies between the 1987 and the 1991 policies. In comparison to the 1987 policy, the 1991 policy showed an extremely large growth in direct government control. There was also greater emphasis on the recipients and much less on advisory structures. In short, the 1991 policy indicated a much stronger direction to more bureaucratic, central control. Second, the Queensland policy provided a greater emphasis on the providers, and provided little in the way of advisory mechanisms to the department in regard to implementation of the policy. Recipients of the Queensland policy had much less emphasis than either of the national policies. The EQ computer policy is an internal departmental policy, and its emphasis was principally on recipients, as a goal of the policy.

In general, these policy documents can be seen as a reflection on the power structure of the organisation(s) which are issuing the policy documents. In other words, policies do not emanate 'from the ground up', but quite the opposite. Policies state what should happen, why it should happen, and who should make it happen. The findings of this section indicate that governments are firmly in control of the language, language-in-education, and computer-in-education arenas, and while they have provided considerable financial resources to implement these policies, they do not implement them on a day to day basis. That is the purview of the teachers. More will be said on the impact of these policy documents on teachers and schools in Chapter Five.

4.3 Findings from teacher interviews

4.3.1 Processes and structure

A total of 27 language teachers were interviewed from 13 different schools, all of which were located in the eight education districts which make up the greater Brisbane area. Details of how the interviews were conducted, transcribed and analysed may be found in Chapter 3, Sections 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5. A set series of questions was asked of each teacher and additional questions followed on from these depending on the response of the teacher to each question. The basic questions may be found in Appendix B.

A number of thematic areas were detected which are the basis for the findings reported here. Each of the themes will be discussed separately in this section. The results in this section are reported in tables with three columns. The first column is a statement of the issues raised relating to the theme, and come from the codes used in the analysis of the transcripts. The second column contains the frequency of mention with which the particular issue was discussed in the interviews. The third column shows percentages of the frequency of mention.

4.3.2 Communication and networks

The first theme of communication and networks is pervasive throughout all the interviews, but arises principally in response to the questions:

- How do you communicate with your principal and head of department?
- Who do you relate most to in your school?
- Who do you relate to most in your profession?
- Are you a member of any professional organisation?

Communicating with the school hierarchy

An aspect of the communication and networking theme is that of teachers communicating with their school hierarchy. Teachers mostly communicate with their school hierarchy on an informal basis, issue by issue. They generally approach their head of department first, and then go to the principal or one of the deputies if necessary. There are formal meetings of department heads with the principal, and in some instances there are departmental meetings, which are frequently information sharing sessions. In several cases, the teachers found

communicating with the head of department or the principal difficult, and in one instance all issues had to be brought to the appropriate school committee.

Overall, the pattern of communication between teachers and the head and principal is of an informal nature, but there are formal meetings of departments and committees which can generate financial recommendations and decisions, and set various school policies. However, most of the discussion and communication among school staff is of an informal nature.

Who teachers relate to most

The responses to two questions are combined here:
- Who do you relate most to in your school, and
- Who do you relate most to in your profession as a language teacher?

Table 4.3.1 indicates the people who teachers relate most to, both in their schools, and in their profession as a language teacher.

Table 4.3.1: Who teachers relate most to professionally and in their schools (n=27)

Relationship	Frequency of mention	Percent
Other LOTE teachers in the school	35	27%
Other staff in the school	29	23%
Informal teachers' networks	20	15%
Fellow teachers in the staff room	19	14%
Other LOTE teachers not in the school	17	13%
Students in the school	6	5%
Other people out of the school	3	3%
Total mentions	**129**	**100%**

Teachers relate most to their language teaching colleagues in the school where there is more than one language teacher, followed by other teachers in the school. Much of this communication takes place in the teachers' staff rooms, which is the major meeting place for most teachers. Some teachers stated they related most to the students, but qualified that by stating that they had good working relationships with their teaching colleagues in the staff room.

In terms of networks outside the school, teachers most often use their informal networks with past colleagues, mentors, and other language teachers. There are more formal networks

through special interest groups of professional organisations like the MLTAQ, but mostly teachers relate informally. Sections 5.2.5 and 5.4 in the following chapter discuss teacher networks more fully.

Teachers and professional associations

The communication and networks theme includes teachers' memberships in professional associations. Teachers were asked which professional associations they belonged to. Table 4.3.2 indicates the responses from the teachers.

Table 4.3.2: **Membership of professional associations** (n=27)

Association	Frequency of mention	Percent
Member of the MLTAQ (includes school membership)	15	47%
Does not belong to any professional association	5	16%
Member of the Goethe Institute	3	10%
Member of the Chinese Language Teachers Association	2	6%
Member of other professional associations	2	6%
Member of the Queensland Teachers Union	2	6%
Member of Alliance Francaise	1	3%
Active in the AFMLTA	1	3%
Member of the Dante Alighieri Society	1	3%
Total mentions	**32**	**100%**

Fifteen teachers stated they were members of the MLTAQ, with two of them stating that the school has an organisational membership but they did not personally have one. Five teachers belonged to no professional organisation. Two Institute Society. Other organisations teachers belonged to were the History Teachers Association and the Association of Certified Public Accountants.

Of the five teachers who did not belong to any association, several stated that they had been members of the MLTAQ but for one reason or another had not renewed. Two teachers had declined to join the MLTAQ.

This concludes the part on communication and networks. The next part presents findings on teachers' awareness of policies.

4.3.3 Teachers' awareness of policies

Another major theme is teachers' awareness of policies. Four questions about policies were asked:

- What do you know about language and computer policies of the Department?
- What do you know about language policies of the Commonwealth?
- Who tells you about policies?
- If you have concerns about a policy, or how it's being implemented, who do you talk to?

Teachers were much more aware of Queensland language and computer policies than they were of Commonwealth language policies, but even the Queensland policies were discussed mostly in general terms. The most frequently discussed documents were those relating to the forthcoming junior LOTE syllabus, with a number of teachers having had input into the development, or trialing of, sections of the new syllabus. Also mentioned specifically were policies relating to communicative language teaching, Schooling 2001, LOTE policy, minimum standards in computing policy and the senior syllabus in various languages. Eight teachers (29%) knew nothing of policies at all, and fifteen were vague about details.

The following quotes illustrate teachers' understanding of Queensland policies.

> Oh [pause] language policies of the department, I think I know most of what there is to know, because we've been a trial school for the new , um, outcomes in LOTE, um, a trial pilot school, and uh, I think I'm fairly familiar with the department's thinking on language policies [tint11]

> I know very little. I know that technology, that LOTE is a key learning area, and technology is to be incorporated in all the key learning areas. And that's as much as I know. I know that. I also know that teachers ah, are required to have minimum standards of proficiency hopefully by the end of term 3 this year. But I think they're expecting something like fifty percent of staff at schools will have a minimum standards proficiency. But um, yeah, that's about it as far as I know. I don't know very much at all. Is there a policy, a document out at the moment? [tint111]

> When it comes to policies, um, I did, I knew we were going to talk about this, I did attempt to look up the policies on the EQ website, but I didn't find – a particular one, so um, I don't do a lot of, no, I don't know that much I must admit on the policies. All I know is when it comes to the LOTE agents is that a certain number of hours is compulsory from grade six to grade eight. And they are wanting to expand that. And currently in grade eight they have to do at least um, I think it's three periods of 35

minute lessons per week, which is obviously what we do here at the school. I haven't really researched the policies all that much [tint210]

In general it appears that teachers' knowledge of language and computer policies relates to their perceptions of what they need to know to do their work. Thus, syllabus documents feature most strongly, but not in any particular detail. Other policies such as the minimum standards in computing policy are known because each teacher has to meet the basic competency standards set out in the policy.

So when it comes to policies from further afield such as Commonwealth policies, teachers' understanding and knowledge of them is much less coherent. Eighteen teachers stated they had no knowledge at all of Commonwealth policies relating to languages, and nine had some awareness of specific programs which emanated from Commonwealth language policies. Specifically mentioned programs were the ALL project, ASLLP, PLE, National Curriculum Guidelines, and that there were a number of priority languages which each State had to select from to teach. However, these programs were mentioned by one or two teachers. The majority of those interviewed either had very vague notions of Commonwealth policies as such, or knew nothing at all of Commonwealth policies.

The following quotes illustrate teachers' awareness of Commonwealth policies:

> Well, that ah, [pause] there are the priority languages, um, I didn't mention those in the previous one, but Queensland has ah, supposedly – I say that very clearly – supposedly six priority languages. At the federal level, they're interested in funding up to I think it's eight or nine priority languages [tint35]

> Well, I'm aware of the ASLLP whatever, um, language guidelines, and I'm aware of, a thrust, for bringing LOTE into primary schools, essentially I think it's nation-wide, from about year 4 upwards. Hmmm.. Uh, And I'm aware of Stephen Fitzgerald and the origins of all of that thrust for LOTE learning etc [tint11]

> No. Only that it's one of the key learning areas [tint28]

> I think what I know is probably stuff that's been around for a little while, um, in terms of the Commonwealth wanted us, wanted languages to form part of compulsory education, and that is still happening, but, we're a bit on tenterhooks with the change of government, and we never quite know how stable languages are [tint13]

How teachers find out about policies

Teachers were asked how they learned about policies. Table 4.3.3 indicates how they do this.

Table 4.3.3: **How teachers find out about policies** (n=27)

How teachers find out about policies	Frequency of mention	Percent
Through the school	28	35%
By publications	18	22%
Through a professional organisation	11	13%
Through Education Qld	10	12%
Through other media	3	4%
Through a professional network	3	4%
Through current studies	3	4%
Through the Internet	2	3%
Through professional development	2	3%
Total mentions	**80**	**100%**

The most common way teachers find out about policies is through their school, generally from the head of department or the principal, often communicated through staff meetings. A number of teachers, however, gave conditional responses like:

> I'm thinking that the uni should have told us, but then again, the school should tell us. Or one of those LOTE seminars we go to. They should tell us [tint213]

> If you have a head of department who knows what's happening, and passes it on to you, then you're fortunate when they do. Um, sometimes, depending on if the principal's aware of the policies, but unless you have that flow of information, you don't find out. So um, yeah, unless, unless you have a principal or a head who's aware of what's going on, and passes the information on to you, you don't. Or we read it in the newspaper [tint28]

Many teachers stated that they got information on policies through publications, which come from different organisations. Some specifically mentioned were:

- LACU and the LOTE Centre newsletters
- MLTAQ
- Language journals, e.g. *Babel*
- Teacher education papers
- Newspapers
- Syllabus documents

The professional organisation mentioned by teachers is the MLTAQ which provides some information on policy developments.

Education Queensland, through LACU and the LOTE Centre provides information on policies through its publications and through officers such as language advisors and visits by senior officers of LACU.

Policy information is also obtained through seminars and meetings. One concern that arose here is the demise of the regional LOTE advisors, who provided a mainstay for disseminating information. One teacher stated:

> This is once again through the education advisor role. Um, we would have meetings where we discuss um, Commonwealth policies, and how they translated into State policies, therefore we were doing it for our region. Um, so through that role we – but in a school context, I, there's no opportunity unless you seek out the research, you research it yourself. You don't actually – nobody sits you down and makes you do it, or – no, you wouldn't get it, well, from my experience. You wouldn't get it from a school context [tint18]

A number of teachers mentioned their informal professional networks as their main source of policy information.

> I guess teacher networks now, that we've set up ourselves, but in the days when we had a regional LOTE coordinator he was certainly the facilitator and the mentor of all those processes [tint11]

Three teachers stated they got their policy information from their studies at university. Two mentioned that they could find the information on the Internet. One expressed concern that the LOTE Centre and LACU no longer publish their newsletters; they put the information on the Internet, but this creates difficulties for those teachers who do not have Internet access. Two teachers mentioned that they could find out through professional development seminars, but this method may not always be available, or may not offer the information. One head of department stated:

> Um, well, there's professional development available. That always seems to be after school. And although the teachers have too many family commitments and so on to be able to attend those sorts of things. So I find out what I can as head of department. I take it to staff, and I print up information sheets of them. And they ask further questions as needed [tint17]

From the teachers' responses in regard to finding out about policy matters, there appears to be no clear method of dissemination.

Who teachers talk to about policy concerns

Teachers were asked who they talked to about their policy concerns. Table 4.3.4 indicates their responses.

Table 4.3.4: Who teachers talk to about their policy concerns

Who teachers talk to	Frequency of mention	Percent
Officers of Education Queensland	17	25%
Other language professionals	16	24%
Head of department or principal	16	24%
Other members of staff in the school	8	11%
Fear of making an issue of a concern	4	6%
Other concerns	3	4%
Using the Internet to voice concerns	2	3%
Taking concerns to professional organisation	2	3%
Total mentions	**68**	**100%**

Teachers stated that they talk most frequently to officers of Education Queensland about their policy concerns. Principally, teachers discusses these issues with LOTE advisors at the LOTE Centre, or officers of LACU. Two mentioned taking their issues further to senior levels of Education Queensland.

Teachers also take their policy concerns to other LOTE professionals, generally colleagues who they admire and trust, or who have been mentors in the past. The LOTE advisors at the LOTE Centre are mentioned in this context as well.

Teachers also discuss policy concerns in their schools with their colleagues, then their heads of department, then the principal or a deputy principal. But there is some ambivalence in raising policy issues. So in some cases, teachers talk out the issues with other staff members. In some cases they take their concerns no further. There is some skepticism about having input into policy. Two quotes highlight this:

> But it seems to be that they don't really listen. They've just got a path, and an agenda, and teachers' opinions don't matter that much [tint18]

But you do develop kind of a, kind of a skepticism to the point that it makes you laugh sometimes. It's what we call the Emperor's new clothes policy. You know, we think, oh yeah, this is the way now, and five year's time we'll be singing a different party song [tint23]

Another issue that is tied into the these concerns is that of fear of raising issues:

I wouldn't, because we rank and file teachers have a healthy fear of um, raising your hand? And we have a fear about, you know, drawing attention to ourselves [tint23]

One other school I came to from the country I spoke to the deputy principal about some ideas I had. I was told that I was a young upstart, how dare I, and was told to be quiet [tint18]

Teachers also discuss their concerns in their informal professional networks and through their professional organisations such as the MLTAQ.

A number of teachers gave conditional replies such as "I would go" [tint110], or "If I had a concern" [tint13]. One teacher said: "I think I would usually go to someone like teachers I respect" [tint11]. Another said: "I would talk to initially the head of department" [tint211].

This concludes this part on teachers' knowledge and awareness of policies. The next part presents findings on teachers' use and knowledge of computers.

4.3.4 Teachers' use and knowledge of computers

This part of the chapter presents responses from teachers about their use and awareness of computers. There were a number of themes which emanated from the interviews in response to the questions:

- Do you use a computer in your work? How do you use it?
- Are you aware of computer-assisted language learning (CALL)?
- What problems do you have in using computers in the school setting?
- Who do you talk to about them?

The themes are :

- What the computer is used for
- Environmental issues in using computers in the school
- Technical issues
- Specific programs mentioned
- What students do on computers
- Understanding of CALL
- Passing on concerns

Of the 27 teachers who were interviewed, 25 stated they used computers in some capacity or other and two did not use them. Eight mentioned that they used computers at home and 17 mentioned using computers at work. The seven themes will now be considered in turn.

What the computer is used for

Teachers stated they use computers in a number of ways, but principally to develop activities for students. Table 4.3.5 indicates the activities and the frequency mentioned.

Table 4.3.5: Activities undertaken by teachers using computers (n=27)

Activity	Frequency of mention	Percent
Lesson preparation, activity sheets, etc.	17	44%
Assessment: exam preparation etc.	10	25%
Administration	9	23%
Overseas communication	3	8%
Total mentions	39	100%

Teachers use computers extensively for lesson preparation, activity sheets, exam preparation and similar work. A lot of school administration is also being done via computer. School timetables, the use of intranet email, and reporting is more frequently being done by computer. Overseas communication via email was also mentioned.

A number of teachers also reported that they use computers for teaching purposes with students, notwithstanding numerous difficulties. Table 4.3.6 indicates the types of activities used in the language classroom by students.

Table 4.3.6: Activities undertaken by students using computers (n=27)

Activity	Frequency of mention	Percent
Key-pal projects	8	33%
Pair work on computers	4	17%
Using computer as a reward	4	17%
Drills & repetition work	4	17%
Consolidation work	1	4%
Extension work	1	4%
Groupwork	1	4%
Self-access for students	1	4%
Total mentions	**24**	**100%**

The activity most mentioned was a key-pal project, where students email peers in the target language, similar to a traditional pen-pal project. In mentioning these, however, teachers expressed concerns about the difficulties of setting up the project and keeping it going. One teacher stated that the students wanted to do a key-pal project, but that it had not yet begun.

Other activities related to students' work on computers in more traditional CALL, e.g., drills, consolidation work and extension work.

The use of the Internet was reported frequently. Teachers mentioned using the Internet for teaching purposes, and this incorporates a number of different activities. Table 4.3.7 indicates the number of times various activities were raised in the interviews.

Table 4.3.7: Internet activities used by teachers (n=27)

Internet activity	Frequency of mention	Percent
Obtaining information from the Internet	8	32%
Accessing foreign language Web sites	6	24%
Evaluating Internet sites	3	12%
Using the Internet for research	3	12%
Developing a class web site	3	12%
Using the Internet for networking	1	4%
Using the Internet for getting resources	1	4%
Total mentions	**25**	**100%**

Teachers appear to use the Internet chiefly for obtaining information and accessing their teaching language to get examples of real language. Some teachers stated that they were working on developing a web site with their class.

Environmental issues in using computers in the school

Teachers reported that there are numerous difficulties in using computers in the school, both for themselves and more particularly in the classroom for teaching purposes. Many of these issues might be considered environmental, because they are affected by events outside the classroom, and outside the teachers' control. Table 4.3.8 details the environmental concerns teachers raised in the course of the interviews.

Table 4.3.8: **Environmental concerns in using computers in the school** (n=27)

Problem	Frequency of mention	Percent
Access to computers	61	29%
Lack of funding	30	14%
Insufficient number of computers	28	13%
Location of computers in the school	14	8%
Need for better programs	14	8%
Costly site licenses	12	5%
Low status of LOTE in the school	11	5%
Time consuming to set up computers for class	10	5%
Managing a class in the computer area	9	4%
Computers are dated	8	3%
Need to evaluate software program	5	2%
Student discipline in the computer area	4	2%
No oral component in computers and programs	1	0.5%
Programs are dated or poor	1	0.5%
Computers were stolen	1	0.5%
Location of Internet access computers	1	0.5%
Total mentions	**210**	**100%**

The issue most frequently mentioned by far by teachers was the lack of access to computers in the school. This ranged from a simple lack of enough computers, to timetabling conflicts, and to some extent the difficulty of language teachers to get the resources they required. The following quotes illustrate this point:

> Not enough. Not enough, that's number one. We've got two brilliant computer rooms down in the other blocks, but not for language of course. They're for the whole school. But of course they're booked out every single period with computer classes [tint213]

First of all, having access to them, because although the school has computers, they are in a computer room. And when I've got my classes there's a computer class up there that has first priority to use the room. Consequently my class, language teaching, doesn't have access to the computers. Um, secondly, um, I try out the computers, and they work, then I walk into the classroom with my whole class, and something doesn't work, and I haven't got the expertise or the knowledge to be able to tackle a problem if something, something freezes, or something doesn't print, or networking somewhere doesn't work, or something like that [tint21]

The top four issues: access, funding, quantity and location of computers were mentioned in some way or other by all the teachers interviewed. A second range of issues related to the ability to obtain appropriate CALL software. The programs currently in use were frequently dated and of poor quality. New site licenses were reported to be far too expensive for the budgets of the language departments.

To summarise the environmental issues of using computers in a school, one teacher stated:

If I wanted to use the classroom for class, now I have up to thirty children in one of my classes, I've got to find a room that has thirty computers. And I would — for me personally for Chinese, I would like a program that I could set up on one computer, and it would run through all the computers, but it doesn't have to be Internet. It could be something like a CD-ROM with say, practice of writing characters, on the screen with a special brush, and I would like them all to be able to do it at the same time. So that one's not that far ahead. But I don't think we've got that actually set up. And I don't believe many schools do, yet. Um, that's basically it. It's finding a room big enough to take the kids. I believe we have got them, but we haven't got the facilities that I would like. I don't think there's, you have to, if you want to go onto the Internet with them, especially with thirty students who haven't done it before, that's a lot of work. And I'm happy to do that, but to get it into Chinese language we need to put in other programs which I don't think we have again [tint110]

Technical problems in using computers in school

Other problems revolve around technical issues, relating to the maintenance and upkeep of the computers which are available for teaching purposes. Table 4.3.9 indicates the issues raised and the frequency they appeared in the interviews.

Table 4.3.9: Technical problems in using computers in the school (n=27)

Technical problem	Frequency of mention	Percent
Problems with the network	15	32%
Problems with peripherals	9	18%
Technical problems not specified	8	16%
Maintenance of computers	6	12%
Technical support	6	12%
Internet too busy to use	3	6%
Teachers' lack of technical skill to fix computer faults during class	1	2%
Inappropriate sites on the Internet	1	2%
Total mentions	**49**	**100%**

Teachers report that once access to computers is gained for classroom teaching, there are further problems to contend with. One of the major issues raised related to problems in using the Internet, with gaining access to the Internet or the Intranet, the network falling over during a class period. Another issue was the need to evaluate Web sites before they could be used in class. A second issue was the difficulties relating to the use of peripherals: most specifically headsets and printers. For language programs, headsets are often required and are relatively fragile.

Specific programs mentioned

Throughout the interviews, teachers discussed programs they used, frequently mentioning specific computer programs. Some teachers also discussed specific programs they wanted to use if they obtained funding. Table 4.3.10 indicates the number of teachers who mentioned specific programs.

Table 4.3.10: Computer programs mentioned by teachers (n=27)

Program	Number of teachers mentioning the program
Word processing, *PowerPoint*, etc	24
The Language Market	7
Kanji Word	4
Twinbridge	3
Kanakun	2
Triple Play Plus	2
Hypercard	2
Nihongo	2
Power Japanese	1
1998 World Book	1
Chinese Partner	1
Cloze Wizard	1
Fairlight Japanese	1
Japanese Master	1
Language Fun	1
Where is Oskar Lake?	1
Wok Pro	1
Word Games	1
WebWhacker	1
Let's Talk	1
Bahasa Indonesia	1
Total mentions	**59**

Teachers still mostly use basic programs such as word processors for much of their work. One teacher mentioned using Power Point for some lessons. The program from the LOTE Centre produced by GoPrint in Brisbane: *The Language Market*, is the most popular CALL program currently in use. Teachers mentioned using a variety of CD-ROM-based programs without mentioning the titles. Most of the programs mentioned by name are for the teaching of ideographic language such as Japanese and Chinese.

Teachers' understanding of CALL

When teachers were asked what they knew about computer-assisted language learning (CALL), they expressed vagueness over the term although many of them were in fact using CALL in their teaching. Table 4.3.11 indicates teachers' awareness of CALL. The following quotes illustrate this point:

Table 4.3.11: Teachers' awareness of CALL (n=27)

Awareness	Frequency	Percent
Partly aware of CALL	17	63%
Not aware of CALL	6	22%
Aware of CALL	4	15%
Total	27	100%

Well, to the point of using interactive CD-ROMs, yeah. I haven't seen anything else. But except for those interactive ROMs that we use, I haven't seen any other [tint113]

What I think it is when basically we teach a whole class with the computer being made the main focus in a language class which I think is a wonderful idea. Practically it doesn't work, but theoretically it's beautiful [tint213]

From UQ I remember it was covered, or outlined in some reasonably superficial detail, as I recall from doing a Dip. Ed. at UQ. I think I probably got a handout about it whilst I was there. I myself went down to the computer section of the undergrad library as it then was then looked at what there was. I did play around with it. I wasn't sure what was there. But of course not having the gear at school it's rather academic talking about computer aided – what do you call it? Computer assisted language learning? [tint19]

I am aware of CALL as ah, in its name. Um, I have seen ah [pause] a product that was produced by the teachers of Italian at Griffith University [tint35]

Opinions of teachers in using computers

Throughout the interviews teachers expressed a variety of attitudes towards the use of computers. Table 4.3.12 indicates their attitudes and comments towards the use of computers in schools.

Table 4.3.12: Opinions of teachers on the use of computers in schools (n=27)

Opinions expressed	Frequency of mention	Percent
Computers are motivating for students	12	24%
Teacher has personal problems with computers	6	12%
Teachers are frustrated in using computers	4	8%
Using computers provides other skills	4	8%
Teachers need more training	3	6%
Values of teachers limit use of computers	3	6%
There are limitations on what computers can do	3	6%
Teacher is fairly comfortable using computers	2	4%
Teacher is not comfortable using computers	2	4%
Teacher would like training in integrating computer work in their lessons	2	4%
Teacher is uncomfortable using computers	2	4%
Computers give more methods to teaching languages	2	4%
Teacher is improving in using computers	1	2%
The interactivity potential of computers	1	2%
The multimedia facilities of modern computers	1	2%
Use of computers helps redress gender imbalance in language classes	1	2%
Students can access real language	1	2%
Total mentions	**50**	**100%**

Teachers most frequently stated that computers are a motivating force for students and they believe that using computers will assist in retaining students past the compulsory years of language learning. There are a series of concerns relating to computers however, which teachers also expressed, ranging from feeling very uncomfortable using computers, to being very frustrated when attempting to use them due to the difficulties as discussed. The personal problems teachers alluded to in their discussions covered such issues as a skepticism as to how computers could be used in the language classroom, and a reluctance to learn new skills in the limited time available. One teacher stated:

> I've done, tried to train myself on other aspects of computer literacy, but I'd say that would be a bit of a hindrance too. Yeah, time? I work most nights, weekends, and I guess, I guess it's the old story that um, you stick with what you know, because of the time frames that you've got, it becomes limited in what you can actually do [tint18]

Overall, teachers can see some very positive reasons for using computers. But at the same time they expressed some doubt and skepticism about changing to a computer-based teaching style. Their doubts arose because of a combination of environmental and technical problems and a lack of specific training in using computers for language teaching.

Who teachers talk to about computer problems

Using computers in schools presents a myriad of problems for teachers as indicated in Table 4.3.13. When asked who teachers talk to about these problems, they gave a number of responses.

Table 4.3.13: Who teachers talk to about computer problems (n=27)

Who teacher talk to	Frequency of mention	Percent
Talks to IT staff in the school	20	30%
Talks to the appropriate school committee	16	24%
Talks to HOD about computer problems	11	17%
Tells other people about computer problems	7	11%
Talks to colleagues about computer problems	4	6%
Talks to the principal about computer issues	4	6%
Talks to admin. staff about computer issues	3	5%
Talks to other school staff	1	1%
Total mentions	**66**	**100%**

Most schools appear to have either computer technicians or teachers who take on the role of computer technician, and it is to these people that teachers go to generally in the first instance. Where the teachers have colleagues who have some knowledge of computers they will approach them first. Frequently the teachers will approach their head of department with problems, particularly if the head is more competent in the computer area than they are. Some quotes to illustrate this point:

> I talk to my head of department who is pretty computer literate, much more so than I am [tint211]

> There's a computer section, where the guys will come in and help fix whatever [tint110]

> My first port of call would probably be one of my fellow staff members, in my staff room, who's an IT teacher, so he's pretty clued out, then I would probably go to the IT HOD, who probably gets questions from everyone [tint210]

> I guess initially ah, the head of department. Um, maybe to the person who's in charge of technology, if it's a technical thing. The person who's in charge of technology is [name of person] I guess we're lucky in one respect. Our head of department also happens to be head of the department of computing [tint410]

However, on a broader scale, many teachers regarded the question as one of getting better access to computers, or acquiring more computer hardware and software. In this area many teachers stated that they went to the school's IT or computer committees and found it difficult to get positive decisions from these committees. A number of teachers believed that these difficulties relate to language teaching in the school being seen as a low priority area which makes getting requested resources difficult. As an illustration of the issues involved, one teacher stated:

> Well, I mean in the end all these things come down to money. I'm actually on the learning technology committee at this school, so I sort of like to be there to protect the interests of LOTE. Um, but, it's more the wider picture : getting the whole school on-line and getting everyone in the school to have better access to computers. And as LOTE, especially in senior years, have pretty limited numbers, we don't really have a great power base to say, well we've got lots of students and we want to get in the Internet. That's just not happening [tint45]

Teachers will also approach their heads of department and in some instances the principal to discuss issues relating to gaining improved access, more programs or hardware, and issues relating to the upkeep of current computer facilities. This concludes the part on teachers' use and knowledge of computers. The next part will present findings on training.

4.3.5 Training

Although no specific questions were asked of teachers regarding their training in the use of computers, the issue was raised consistently throughout the interviews. Table 4.3.14 indicates the concerns about training raised in the interviews.

Table 4.3.14: Teachers' concerns over training in the use of computers (n=27)

Training concerns	Frequency of mention	Percent
Computer training run by school staff	5	17%
There is a lack of staff training	5	17%
Universities and TAFEs should provide teaching strategies in integrating computers into teaching	3	10%
There is a lack of training for students	3	10%
Has some training in CALL	2	6%
Self-taught	2	6%
Universities and TAFEs should offer in-service courses in computing	2	6%
There should be special training for LOTE teachers in using computers	2	6%
Has some basic computer training	1	3%
Has some training in using the Internet	1	3%
Computer training not specified	1	3%
Has some training in specific programs	1	3%
All new teachers should be computer literate	1	3%
Computer training seen as very important	1	3%
There is no time for training	1	3%
Total mentions	31	99%*

*Error due to rounding

There were five mentions by teachers that their school ran some computer training courses, but there is a greater overall concern that there is not sufficient training for language teachers to become competent computer users, particularly in the classroom. There were five specific mentions that training was needed. There were eight mentions by teachers that they had received some training in computing. Teachers felt that universities and TAFE colleges could run some specific courses in computing, and particularly that pre-service courses must contain compulsory computing courses. Mentions were made about needing training in the use of LOTE programs, and the need for training in teaching strategies to integrate computing into the curriculum. Two teachers mentioned that details about policies should also be part of the inservice program in their schools.

The following quotes from teachers illustrate the points raised.

(when asked about CALL) Not really; not as much as I would like to be. It's because we have no in-service [tint211]

...because we have to have a certain set of competencies with computers by the year 2000, um, we're actually running weekly workshops at the moment. And depending if

it's something you're familiar with or not, you can apply for alternate workshops [tint28]

I think that teachers to be able to use computers because that's what we are, that's the main heading here, if we're ever going to be able to use computers in the classroom, not only do they have to actually have computers, a sufficient number of computers in the classroom, and not only do they have to learn how to use these computers I think they also have to learn how to integrate them into their teaching [tint21]

Teachers see a clear need for more training. They also see that new teachers should be computer proficient when they are placed in schools. Some teachers were concerned that universities were not doing enough to ensure that teachers, particularly language teachers, had the requisite computer skills to teach adequately, and to integrate computers into lesson plans and curricula. Some teachers, however, stated they were competent and enjoyed using computers, but also stressed that they often had to assist other staff members which took time. The pressures of time for training, as well as obtaining specialist training were also discussed. The next part will present findings about the pressures teachers have in their teaching.

4.3.6 What teachers see as main pressures

Teachers were asked: Of all the pressures on you, what do you consider to be the most important? Table 4.3.15 indicates the frequency with which various pressures were mentioned in the interviews.

Table 4.3.15: Main pressures on teachers (n=27)

Pressure	Frequency of mention	Percent
Motivating the students in language classes	14	17%
To teach well	13	16%
Student discipline	12	15%
Lesson preparation	7	9%
Concern of low numbers of students taking LOTE after compulsory years	6	7%
Lack of time to teach	6	7%
Multilevel classes	5	6%
Making lessons relevant to students	4	5%
Demoralising attitudes of community and school to LOTEs	4	5%
Administrivia	3	4%
External decisions which affect the school and the agents	1	1%
Assisting other staff to maintain levels of competency	1	1%
Maintaining one's language competence	1	1%
Lack of language teaching experience	1	1%
Marking	1	1%
Maintaining a professional attitude and leaving work at work	1	1%
Using technology	1	1%
Lack of personal time	1	1%
Total mentions	**82**	**99%***

* Error due to rounding

The pressure that was mentioned most by teachers is the need to continuously motivate the students in language classes, to perform well in the compulsory years, and to encourage students to continue language studies past year eight. One teacher stated:

> ...as I say, its been an ongoing thing for me in trying to work out how to keep the kids interested and enthusiastic and, and obviously it can't be done through force of personality although that obviously plays some part of it. But um, languages generally in Australia don't have that image. They're not seen to be essential or even necessary [tint45]

A second pressure stated by teachers was to teach well, to give a good lesson. Student discipline is also a big pressure, particularly in year eight, where many of the students do not want to study a language.

The motivational factor is also important to teachers, some of whom stated that they face the demoralising aspect of the low status of languages in the school and in the community, and the need to continuously recruit students to continue with language studies. Another issue raised is the difficulties in trying to teach multilevel classes, especially in year eight, where new

students coming from the primary schools may have taken a variety of different languages, or students recently coming to the high school from other areas. One teacher stated:

> I would say it is the multilevel teaching. When in grade eight you've got – you've just worked hard for three months and the students – twenty-eight students, say 25 students have done Jap in primary for three years. You've got two learning Chinese, two for Indonesian, and you've basically got the Chinese and Indonesians over their paranoia, and you've got them all going, and then boom! Two kids will come rocking in your classroom months later who've done Spanish. And you just look at them – that would have to be the ultimate – I still haven't worked out what to do [tint213]

Another pressure raised is the lack of time for teaching well, and the lack of personal time once the various extra curricular activities of staff training, lesson preparation, marking and meetings are taken into consideration. One teacher said:

> And I've only got six hours in the day, and it's wonderful that parents care enough to give me a call, but, 'can you give my kid an extra talking to or an extra lesson' and yeah, we have playground duty three times a week. You know, I've got other things happening, and the parents just don't understand it. And neither did I before I became a teacher, how busy we are, but if I could give every kid an extra ten minutes a day I'd love to, but just, with 300 we've got that's another four hours each. That's 120 kids in grade eight. Half of them are probably drowning as we speak [tint213]

4.3.7 Summary

Teachers' communication patterns and networks are principally informal. Only slightly more than half of the respondents indicated they were members of the MLTAQ, for example. This is not to say that they are not active in networking; however, it appears that informality in their networking is the most common approach to networking. While schools' formal networks do exist, it appears that they lack any consistency in how they work from school to school, and often the formal structures, such as committees and senior staff meetings (HODs), do not necessarily provide information to teachers.

The policies teachers are most familiar with are those which affect their daily work, specifically, syllabus documents, and to lesser extent, the computer competency policies. Generally teachers did not discuss any policy in detail with the exception of the draft junior syllabus documents into which many of them had provided input, or testing. Commonwealth policies were little known or referred to. Teachers also stated that they would voice their concerns over policy issues through their informal networks, and generally through their

school hierarchy; if that brought no satisfaction they would take it further to specific officers in Education Queensland, such as LACU, or advisors based at the LOTE Centre.

Most teachers use computers, but fewer use them in classroom teaching, principally because of a myriad of problems relating to funding, access and the number of computers available. A number of teachers stated they would like to do more with computers if they had the opportunity. Some teachers were well versed in using a variety of programs and applications, particularly the Internet and the Web. Some were sceptical over the use of computers for a number of reasons including the limitations of computers in language teaching and learning; the ability of the language department ever getting the required access or programs because of the perceived low status of languages in the school; and the difficulties of maintaining larger numbers of students in the non-compulsory years to continue their language studies.

Teachers see a clear need for more training. They also see that new teachers should be computer proficient when they are placed in schools. Some teachers were concerned that universities were not doing enough to ensure that teachers, particularly language teachers, had the requisite computer skills to teach adequately, and to integrate computers into lesson plans and curricula. Some teachers, however, stated they were competent and enjoyed using computers, but also stressed that they often had to assist other staff members which took time. The pressures of time for training, as well as obtaining specialist training were also discussed.

The most frequently mentioned pressures on teachers are motivational factors and pressures of time.

4.4 Findings from the questionnaire

4.4.1 Processes and structure

The questionnaire was sent to 504 language teachers in State high schools throughout Queensland. 115 valid responses were returned. Details of the administration of the questionnaire may be found in the Methodology chapter, Sections 3.5 and 3.6. Of the questionnaires sent out, 149 (29%) were returned as follows:

- 27 were returned as the teacher was no longer at the school
- 6 were returned unanswered as the teachers were no longer teaching LOTE or were not teaching in a high school
- 1 was not counted as it was based on a primary school
- 115 were valid responses.

Once the valid total is re-set to 470 the percentage of the 115 valid responses is 24.3%. The questionnaire may be found in Appendix C.

The mailing list used for sending the questionnaires out was based on mailing lists procured from Education Queensland and were on a language by language basis. Thus:

- 36 were sent to Chinese teachers, 8 received (22%)
- 124 were sent to French teachers 23 received (18.5%)
- 102 were sent to German teachers, 19 received (18.6%)
- 47 were sent to Indonesian teachers 10 received (21.3%)
- 34 were sent to Italian teachers 9 received (26.5%)
- 161 were sent to Japanese teachers 43 received (26.7%)
- Three other valid questionnaires were received which did not specify which language the respondents taught. The total responses amount to 115.

Structure of the section

The questionnaire also contained questions requiring an extended written answer from respondents. The analysis of these questions is included in the thematic areas of this section along with the responses from the quantitative questions.

In this section, the questions from the survey are clustered into themes which are:

4.4.2 Profile of schools (Questions 1.1 - 1.6)
4.4.3 Profile of teachers (respondents) (Questions 3.2.1 - 3.2.4)
4.4.4 Communication and networks (Questions 2.1.1, 2.1.6, 2.1.7)
4.4.5 Teachers' awareness of policies (Questions 2.2.1 - 2.2.14)
4.4.6 Teachers' use and knowledge of computers (Questions 1.7 - 1.11, 2.3, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.3, 3.1.1 - 3.1.4)
4.4.7 Training (Questions 2.1.2 - 2.1.5, 3.1.5)
4.4.8 Summary of the findings in the survey

4.4.2 Profile of the respondents' schools (Questions 1.1 - 1.6)

Where respondents' schools were located

Respondents were asked to indicate whether their school was in a regional, metropolitan or a country area. Table 4.4.1 indicates the location of respondents' schools.

Table 4.4.1: Location of respondents' schools (n=115)

Location	Number of schools	Percent
Regional	44	38%
Metropolitan	41	36%
Country	30	26%
Total	**115**	**100%**

Respondents came from across Queensland with regional centres and country areas well represented, reflecting the population spread of the state. Gold Coast City is considered a regional centre despite its proximity to Brisbane.

Languages taught in respondents' schools

Respondents were asked which languages were taught in their schools. Five of the six priority languages in Queensland are represented, with Korean as the exception. Table 4.4.2 indicates the spread of languages taught.

Table 4.4.2: Languages taught in respondents' schools (n=115)

Ranking	Language	Number of schools
1	Japanese	65
2	German	42
3	French	39
4	Indonesian	19
4	Italian	20
5	Chinese	13
6	Other	2

The table indicates that Japanese is the most widely taught language in Queensland State high schools. Data from Education Queensland's schools database and comments from interviewees indicate that the most common distribution of languages taught in State high schools focuses on German and Japanese. The two 'Other' languages mentioned were Modern Greek and French immersion.

Number of LOTE teachers in respondents' schools

Respondents were asked how many foreign language teachers there were in their schools. All respondents answered the question. The average number of LOTE teachers in a State high school is 3.2. The highest number recorded in the questionnaire is twenty, and the lowest is one.

Respondents were asked if their head of department taught a language. All 115 respondents answered the question. Respondents reported that 37 (32.7%) heads of departments teach a LOTE, and 78 (67.8%) do not. These data are also corroborated by comments from interviews with teachers. Generally there seems to be an overall pattern which requires a minimum of 4 to 5 LOTE teachers in a State high school to warrant a LOTE head of department.

Respondents were asked how many students there were in their school. The average size of a State high school as reported by the 111 respondents who answered this question is 903. The largest school, which was in the metropolitan area, had 2,000 students, and a country school at 54 students was the smallest.

Population of students studying LOTEs in respondents' schools

Respondents were asked to indicate the number of students studying a LOTE by year level. Table 4.4.3 indicates the average number of students studying a LOTE by year level.

Table 4.4.3: Average number of students studying a LOTE by year level (n=108)

Year level	Average number of students	Max	Min
8	167	360	0
9	34	250	0
10	25	140	0
11	12	90	0
12	10	95	0

The most noticeable event in this table is the huge drop between years 8 and 9. The main reason for this is that LOTE is only compulsory to year 8 in State high schools. A further drop off rate is apparent between years ten and eleven, which follows a consistent pattern across all LOTEs in all states (CSLP Evaluation, 1997). The data in this table do not reflect the fact that some country high schools only teach up to year ten. The next part will provide a profile of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire.

4.4.3 Profile of teachers   (Questions 3.2.1 - 3.2.4)

The final section of the questionnaire sought some personal details of the respondents relating to their length of time in teaching languages, the time spent in their present school, what languages they teach and which year levels. The tables in this section show the results for these questions.

Information from respondents about their language teaching

Respondents were asked to provide some details regarding the length of time they had been teaching languages, and how many years they had been in their present school. Table 4.4.4 indicates their responses. Of the 115 respondents, one declined to answer.

Table 4.4.4: Length of time teaching languages and length of time in current school (n=114)

Category	Time language teaching	Time in current school
Average time	11 years	6 years
Maximum	30 years	22 years
Minimum	< 1 year	< 1 year
Median	8 years	4.25 years
Mode	5 years	

In general terms, there are a number of LOTE teachers who have made language teaching their career, with the average time spent teaching languages as eleven years. Most teachers appear to change schools more frequently than changing their teaching area. Table 4.4.5 provides details by principal language taught. Of the 115 respondents, three provided no answer.

Table 4.4.5: Length of time teaching languages and length of time in current school, by language, in years (n=112)

Language	Number of respondents	Time language teaching	Time in current school
Chinese	8	6.5	3.0
Japanese	43	9.0	5.5
Indonesian	10	3.5	5.6
French	23	14.0	6.7
German	19	13.0	5.7
Italian	9	11.6	7.2

There is a distinct split between the Asian and European language groups, with the European language teachers having taught for a longer period of time than the Asian language teachers. This is most likely because Asian languages were put into schools much later than the more traditional European languages.

Following these questions respondents were asked if they taught more than one language. Of the 115 respondents, 23 reported that they taught more than one language. Table 4.4.6 indicates the patterns of those respondents who teach, or have taught more than one language.

Table 4.4.6: Respondents who teach, or have taught, more than one language (n=23)

Language 1	Language 2	Number teaching this pattern
Japanese	French	3
German	Japanese	3
Japanese	German	2
German	French	2
French	Japanese	2
French	German	2
Chinese	English	2
Japanese	ESL	1
Japanese	English	1
Indonesian	Spanish	1
German	Chinese	1
French	Italian	1
French	English	1
French	Chinese	1

Of those teachers who stated they taught more than one language, Japanese appears most frequently, either as the first language, or the second language mentioned. There also appears to be no teacher who teaches two Asian languages. These patterns may follow from the fact of Asian languages being introduced later into the school curriculum with some teachers learning Asian languages in order to teach them.

Respondents were also asked which levels they taught at. Of the valid sample of 115 respondents, 74 (65%) stated they taught years 8-12. Fifteen respondents (13%) also taught in primary grades in one permutation or another. All of these latter respondents came from country (10) and regional (5) schools. Table 4.4.7 indicates the spread of year levels taught by the sample.

Table 4.4.7: Year levels taught (n=114)

Year levels taught	Frequency
8-12	74
8-10	11
8	7
8-9	4
6-12	3
5-10	2
5-8	2
8-11	1
5-9	1
4-12	1
8, 11, 12	1
8, 9, 11	1
6-10	1
7-8	1
11	1
8, 10	1
10-12	1
5-12	1
Total	114

This concludes the presentation of the profile of teachers. The next part will present findings on respondent's communication and networking patterns.

4.4.4 Communication and networks

Respondents were asked if they belonged to the Modern Language Teachers Association of Queensland (MLTAQ), and any other professional organisations. All 115 respondents replied. 61 (53%) of the sample stated they were members of the MLTAQ, and 54 (47%) stated they were not members.

Of the 115 respondents, 29 reported belonging to other professional organisations. A number of respondents reported more than one organisation.

Table 4.4.8: Other professional organisations teachers belong to (n=29)

Organisation	Number reporting
Access Asia	1
Aus. Inst. of Management	1
AUSINDO	1
Australia-Japan Society	1
CASTT (Tourism)	2
Chinese Teachers Assoc.	4
Economics teachers network	2
Gamelan Giri Jaya Toowoomba	1
Goethe Society of Qld, HTA	1
History Teachers Association	1
Mathematics Teachers Association	1
Mt Isa LOTE teacher network	1
QSITE	1
QTU	10
QIEA	1
School belongs to MLTAQ	1
Sunshine Coast Indonesian Teachers Network	1

The data indicate that a number of language teachers also teach other agents, such as mathematics, history, economics and tourism. Ten respondents indicated they were members of the Queensland Teachers Union. It is noteworthy that language teachers have organised their own networks in the Mt. Isa and the Sunshine Coast areas. This indicates that teachers do perceive a need to network and will do so in areas and in languages where there is a felt need.

Following on from the questions regarding professional organisations, respondents were asked which teachers they regularly communicated with about language teaching. They were asked to tick as many of four categories as applied to them:

- fellow teachers at my school
- other language teachers at my school
- other language teachers outside my school
- other (please list)

In the 'other' column, 19 respondents gave details. The three most common 'other' contacts were

- LOTE advisors from the LOTE Centre (6 responses)
- In-service days (2)
- University lecturers (2)

Other responses included:
- I am the MLTAQ French convenor so I have contact with teachers across Queensland
- University course class colleagues (MA TESOL)
- Libraries
- HODs
- Internet mailing lists
- Teachers in Germany
- Ex-colleagues
- Goethe Institut
- Sister who is a language teacher
- Anyone who will listen
- Reporting to administration

The total responses for each category by the 115 respondents are shown in the Table 4.4.9.

Table 4.4.9: Who teachers regularly communicate with about language teaching (n=115)

Category	Number responding
Fellow teachers at my school	69
Other language teachers in my school	66
Other language teachers outside of my school	87
Other	23

There is a greater propensity for teachers to communicate with other language teachers outside the school. This may be due to the fact that there is frequently only one language teacher in a school per language taught, and in order to maintain some contact with language colleagues, teachers will need to liaise outside of school colleagues.

The pattern of who teachers communicate with provides a richer picture however. Table 4.4.10 indicates the overall pattern of communication of teachers using the four responses from the question.

Table 4.4.10: Patterns of language teachers' communication with colleagues (n=115)

Pattern	Frequency
Language & other teachers in school – & language teachers out of school	26
Outside school only	20
Language teachers in school & language teachers out of school	12
Fellow teachers in school & language teachers out of school	12
Teachers in school only	9
Contacts all categories	9
Fellow teachers in school only	8
Language teachers in school only	4
Fellow teachers in school, language teachers out of school & other	4
Language teachers in school, language teachers out of school & other	3
Other only	2
Outside school & other	2
Language teachers in school & other	2
No contact reported	1
Teachers in school – both categories & other	1
Total responses	**115**

This pattern clearly indicates that language teachers do communicate regularly with language teaching colleagues, and generally more than with other in-school colleagues. So there is a definite propensity to communicate, and to develop networks of an informal, but informative nature. Details from the interviews also corroborate this finding (see Section 4.3.2).

This concludes the part on communication and networking. The next part presents findings on teachers' awareness of policies.

4.4.5 Teachers' awareness of policies   (Questions 2.2.1 - 2.2.14)

This section of the questionnaire attempted to find out what policies and policy documents respondents were familiar with. Unlike the interviews, however, the questionnaire first listed a number of national and then Queensland policies, and the respondents were asked to tick those which they were familiar with. Then a series of questions was asked which sought to find out if respondents had any input into the development, and the implementation of the previously indicated policies, to which respondents were asked to fill in the details of what they had done.

The data for the tables in this part have come from respondents' written answers to relevant items in the questionnaire. As part of the analysis of the data, each respondent's responses have been coded, following the guidelines outlined in Miles and Huberman (1994). The codes were then sorted and subtotaled using *MS Excel* to ascertain what patterns if any might be found. Section 3.7.3 of Chapter 3 discusses these processes.

Familiarity with Commonwealth policies

Respondents were asked what Commonwealth language policies and programs they were familiar with, and to tick as many of the listed policies, or programs, which they knew about. Table 4.4.11 indicates the responses.

Table 4.4.11: **Commonwealth policies which respondents were familiar with (n=115)**

Policy	Frequency of mention	Percent
PLE	68	29%
ALL Guidelines	62	26%
National Curriculum Guidelines	41	18%
NALSAS	22	10%
Collaborative Strategy for Education in LOTE in Schools	19	8%
CLE	12	5%
Australia's Language	6	2%
Other	4	2%
Total mentions	**234**	**100%**

The policy or program which is most familiar to respondents is the Priority Languages Element of the Commonwealth Schools Languages Program (PLE of CSLP). This particular element is known because funds from it actually reach schools. Details came from the interviews include responses where some respondents explicitly stated that their school received PLE funds. The second ranking policy is the ALL guidelines, which were promulgated in 1988 and were a major step to provide some national direction in LOTE teaching in schools. National Curriculum guidelines were mentioned by a number of respondents in the interviews.

Overall, however, there is less recognition of Commonwealth policies and programs than those of Queensland. One respondent commented that what the Commonwealth does has very little relevance to teachers in schools [11]. While this in one interpretation may be considered

somewhat short sighted and provincial, it does indicate to some extent what language teachers understand from their perspective.

Two of the four respondents who ticked the 'other' category provided written responses:
- National Curriculum Guidelines for Chinese [90]
- Heard about them, but don't really know [71]

Familiarity with Queensland language policies

Respondents were then asked about which Queensland language policies and programs they were familiar with and to tick as many of the policies, or programs, which they knew about. Table 4.4.12 indicates the responses.

Table 4.4.12: Queensland policies and programs which respondents were familiar with (n=115)

Note: Percentages reflect the percentage of respondents (115), and not the frequency of mention

Policy	Frequency of mention	Percent
BOSSS Senior Syllabus in various languages	98	85%
1991 Ministerial Statement on LOTE	85	74%
Junior syllabus (1-10) development project	78	68%
Minimum standards of learning technology	71	62%
QSCC Design Brief: LOTE	47	41%
Computers in Learning Policy	22	19%
Community Languages Program	9	8%
Other	3	3%
Total mentions	**413**	

Most respondents are familiar with the Board of Secondary School Studies' syllabi for languages other then English, as most teach LOTE in the senior years. Seventy-four percent of respondents also are familiar with the 1991 Ministerial Statement on LOTE. Just half of the respondents stated they were aware of the minimum standards of learning technology, although every teacher in State schools must reach a level one compliance by the end of 1999.

Two of the three respondents who ticked 'other' provided comments:
- Education Queensland Strategy Plan
- German Junior Syllabus

Respondents were asked if they had any role in the *development* of any of these policies and programs. If they answered 'yes', they were asked to list which policies they had worked

with, and then to explain what they had done. All 115 respondents answered the question, 38 answering yes and 83 answering no, with thirty respondents providing written responses. As Table 4.4.13 indicates, eight respondents reported more than one area they had been involved in developing.

Table 4.4.13: Policies and programs in which respondents had a developmental role (n=115)

Policy/program	Frequency of mention	Percent
QSCC Design brief input (new P-10 syllabus)	8	21%
In a trial school for new P-10 syllabus	7	17%
Senior syllabus (BOSSS)	6	16%
New junior syllabus (QSCC)	5	13%
Member of BOSSS panel	4	11%
Senior program (BOSSS)	3	8%
P-10 syllabus project reference group	2	5%
ALL guidelines	1	3%
Community languages program (CLP)	1	3%
Other policies/programs	1	3%
Total mentions	**38**	**100%**

Few respondents have had a developmental input into policies and programs at the State level, within the State educational domain, and specifically related to their subject, or language, area. Those who responded have had some developmental input into the forthcoming junior LOTE syllabus, or the current senior syllabus from the Board of Secondary School Studies (BOSSS).

Respondents were then asked if they had a role in the implementation of these policies and programs. Of the total sample, a total of 53 respondents gave a 'yes' answer to this question, 61 replied 'no', and there was one 'NA' response. A total of 53 written responses were received. Table 4.4.14 provides a summary of their written responses, using the same method as the previous question.

Table 4.4.14: Policies and programs in which respondents had an implementing role (n=115)

Policy/program	Frequency of mention	Percent
Trialing elements of Junior syllabus	17	32%
BOSSS: using Senior syllabus/writing work programs	11	20%
Policies/programs not specified	9	17%
1991 LOTE policy - various roles	6	11%
Member of Senior program panel	4	8%
Computers in learning policy	1	2%
Minimum standards of learning technology	1	2%
NALSAS: sample assessment review	1	2%
MALT (school technology plan)	1	2%
QSCC Design brief (Junior syllabus)	1	2%
Senior program work program	1	2%
Total mentions	**53**	**100%**

Less than half the respondents implemented syllabus-based projects and work programs based on the various language syllabuses. The non-specified policies or programs included a number of disparate written responses such as Writing and applying work programs, and more interestingly: "As a teacher for over 10 years, I have been involved in implementing aspects of all the policies, programs ticked above." Only one response (NALSAS) related to a Commonwealth-based program, the rest being Queensland-based policies and programs.

Familiarity with Commonwealth computer policies

Respondents were asked if they were aware of any Commonwealth policies and programs relating to the use of computers in schools. Only six respondents ticked a 'Yes' response to this question; 106 answered 'No', and three provided no answer. Of the six written responses, only two related directly to Commonwealth policy. Four answers related to Queensland policies, which indicates that respondents confused Commonwealth and State policies, or misunderstood the question. The two salient written responses were: "I know there is a policy but I am not familiar with it" [6], and "What the Commonwealth does has very little relevance to school levels" [11].

Familiarity with Queensland computer policies

Respondents were asked if they were aware of any Queensland policies and programs relating to the use of computers in schools. Fifty-two respondents answered 'Yes' to this question; sixty said 'No', and three did not respond. Of the 52 'Yes' responses, 50 offered a written response. Of the fifty written responses 4 indicated two policies each. Following the same methods as the previous questions, Table 4.4.15 offers a summary of the written responses.

Table 4.4.15: Respondents' awareness of Queensland policies and programs in the use of computers in schools (n=112)

Policy/program	Frequency	Percent
Minimum competencies in computing	28	56%
EQ's Schooling 2001: computers in schools	10	20%
School MALT plans	3	6%
Policies not specified	3	6%
Connecting Teachers to the Future Project	2	4%
QSCC Development	1	2%
LOTE: Chinese junior syllabus	1	2%
Computers in vocational Ed, & DE	1	2%
Computers in LOTE document	1	2%
Total number of responses	**50**	**100%**

Respondents' awareness of Queensland policies and programs relating to using computers in schools is higher than other policies and programs, specifically in their own computer competencies, and the related policy document. The 'not specified' responses can be summed up by one such response: "I know of them but can't name them."

Respondents were asked to comment on their role in the *development* of computer policies and programs if they had had such. Three respondents indicated they had had a role in the development of Queensland policies and programs relating to using computers in schools; 112 respondents answered 'No' to the question. The written responses of the three who provided them indicated that they were involved in the development of their school's MALT plan.

Following these questions, respondents were asked if they had any role in the *implementation* of these policies. Of the 115 respondents, 14 gave a 'Yes' answer, and 101 gave a 'No' answer. Table 4.4.16 provides a summary of the 13 written responses.

Table 4.4.16: Respondents' implementation of Queensland policies and programs in using computers in schools (n=115)

Policy/program	Frequency	Percent
School MALT plans	6	46%
Minimum competencies in computing	4	31%
Policies not specified	2	15%
Telelearning project	1	8%
Total number of responses	**13**	**100%**

Respondents are mostly involved in using the schools MALT plan, and obtaining their minimum competencies in computing. The non-specified policies were listed as Subject Advisory Studies for Languages Other than English (SAC LOTE), and participation in the Priority Country Area Project (PCAP). Some of the written responses relating to the MALT plan and to the Minimum Standards indicate that some of the respondents are responsible for provision of training to their colleagues in the school, as indicated by the response: "Training other staff with suggestions for computer use in language teaching" [45].

Summary of policy awareness of respondents

The patterns of the responses to this series of questions indicates that respondents are chiefly aware, and work within, policies that are directly relevant to their daily work as teachers. Thus, syllabus documents and work plans based on these are their principal policy documents. The more remote policies, particularly those emanating from the Commonwealth, are not perceived to have an influence directly on the teachers' daily work, although the policies certainly have had a major impact on the teaching of LOTE in the schools. State policies and programs are better known, and the closer they are to the daily work of the teacher, the more relevant they are seen to be. Thus, the development of the new junior syllabus, the participation in senior syllabus panels, etc., and participating in various computing initiatives are seen as directly relevant, with a corresponding awareness and participation in the development and implementation of them.

However, it is still noteworthy to indicate that less than fifty percent of the sample of 115 respondents indicated they had had any input in the development or implementation of any of the policies or programs mentioned.

Table 4.4.17 indicates the summary of responses to the questions about teachers' input into policy. The text of the questions may be seen in Appendix C.

Table 4.4.17: Summary of responses of policy awareness questions (n=115)

Questions of awareness, development and implementation of policies and programs						
	2.2.3	2.2.5	2.2.7	2.2.9	2.2.11	2.2.13
Yes	32	53	6	52	3	14
No	83	61	106	60	112	101
NA		1	3	3		
Total	115	115	115	115	115	115

This concludes the part on teachers' awareness of policies. The next section begins a new topic, teachers' use and knowledge of computers.

4.4.6 Teachers' use and knowledge of computers (Questions 1.7 - 1.11, 2.3, 2.4.1, 2.4.2, 2.4.3, 3.1.1 - 3.1.4)

The computer environment in schools

The first part of this section gives the details of computers available at the schools and where they are located. Respondents were asked to indicate if computers were accessible to staff, students, and administration. The data indicate that with several exceptions, computers are available to all population sections of the school.

Table 4.4.18: Computers available to sectors of the school population (n=115)

Response	Available to staff	Available to students	Available to administration
Yes	112	109	108
No	2	5	4
NA	1	1	3
Total	115	115	115

Table 4.4.18 indicates that nearly all State high schools have computers accessible to some degree to all sectors of the school population. Other data from the questionnaire and the teacher interviews provide more detailed explanations of how computers are allocated and the difficulties in this allocation for the teaching of LOTE.

Respondents were asked about how many computers were available to sectors of the school population and were requested to put a number in each of three boxes: one for staff, students, and administration respectively. Data from this question can only provide some general indication, as a number of respondents frequently only provided numbers for staff as one computer for their own staff room, whereas others counted all computers in the school which staff might use. In order to get a more definitive answer, a cross tabulation of the data was made to indicate the school student population by the number of computers available to students. All cases which had an NA response were deleted from the cross tabulation, leaving a total of 96 valid responses. The results are indicated in Table 4.4.19.

Table 4.4.19: Average number of computers available to students by school population, by location of school: a cross tabulation of three fields in the questionnaire (n=96)

Location	Average student population	Average number of computers available to students	Ratio
Metropolitan	1071	99	10.8:1
Regional	1007	112	9.0:1
Country	524	61	8.6:1
Overall	894	93	9.6:1

These data can only be used as a guide and not as an accurate figure because there is no way of knowing which respondents may have come from the same school. Only those cases where there were no NA responses in the three fields were selected for this cross tabulation.

While the data do not represent a total number of State high schools in any of the three areas, it appears that metropolitan schools are slightly worse off than their regional or country counterparts in terms of the number of computers available for their use. These data, however, need to be seen in terms of a large number of other factors, such as where the computers are located, how they are time tabled, etc. to gain a perspective on their use in LOTE teaching. The questionnaire also indicates other restrictions on computers, particularly from the written responses of the teachers. It is noteworthy, however, that the ratio of the number of computers to students has met one of the goals of Education Queensland in its overall technology plan (EQ, 1995).

Respondents were asked to indicate if Internet access was available to various sectors of the school population. Table 4.4.20 indicates that the Internet is available in most schools for all

sectors of the school population. The table should be read down columns and not across rows.

Table 4.4.20: Internet access available to sectors of the school population (n=115)

Response	Available to staff	Available to students	Available to administration	No Internet access	Particular student groups only
Yes	110	92	101	3	27
No	5	23	13	112	88
NA	0	0	1	0	0
Total	**115**	**115**	**115**	**115**	**115**

The vast majority of schools have Internet access for the three school population sectors. However, there are some restrictions on student use which have been detailed in the written responses in the questionnaire in Section 4.4.2 in the profile of respondents' schools. Again, however, it must be borne in mind that there is of necessity limited access to the Internet due to the number of computers available, the number of Internet lines available, etc. Data from the teacher interviews and written statements from questionnaire respondents provide details on the difficulties in using the Internet at the school.

Respondents were asked to indicate how many computers there were in various locations within the school. The averages indicated in Table 4.4.21 vary slightly as there were different numbers of NA in each category.

Table 4.4.21: Average numbers of computers in locations within the school (n=115)

Number	Library	Staff room	Computer lab	Classroom	Admin.	Other
	11	8	67	16	8	3
NA	5	8	9	9	11	6

The table clearly indicates that most computers in schools are located in computer rooms, or so-called computer laboratories. Other details from the questionnaire and from interview respondents indicate that Internet access is generally located in the library.

Respondents were asked to indicate where they used computers in the school. They were requested to select all categories which applied.

Table 4.4.22: Where teachers use computers in the school (n=115)

Response	Library	Staff room	Computer lab	Classroom	Office	Admin.
Yes	51	90	46	29	15	10
No	63	24	68	85	99	104
NA	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total	**115**	**115**	**115**	**115**	**115**	**115**

The table indicates that teachers generally use the computers available in their staff rooms, followed by those in the library. This would appear to indicate that most teachers have a computer available in their staff room. As with the other questions, however, there are exceptions and provisos which are detailed in Section 4.4.2.

Looking after the school computers

Respondents were asked to provide a written answer to the question of who looks after computer hardware and software if computers were used in their school for language study. A total of 89 (77%) respondents provided 121 mentions. Tables 4.4.23 and 4.4.24 indicate the themes emerging from the responses to this question.

Table 4.4.23: Themes from responses to questions regarding responsibility for maintenance of computers (n=115)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Teachers look after computers	39	32%
School has computer technicians	24	20%
School has a computer coordinator	19	16%
Language HOD looks after computers	13	11%
IT HOD has computer management role	11	9%
Librarian looks after computers	7	6%
School has an IT manager	3	2%
Designated staff not specified	3	2%
Administration looks after computers	1	1%
Other HODs look after computers	1	1%
Total mentions	**121**	**100%**

Comments

The data indicate that over 40% of the respondents (all teachers) are responsible for some care and maintenance of computers in the school. Teachers and technicians (some of whom are also teachers) comprise more than half of the sample. It appears from responses that LOTE

teachers have additional responsibility for looking after the hardware and software that they use for teaching.

Twenty-eight of the 115 respondents indicated that there was more than one person responsible for looking after the computer infrastructure of their schools. Table 4.4.24 indicates the patterns which emerged from the data.

Table 4.4.24: **Patterns of computer infrastructure management in schools (n=28)**

Code pattern	Frequency	Percent
Technicians and teacher	7	25%
Computer coordinator and teacher	3	11%
Computer coordinator and HOD languages	2	6%
Computer coordinator and HOD Information Technology	2	6%
HOD languages and computer technicians	2	6%
Librarians and teacher	2	6%
Computer coordinator and librarians	1	4%
HOD Languages and teachers	1	4%
Librarians and HOD Information Technology	1	4%
Teacher, administrative staff and HOD languages	1	4%
Technicians and HOD Languages	1	4%
Technicians and librarians	1	4%
Technicians, teacher and HOD languages	1	4%
HOD Information Technology and HOD languages	1	4%
HOD Information Technology and teacher	1	4%
HOD Information Technology and technicians	1	4%
Total	**28**	**100%**

Comments

Of the 28 respondents who indicated more than one person was responsible for computer management, a combination of technicians and teachers (25%) was the most frequent pattern. Fifteen other respondents indicated that the teachers are partly responsible for the management of hardware or software.

Other findings

In nine cases (10%), respondents reported that the LOTE teachers or their department, look after the software, whereas other members of staff, principally from the IT staff and/or the computer department, look after the hardware side of things. Eight respondents answered that

they were personally responsible and simply stated: "me!". Other statements which indicate some of the dynamic are:

School computer technician looks after hardware; I look after the software. [72]

We have a part time computer technician who looks after the school computers, but he has absolutely nothing to do with language study. [92]

Teachers' computer knowledge

Respondents were asked if they used a computer at home and at school. All 115 respondents replied to this question with only three indicating that they did not use a computer. This in itself is a significant finding, and supports some of the comments in the interviews with officers in Education Queensland.

Use of computers at home

Ninety respondents (78%) of the sample of 115 indicated they have a computer at home. Table 4.4.25 indicates how respondents use their home computers.

Table 4.4.25: How respondents use their home computers (n=115)

Category of use	Number using
Word processing	87
Lesson preparation	69
Email and WWW	57
Games	34
Desk top publishing	25
Spreadsheets	24
Data bases	14
Authoring programs	11
Other	7

Most respondents use their computers at home for word processing and lesson preparation, followed by using the Internet for email and the Web. Overall, it seems that a solid percentage of respondents might be called sophisticated users of computers.

Seven respondents also use the computer in other ways. One stated the computer was used for Japanese word processing only, one used it for newsgroups and chatrooms on the Internet; one used language acquisition programs, one for banking and stockbroking. One respondent is still trying to learn how to use it and the last uses it for university studies.

Use of computers at school

106 respondents stated they used a computer at school, eight stated they did not use a computer at school, and there was one no response. Table 4.4.26 indicates how respondents use computers in their school.

Table 4.4.26: How respondents use computers at their school (n=115)

Category of use	Number using
Word processing	98
Lesson preparation	75
Email and WWW	62
CALL	25
Desk top publishing	22
Games	21
Spreadsheets	20
Data bases	13
Other	13

Comparison of home and school computer use

More respondents use computers at work than at home. The top three ranks are the same for both home and school use: word processing, lesson preparation and use of the Internet. Table 4.4.27 indicates the comparison between home and school use.

Table 4.4.27: Comparison between home and school use of computers

Category of use	Number using @ home (n=115)	Number using @ school (n=114)
Word processing	87	98
Lesson preparation	69	75
Email and WWW	57	62
Desk top publishing	25	22
Games	34	21
Spreadsheets	24	20
Data bases	14	13
Other	7	13

Thirteen respondents who ticked the 'Other' category provided eleven written responses indicating what they did with computers in the school. Table 4.3.28 provides details.

Table 4.4.28: Other uses of computers in schools (n=13)

Category of use	Number using
Administration	2
Internet	2
Scanning, printing, etc.	3
CALL	2
Exam preparation	2

From the details in the questions relating to computer use, it appears that most respondents are familiar with various applications on computers and most use a computer for lesson preparation and other word-processing types of applications. The use of the Internet both at schools and at home is also high, with over half the sample using the Internet and its various applications. The more sophisticated users are using authoring programs, are developing Web pages, and given the logistics of computers in schools, are using CALL in their daily lessons with students.

Teachers' awareness of CALL

Specific questions were asked about teachers' knowledge of CALL, in an attempt to discover what respondents used computers for in their LOTE teaching. An ancillary question asked respondents to detail who was responsible for looking after the computers which are used for language classes in their schools.

All 115 respondents replied; 88 stated they did use computers in their LOTE teaching and 27 did not. Table 4.4.29 provides some details on what the computers are used for.

Table 4.4.29: Use of computers in LOTE teaching (n=115)

Applications	Number of teachers
Resources preparation	60
CALL programs for learning support	52
Generic programs	50
Web for teaching resources	48
Web for classroom study	47
Email for staff	36
Email for students	27
Other	23

Most of the respondents indicated that they use the computer principally for resources preparation, followed by the use of LOTE specific programs. It should be noted that over half of the sample indicated that they use the Web both for teaching resources and classroom study, but email less so. The use of generic programs, e.g. word processing, is also high.

In the 'Other' category respondents generally listed programs they use in teaching languages; in other words, CALL programs. Significant numbers listed items such as the Language Market which is used by teachers in all languages taught. Japanese programs were also cited frequently, particularly those which assisted in the learning of Japanese scripts.

Teachers' opinions about computers

A number of questions about teachers' attitudes toward computers were asked in which respondents were requested to provide written answers. The questions were analysed using the set of descriptive codes as discussed in Chapter 3, Section 3.7. The tables indicate the overall themes which have emerged from the total responses to each question. Where pertinent, direct quotes from respondents will be used. The following tables contain three columns. The first column presents the *themes* which were raised by respondents. The second column presents the *frequency* of the number of mentions of the particular theme, and the third column is the percentage of the number of mentions. The responses, through the medium of the codes, have also been clustered into different thematic areas which are also illustrated by tables and quotes where relevant.

Advantages of using computers in language teaching

Respondents were asked their opinion about the advantages they see in using computers in language teaching. A total of 110 responses were received. Tables 4.4.30 and 4.4.31 indicate the principal themes emerging from the responses to this question.

Table 4.4.30: Top six themes relating to advantages in using computers (n=110)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Computers are motivating for students	58	34%
Computers allow self-paced learning	45	26%
Real language available (on the Internet)	19	11%
Computers provide more ways of learning	19	11%
Provide more teaching methods for LOTE	16	9%
Computers can help with multilevel classes	13	8%
Total mentions	170	99%*

*Error due to rounding

The main advantage seen by a majority of teachers is the high motivational factor that computers appear to bring to language teaching. The second advantage is that computers enable self-paced learning by students. The ability to vary the language teaching/learning techniques through the use of computers, and the ability to use real language – mostly through the use of the Internet, were also seen as important. And the issue of multi-level language classes could be partially assuaged by the use of computers.

Other themes which have emanated from this question are:

- using the Internet
- using computers for language teaching and learning
- other benefits computers can bring to the class
- specific programs used
- difficulties in the use of computers.

These are now considered in turn.

Using the Internet

When the codes are clustered together other themes also emerge. The Internet featured strongly in the responses with 110 respondents providing a response and five providing no response. Table 4.4.31 indicates the themes relating to the use of the Internet.

Table 4.4.31: Advantages of the Internet in language teaching (n=115)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
School can communicate overseas	13	19%
Good resources on the Internet	10	14%
Students can talk to overseas keypals	10	14%
Can get information from the Internet	9	13%
Internet provides up-to-date information	9	13%
Internet is a good research tool	7	10%
Internet is available at school	5	7%
The Internet is fast	3	4%
Can access LOTE web sites	2	3%
Can use the Internet for language teaching	1	1%
Can network with other teachers	1	1%
Total mentions	**70**	**99%***

* Error due to rounding

Comments

The table indicates that respondents perceive the Internet to be a major tool for communication through email. They see this as highly positive. The use of keypal projects features strongly in responses. It also seems that respondents have not yet seen the advantage of the Internet as a tool for their own networking, as only one respondent mentioned this.

Using computers for language teaching and learning

Respondents stated a number of ways in which computers can be used for language teaching. Table 4.4.32 indicates the responses relating to specific teaching techniques which a computer can assist.

Table 4.4.32: Ways in which computers can be used for language teaching (n=115)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
School can communicate overseas	13	15%
Provides more activities for students	10	11%
Students can talk to overseas keypals	10	11%
Helps to teach cultural components	9	10%
Computers can be used for language drills	9	10%
Gives students & teachers rapid feedback	8	9%
Helps students to consolidate their learning	7	8%
Using computers enhances other skills	7	8%
Students use computers to repeat and progress	5	6%
Students can work in pairs	3	3%
Students work in a group with computer	2	2%
Computers can be used for extension work	2	2%
Computers help student presentations	2	2%
Use computers for assessment preparation	1	1%
Computer is excellent for distance education	1	1%
Total mentions	**89**	**99%***

*Error due to rounding

Respondents recognise the potential of computers in language teaching and see that there are many ways computers can assist in the process. They recognise the potential of networked computing, as well as what can be done on stand-alone machines.

Other benefits computers can bring to the class

Computers are also seen positively in more generic terms as well. Table 4.4.33 shows the more general themes which respondents listed. 110 of the 115 respondents provided comments, and five provided no response.

Table 4.4.33: Other benefits in using computers (n=115)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Computers are motivating for students	58	29%
Computers allow self-paced learning	45	22%
Real language available (on the Internet)	19	9%
Computers provide more ways of learning	19	9%
Provide more teaching methods for LOTE	16	8%
Computers can help with multilevel classes	13	6%
Can use the interactive capacity of computers	10	5%
Using computers as a reward for students	6	3%
Using computers lifts the profile of LOTE	5	2%
Frees teachers to give more individual attention	4	2%
Helps to even out the gender imbalance in LOTE classes	2	1%
Computers help in administration	1	.5%
Using computers increases retention rates in higher grade LOTE classes	1	.5%
Helps in working in a vertical curriculum	1	.5%
Assists in telelearning	1	.5%
Total mentions	**201**	**98%***

*Error due to rounding

The general benefits listed contain the top six themes as discussed previously. There are more themes embedded here. There is a socio-political theme which is indicated by such responses as lifting the profile of LOTE and increasing the retention rate in the higher years. Class management themes include such issues as: multilevel classes, using computers as a reward, and allowing teachers to give more individual attention.

Specific programs used

Fourteen respondents listed specific items such as which programs they use, which included the *Language Market, Power Japanese and PowerPoint*. Others more generally mentioned such items as ideographic word processors, CD-ROMs, and the multimedia functions of computers.

Difficulties in the use of computers

Three respondents listed some problems in using computers. One cited concern over the inability of computers to assist in the speaking component of language learning, and two were concerned about their limited skills in the use of computers. Problems and disadvantages in using computers are the subject of the next question.

Disadvantages in using computers for language teaching

Respondents were asked to write their comments on the disadvantages in using computers for language teaching. A total of 107 responses were received, with eight respondents providing no comments. Table 4.4.34 indicates the five principal themes emerging from the responses to this question.

Table 4.4.34: Top five disadvantages of using computers in language teaching (n=115)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Over-emphasis on use of computers: teachers' concerns	26	25%
Technical problems	24	23%
Managing classes with computers	19	18%
Poor programs for LOTE	18	17%
Getting access to computers in school	16	16%
Total mentions	103	99%*

*Error due to rounding

Respondents raised concerns over the emphasis on the use of computers within the school system as a principal response to the question. The other main concerns then related to logistics and the technical issues relating to the use of computers. The responses to this question have been clustered into:

- values: beliefs and opinions on using computers for language teaching
- logistics: location, quantity, access and time-tabling of school computers
- technical issues: maintenance and repair of hardware and network
- programs: updated and appropriate programs
- money: having adequate funding
- time: issues relating to adequate time for teaching, preparation
- training: issues relating to obtaining appropriate training in use of computers

Values

Twenty six respondents (25%) raised concerns over the *values* put on the use of computers. Their responses included:

- Too much and students become anti-social [1]
- Relying on computers too much and not fulfilling basic oral communication competencies [2]
- Students gravitate towards technology and move away from books. Unfortunately the state of computer material & its presentation tends to contribute to short attention spans and poor literacy recognition & skills [9]

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- 'Been there, done that' mentality if students choose agents with an over-emphasis on computers [24]
- Students don't like listening to teachers [27]
- The same disadvantages as exist in general, i.e. that computers and technology and any learning involving them are seen as intrinsically worthwhile, rather than as a tool that can be used well or badly. A tool that is per se value laden, e.g. Internet info often seen as great for research assignments without any queries about whose info and opinion it is, what values it upholds, etc [30]

There were other value issues raised by teachers which were coded separately. Table 4.4.35 indicates these other concerns.

Table 4.4.35: Other issues relating to using computers for language teaching (n=115)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Limited nature of computers for language teaching	10	34%
Impersonal tool: student is more reliant on computers than people	7	24%
Lack of an oral component for LOTE in using computers	7	24%
Problems regarding student equity in the use of computers	5	18%
Total mentions	29	100%

Ten percent of respondents stated that there is a limit to what computers can do to assist language learning. Specifically, some see the computer as impersonal and devoid of human contact which is exacerbated by a lack of an oral component in computer programs. Another issue is that of equity in relation to students with computers and those who have less access to them, particularly in the school: lack of equal access for students.

Logistics

Of great concern to teachers are the logistical problems faced in the school. Specific logistical problems which respondents raised are shown in Table 4.4.36.

Table 4.4.36: Logistical concerns in using computers for language teaching (n=107)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Managing classes with computers	19	36%
Difficulties in getting access to computers in school	16	30%
Insufficient number of computers in the school	12	23%
Location of computers in the school	6	11%
Total mentions	**53**	**100%**

Managing classes around using computers is an issue for some teachers. A main issue is too few computers for a normal class size of 30. The concerns here frequently relate to the fact that there are not enough computers in the school for all the demands of various disciplines. The quantity of computers and access to them is a theme that is raised frequently. A related concern is the location of computers. Statements from the respondents indicate how these issues are tied together:

- Organisation of it; loading programs, etc [18]
- The potential in a large class for students to waste time while the teacher tends to consistent technical problems, etc. is a problem [37]
- Difficult to handle 30 students all at a different stage of the program [45]
- Classes of 30+ have difficulty being allocated computer time. One teacher finds it difficult to ensure students are on task and benefiting from the experience [53]
- It has to be highly structured to avoid waste of time [60]
- Logistics of actually getting access to the computers! [16]

Technical issues

Technical problems are seen to be a major issue. Table 4.4.37 shows the specific concerns raised in this area.

Table 4.4.37: Technical problems in using computers for language teaching (n=107)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Overall technical problems	24	51%
Maintenance of school computers	8	17%
Technical support in the school	6	12%
Peripheral problems	4	9%
Teachers' ability to fix technical faults	4	9%
Antiquated hard/software	1	2%
Total mentions	**47**	**100%**

Over 20% of teachers reported that there were technical problems in using computers. Specifically mentioned were issues relating to maintenance, technical support in the school, problems with peripherals, e.g., printers and headphones. The inability of teachers to repair technical faults also featured. One respondent was concerned about the age of the equipment.

Programs

Issues relating to computer programs, including the use of the Internet and Web, were raised by respondents. Table 4.4.38 presents these issues:

Table 4.4.38: Issues relating to computer programs for language teaching (n=107)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Inappropriate or poor language programs	18	72%
Inappropriate sites on the Internet	4	16%
Need for improved programs	2	8%
Need to evaluate programs before buying	1	4%
Total mentions	25	100%

The issue that had the most mentions was that computer programs were not adequate for language teaching. Specifically, respondents identified the following inadequacies:

- Lack of up-to-date programs and computers [7]
- Language is flexible. Computer programs are not [13]
- Many programs are very limited & require only simple word answers. They can't simulate a real and spontaneous conversation [19]
- There are particularly a lot of issues with Japanese software due to the script [21]
- Few programs are truly interactive and provided for the production side of student language learning: originality and speaking/writing [53]
- Often hard to trial software [114]

Funding

Funding issues were raised by 21 respondents (19.6%), with seven respondents (6.5%) specifically mentioning the cost of site licenses for CALL programs. Funding for hardware, software and training were all mentioned. Comments from respondents include:

- Expensive to set up and maintain and buy software [10]
- Expensive software [42]
- We do not have the funds in a small school and small department to make full use [40]

- Lack of funds to run computers effectively [59]
- Cost of software licenses is sometimes too much for smaller schools like ours [11]
- Site licenses are expensive [25]

Time

Time factors were also discussed. Seventeen respondents (15.9%) raised concerns over the time needed to use computers or to gain adequate training to use them more appropriately. Comments from respondents include:

- Time – teacher knowledge/familiarity with program essential for smooth operation of class to gain maximum benefit [3]
- Teachers need training and time to administer programs [25]
- Time intensive when using Internet for lessons. Need to use lots of time planning lesson and resources [25]

Training

The need for training in the use of computers was also mentioned by 16 respondents (14.9%), with specific concerns over staff and student training. Comments from respondents include:

- Training staff, you've really got to have your own computer to be up to speed [82]
- No training [114]
- Students who aren't confident may become frustrated/tied up logging on, etc [115]

Using the Internet for language teaching

Respondents were asked their opinions on using the Internet for language teaching. A total of 110 responses were received. Table 4.4.39 indicates the principal themes emerging from the responses to this question.

Table 4.4.39: Top six ways to use the Internet in language teaching (n=110)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Students can talk to overseas students	50	27%
School can communicate overseas	35	18%
Helps to teach cultural components of LOTE classes	30	16%
Students are exposed to real language	30	16%
Internet is a good research tool	23	12%
Internet provides up-to-date information	20	11%
Total mentions	**188**	**100%**

Respondents stated that using the Internet for communication is the principal use, first for student learning through key pal and similar projects, and then generally for overseas communication. Accessing cultural information is also considered very important, as is the students getting access to real language. Other uses are for research, and the ability to get up-to-date information.

The themes which have emerged from responses to this question are:
- activities for teaching and learning on the Internet
- student activities using the Internet
- teachers' use of the Internet
- problems with the Internet

These are now considered in turn.

Activities for teaching and learning on the Internet

Respondents stated that there were numerous activities for teaching and learning on the Internet. Their responses are presented in Table 4.4.40.

Table 4.4.40: Internet activities for teaching and learning A (n=110)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
School can communicate overseas	35	18%
Helps to teach cultural component of LOTE classes	30	15%
Real language is available	30	15%
The Internet is seen as a good research tool	23	12%
Up-to-date information can be found on the Internet	20	10%
Information can be obtained from the Internet	16	8%
Teaching resources can be found on the Internet	15	8%
Can access LOTE Web sites	8	4%
The speed of using the Internet	6	3%
The Internet is a good motivator for students	6	3%
The Internet is very good for DE	3	2%
The Internet can be used to talk to other teachers	3	2%
Multimedia components are good for teaching	1	1%
Total mentions	196	101%*

*Error due to rounding

The Internet activities as seen by respondents are the ability to communicate overseas, the ability to include genuine cultural components in class, and the ability to have students in touch with real language. Comments from respondents include:

- We can access sites in LOTE. Great experience for students [1]
- We can communicate via web pages and email with other countries easily and cheaply [1]
- Great for giving students a real-life experience using Japanese, e.g. email, ads [2]
- Access to LOTE countries; up to date information in the target language for a whole range of topics, essential in the senior years
  - communication with students in the LOTE country, encouragement for our students to learn from their peers elsewhere [3]

Student activities using the Internet

Respondents also mentioned some specific activities which students could use the Internet in developing. The two major activities indicated were first, the use of the Internet for communication through key pals and similar projects. Fifty respondents (45.4%) listed this as a major activity. The second was for students to generate their own web pages in a structured class setting; four respondents mentioned a version of this activity.

Teachers' use of the Internet

Respondents suggested that there are specific activities which teachers themselves can do with the Internet. Table 4.4.41 illustrates these activities.

Table 4.4.41: **Internet activities for teaching and learning B** (n=110)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Can use the Internet for LOTE teaching	14	54%
Teachers need to assess the resources available on the Web	7	27%
The Internet can be used to talk to other teachers	3	12%
Develop special school-based Web site through using *WebWhacker*	1	4%
Internet can help with video conferencing	1	4%
Total mentions	**26**	**101%***

*Error due to rounding

Nearly 13% of respondents stated that the Internet can be used for LOTE teaching. Half that number (7) mentioned that it was important to assess the resources and sites available on the Web before using them in a class. Comments from respondents include:

- Good for lang. teaching but you have to know in advance what sites are *useful* for your class/ability levels, esp. in scripted languages [5]
- Via Internet to topic relevant sites and students gathering info/interacting as a result [8]
- Certain sites could be effectively incorporated into a unit studied at school, e.g. a trip along the Yamanote Line could be used within a travel unit [16]

Problems with the Internet

Respondents also highlighted some of the problems they faced when using the Internet. Table 4.4.42 indicates four of the most mentioned problems.

Table 4.4.42: **Problems in using the Internet in teaching & learning (n=110)**

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Finding inappropriate sites on the Web	4	36%
The Internet computers in the schools are frequently booked out	3	27%
Getting access to Internet computers in the school	2	18%
Time taken to organise a lesson using the Internet	2	18%
Total mentions	**11**	**99%***

*Error due to rounding

Comments from respondents include:

- …resources but it's hard for schools to manage and control students' access to legal and relevant areas [81]
- Problematic at this school because of restricted access; only 1 Internet connection in school [42]
- Haven't used it with a class. Can't get a booking [37]
- Spending 30 min to surf the Internet to find no information really matching student levels or needs is a waste of time [71]

Teachers' comfort levels in using computers for language teaching

Teachers were asked to write about how comfortable they felt about using computers for language teaching. A total of 111 responses were received. Table 4.4.43 indicates the principal themes emerging from the responses to this question.

Table 4.4.43: Teachers' comfort levels in using computers for language teaching: top five responses (n=111)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Feels very comfortable using computers	41	37%
Reasonably comfortable using computers	28	24%
Respondent is frustrated in using computers	17	15%
Uncomfortable in using computers	15	15%
Not at all comfortable using computers	10	9%
Total mentions	**111**	**100%**

The table indicates that 61% of respondents feel very comfortable or fairly comfortable in the use of computers for language teaching. A further 24% feel uncomfortable or worse in using computers. Themes which emerged from responses to this question are:

- frustration
- training
- problems in using computers
- teacher attitudes

Frustration

Seventeen respondents expressed some frustration in the use of computers and explained why. Their reasons relate strongly to the general problems in using computers in school. Comments from respondents include:

- I'm happy to use them but find them frustrating because you can't depend on them in the same way as a handout, tape or OHT [10]
- If they aren't broken, off-line or booked out by someone else it's a miracle [47]
- Frustrated that most of our current software is stand alone and thus needing upgrading to NT [63]
- I have used them before but with classes 24+ and only 5 site licenses (which are incredibly expensive) this is nearly impossible! [75]
- However, I am constantly frustrated because it is difficult to access computers in our school as we do not have enough to cater for all our students [51]

Training

Fourteen respondents (12.6%) were concerned about their level of training which they felt hampered their ability to use computers more effectively. Half of the respondents who mentioned training indicated that their comfort in using computers was fair or uncomfortable; one was improving, and one was very comfortable, but wanted to be more 'technologically knowledgeable'.

Problems in using computers

Respondents also raised a number of problems in using computers in the school. Table 4.4.44 indicates the problems which were raised most frequently by respondents.

Table 4.4.44: Problems in using computers in school (n=111)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Getting access to computers	12	48%
The quantity of computers in school	5	20%
No time for training	4	16%
Technical problems with computers	2	8%
Difficulties with programs	2	8%
Total mentions	**25**	**100%**

The major problems in using computers relate to the number of computers in the school and the access to them by language classes. Training was of some concern, as were technical problems relating to both hardware and software.

Teacher attitudes

Seven respondents (6.3%) stated they were improving and felt fairly comfortable about their computing skills. Five other respondents (4.3%) stated their skills were limited. In general, it appears that a large majority of respondents are comfortable in using computers, and while some want further training, and there are issues relating to using computers in the schools, there is an overall positive outlook. Specifically, respondents stated:

- Reasonably comfortable except when software/hardware don't function properly. Need to concentrate on trouble shooting [84]
- So so. We only have one available in the language lab. The computer labs are a long way from our classroom, so for a 40 minutes lesson not realistic. Until we genuinely have computers in every classroom then their use will be limited [90]
- I feel comfortable using a computer but I don't really know how to incorporate it into my lessons, especially when I only have access to maybe 1-2 computers for a class of 25 [92]

This completes the part on teachers' knowledge and use of computers. The next part will present findings on teachers' opinions on training.

Respondents were requested to indicate if their school, or a variety of professional organisations provide in-service training in computer use for language teaching. Tables 4.4.45 to 4.4.51 indicate the respondents' understanding on the provision of training.

Training by the school

Respondents were asked if their school provided general computer training and special training for language teachers. Tables 4.4.45 and 4.4.46 indicate the responses.

Table 4.4.45: Does the school provide in-service training in the use of computers? (n=115)

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	101	88%
No	13	11%
NA	1	1%
Total	**115**	**100%**

A large majority of schools do provide in-service training for teachers in the use of computers. However, written responses from respondents as well as details from interviewees indicate that frequently the training is only of a basic nature and more recently has been designed to get teachers to the Level 1 Competency as required by Education Queensland's policy on computers in schools (Education Queensland, 1995). However, when looking at special training for language teachers, the patterns change to fewer schools offering special training. Table 4.4.45 indicates this.

Table 4.4.46: Schools offering training or help in using computers in language teaching (n=115)

Response	Frequency	Percent
No	74	64%
Yes	34	30%
Don't know	6	5%
NA	1	1%
Total	**115**	**100%**

Respondents indicated that most schools don't offer explicit help in using computers for language teaching. Other items in the questionnaire however, indicate that most schools do

offer generic computer training in one guise or another, for instance see the responses to Question 2.3.6. It is significant that there are six 'don't know' responses to this question.

Other professional organisations offering training

Table 4.4.47: Does MLTAQ assist teachers to use computers for language teaching? (n=115)

Response	Frequency	Percent
Don't know	65	57%
No	33	29%
Yes	14	12%
NA	3	2%
Total	**115**	**100%**

When a cross tabulation was undertaken for non-members and members and their responses to this question the results were:

Table 4.4.48: Cross tabulation of MLTAQ members and non-members by responses to provision of training (n=115)

Response	Yes	No	Don't know	NA	Total
Members	12	24	25	0	61
Non-members	2	9	40	3	54

What these data seem to indicate is that there is some confusion in the ranks of the membership in respect to what the organisation actually offers. Non-members' responses are significantly higher in the 'don't know' column. The 'yes' and 'no' responses of non members may be simple guesses on the part of the respondents, or they may in fact know. What the data do indicate however, is that there is a certain lack of information from the MLTAQ as to what it does offer.

Education Queensland provision of training in using computers for language teaching

Respondents were asked if LACU and/or the LOTE Centre and Education Queensland in particular provide specialist training in the use of computers for language teaching. Tables 4.4.49 and 4.4.50 indicate the responses.

Table 4.4.49: **Respondents' understanding of whether LACU or the LOTE Centre provide training in using computers in language teaching (n=115)**

Response	Frequency	Percent
Don't know	46	40%
No	42	36%
Yes	26	23%
NA	1	1%
Total	**115**	**100%**

Again, there appears to be a lack of understanding by the respondents if these Education Queensland units can offer assistance in computing, with 40% of respondents giving a 'don't know' response. Again, it appears that there is some lack of communication as to whether these units can offer computer support.

Table 4.4.50: Respondents' understanding that Education Queensland provides support in using computers in language teaching (n=115)

Response	Frequency	Percent
No	47	41%
Don't know	45	39%
Yes	22	19%
NA	1	1%
Total	**115**	**100%**

There is a significant proportion of respondents who "don't know", indicating a lack of awareness or of communication on the parts of the providers.

What training in computing teachers have received

Respondents were asked about the sort of training in computing they had received. All 115 respondents replied, with 80 stating they had received some training, and 35 stating they had not. Respondents also provided 77 written comments, all quite varied. However through using the coding method as done in previous questions, a pattern did emerge. Table 4.4.51 shows the pattern. Ninety items are recorded, as some of the written responses required more than one code to cover their response.

Table 4.4.51: Training in the use of computers (n=115)

Type of training	Frequency of mention	Percent
School based training	25	28%
Training in specific programs	21	23%
Internet training	15	17%
IT training/qualification	9	10%
LOTE specific training	7	8%
A short course only	4	4%
Generic computer training	3	3%
Training not specified	3	3%
Self-taught	3	3%
Total mentions	**90**	**99%***

*Error due to rounding

The term 'school based training' indicates those responses which simply stated that training was done in school, generally by fellow teachers from the IT staff, or similar. The training in specific programs was wide ranging and covered most commonly used programs including word processing, Power Point, data bases, etc. Internet training was coded separately to separate it from the more generic training. 'IT training qualification' indicates that the respondent has some IT credentials. 'LOTE specific training' indicates sessions which were devoted generally to the use of the Internet and the Web for LOTE teaching. The term 'Short course only' was used when respondents stated such, or gave the duration of the session.

The overall gist of their comments is that training in computing is very varied, and is generally done within the school by fellow teachers. In the sample, there is very little LOTE specific training cited; however from replies to the previous questions most respondents seem to have had enough training to be able to start using various computer applications, including those relevant for LOTE teaching. Teachers can access language-based sites on the Web and can use email for teaching purposes, based on generic training done in schools.

The role of universities and TAFEs in providing specialist computer training
Respondents were asked their opinions on the role of universities and TAFEs in providing training in using computers for language teaching. A total of 105 responses were received. Table 4.4.52 indicates the principal themes emerging from the responses to this question.

Table 4.4.52: What universities and TAFEs should provide in terms of computer training for language teaching (n=105)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Should offer in-service courses	36	28%
Should offer courses for skills upgrading	20	15%
Computer agents should be integrated into the pre-service curriculum	18	14%
All new teachers should be computer literate	17	13%
Should provide LOTE specific computer training	17	13%
Their role is very important in developing computer skills	11	8%
Should provide teaching strategies in integrating computers into teaching	11	8%
Total mentions	**130**	**99%***

*Error due to rounding

Respondents believe that teacher training organisations should be offering in-service courses in order to upgrade skills of current teachers. A second stream suggests that pre-service courses need to have computer skills built into the curriculum, with specific courses in the use of computers for prospective LOTE teachers.

Comments from respondents include:

- Should be able to access in-service for your specific LOTE. [6]
- Provide resources & support for school-based in-service. [9]
- Essential that LOTE teachers (in-service) have technology inservices available. [12]

Other themes which emerged from responses to this question were:

- More detailed suggestions in respect to training
- Problems with training for teachers

More detailed suggestions in respect to training

A larger number of issues relating to training was also raised. These are presented in Table 4.4.53.

Table 4.4.53: **Other issues raised about training (n=105)**

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Computer agents should be compulsory for pre-service courses	7	17%
Institutions should provide local courses for teachers whenever possible	7	17%
Institutions could assist by providing lists of appropriate Web sites and other Internet facilities	7	17%
Computer agents should be made available to current teachers	6	14%
TAFEs and universities could offer short courses for teachers	6	14%
Institutions could assist in evaluating appropriate computer programs	5	12%
Institutions should provide up-to-date information on the use of computers	4	9%
Total mentions	**42**	**100%**

Replies to this question indicate that universities and institutes of TAFE should provide more detailed training, both for pre-service and in-service. Respondents also see a role for tertiary institutions to support teachers in their daily teaching through practical research in the use of computers and the Internet for teaching. A quote from one respondent sums up these issues:

> A much greater role!! Unis & TAFEs could run prof. dev. for subject specific areas, not just using one particular software program, but developing a bank of ideas and options. Teachers really need more prof. dev. in higher level skills, e.g. more advanced web site creation, maintaining the classroom computer, developing web activities, etc. Most inservices are for word processing and how to turn on the computer! [21]

Other suggestions raised were that training organisations needed to be aware of the level at which their courses are pitched, and that post-graduate courses could be of help to current teachers to enhance their technical skills.

Problems with training for teachers

A smaller number of respondents raised a number of problems some of which related to training and others related to the use of computers in schools. Eleven respondents (10.5%) stated that there was little or no time available for training. Specifically, respondents stated:

- Most teachers have limited time to look at new software in any great detail [15]

- Publish lists of valuable WWW sites. I find too little time myself [62]
- For most full time teachers finding time outside of classroom and preparation time to attain competency with computers is the answer [65]
- There is so much we have to do in our own time. More is nearly impossible so even if unis & TAFE offer it I wouldn't do it [75]
- Qualified teachers have very little time for professional development [76]

Other issues relating to the quantity of computers available in the school, funding for training, the low status of LOTE in the school were raised by several respondents.

Responses to final question

The 58 responses to Question 3.1.6, which asked respondents if they had anything else to say, indicated some common concerns. Table 4.4.54 indicates the major issues raised in response to the question.

Table 4.4.54: Major issues raised in response to Question 3.1.6 (n=58)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Lack of funding	9	21%
Gaining access to the school's computers	6	14%
The time consuming nature of using computers (preparation, technical glitches, etc).	6	14%
The number of computers available in the school	5	12%
The quality of CALL programs currently available in the school	4	9%
The cost of site licenses for CALL programs	4	9%
The need for in-service training for language teachers	4	9%
More work is needed in using computers for language teaching	4	9%
Total mentions	42	97%*

*Error due to rounding

There were nine mentions (21%) about funding as a major issue for teachers in using computers for language teaching. Access to computers and the quantity of computers in the school were raised by six respondents each. The quality of current programs and the expense in getting a site licence for better programs were also raised. All of these issues tie back to the funding issue.

Respondents raised numerous issues in their replies to the questionnaire. Descriptive codes were used to classify their responses into themes. Other issues raised were principally in regard to problems respondents faced. Two quotes from respondents provide a good summary for most of the issues which were raised in response the final question in the questionnaire:

> I think the next person who speaks to me about using computers in language teaching may well regret mentioning the topic. The reality is that I do not have the time to spend on the wonderful software packages available because:
> a) Our syllabus does not link in with existing software.
> b) I do not have time to take my students to the computer room if it is available and I can book it.
> c) I see no point in using the software unless it follows along the line of the topic that I am teaching. To diverge just so that I can say I use the computer in my language teaching is silly.
> d) Year 8 students are too poorly behaved to get access to the computer room. Even if they used the computer they would use it but not to learn the language via the computer. I taught computer studies to Year 8 students last year and my main task was stopping students from damaging the computers rather than using the computer constructively.
> e) The other year levels are too busy to move to and from the computer room. We have three lessons a week for Years 9 and 10, two x 35 minutes and 1 x 70 minutes. A 35 minute lesson would be too short and 70 minutes too long.
> f) I do not have time nor the inclination to rewrite my program just to fit some wonderful software package in. It is all very nice for the government or anyone else to speak in glowing terms about the use of computers in schools for language learning but the reality is that it is unworkable.
> g) Computer rooms are in the schools but there is an incredible demand for their use. I have even purchased quite a lot of excellent software which I cannot use because I cannot get easy access to the computer room. I know there are some schools which very successfully use software in their language classes, good luck to them and certainly well done but I am not one, nor do I want to become one.
> h) As for the Internet – be real – Internet use is expensive, there is very limited access – who knows what the students will link up with and I don't have the time to waste in 'surfing the net' when I see no value in the activity. Have you looked at a teacher's timetable recently????? [101]

In theory using computers is an excellent resource. However the following practicalities have severely retarded their use at school:
1) cost of installing a number of sites to be used for some programs.
2) constant systems failure.
3) lack of access due to rooms in constant use for computing/keyboard agents [28]

4.5 Responses from Education Queensland officers and interstate language specialists

4.5.1 Processes and structure

This section provides the responses from interviews with officers of Education Queensland and other language professionals. While the questions asked of each respondent in this group varied depending on the area of expertise, [2] in the analysis some specific themes did emerge. These were:

- Policy
- Training
- Computers in schools
- Key people in schools
- Networking
- Teacher concerns & technology
- LOTE and community

The respondents who are included in this section are:

- Vice-principal of the Victorian School of Languages
- 3 Officers in various sections of Education Queensland in Brisbane
- A former regional LOTE advisor, Education Queensland
- A private language consultant from South Australia
- A tertiary language educator from South Australia.

Each thematic area will be discussed individually, with details for each coming from the respondents' replies to the questions asked of them in the interviews.

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[2] For details on methodology and respondents, see Chapter 3, Section 3.5.3 and 3.5.4.

4.5.2 Policy

In discussing the impact of policies in schools, respondents shared a number of concerns which can be linked thematically. This section will present these themes which are:

- Queensland specific policies in education
- National policies and issues
- Policy dynamics
- Negative impacts of some policies
- Networking and professional organisations.

Queensland specific policies in education

Officers of Education Queensland who were interviewed were well aware of Queensland and national policies, whereas out-of-state respondents were more general in their comments relating to national policies. Table 4.5.1 indicates the policies mentioned with comments from respondents relating to a specific policy.

Table 4.5.1: **Queensland policies mentioned by Education Queensland respondents (n=4)**

Policy	Comments
Key learning areas (KLA)	LOTE is a KLA. Each KLA has a standard framework and syllabus documents [eqint2].
Minimum standards of computer competence	LOTE teachers must have reached minimum standards in computing [eqint2].
Schooling 2001	- The document was seen as impressive, but not specifically for LOTE/CALL [rcint1]. - The powers that be have decreed that technology has to be integrated into the curriculum [eqint2].
Performance standards	- There is a big shift from process to outcomes orientation. The Director General: accountability, outcomes, measurement [eqint2]. - Performance standards and outcomes are a way to measure success of policy [eqint2]. - Principals have to indicate how they meet their objectives, which is overseen by the District Managers [eqint1]. There is a very definite shift in the teaching paradigm [eqint1].
Junior syllabus	- The new Junior syllabus follows a rudimentary immersion model: the 'embedded approach' [eqint3]. - Some alterations to the embedded approach following research in Scotland [eqint3].
LOTE teacher competence	LOTE teachers must have levels of language competency. Assessed by LACU [eqint3].
Education regions to education districts	Districts have no regional curriculum advisors, unlike the former education regions [eqint3].
1991 LOTE Policy	The 1991 policy is still basically correct [eqint3].

Comments

Queensland respondents were knowledgeable in major policy areas relating to schools and language teaching. Their comments reflected a more system 'worldview' than have the interviews with teachers, with emphasis on teacher performance in language teaching and computing.

National policies and issues

Respondents from out-of-state did not mention specific policies, but rather alluded to the Commonwealth government's changes to national language policies: "We now have a devolved language policy" [vicint1]. There was also concern over the Commonwealth Government's commitment to LOTE in the future. States' concerns were more in the line of the supply of adequately trained teachers and language training for teachers. However one respondent stated that the LOTE and IT policies in Victorian education are well integrated.

Policy dynamics

Queensland respondents were well aware of the dynamics which accompany each policy, and the interplay between policies and their cumulative impact on schools. Table 4.5.2 illustrates respondents' comments on policy dynamics.

Table 4.5.2: Queensland dynamics discussed by respondents (n=3)[3]

Policy dynamic	Comments
Policy by rumour	- "A lot of policy works on rumour and people believe something is policy when it isn't" [eqint4]. - Recommendations of reviews are sometimes seen as official policy when it isn't [eqint4]. - "If policy was even looked at (and it tends not to be), what people tend to go on is word of mouth" [eqint4].
Written policies	- "I mean the Braddy statement was an absolute bleeding luxury!" [eqint4]. - People want things in writing; this is frequently demanded by principals [eqint4].
Policy dissemination	- Education News generally prints policy items [eqint4]. - Education Queensland's Web site is now publishing all relevant policies - "How policies are disseminated to schools is quite tricky" [eqint4]. - A letter from the DG to principals: "Now it is not necessarily the case that the teachers then get a copy of the letter unless the principal shows it to them" [eqint4].
Policy implementation	How are policies enacted in schools? Policy documents are full of contradictions and ambiguities, consultations, different viewpoints, theoretical underpinnings. There is lots of room for schools to interpret and ignore [eqint1].
Links between policies	- Various policies like school based management, Education 2001, etc. have a direct impact on LOTE in schools [eqint1]. - The link between LOTE and computing policies: "We want to ensure that the technology is there in the teaching of LOTE. And how do you do that"? [eqint4]. Computer policies and LOTE policies seem to be independent of one another. - "For Asian languages you need more sophisticated expensive software, yet this doesn't seem to have been taken into account" [eqint4].
Decisions on policies	"Sometimes what we as learning area experts might recommend, is contrary to the principle policy of the Director General of the time, who is reflecting his own agenda or the political party that's in control of the Government's agenda" [eqint4].
Technology and LOTE	"From the top down, everything is conspiring to lead the teachers down the path of using the technology. Money is being put there" [eqint2].

Negative impacts of policies

Respondents also described the negative consequences of some policies. One major concern related to the structural changes in Education Queensland, which dismantled the education regions and replaced them with districts. When the regions went, so did the curriculum advisors which were based in each region. A second concern was the way in which the 1991 LOTE policy was promulgated. One respondent said that LOTE policy was dictated from the top at the same time as schools were ostensibly getting less control from central office, which

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[3] In Table 4.5.2, comments in quotation marks are direct quotes; the other comments are paraphrases.

generated resentment in schools and teaching staffs. A third area of concern was the ambiguity of policies (see comments in Table 4.5.2), which was confusing to principals and staff alike.

Networking and professional organisations

Several respondents discussed the role of language teaching associations such as the AFMLTA, MLTAV, and the MLTAQ. While these organisations have played significant roles in the establishment of policies, their input into policy decision making once the policies were promulgated has been only as advisors. One respondent stated: "How teachers and professional organisations get input into policy – they don't" [eqint4]. The respondent went on to say, however, that they do have input into the initial fact finding stage, and cited the example of a review of LOTE in schools carried out by Professor Alan Rix.[4]

4.5.3 Training

Teacher training, both pre-service and professional development, was discussed by all respondents. Education Queensland considers professional development of teachers to be important and has established through the Centre for Teacher Excellence a database of registered trainers which schools can access to find the most appropriate trainers for their staff [eqint1]. However, schools are not obliged to use this service and may contract with trainers anywhere. The Open Access Centre also provides computer training for teachers, and in the past has taken blocks of teachers for training with the expectation that these teachers in turn will assist in the training of their colleagues in the schools. The department has provided special funding for training teachers to reach the minimum standards in computing. Another respondent stated that many teachers learn computing skills through trial and error learning by using the machines.

However, one out-of-state respondent stated that LOTE teachers often miss out on training because of school training priorities, and there is insufficient funding in that state for adequate teacher training. Another issue raised was that training is generally in the teachers' own time

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[4] Professor Rix of The University of Queensland undertook a review of the LOTE program of Education Queensland in 1999. An officer of Education Queensland stated that the ensuing report was an internal document and is not available for publication.

which creates problems. Professional associations in some states have been offering specialist computer courses for LOTE teachers and were very popular with teaching staff.

Pre-service training has been seen as a real issue by one Queensland respondent who is a member of a departmental and university working party which is investigating the difficulties inherent in pre-service education [eqint1]. An out-of-state respondent stated that teacher training organisations need a strong technical component which has been lacking at least as far back as the 1980s.

4.5.4 Computers in schools

Comments from respondents covered two areas: positive use of computers in schools, and the problems associated with using computers in schools.

On the positive side, respondents from Queensland and Victoria stated that all schools were networked through an intranet which enabled rapid communication between departmental offices and schools and assisted in general administrative areas. One respondent stated that in Queensland 95% of all communication between schools and head office were now done on the department's intranet. Another Queensland respondent stated that teachers are beginning to use the Internet for teaching and information, administration, with an increasing use in email. In Victoria, all teachers now have their own email addresses and in general all on-line resources are being more extensively used.

Respondents also stated that there is a high motivational factor for students in using computers for learning, and while there was early trepidation and fear among teachers in Queensland and Victoria to take up the use of computers, this seems to be diminishing, and there are many more teachers using email and the Internet, plus the use of CD-ROMs and other programs for teaching. One Queensland respondent stated that the use of CALL, and in particular a program called the *Language Market*, has been well received by teachers and heads of departments. A Queensland respondent stated: "Some adventurous souls are attempting to integrate computer technology into their lesson plans in the same way as you integrate video" [eqint2]. In Victoria, there is also a growth in the development of on-line courses with some having an international component [vic1int]. A South Australian

respondent stated that the improved technology available to schools will now allow for synchronous conversation through the use of such applications as chat groups, IRC and others.

This recent growth in the use of computers for teaching has also created a number of problems. First, a Queensland respondent stated that students and teachers far outnumber the current quantity of computers available in a school. This leads to the generation of other problem areas in the school. Coupled with this problem is the availability of good CALL software which is hard to get; it is frequently very expensive according to one EQ respondent.

Another Queensland respondent raised issues concerning the actual design and configuration of schools to deal with more computerised classes: "Once teachers start using the Internet for classroom teaching, what happens to the configuration of the classroom and teaching methods?" [eqint1]. The respondent also stated that the introduction of computers into schools means major changes in teacher roles, which in turn has generated much concern in EQ and teacher organisations. Another respondent summed up the whole situation as: "access to computers, location of computers, funds, software, training and teachers who are competent in using IT" [eqint2]. Part of the problem in configuring existing schools to deal with networked computers is the development of the infrastructure in the school. A Queensland respondent stated that school buildings themselves are not set up for integrating computers into classrooms, and attempting to do so is increasingly expensive. Another issue raised by respondents in this area is the misunderstanding between computer technicians and educators who frequently have very different theories and agendas. With regard to language teaching, one South Australian respondent put it succinctly by saying that technical people don't know language issues.

Other issues raised by South Australian respondents is the dearth of good training for teachers, as well as the lack of preparation time, particularly in preparing lessons for use with computers. For these, and reasons relating to lack of good software, teachers are not using CALL in classes as much as they might. In Queensland, a respondent stated that in discussion with LOTE heads of departments, their sense was that when computers worked they were great. Otherwise they were terrible. The need for technical support is essential if schools continue to work with computers.

4.5.5 Key people in schools for LOTE

Queensland respondents stated that there are three key people in schools for LOTE and for computing: principals, heads of departments, and motivated teachers. Principals are still the key in allocation of hardware and software in a school. "The principal is key, is pivotal" [eqint4]. One respondent believes that heads of departments are very important: "If you can turn the HODs and get them onside, you're 95% there" [eqint2]. Additionally respondents also believed that teachers themselves can make an important difference: "Teachers can often sell the principal and the community" [eqint3]. This respondent also saw the school as part of the larger community which includes the students, their parents, the teachers and the principal [eqint3].

4.5.6 Networking

All respondents expressed some opinions on language teacher networking. In Queensland, a major concern has been the demise of regional LOTE advisors which fractured developing networks of language teachers throughout Queensland. One respondent stated: "we also used to have regional language teacher meetings and things like that. With the amount of cutting back that's going on now, the only avenue for networking, I've heard one or two teachers say this of LOTE, like we don't get to see other teachers now" [rcint1]. The respondent also stated that there is now more pressure on language professional associations to take on more of the networking role. More broadly however, with the advent of EQ's intranet, there are avenues through discussion groups established by the department for teachers to correspond directly with directors in the central office. Language heads of department also network through special meetings. One Queensland respondent stated that he frequently uses email to contact colleagues and also manages a discussion list for language teachers.

Respondents believe that language teachers themselves network through more traditional means including regular avenues such as seminars and teacher meetings. Teachers tend to network with work mates and use fax, telephone, etc. outside of school hours. Teachers also tend to share information, concerns, etc. in their staff room. The role of professional associations is seen as important in assisting in eliminating teacher isolation, as the

organisations do share many resources, produce newsletters and other publications with contact addresses and such for teachers to follow up, and run seminars, meetings and conferences. South Australian respondents stated that the professional associations are very strong in that state.

4.5.7 Teacher concerns & technology

All respondents raised issues regarding teachers' opinions and attitudes towards technology. Three themes emerged from the discussions:

- Teachers' fear of technology and change
- Perceived low status of LOTE
- Specific teaching issues using IT

Teachers' fear of technology and change

The response of teachers to the Queensland policy of minimum standards of technological literacy for teachers was cited by several Queensland respondents. One respondent stated: "I'll throw in two comments, and one is absolute fear and dread, because the implication is that it's linked to your performance as a teacher, sort of like a condition of employment" [rcint1]. However, he went on to state that teachers found that the competencies are quite basic. Another respondent stated that anecdotally there is some trepidation in the use of computers, but that there were a range of people who were comfortable with using them. However, respondents also stated that the fear of change, and the change of roles for teachers is "quite scary" [rcint1]. According to one South Australian respondent, teachers are threatened by change, and feel nervous about using technology when the pressures of time, infrastructure and training are all added to learning new skills. Another respondent from South Australia raised the anxieties of teachers in that they have to manage a class plus the technology; they are reluctant to change roles. The main emphasis is on behaviour management in many classes.

A Queensland respondent stated that there has been a significant change over the past two years; technophobia among LOTE teachers was seen as very high but because of the minimum standards policy, teachers are now starting to experiment and are more confident in their own usage. "What this shows to me is that people are now at the stage of getting over the fear of

the unknown" [eqint2]. South Australian respondents also mentioned a generational gap, in that older teachers are less inclined to use the technology, and most LOTE teachers are in the older age brackets. These respondents also mentioned concerns over time, they are already pushed to the limit and more demands exacerbate the already high burnout rate. Teachers feel isolated due to pressures of time and the limited access to computers. But a Victorian respondent believes that technologically literate teachers will be the teaching norm in the future [vic1int].

Perceived low status of LOTE

Respondents also raised concerns about the perceived low status of LOTE. In Queensland one respondent stated: "One of the issues for us of course is losing our share of the market" [eqint4]. South Australian respondents mentioned the perceived marginalisation of LOTE in schools. LOTE teachers feel most at risk due to the low status of LOTE. Another respondent stated that LOTE teachers often feel they are 'parasitising' on the system due to low class numbers, and that LOTE is not seen as important in the overall curriculum, and that LOTE is seen to be precarious within the school curriculum.

Specific teaching issues using IT

Queensland respondents were more specific in their concerns. One issue was that of compulsory LOTE classes. One respondent said that non-compulsory language classes are much better 'cause the kids want to do it" [eqint3]. In terms of using computers, one respondent [rcint1] said that using CALL programs can be very motivating for the students, and that students interacting with the computer elicits some sort of response which is reinforcing to the student. He also stated he got a "real buzz" out of seeing teachers using CD-ROMs, which gave them a sense of accomplishment. But time factors are still important. One respondent stated that it will take time to get a greater use of computers up to speed. Time is also a major factor for teachers. Language advisors based at the LOTE Centre were having a difficult time getting teachers to language maintenance workshops and other tasks in their own time, particularly for weekend workshops.

Teachers were also concerned about the dearth of software. One respondent stated: "Teachers want something that's ready to use, stuff they can use in the classroom" [rcint1].

4.5.8 LOTE and the community

A number of respondents also discussed the need to 'sell' LOTE to the community. However, the recent emergence of new political parties which are advocating a more exclusive monocultural agenda in contrast to the multicultural policies put in place over the past two decades, is creating additional difficulties in this regard. Moreover, in Queensland, the issue of LOTE being pushed from the top onto schools was seen as a stumbling block in attempting to encourage LOTE. The combination of these two events has created a problem. One respondent stated:

> Ah, I don't know; it sounds like in a lot of these things there's been a big hiccup, you know, people carrying on like Pauline Hanson and that with the whole idea of multiculturalism and all these things which you've seen to be dictated from the top, and LOTE was one which was dictated from the top. And that actually caused resentment amongst schools because of that, because — I clearly remember in 1990 and 1991 this big focus on the schools and issues and at the same time they were pushing this thing saying schools will have more power in decision making, at the same time that was happening there was a push saying you will do LOTE.

> And there were many sections of the community, many teachers in the school communities which just did not see the importance of learning LOTE, rightly or wrongly. But that's how they felt. And the issues now, probably it's sort of grudgingly accepted in the schools and now that it's here, that's that" [rcint1].

Another respondent stated: "People need to be convinced. We're in a pretty racist period. We don't need that in this country" [vic1int]. The respondent went on to state that the economic arguments which have been used are not "long term" and not as valid. "We need arguments for learning languages" [vic1int].

However, Queensland respondents believed that teachers themselves could sell LOTE to the community. One response to criticism of LOTE was the development of the new junior syllabus which one respondent believed would help generate new satisfaction with LOTE. The new approach will make LOTE more relevant to the rest of the curriculum. Another respondent stated that some teachers may not be particularly good at selling the program, but others "turn around a negative response by being damn good at their job and giving the kids a really stimulating overall program" [rcint1].

A number of respondents also believed that the use of technology in language teaching would bring many positive benefits for language learners. One respondent said: "We need to use technology. We can use the Internet. We should be building on that, opening channels for peace and education" [vic1int]. A Queensland respondent said regarding the use of the Internet for language teaching:

> And actually that was a real buzz in the things like, in the school year book and things we have photos that have been emailed to us off the French kids' home page and all sorts of things like that with little samples of their messages and samples of our kids' messages; they brought that real element to the classroom which is a big thing, like, why should I learn a language, I'm not gonna use it. Um, and if you are, and you are in northwest Queensland – fifty years ago that might have been the case" [rcint1].

4.5.9 Summary

Respondents from Queensland and other states raised similar issues and concerns. National issues were raised only peripherally, and linked to the Commonwealth government's 'devolution' of foreign language teaching and a greater emphasis on literacy and numeracy. However, while all raised concerns about the state of language teaching in schools, there were many positive initiatives, such as the development of special CALL software, e.g., *The Language Market*, and the rapidly emerging use of the Internet for language teaching.

Specifically, the findings indicate that officers of EQ are well aware of the current policies and trends within the Department, as well as the political dynamics that generate policy initiatives. Interstate respondents, on the other hand, were more concerned about the Commonwealth's current approach to language policies. These respondents also expressed concern about the issues arising from the removal of the regional LOTE coordinators.

Respondents raised a number of other issues. The issue of training was stated by all respondents, and related to pre-service teacher education through to local school in-service programs. Respondents also considered that the use of computers in language teaching was a great motivating force for students, but that at the same time, the computer systems in the schools had to be working properly. Respondents also mentioned that while language teachers had a certain degree of technophobia in regard to using computers, it has been diminishing, particularly as a result of departmental computer policies. Another issue respondents thought was very serious was the perceived low status of LOTE, from the

Commonwealth government as well as from State and local opinions. They mentioned that LOTE needed to be 'sold' to the community far more vigorously than in the past if language teaching were to ultimately succeed.

4.6 Findings from principals and head of department interviews

4.6.1 Processes and structure

This section describes the findings of interviews of two school principals and one non-LOTE head of department, as discussed in the Methodology chapter, Section 3.4.2. The respondents came from two schools: one principal from one school and one principal and head of department from the second school. A specific set of questions which principally related to the use of computers for language teaching in the school was prepared for these interviews and can be found in Appendix J. A second Head of Department provided details regarding language teaching at her school as well as some demographic information on the school community, but declined to be interviewed. The interviews were transcribed and then coded using the same process as described for teacher interviews as discussed in Section 3.7.2 of the Methodology chapter. In the first instance, the different issues raised by the respondents will be outlined, then categorised into over-arching thematic areas, which in turn will be discussed separately.

4.6.2 Issues raised

The three respondents raised a number of issues in answer to the questions. Table 4.6.1 lists the issues raised, the frequency with which they were raised, and the number of respondents who raised them. The table is sorted by frequency of mention. Table 4.6.2 indicates the common issues across all three respondents, and Table 4.6.3 indicates issues common to two of the three respondents.

Table 4.6.1: Issues raised by respondents (n=3)

Issues	Frequency of mention	Number of respondents
Shortage of funding for school computing needs	5	3
Lack of funds for staff training	4	3
Students gaining computing skills	4	3
Budget constraints	4	3
Committees and school decision making	4	3
Problems relating to access to computers	3	2
How the school uses the Internet	3	3
Special computer training for staff	3	3
Competition in the staff for resources	3	2
Department's computer policies	2	1
The 'band' of the school and related staffing issues	2	1
Use of computers in school for LOTE	2	2
Queensland's LOTE policy	2	2
Minimum standards in computer competency	2	2
Problems with equity in computer access for students	2	1
Technical knowledge of staff	2	1
Funding via grants from other sources than EQ general funds	2	1
Training to minimum standards criteria	2	1
Special funds for teacher training in computing	2	1
Loss of regional advisors	1	1
Limits on what a school is allowed to do	1	1
School based management	1	1
Computer coordination in the school	1	1
Special LOTE programs	1	1
Problems relating to computer maintenance	1	1
Obtaining LOTE programs	1	1
Funding from Education Queensland	1	1
Other funding issues	1	1
Training for LOTE teachers	1	1
LOTEs seen as difficult agents	1	1
Problems in keeping students in LOTE past year 8	1	1
Need for teachers to advocate more for their needs	1	1
High turnover of LOTE teachers	1	1
Special school projects	1	1
The role of the principal	1	1

Issues common across all three respondents are indicated in Table 4.6.2.

Table 4.6.2: **Common codes across all three respondents (n=3)**

Issue	Frequency of mention
Shortage of funding for school computing needs	5
Budget constraints	4
Lack of funds for staff training	4
Students gaining computing skills	4
Committees and school decision making	4
How the school uses the Internet	3
Special computer training for staff	3
Total mentions	**27**

Issues common to two of the three respondents are shown in Table 4.6.3.

Table 4.6.3: **Common codes across two of the three respondents (n=3)**

Issue	Frequency of mention
Problems relating to access to computers	3
Competition in the staff for resources	3
Use of computers in school for LOTE	2
Queensland's LOTE policy	2
Minimum standards in computer competency	2
Total mentions	**12**

The two major issues arising from the interviews which are common to all three respondents are funding for the schools' computing needs and staff training. The use of computers, and the internal school committee structure is also seen as important. Policy issues are also raised by two of the three respondents, as are issues relating to the allocation of resources within the school. The main themes which emerge from these interviews are indicated in Table 4.6.4.

Table 4.6.4: Themes by frequency of mention (n=3)

Theme	Frequency of mention	Percent
Computers in the school	16	22%
Funding	15	21%
Training	15	21%
Dynamics in the school	11	14%
Other policies	5	7%
Computing policies	4	6%
LOTE issues	4	6%
LOTE policies	2	3%
Total mentions	**72**	**100%**

The use of computers in schools and the attendant issues regarding financing and training are the major issues to arise from the respondents' replies. School dynamics, i.e. how LOTE fares within the committee structure in the school is also raised frequently. Policy issues were raised less frequently.

4.6.3 Computers in the school

This theme consists of issues relating to the *use* of computers in the school. Table 4.6.5 indicates the issues within this theme and the frequency with which they were mentioned.

Table 4.6.5: Issues relating to the use of computers in the school (n=3)

Issue	Frequency of mention
Problems relating to access to computers	3
How the school uses the Internet*	3
Problems with equity in computer access for students	2
Technical knowledge of the staff	2
Using computers in school for LOTE	2
Special projects in computers and LOTE	1
Coordination of computers in the schools	1
Self access to computers for staff & students	1
Problems relating to computer maintenance	1
Total mentions	**16**

Note: * indicates that all three respondents raised the issue.

The two main issues relating to the use of computers in the school are problems in accessing computers and how the school uses the Internet. To illustrate access issues, respondents stated:

At the moment, I'm just about at saturation point now, because we have — all the rooms are in use pretty well all the time [prin12].

There's either two language classes and the rooms are vacant, or there's three or four language classes all at once. So we're fairly lucky this year. It may not always work that way. It's something you've got to work around [hod110].

Concerning the Internet, respondents stated:

I think the main one is through the Internet. That is something that we should really be pushing more. And we are about to be connected to the Internet in the classrooms in that particular building. We were just going to move it down into the computer section, but we felt that having the connections directly into the classroom while is the class is there, would be more beneficial to the students. It's a direct contact, a direct link with someone from a native speaking country. That's how I see it, it's wonderful [hod110].

But the school is now cabled, the school is on the Internet. The technology development in this school in the last eighteen months has been enormous. Our capacity to link and relate to the rest of the world is now here from all points in the school and is being improved. And it will be improved dramatically over the next two years [prin110].

Equity issues were discussed relating to two areas: one was access to computers in the school for all students on as equitable a basis as possible, and the second was a concern that in a lower socio-economic area students did not have as much access to technology at home as in more affluent areas.

To illustrate this issue, respondents stated:

we still have an emphasis on all kids being able to get access to computers. So we run programs that they can get in before school, or during lunch time, or after school [prin12].

...we're in a ah, um, what is called a low socio-economic area, ah, statistically one of the lowest income earning areas in the Brisbane Metropolitan area. So there's not a lot of home computer use. Not a lot of technology in general in the home. So we have, what we're providing for the kids in many cases is their first introduction to computer technology [prin12].

In using computers for LOTE, the respondents offered a number of responses: All thought the use of computers for language teaching was necessary, but with some reservations. One respondent stated that language is a communicative endeavour, and while the use of computers can assist in this, e.g., via the Internet, there is still a need for a teacher to lead the class. Computers can also provide a greater incentive for self-paced learning, as well as allowing for special LOTE programs to assist in the teaching processes.

Some quotes from respondents illustrate these points:

> A variety of ways, really. I think the main one is through the Internet. That is something we should really be pushing more [hod110].

> What we need is a couple of properly set up language laboratories, but at this time we don't have that in this school [prin110].

> Using computers can at times allow kids to work perhaps at a much more of a self-paced process [prin12].

> So I think that all we've got to realise is that a computer is a tool, and that it's therefore used as an adjunct to what a teacher and the teaching program as written [prin12].

Other points that were raised related to the self access of students to computers, computer maintenance in the school and one trial of a special LOTE project relating to a videodisk based CALL project.

4.6.4 Funding

Funding issues were raised extensively by all three respondents. This particular theme is mentioned in all of the other thematic areas. The issues which emerged within this theme are illustrated in Table 4.6.6.

Table 4.6.6: Issues of funding for the school (n=3)

Issue	Frequency of mention
Shortage of funding for school computing needs	5
Budgeting constraints	4
Funding for teacher training	2
Computer maintenance	1
Funding from EQ	1
Funding from special grants	1
Other funding issues	1
Total mentions	**15**

The major issue raised by all respondents to this question is that of shortage of funds for the burgeoning computer infrastructure needed in schools. One respondent stated that 10% of the schools' maintenance budget is taken up just to maintain the existing computer systems; more computers will require more funds. Another respondent stated that while funding from Education Queensland is not sufficient to properly equip the school, there are other avenues of funding (through grants) which the school uses.

To further illustrate the theme, respondents said:

OK, the big issue for all schools, is finances [prin12].

If you set yourself a goal of one computer per student, which is the ideal ratio, you're talking about multi-millions of dollars [prin12].

There is only so much you can do with the education department...but you're only looking at slim pickings in that area [prin110].

The cry for more resources goes on and on. We're getting to a point where I asked the technology committee to consider the fact that we probably need to reach an upper limit in terms of keeping buying more hardware and look at stuff that will replace them. What we've got within the finances that are available to us we're maintaining at the edge – the technology edge [prin110].

Funding for teacher training is partially met by special grants from the department and is related to the minimum standards policy promulgated by the department.

4.6.5 Training

Issues in the training of staff in the use of computers was a major theme from all respondents. Table 4.6.7 indicates issues relating to staff training in the use of computers and the frequency with which they were mentioned.

Table 4.6.7: Issues relating to staff training in computing (n=3)

Issue	Frequency of mention
Lack of funds for staff training	4
Need for students to gain computing skills	4
Special computer training for staff	3
Training to minimum standards	2
Special training for LOTE teachers	1
General training	1
Total mentions	**15**

The issue of funding for staff training is an important issue, as is the need to ensure that students obtain sufficient training in computers to gain basic computer literacy. All respondents were aware of the Department's computer policies and the minimum standards requirement. The training is done internally in schools by teachers who are trained in computing, as well as by outside providers, both private, and through organisations such as TAFE colleges. There are also smaller in-service courses run periodically. Funds are provided by EQ to schools for teacher training, but it is up to the schools themselves to organise this. One school sets aside one student-free day per year so that staff can get access to computer technology for upgrading of skills.

To illustrate these points, respondents said:

> (relating to minimum standards): Probably 80% of the staff are pretty much there by now. I know all the language teachers have been through a session [hod110].

> we get given special grants to seek out our own training [prin110].

> The department has more or less imposed that on us. They have an expectation that all teachers will become computer literate and that they will be using the Internet. They will be using, ah, electronic resources within their classrooms [prin110].

In terms of special training for LOTE teachers, no respondent categorically stated that LOTE staff got special training in CALL, although they were not averse to it. There was some

concern that staff needed this sort of training, but were unsure of how and where. One concern raised was that the regional advisors in subject areas were all disbanded; this included computer advisors as well as the LOTE advisors. However, some of these were still available in an informal capacity.

Some statements from respondents illustrate this point:

> I personally can't think of any specific LOTE training that they have received. They may well have done that but I wouldn't be aware of it [prin12].

> I don't know how much that's sorted out. I don't know that [prin110].

> Not specifically. That's why we want this connection with outside sources organised by May. Because I think that's particular to the subject, it's something that they need to be au fait with, if they're going to teach the students [hod110].

4.6.6 Policies

Respondents mentioned policies eleven times in the context of other issues they were discussing. The policies mentioned were the department's computer policy, the minimum standards component of that policy, and the Queensland LOTE policy. Other broader policies affecting schools were those relating to school based management, limitations on the school to act independently, the change from a regional to a district structure and the loss of regional advisors because of it, and the personnel policies related to the band (size) of the school which limits the number of staff a school may have in any specific area.

In relation to the Queensland LOTE policy, one respondent was concerned over the politicisation of languages:

> ...I think we are politically driven. Which is sad. We're basically saying to the students you must do a language. Not every student is cut out to do a language, or who wants to do a language. Hence you end up with behaviour problems in the classroom. Not so much in the older students, beyond year eight [hod110].

4.6.7 Dynamics in the school

Respondents discussed issues of how their schools allocated resources, and the difficulties which smaller departments such as language departments have in the context of such related issues as the make-up of the school's committee structure, the perceived status of LOTE in

the school, and the turnover of LOTE staff. Table 4.6.8 indicates the issues discussed under the theme.

Table 4.6.8: Issues relating to the dynamics of the school (n=3)

Issue	Frequency of mention
Committees and school decision making	4
Competition in the staff for resources	3
Teachers need to advocate more for their needs	1
High turnover of LOTE staff	1
The role of the principal	1
Total mentions	**10**

Both schools have set up committees which look after the development of technology in the schools, and it is to these committees which staff have to present their needs for hardware, software and training. Basically the committees then put a series of recommendations to the principal who then assents to them or makes changes. One respondent discussed the newer role of the principal in this regard:

> And my role there has changed from the curriculum leader to manager of the curriculum and all the other aspects of resourcing of this school. So it's a far larger role than it was, say, ten years ago [prin110].

In this process however, two respondents stated that it was important for language teachers to advocate more strongly for their needs because of the fierce competition for available resources in the school. Languages were at a disadvantage because they were in a small department, coupled with the fact that there was a high turnover of LOTE staff, thereby making it difficult for the new staff to network efficiently in the school to get their needs met.

Other issues relating to languages in the schools were perceptions in the school and in the community that languages were 'hard' which was a deterrent to more students continuing their language studies beyond the compulsory years. However, those who did continue were seen to be the better students in the school, and previous graduates have done very well in terms of gaining tertiary placements. One respondent said:

> I think also too, if we look at a language like Chinese, it is quite difficult for kids to pick up. And they have to learn to think differently, to understand the structure of it, finding the tones, all the things that are in that language. And that puts a lot of modern children off because ah, sadly, I think it's a reflection on our society, that not enough people are prepared to do the hard work. And if you're going to study a language,

you effectively, at some time, it needs to stop being good fun, and you get down and do the hard work [prin110].

4.6.8 Summary

Respondents provided an overview of the teaching of LOTE in their schools and the issues that this subject area faced. The major issues emanating from the interviews with the three respondents were funding and training for using computers in the school. Infrastructure, maintenance and training costs were raised. Other issues related to the equitable allocation of resources in the school itself for both students and staff, which often related to the status of LOTE teachers within the school. While it was essential for staff to gain special training for their particular disciplines, e.g. CALL, none of the respondents were aware of any training available for this area, but would accept it if it was offered.

4.7 Findings on teacher networks and professional associations

4.7.1 Processes and structure

This section presents data on the various networks teachers use, and details of membership in the Modern Language Teachers Association of Queensland (MLTAQ). A combination of findings from teacher interviews and the questionnaire has been used here to indicate an overall approach of teachers' networking. Part 4.7.2 provides details on teacher networks, using the network taxonomy as discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.2. Part 4.7.3 provides a detailed account of respondents' membership in the MLTAQ, the major professional association for language teachers in Queensland.

4.7.2 LOTE teacher networks

Tables 4.7.1 and 4.7.2 indicate the different networks that respondents are members of. Table 4.7.1 also indicates the network type, the system or organisation representing that type, how communications are generally undertaken, and what purposes and benefits are seen to accrue from each type. Table 4.7.2 indicates specific networks mentioned by respondents, which are categorised by network type. The source of the information is from interviews and the

questionnaire. The network types used in these two tables are discussed in Chapter Two, Section 2.3.2. Briefly, networks can be defined in three dimensions: internal/external, vertical/horizontal, and formal/informal. Each network type will have one of each dimension, so that there are eight varieties of network, which is indicated in Tables 4.7.1 and 4.7.2.

Table 4.7.1: **LOTE teacher networks**

Network type	System	Communication	Purposes & benefits
Formal, vertical, internal	Department	Meetings, minutes, reports	School structure; delineation of responsibility
Formal, horizontal, internal	School committees, e.g. *Management and Learning Technology Plan* (MALT)	Meetings, minutes, reports	Allocation of resources, problem solving
Informal, vertical, internal	Staff room	Chat, discussion	Problem solving, cohesion, team building
Informal, horizontal, internal	Staff room	Chat, discussion	Cohesion, belonging, friendship, problem solving
Formal, vertical, external	Curriculum reference groups, Parent &Citizen committees	Meetings, reports	Syllabus design, critique
Formal, horizontal, external	Professional organisations, MLTAQ, language organisations	Meetings, newsletters, SIGs, journals	PD, liaison, problem solving, politics, resource sharing professional acceptance
Informal, vertical, external	Discussion groups	Meetings, email	PD, issues raising or solving across schools, resource sharing, mentoring
Informal, horizontal, external	LOTE teacher networks	Email, dinners, telephone calls	Resource sharing, mentoring, issues raising or solving

Not all teachers belong to all these network types, but it seems that teachers use a large number of them, as indicated particularly by teachers who were interviewed. Membership in specific networks as reported by respondents are shown in Table 4.7.2.

Table 4.7.2: Specific LOTE teacher networks

Network type	System
Formal, vertical, internal	English Department
	LOTE Department
	Parent &Citizen committees
Formal, horizontal, internal	MALT committee
	Curriculum committee
	IT committee
	Resources committee
Informal, vertical, internal	Staff rooms
Informal, horizontal, internal	Staff rooms
Formal, vertical, external	Senior syllabus LOTE panels
	Junior syllabus reference groups
	National reference groups
Formal, horizontal, external	MLTAQ
	AFMLTA
	Dante Alighieri Society
	Goethe Institute
	Chinese Language Teachers Association
	Alliance Française
	Access Asia
	Australian Institute of Management
	AUSINDO
	Australia-Japan Society
	CASTT (tourism)
	Gamelan Giri Jaya of Toowoomba
	History Teachers Association
	Mathematics Teachers Association
	QSITE
	Qld. Teachers' Union
	QIEA
Informal, vertical, external	Discussion groups
Informal, horizontal, external	Japanese teacher network
	German speakers network
	Schoolmates from uni
	Former workmates
	Economics teachers' network
	Mt Isa LOTE teachers' network
	Sunshine Coast Indonesian Teachers' Network

These details from respondents indicate that they are members of formal, horizontal, external networks most frequently, and informal, horizontal external networks are also used frequently.

4.7.3 Professional associations

The largest professional organisation for language teachers in Queensland is the Modern Language Teachers Association of Queensland (MLTAQ). The tables and graphs indicate the number and percent of the questionnaire and interview respondents who indicated they were members of the MLTAQ. Data from interviews are also included under the heading "Metro-I".

Of the four categories mentioned which include membership of the MLTAQ by interviewees in metropolitan schools (Metro-I), it is clear that teachers based in regional centres are most inclined to be members of the MLTAQ, and country-based teachers the least. Slightly over half of their urban counterparts are members, and the country teachers are least represented.

Figure 4.7.1: Percentage of MLTAQ membership by area
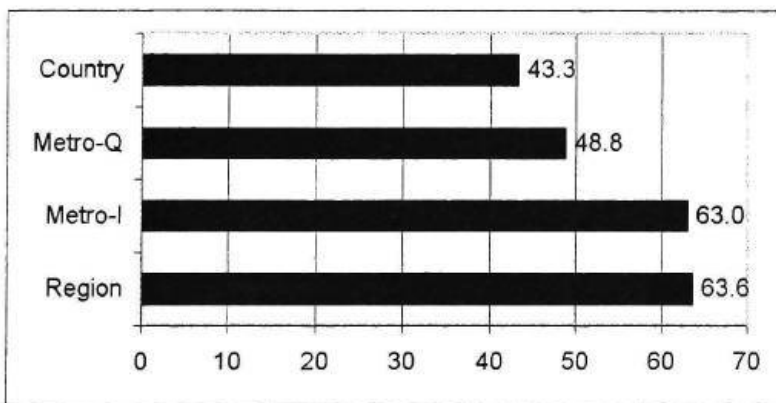
A series of cross tabulations was run from the questionnaire data in order to ascertain if belonging to the MLTAQ had any observable impact on a teacher's networking. While there are differences between the three areas — metropolitan, regional and country — there is no discernible pattern that points one way or the other. What may be of significance, however, are the overall networking patterns in the three different areas.

The network patterns of MLTAQ members and non-members across the State are indicated in Figures 4.7.1. to 4.7.5.

Figure 4.7.2: MLTAQ members/non-members network profile (n=115)

Note: data from questionnaire only.

MLTAQ Member/non-member network patterns

	Y	N
Other	30%	9%
Lang. teachers out of school	82%	69%
Lang. teachers in school	56%	57%
Fellow teachers in school	56%	63%
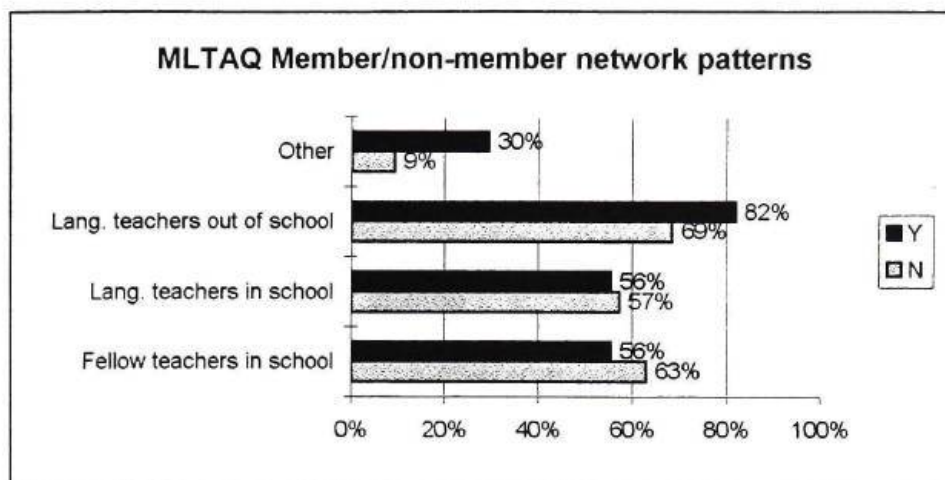
MLTAQ members appear to network more out of their school than do non-members, who network more with fellow teachers in school. Of particular significance is the number of members who selected the 'Other' category, which indicates that members seem to have more propensity to network with a broader range of people and organisations than do non-members.

Figure 4.7.3: Regional profile of MLTAQ members/non-members (n=44)

MLTAQ members/non-members network profile: regional

	N	Y
Other	6%	25%
Lang. teachers out of school	75%	75%
Lang. teachers in school	69%	68%
Fellow teachers in school	63%	82%
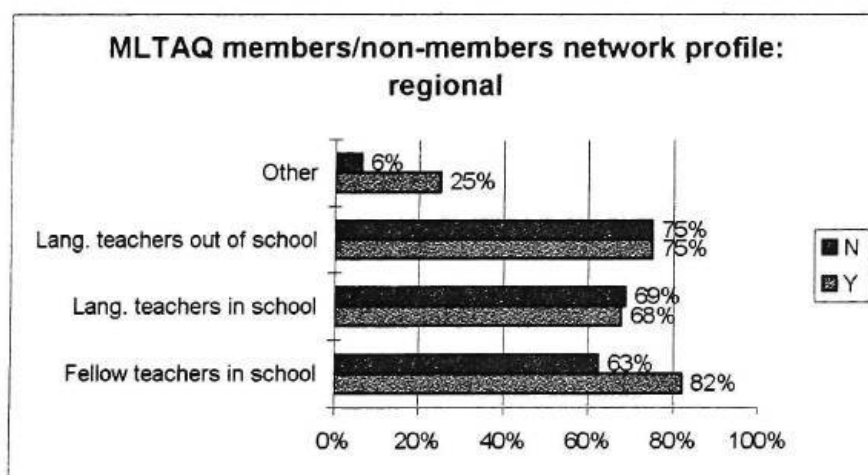
MLTAQ members in regional areas network much more with fellow teachers in their own school and with other people outside the school.

Figure 4.7.4: Metropolitan profile of MLTAQ members/non-members (n=41)
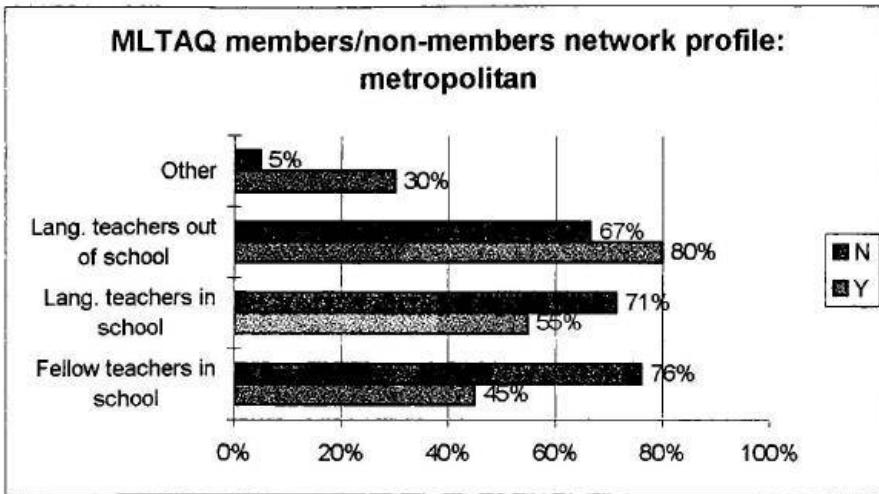
A different pattern from regional centres emerges in the metropolitan areas. In this area, non-members network far more with fellow teachers in the school, whereas MLTAQ members network more with colleagues out of their own school.

Figure 4.7.5: Country profile of MLTAQ members/non-members (n=30)
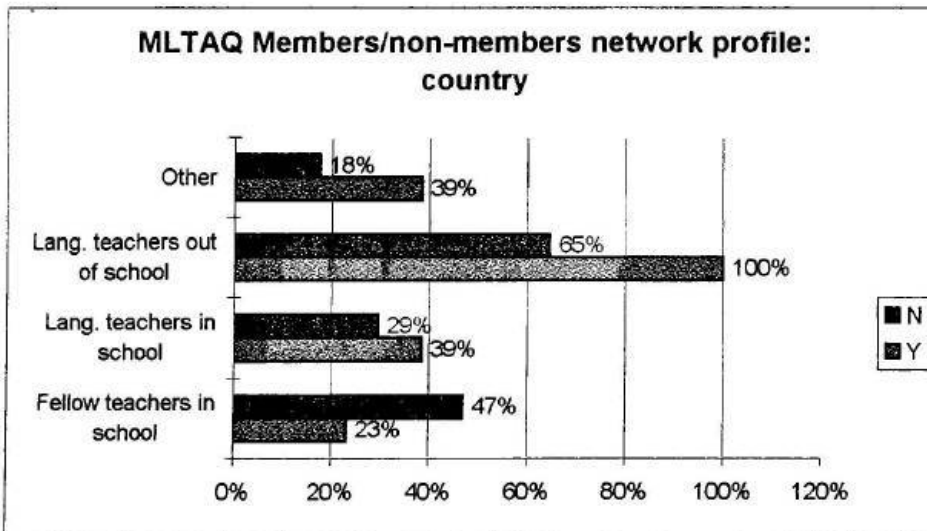
In country areas, MLTAQ members network most first with language teachers out of school, then language teachers in school, and then with other colleagues. Non-members network mostly with fellow teachers in school and much less with language teachers in the school, probably because there are fewer language teachers in country high schools. Overall, non-members have a tendency to network less than their member colleagues.

4.7.4 Summary

This section of the findings has presented details on specific teacher networks including professional associations, with particular emphasis on the MLTAQ. The findings indicate that LOTE teachers belong to a range of formal and informal networks. The formal networks include the official school networks such as departments and committees, and teachers' professional associations. The informal networks include local LOTE teacher networks and the sorts of internal networks teachers establish in their schools.

The MLTAQ can be considered as the peak organisation for LOTE teachers state-wide. The data indicate that teachers based in regional centres are most likely to be members of the MLTAQ, whereas teachers based in country areas are least likely to be members. The data also indicate that teachers who are MLTAQ members tend to network more with their peers outside their school.

4.8 Summary of the chapter

The texts

The reason for looking at the various texts was to gain an appreciation of how, in the first instance, the policy documents themselves set the context and provided the rationale for language teaching and the use of computers in schools. As discussed in previous chapters, these texts are the artefacts of government instrumentalities and as such act as the bases for further developments in language teaching and computing. Hence they provide the overall framework within which specific programs are implemented. The national language policies from 1987 and 1991 were examined to understand the Commonwealth government's approaches and aims regarding the teaching of foreign languages. The Queensland language-in-education policy and the EQ policy on the use of computers in schools were examined to understand the initiatives of the Department in regard to language teaching and the introduction of computers into schools.

The survey

The four case sets of the survey are representative of language professionals who are involved at some level within the established educational domain. The 27 language teachers who were interviewed provided an in-depth look at how language teaching and computing inter-related at the school level, and how teachers perceive and implement policies. The questionnaire results of the 115 respondents — all secondary school language teachers — across Queensland provide support for the issues raised by the other case sets, particularly the teachers.

Language professionals in the case set called 'external' are a combination of non-teaching language professionals and officers of Education Queensland. Their opinions and concerns provide a sketch of issues as seen from an out-of-school perspective. The interviews with the two school principals and the head of department provide opinions and concerns which are relevant to all schools involved in language teaching and computing. It is also noteworthy that in the main, all the case sets have corroborated one another's concerns, and this will be discussed in the next chapter.

5.0 Discussion

5.1 Overview of the chapter

This chapter brings together the findings of the various sections of the study and discusses them within the theoretical frameworks outlined in the literature review. In so doing it will attempt to provide answers to the research questions, as set out in Chapter Three.

The Chapter is divided into nine sections, each of which will discuss issues which have arisen from the findings. Section 5.2 discusses how the responses to the themes from the survey's case sets overlap, providing details on the common themes across case sets, which will point toward an over-arching theme of the importance of communication, which leads into Section 5.3 on communication.

Section 5.3 begins by discussing how the term 'communication' is used in the discussion, referring back to Taylor's concepts. As noted, Taylor sees communication as the fundamental basis of any organisation, as discussed in Chapter 2. Communication and policy are further discussed looking at patterns of communication leading to policy formulation, policy implementation, how policies change over time, and how policies can generate change. Some of the communication patterns in the school are also discussed, particularly those relating to the allocation of resources, school politics, training, and the status of language subjects within the school and the school's community.

A detailed look at teacher networks and professional organisations and the various roles they play is the central issue in Section 5.4. The section also looks at how these structures work within the education domain in the policy and professional development (PD) areas. Sections 5.3 and 5.4 define the context within which the issues raised in the study may be placed.

Section 5.5 looks at policy formation to re-formation, discussing the impact of national and State language, language-in-education, and State school computer policies. This is followed by a discussion on how the various views and opinions on policy issues are expressed by the case sets, and how they perceive them from their respective roles. A discussion on how respondent's answers might be used in the policy process follows on.

Funding issues are discussed in Section 5.6. While funding *per se* was not raised directly as a specific issue, the respondents' comments pointed directly at funding as a critical issue in other areas, particularly in resource allocation within the school, and the effects of funding on school computing in the acquisition and maintenance of hardware and software and specialised CALL training. Section 5.7 is devoted to how language teachers use computers in the school, beginning with Education Queensland's computer policies, and from these, what language teachers do, how they perceive CALL, and ending with issues relating to the use of computers in the school. Section 5.8 discusses other issues raised by respondents which may well be generic to the teaching profession as a whole, but are particularly relevant to foreign language teachers. And last, Section 5.9 provides a summary of the chapter, which will lead into the concluding chapter of the study.

5.2 Common themes from respondents

5.2.1 Themes across case sets

Miles and Huberman (1994) discuss in some detail how multiple case studies can be analysed. One way which has been used in this study is a cross-case matrix approach (Miles & Huberman, p. 172 ff), which lists common issues across case sets, using summaries from the text of the respondents to further define how each case set perceives the common issues. Further details on this approach are located in Chapter 3, Section 3.7.5. The respondents in this study were commenting on specific sets of questions and the content circumscribed by these questions provided the initial thematic structure. Through an initial analysis of their responses, other common themes were also ascertained, and the combination of these two sets of themes was then used to build a matrix (table) which provides an 'at a glance' sketch of the themes and how they relate. However, it is also important to recognise that the sketch displays only a very small part of the available data (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 242). Consequently, these themes are discussed in greater detail in the following sections of the chapter.

A cross-case matrix of themes and the comments from each case set may be viewed in Appendix K. The discussion below is based on the themes outlined in Appendix K. Each case

set represents a different perspective because of its position in the education domain, and the questions asked of them. Table 5.2.1 summarises the details found in Appendix K.

Table 5.2.1: Cross-case matrix summary table

Theme	Teacher interviews	Questionnaire	Principals/HOD	External
Policy	Unclear on policies	Some input into development	LOTE politically driven	Devolution of national policies
Training	Lack of Professional Development	Basic computer training only	Funds available for basic training	Pre-service computer training major issue
Computers in schools	Use computers mainly for own work	Use computers mainly for own work	Cost of maintaining and upgrading	Using computers motivational for students
Networking	Mostly informal in schools	53% members of MLTAQ	LOTE Teachers need to advocate more	Staff room major networking arena
Other concerns of teachers	Motivating students	Poor LOTE CALL programs	None raised	LOTE seen as precarious in schools
School dynamics	Obtaining resources through school committee system	Gaining access to computers in school	Obtaining resources through school committee system	Teacher networks, staff room networking

The themes are listed in Column 1. The issues the respondents raised are based on their experience and worldviews. Thus, an officer of EQ saw things differently from a teacher in a school. However, the different case sets' opinions are linked by the theme itself, and across-theme issues can also be ascertained.

The table also assists in providing a cursory answer to the research questions based on the findings. The table indicates that the case sets have different views of policy, for example; they have different difficulties and concerns about the same issues which indicate that the worldviews of these different groups are different. Implementation is affected by how policies are communicated and interpreted. How teachers implement policies are indicated by issues of resources and training. These points will be discussed in detail in this chapter.

5.2.2 Policy issues

Respondents from all case sets were asked about policy as it relates to their position. For example, opinions and concerns raised by respondents in the external case set provide a different, but related, picture to those of the teachers who were interviewed.

The two groups of external respondents perceived policy issues from two perspectives. The first was that of interstate respondents, who saw policy from a national perspective and from their own state perspective. The second was that Queensland respondents were more concerned about the specifics of how policies were disseminated and implemented within the education system in Queensland. The inter-state respondents raised concerns that nationally there is now a 'devolved' national language policy which has lost the overall national perspective outlined first in the *National Policy on Languages* (Lo Bianco, 1887), followed by *Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (DEET, 1991). The current Commonwealth government has de-emphasised LOTE and has put a higher priority on literacy and numeracy in English. The national impetus for language learning, based on Australia's broad multicultural background, has also been shifted to a more monolingual one of universal literacy and numeracy in English. However, the Commonwealth government still funds LOTE programs through the CSLP and these funds are still being used by education departments and schools. From an inter-state perspective, South Australian respondents raised concerns as to whether the State and national governments would continue their support for LOTE in schools.

Queensland respondents were more explicit in their opinions and comments than the interstate respondents. From the perspective of respondents in EQ, policy dissemination and the interpretation and implementation of policy at the school level are seen as important issues. The critical issue here is one of communication throughout the whole department, as can be seen by the issues raised, e.g. policy by rumour, ambiguous policies, and whether the policies are actually available in written form to teachers and schools. The respondents talked about the need for clear, written policies that would assist in dispelling ambiguities and the confusion of school personnel when implementing policies and directives. EQ is attempting to work

toward this through greater use of the Internet,[1] placing its major policy documents and directives on its Web site. The issue for dissemination then alters to one of access to the Web by school staff, and clear interpretations of policy documents by the policy makers.

The principals and the head of department who were interviewed see themselves as implementers of departmental policies, but recognise that language-in-education in particular is "politically driven" [prin3]. There is some concern that policies are sometimes forced on the schools with little recourse for feedback [prin2]. This is particularly true of Queensland's LOTE policy (EQ, 1991). One external respondent was very explicit in stating that the policy was mandated exactly at the same time that schools were ostensibly being given more autonomy [rcint1]. Another concern raised by teachers and external respondents, as well as the principals, was the restructuring of the department from a regional system to one of districts, which resulted in the abolition of regional subject advisors. The loss of these advisors has been felt by school administrations and teachers. One of the principals and the head of department mentioned this specifically [prin2, prin3] as did two of the language teachers who were interviewed [tint11, tint35].

Questions asked of the interviewed teachers related mainly to their knowledge of specific policies, both nationally and from EQ. In general, teachers were vague about policies. However, the closer the policy was to their day-to-day work, such as syllabus documents and the minimum competency policy, the more likely teachers were to know about them. Teachers generally found out about policies through the school hierarchy, but other avenues of communication were also used, such as through the LOTE Centre's language advisors, or officers in Languages and Cultures. Printed materials were also a source of knowledge about policies, such as the *LOTE Note* from EQ, the *Education Gazette*, and other official sources. However, other teachers mentioned that they sometimes found out about departmental policies through the daily newspaper or other public media.

Teachers were much less aware of national policies and programs, as the responses to policy questions indicated in Chapter Four. Some have had some input into national projects such as

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[1] Education Queensland's web site now has many of its policies available at http://education.qld.gov.au/corporate/doem/

the National Curriculum Guidelines, or the PLE program, but in the main were marginally aware at best of national endeavours in language-in-education policies.

Teachers who responded to the questionnaire indicated some awareness of specific national and State policies and programs because these were listed on the questionnaire. 59% of respondents to the questionnaire stated they were aware of the PLE program, 54% of the ALL Guidelines, but only six respondents (5%) were aware of *Australian Language and Literacy Policy*, the national policy document for LOTE teaching. Again, the closer a policy was to teachers' daily work, the more inclined teachers were to be aware of the policy.

Teachers' responses from the interviews and the questionnaire also point to the fact that few have had any direct input into the development or implementation of national or state policies. Some have had input into trialling elements of the new Queensland junior syllabus, and several mentioned they had had input into the National Curriculum Guidelines. However, no respondents stated they had any input at all into the formation, development, or implementation of key policy documents such as the Queensland LOTE Policy, or other broader documents. It would appear, therefore, that while teachers are the ultimate implementers of language-in-education policies, they have had little direct input into policy development. However, they do have input into specific working documents such as syllabus documents, which teachers do see as policy documents.

Thus, teachers appear to see policy as either remote from their daily work and hence of little practical importance, or highly relevant as in the case of syllabus documents or the minimum computing standards protocols. This reflects strongly teachers' worldviews and need to be taken into account when looking at how policies can be communicated more effectively throughout the educational hierarchy.

Two other themes relating to policy implementation may be seen here. The first is the loss of regional advisors, which school personnel related to strongly. The loss of the regional LOTE coordinators has resulted in a gap in communication between the central office of the department and the schools. The current language advisors, who are located in the LOTE Centre in Brisbane, have now to deal with the whole State and corresponding language teaching issues, taking the role of the regional LOTE advisors as well as their normal role of

specific language support. The second theme is one of teachers' understanding and awareness of educational policies. The respondents from interviews and the questionnaire have indicated that policies are more likely to be understood and used the closer they are to the teachers' daily work. Thus, syllabus documents are seen as policy and are used extensively.

Throughout the policy theme, communication issues appear again and again. Issues of clarification, dissemination, interpretation, knowledge of and input into policies are pervasive across all the case sets. Central office respondents have indicated that policies are often misinterpreted at the school level [eqint1, eqint4], and disseminating policy information to schools is often awkward [eqint4]. Teachers who were interviewed and the replies to the questionnaire indicated that their understanding and knowledge of policies were vague, and in some cases they were also unsure as to where they could go to get information on policies. Schools themselves appear to have a variety of methods of policy dissemination, with some working better than others. These are all communication issues, and reflect concerns on organisational communication that have been discussed in Chapter Two, particularly in the works of Taylor (1993, 1994) and Taylor et al. (1996).

5.2.3 Training

Issues relating to pre-service and in-service teacher training were raised by respondents in all case sets. Specific questions regarding teacher training were asked of principals and were included in the questionnaire, but external respondents and interviewed teachers also raised this issue.

External interviewees saw the provision of professional development (PD) through in-service training as an important issue, but noted that funding was frequently scant for PD activities in schools. Respondents also noted that frequently PD takes place during out of school hours, in the teachers' own time, which caused problems in getting teachers to attend PD sessions. EQ respondents noted that there was special funding for schools for staff training in computing. Funding was seen as the overall major issue in PD. Pre-service training from teacher education institutions such as universities was not meeting current needs of schools or of education departments, according to the external respondents, particularly in the area of technical literacy.

Principals also raised funding issues in that PD funds were in scant supply apart from special grants from EQ for staff computer training. One respondent [hod110] was also concerned about the loss of regional advisors, which made specialist training and assistance that much more difficult for schools. Principals were not aware of any specialist training for language teaching staff [prin12, prin110]. Teachers who were interviewed were also specific in their opinions about the need for training, especially in the use of computers for language teaching in a classroom environment. They thought that universities and TAFE colleges could provide more short courses and on-site help in the area of specialist training. They also expressed the opinion that new teachers should be computer literate, and that teacher education institutions should definitely make computer courses mandatory for pre-service teacher training.

The questionnaire included questions relating to teacher training, including one open-ended question. The results indicate that respondents were not at all sure which organisations were in a position to provide PD, particularly specialist training for language teachers. Overall, respondents indicated that 28% of their schools offered specialist training in language teaching and/or specialist computing. Respondents also indicated that pre-service education must have computer subjects included, and many respondents stated these should be compulsory. One over-riding issue which emerged from responses to questions on training relates to communication, as shown by the responses to questions as to who they knew offered training (questions 2.1.3 to 2.1.5). Clearly there is a lack of awareness by teachers concerning training in computing. If teachers are not sure about who can offer training, whether it be EQ or a professional organisation, then the chance of them actually getting the required training will not eventuate. While communication issues were not specifically raised in the other case sets in the training theme, one can surmise that if one looks at the education domain, there are clear issues of communication ranging from information dissemination from EQ and from the professional associations themselves.

Other themes relating to training indicate a gap between specific pre-service training for language teachers in the use of computers for language teaching, as well as a perceived vagueness by school administrations and teachers as to who actually could provide specialist in-service training for language teachers. Certainly issues relating to funding and the time for training were raised strongly by respondents. One EQ respondent [eqint2] indicated that time

is a large factor for language in-service training, because of the teachers' reluctance to use their weekends or other free time for training.

5.2.4 Computers in schools

Respondents in all case sets discussed the pros and cons of the use of computers in school, and more particularly the use of computers for language teaching. Issues relating to funding were strong in all respondents' statements, but each case set saw the use of computers in schools slightly differently.

External respondents were concerned about the cost of setting up adequate computer facilities in the schools, although they clearly perceived that using computers was a high motivational factor for students. CALL as such was seen as having potential, but the cost of good software was prohibitive, as was the sheer cost of acquiring and maintaining the requisite hardware and network infrastructure. There were concerns raised about how the increasing use of computers in the school needed to be investigated more thoroughly, because the physical layout of most high schools, and the configuration of classrooms, were not conducive to the best use of computers. There was also concern raised over the preparation time which teachers needed to be able to use computers in their teaching.

Principals also raised concerns over funding the computer infrastructure in their schools, but also understood that the use of the Internet could revolutionise how schools would work in the future. However, the cost of obtaining adequate numbers of computers, software and other essential peripherals and then maintaining them were significant issues to most schools. Respondents also mentioned equity problems which included students' access to computers in the school, and also access to computers outside of school hours. Less affluent communities tend to have fewer home computers, according to two of the respondents.

Most teachers who were interviewed and who responded to the questionnaire used computers. Most used computers for lesson preparation, administration and writing assessments. Fewer used them for actual classroom teaching, and the reasons given for this ranged from a simple lack of enough computers in the right places in the school, to a lack of adequate training. In one way or another many expressed considerable frustration, in that they had been mandated

to begin integrating computers into their lesson plans and curriculum designs, but the infrastructure simply was not there for them to do this. Funding was also an issue, which for this case set is also tied into the issues relating to school dynamics, which is discussed further below.

Teachers who were using computers with the students were mostly unclear about what CALL was, although they were in fact doing it without knowing it. Respondents perceived CALL as more an academic, theoretical activity than one which they in fact used in their daily work. As an illustration, one respondent who was interviewed said:

> Ah, sort of limited. Enough to recognise it. I looked at it a little a couple of years ago down at Bond when [something] was down there, and we went and had a look at, like an in-service day, and looked at some of the work that's being, some of the materials being developed [tint112].

The questionnaire indicated that high schools throughout Queensland have a ratio of computers to students of about 10:1, but comments from respondents in all case sets indicated that this ratio is not adequate for staff to meet the increasing requirements to use computers in their lessons. The Internet in particular is being used more frequently. Respondents claimed that most schools are now connected to the Internet, although in many instances there are few computers in the schools which are connected. This corroborates the comments of an EQ respondent [eqint1] who raised the concerns over infrastructure and placement of computer facilities in schools.

Respondents also raised concerns over the values expressed in using computers. One teacher said:

> Well, I was just sitting there thinking I, I don't believe, this is exactly how I feel, the whole thing, the emphasis now seems to be on the hardware and the software, and computing, computing, computing, or computers, computers, computers. As sort of an end in itself. And there's no emphasis on, on, the learning experience, you know, and, or the curriculum and how computers fit the curriculum. You know, it's just, here are all these wonderful software packages etc., go use them. You know, that's rubbish, absolute rubbish. As far as I'm concerned, I'm still the most important resource in my classroom. You know, in my talk and blackboard, computers sort of taking over that, and I wouldn't want that [tint24].

There seems to be a sort of awareness of a 'bandwagon' effect which in some cases has not been well thought out. Teachers are frequently wary of new technology, as stated by one of

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the respondents from Education Queensland [eqint2]. However, the directives from EQ relating to reaching minimum standards in using computers has enabled teachers to gain greater confidence and improved skills in using computers. While some teachers expressed some discomfort about using computers, they are inclined to try using them in their lessons – provided that they can get access.

The overall picture of using computers for language teaching in schools relates back to other key themes which have emerged from the study as indicated in the table above: communication, funding, training and school dynamics. Communication was not specifically mentioned, but pervades many of the issues raised. The chain of communication in the school for access to resources appears to be that language teachers negotiate in the school formally, through the school's committee system which is responsible for the allocation of resources, and also informally through their own teacher networks. But because of the lack of numbers, and the propensity for teachers to network internally in their own ranks, their ability to gain the necessary computing resources is often frustrating. The status of languages in the school and community also appears to have some impact on the 'clout' of language teachers in acquiring resources.

5.2.5 Networking

Respondents from all case sets discussed teacher networking in some form or other. External respondents discussed the role of professional associations in the policy process. These organisations, which may be seen as formal networks, have input into fact-finding stages of policy development, and also may take an advisory role in the development and implementation of policy. A concern raised by EQ respondents — again — is the loss of the regions and the regional advisors. These advisors filled a crucial role in networking and communication and they are sorely missed since the re-structuring of the department. EQ also has all schools linked into an intranet so that now most administrative matters are carried out by email rather than through written memos and directives. Teachers still network, however, though now by more 'traditional means', such as telephone, face-to-face and fax, and much less through the use of email. Respondents also indicated that the staff room is the major venue for in-school teacher networking.

Principals commented less on teacher networks, but stressed that language teachers need to become better advocates for their own cause, and this implies a more thorough development of networks. Teachers who were interviewed provided a picture of principally informal networks with peers. There are more formal and structured networks within the school (see also Section 5.4 below), but in the main teachers used their informal networks, both within and outside of the school, for a number of reasons, but not necessarily in a political or advocacy manner. It is also noteworthy that only about half the teachers belonged to a formal professional organisation such as the MLTAQ, and preferred to rely on their own informal networks. Responses from the questionnaire indicated that those teachers followed a similar pattern of networking to the teachers who were interviewed. One interesting observation can be made from the data: teachers who were active in networking through a professional organisation were active in networking overall.

One clear picture emerging from the findings is that peers tend to network with peers. Thus heads of departments will liaise and communicate among themselves, as do principals and teachers of specific languages. The roles of the formal and informal networks may also be seen more clearly, and these will be discussed in section 5.4. Clearly, networks play an essential role within the education domain, and most likely the combination of these different networks throughout the system enables it to function.

5.2.6 Other concerns of teachers

This theme was addressed by all case sets except the principals. External respondents expressed the view that while teachers definitely fear change, their technophobia, at least, was abating. In Queensland this is attributable to EQ's computer policy, particularly the development of the minimum standards in computing, which has given teachers a boost in confidence to work more with computers. Another issue raised by these respondents was the perceived low status of languages in the schools, which teachers themselves feel strongly. One respondent's comment, that language teachers feel they are 'parasites' on the system because of low class numbers, is indicative of some of the status pressures which language teachers feel. Related to this is the impact of the 'devolution' of the national language policy on language teaching, where the political importance of languages is perceived to be downgraded in the eyes of education systems, and more importantly, in the community. Thus

communication channels into the schools' communities and through the school systems as a whole are important to reinforce the teaching of languages in the schools.

Teachers who were interviewed were asked about the pressures they had in doing their work. Pressures to motivate language students to perform well, and to continue on to the senior years with their language studies were the most frequently stated pressures. Teachers also mentioned that the negative attitudes of both school staff and the community towards foreign language teaching were often difficult to overcome. Other pressures they felt included their desire to teach well, managing multilevel classes, the lack of time to do needed tasks, and gaining access to resources. An overriding concern was the perceived low status of languages within the school and the community. There is a significant communication problem here which reflects back to the whole education domain: language policies, language-in-education policies and the subsequent implementation processes have not been adequately conveyed to the broader community. One might see this communication problem as based on an institutional worldview which regards the community as an external entity and thus outside of organisational communication responsibilities. Respondents also mentioned lack of funding for resources as a significant pressure, which may be attributable to the status of language teaching.

Respondents to the questionnaire raised concerns mainly about their use of computers: lack of good software, access to computers for teaching, managing classes in computer rooms, training and related issues. Funding issues related to the expense of site licenses for CALL programs and the maintenance of the computer equipment, particularly the more fragile peripherals such as headphones.

5.2.7 School dynamics

External respondents were very clear in their opinion that the principal is the key in the generation and implementation of changes. But heads of departments as well as motivated teachers can be instrumental in getting changes implemented within the school. In terms of using computers for language teaching, for example, one respondent stated clearly that if the responsible head of department was keen, then it would not be long before the rest of the departmental staff would also adopt computers in teaching.

Teachers were also seen to have an important role in 'selling' languages to the community. This is particularly true since the community has become more active in school affairs, with the recent restructuring of State education in Queensland and greater autonomy being given to schools. Thus, teachers were seen to be as important as the school management as advocates for language teaching. Another point raised by these respondents was the importance of teacher networks, particularly among colleagues. There are important communication issues here relating not only to the messages which need to be promulgated, but also within the dynamic of who does what in terms of the school staff in their relationship to the community.

Principals saw language teaching as one of the roles of the school but recognised that there are particular difficulties in language teaching, due generally to a small staff, e.g. one or two language teachers, and a consequent smaller voice in the allocation of resources such as computing and CALL software. Language teachers also battle to overcome an unfortunate history of neglect in the teaching of languages. Despite fifteen years of language policies and directives, LOTE has yet to overcome community suspicion and apathy, particularly with the emergence of a more monolingual outlook from the national government, and the rise of backlash politics as espoused by newer political parties in Australia and Queensland.

The difficulties language teachers face in getting resources through the school committee structure were also raised by the teachers. This was particularly important in language classes' access to computers. There was some concern over the difficulty in getting a voice in the school's decision making processes. Again the concerns over the seemingly low priority of languages in the school exacerbated the resources issue. Respondents to the questionnaire raised issues about access to, and the quantity of, computers in the school.

Two major themes which cut across all case sets were communication and funding. Respondents specifically mentioned funding as an issue. Communication was not raised specifically as an issue, but rather underlies these issues. It is the main argument of this study that communication is key, and that is what will be discussed in the next section.

5.3 Communication in the language teaching domain

In the preceding section, many of the issues which were raised by respondents can be seen principally as issues of communication. This section first looks at what is meant by communication, reintroduces the communication theories discussed in Chapter Two, then uses them in describing how policy formation, implementation and feedback are affected by communication, and ends with further discussion on communication within the school.

5.3.1 What is meant by communication?

Chapter Two discusses in detail the overall concepts and communication theory used in this study. To reiterate, the term *communication* refers to the concept of a shared social system which uses human language as the principal medium of sharing messages. Communication is said to occur "only through collaboration of both partners to the transaction. Such collaboration implies complementary giving and taking" (Taylor, 1993, p. 226). This latter statement of Taylor is important to this discussion because one can argue that within a system such as an education department, successful communication is directly proportional to the complementary giving and taking.

Taylor (1994) also states that communication generates organisation. The inverse would appear to be that lack of communication would impede the development of an organisation, and this may well be the crux of a number of issues raised by respondents in this study: a lack of communication impedes the resolution of issues surrounding allocation of resources, training and public relations, and advocacy for languages.

Organisations frequently solidify their communications into written texts. These in turn may be transmitted to members of the organisation or to people outside the organisation through a variety of communication media such as computer intranets, the Internet, and mass media of print and electronic varieties. If the media of communication malfunction, then messages cannot be sent and therefore there is no communication. And then, if the transmission of the communication is successful, the interpretation of that communication by the recipients may not be what the originator intended. Taylor's 'antitext' (1993), as discussed in Chapter Two, is the interpretation of a communication text which is used by the recipients. This sequence of

the development of texts by an organisation, the transmission of those texts, the interpretation of those texts, and the ensuing actions stemming from the interpretation of those texts, may be seen as a general *structure* of communication which in effect defines the organisation. This is particularly relevant to the development and implementation of policies.

5.3.2 Communication and policy

The success of a policy in terms of meeting its stated goals relies fundamentally on communication within and across organisations which are part of the policy domain, as discussed in Chapter Two, Section 2.3. A domain may be considered a concatenation of all social groups and/or individuals with a shared interest, and a shared 'order of discourse' (Fairclough, 1995). The specific policy domain in this study is that of Education Queensland, but also includes numerous other individuals and organisations. Considine (1994) sees the development of policy through the interplay between various systems and people whom he calls *policy actors* (see Chapter 2, p. 17). This part of the study looks at the evolution of policy from concept to evaluation as the *communicative interplay* between the policy actors.

Policy formulation

The whole life of a policy relies on communication between the policy actors: who talks to whom, about what, when. The initial push towards developing a policy comes from individual organisations and people who, through shared interests, form a coalition to begin the development of the policy, and to lobby for its ultimate passage through the relevant legislature or government instrumentality. All this work is based on the development at the same time of communication links, and within them, the development of a shared discourse, which will ideally lead to a policy.

One of the more important elements in the development of national and Queensland language policies, for example, was the development of large coalitions of groups and people, particularly from ethnic communities, academia, politics, and the respective government departments who worked together to formulate a policy which, through negotiation and compromise, was acceptable to most members of the coalition. An example of this development may be seen in the Ingram and John (1990) report to the Education Department.

In Australia, policy coalitions frequently disband after the policy is promulgated. Wickert's article (1997) alludes to this and to the concern over the compromises which a coalition of adult literacy activists accepted to establish the *Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (DEET, 1991). In Queensland also, the coalition which was instrumental in bringing about the 1991 LOTE Policy (EQ, 1991), was composed of multicultural associations, the MLTAQ, other organisations and individuals, who dispersed after the policy was promulgated [ingram999]. The reason for the coalition and the communications within was the development of policy, and once this occurred, the coalition ceased to exist. Once a policy is put into place, then the locus of control becomes more the purview of the relevant public servants whose responsibilities include policy implementation. In Australia, this also may mean that active members of the original coalition may be isolated from any further policy work other than cursory advice, as indicated by respondents in the study. While the MLTAQ, for example, had a great deal of input into the formation of the Queensland LOTE policy, it has now only limited input into Education Queensland in terms of policy implementation, and to any future changes to the policy [eqint4].

Policy implementation and the policy dynamic

Once a policy is promulgated, some organisation takes responsibility for its implementation. On the basis of the literature review on policy implementation in Chapter Two and the findings from the study, Figure 5.3.1 depicts the circular chain of policy development, from promulgation to evaluation, using the Queensland education system as the domain. Communication is essential within this policy domain if the various events indicated are to eventuate. A breakdown at any particular point will result in difficulties in achieving the policy's goals. In Figure 5.3.1, the policy actors are represented by a number, while the events they carry out are represented by a letter.

Figure 5.3.1: Illustration of policy events and actors in the policy domain
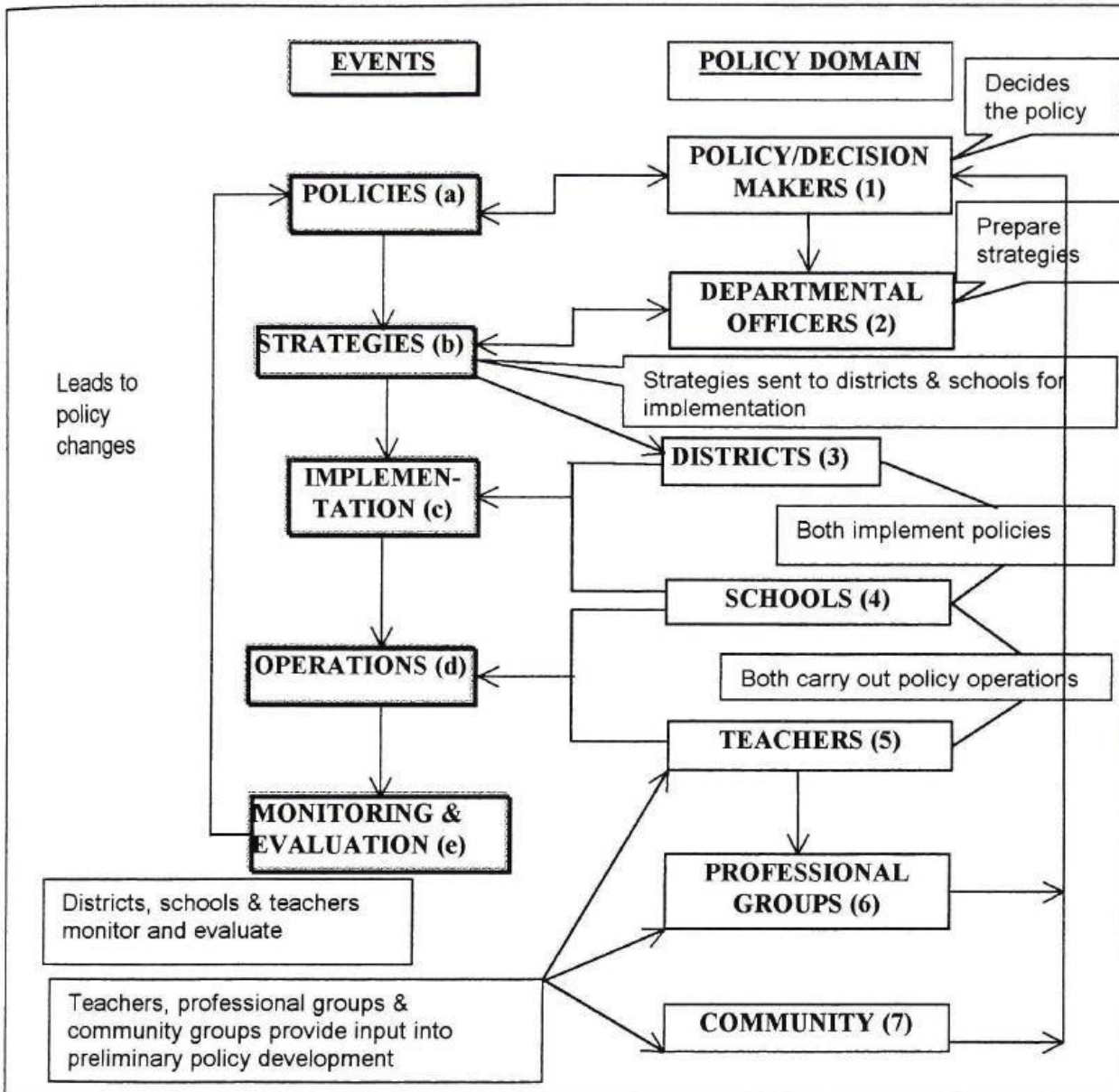
The policy decision makers (1) in EQ are the Minister of Education, the Director-General, and Deputy Directors-General, advised by departmental and ministerial staff. In the case of EQ, the relevant policies (a) are the LOTE policy (EQ, 1991), and computer policies, (EQ, 1995). These policies are then put into the hands of departmental officers, such as officers of Languages and Cultures (formerly LACU) (2), who develop implementation plans and strategies (b), which are then given to district managers and school principals (3 and 4) who then undertake the implementation (c) of the policies through the various strategies. A good example of this is the implementation of the minimum standards strategy, which is part of the computing policy of the department (EQ, 1995). Once the policy and strategies are in place, then the day-to-day operations (d) of that implementation are undertaken by school staff, mainly teachers (5).

As the operational phase of the policy continues, part of the process is to undertake monitoring and evaluation (e) procedures to ensure that the policy's goals and objectives are being met. As an example, each teacher has to have a form filled and signed by a head of department stating that the teacher has met the criteria for minimum competencies in computing. While monitoring and evaluation might be seen to be part of a traditional, rational approach, it has gathered more importance recently because of the greater emphasis on performance indicators, as indicated by some of the EQ respondents who were interviewed [eqint1, eqint2]. These monitoring and evaluation procedures are undertaken first by the teachers, then the head of department, through to the principal and thence to the district manager, who then provides them to the central office, where the reports are compiled and presented to the Director-General. On the basis of these reports, along with special reports such as that of the review of LOTE in schools mentioned in Chapter 4, the policy and decision makers may then change the policies and/or the strategies.

From a communications aspect, the people who can often provide the best details on how a policy is being implemented and how it affects the target population are the people who carry out the daily operations — in the case of this study these people are the teachers. However, in a hierarchically structured system such as EQ, direct teacher input into policy making has traditionally been minimal. As the teacher respondents stated, their concerns about policies go most frequently through their school's chains of command. If they receive a sympathetic hearing from the head of department or the principal, then there is some chance that their concerns may be put forward to the district manager or relevant senior officers at EQ. It has only been since the introduction of EQ's intranet that teachers have had the means to contact senior officers in EQ directly, through electronic mail, for example.

On the other side, teacher or school input has to be understood and acted upon by the relevant officers in EQ for the concerns to be addressed. This in turn means that even if these officers are sympathetic to the concerns, and prepare a case for action, this must go through the departmental hierarchy to the relevant decision makers. They, in turn, may have very different opinions and views of the issues, and may or may not make any decisions about the issues. This was highlighted in the interview with one of the departmental officers who said:

> Sometimes what we as learning area experts might recommend, is contrary to the principal policy of the Director General of the time, who is reflecting either his own agenda or the political party that's in control of the government's agenda, and you know, in that respect we are mere public servants who serve the public [eqint4].

The decision makers may well have other major issues precluding any redress, such as a lack of resources and funding, or of the sheer logistic problems of coming to terms with the issues raised. An example of this is the articulation between primary and secondary education. A number of teachers who were interviewed raised issues concerning the difficulties relating to this, and their concerns have been taken to the relevant officers in EQ. However, the current LOTE policy and the attendant implementation strategies make it extremely difficult to redress the overall problem. One specific difficulty seems to be the dispersal of language teaching staff at primary and secondary levels and communication between these teachers. Each high school has a number of 'feeder' primary schools which it assists. There is the difficulty of children moving schools, where their first school taught Japanese, for example, but the new school only teaches German. The decision of high schools to teach specific languages, although the feeder schools teach other languages, also creates difficulties.

State policies by definition are relevant to the entire State. For example, the Queensland LOTE policy covers all State schools and special units. The implementation strategies have to take into account the major details pertinent to the system as a whole in order for the policy to achieve its goals. In the development of the implementation plans, the relevant officers would need to be aware of the overall issues facing schools, such as adequate teacher supply, allocation of resources, development of syllabuses, and related issues, in order to provide the broad framework for use by practitioners. EQ officers could not foresee, nor act upon individual schools' issues in the implementation. However, it is at this time where good communication links could be of great importance to ensure that, as problems and bugs in the strategy came to light, they can be addressed quickly and effectively.

Throughout the whole policy process, teachers need to be aware of the aims and objectives of the policy, and how their work fits into it. Further, they need to know how to best get their voices heard if they have concerns and difficulties with the policies. Once the communication links are understood and used, then it is up to the teachers, individually or collectively, to use

them to get their voices heard. How teachers then do this is the topic of teacher networking which is discussed in Section 5.4.

5.3.3 Communication in the school

Schools are also hierarchical systems, and communication flow, like that of the department, is affected by the strictures of the hierarchy. Within the hierarchy there are vertical communication channels in which official information is disseminated, and issues are raised, through such mechanisms as staff meetings, memos and directives. The usual chain of command downwards is principal to head of department to teachers. Depending on the size and the structure of the school, deputy principals may take on specific areas of responsibility such as timetabling and room allocation.

One important way that formal communication is undertaken is through the committee structure, where the committees take responsibility for curriculum development, timetabling and resource allocation. Specialist committees, such as an IT committee, often make recommendations to the principal, or take decisions on which subject areas gain priority access to the school's computer facilities. These committees are made up of teachers in the school. Depending on the school, teachers may be asked to volunteer for various committees, or may be assigned to committees at the beginning of the school year. The teachers who were interviewed often discussed the committee structure of the school, who sat on the committees, and what their roles and responsibilities were. School #2, for example has established an IT committee, which looks after computer developments in the school, and maintains the booking system for access. Teachers also expressed the frustrations that as language teachers, their concerns and resource requests which went to the relevant committees were often not met because in the committee's opinion, LOTE was not seen to be of the same importance as other subject areas.

Informal communication flows also pervade the hierarchy, both in a vertical and a horizontal sense. In the main, the communication between teachers and the school hierarchy is informal, as indicated in Chapter Four, Section 4.3.2. It appears, however, that while the informal relationships between staff in the school is comfortably accepted by teachers, there is a definite drawback to this approach because informal discussions may not lead to decisions which

resolve key issues, because decisions need to be taken formally. Thus in School #5, for example, three teachers and the head of department were interviewed. One teacher found that the head of department (HOD) was hesitant in reaching decisions, so the teacher [tint15] generally bypassed the HOD and went to the principal, which was not the accepted way of doing things, but nonetheless the teacher claimed that it brought results. Two of the teachers [tint35, tint45] were very concerned about the subtle and 'informal' pressure to keep their student numbers high in the senior grades, and one [tint45] was told quietly that the future of the language in the school depended on increasing the numbers. The HOD [tint25], on the other hand, was attempting to get more resources for the staff through Priority Language Element (PLE) grants and through the school, but received far less than requested. In this particular school, the four LOTE teachers share the same staff room, and consequently issues are raised with the HOD directly. However, the status of languages in the school seems to be a barrier to acquiring much needed resources.

From the teachers' perspectives, much of their communication takes place first within their staffrooms, and then with their language teaching peers, either inside or outside the school. Their conversations over shared issues and concerns, however, are often 'whinge sessions' and are taken no further than venting concerns. There is some cynicism amongst the teachers, with several stating that their voices are seldom heard anyway, or they perceived that by speaking out they would get their colleagues into trouble.

In summary, teacher communication in the school is mainly of an informal nature, but while comfortable, it does not necessarily lead to decisions about issues such as resource allocation. Such decisions are carried out formally through a committee structure or through the school hierarchy.

5.4 Teacher networks and professional organisations

According to Lieberman and Grolnick (1996), teacher networks can fulfil some key needs of teachers. They state:

> networks appear to be a way of engaging school-based educators in better directing their own learning; allowing them to sidestep the limitations of institutional roles, hierarchies, and geographic locations; and encouraging them to work with many different kinds of people (p. 7).

5.4.1 LOTE teacher networks

The scope of networking undertaken by LOTE teachers can be seen through the use of a taxonomy of networks (White, 1978, 1988). Networks may be seen as organisational structures that assist the participants to maintain certain social relationships. Tables 4.7.1 and 4.7.2 in Chapter Four, Section 4.7.2 have indicated the range of network types that teachers use. Teachers must belong to at least some of the network types: schools are organised into departments, for example, with teachers being assigned to one or more departments as part of the overall school structure.

Professional organisations are seen to be the main avenue to gain input into policy making. Professional language organisations allied with community organisations were significant in developing the original language policies both nationally and within Queensland [ingram999]. Some language teachers mentioned that they relate to the local community, [tint25, tint210, tint12], but frequently the relations were more an attempt by the teachers to 'sell' language teaching to a sceptical community.

5.4.2 How teachers network

According to the findings, slightly more than half (54%) of LOTE teachers who responded to the survey belong to the MLTAQ. While some respondents stated they were quite active in this organisation, some teachers who were not members believed that the organisation did not meet their professional needs, with one stating that "that particular association is an anachronism" [tint113]. However, some of the teachers who are active in MLTAQ put a lot of time into it, and are very active in the preparation of the monthly newsletters and the quarterly journal.

Informal networks are the real 'glue' that bind teachers together. LOTE teachers use these networks extensively to gather information, to share concerns, and to share resources. Mentoring from former workmates or schoolmates is quite strong and was mentioned by a number of respondents as a principal source of assistance and communication, and may be seen as a sort of informal, horizontal external network. One teacher stated:

> So I tend to turn to my mentors from last year for advice, and people in my staff room [tint110].

Most of the networking done in schools is of an informal variety, whereas formal networks are more organisational and tend to fulfil the organisation's needs, and not necessarily the teachers'. Most principals/HODs appear to be quite accessible informally. However, for major decisions affecting teachers, it appears that the formal committee structure is often all-powerful in resource allocation, curriculum and time tabling.

According to the findings, LOTE teachers frequently feel threatened on a number of fronts, and use their informal networks to communicate about this, rather than using the more formal, vertical networks, as indicated from the findings in Chapter Four, Section 4.3.3. There is a feeling among some that although LOTE is perceived to have a relatively low status, there is very little that anyone can do about it. However, much resource sharing and information passing takes place in the informal networks, both formally and informally, externally and internally. One problem with this approach, however, is that it often leads to 'policy by hearsay'. Without recourse to the vertical networks, either formal or informal, teachers tend to rely on their peers' beliefs and knowledge, which may be incorrect.

In terms of a locus of school-based informal networks, the staff room is the essential gathering place for teachers. In informal conversations held in the staff room teachers can gain information, have a sympathetic ear for difficulties, and can acquire tips on resources and teaching methods. In schools where there are few LOTE teachers, they usually share a staff room with teachers from other subject areas, and hence have no real chance to 'talk shop' with language teaching peers. Even in schools where the LOTE staff have their own staff room (mostly in the larger schools), there is still the difficulty that each language in itself is a subject area, so talking about specific language-based issues is still a problem for LOTE teachers. It appears that many LOTE teachers are frequently lone operators and rely on external networks to keep abreast of what's happening.

It also appears that formal communications through formal networks are frequently more the 'top down' variety. But when teachers have the official opportunity to provide feedback they appear to do so volubly. However, one respondent shared a concern that no matter what teachers say, no one appears to listen [tint18]. Communication channels through the school (generically) are as good as the people who initiate them. If a principal or a HOD, for example, does not pass on information, it may never reach the staff. One respondent stated:

> When I first arrived in Queensland I might add in passing, that I couldn't even get a copy of the — in the school I was in — I couldn't even get a copy of the syllabus, or the requirements for my job. I was under duress to explain to the Board why I wasn't designing my exams in the stipulated manner. Nobody had bothered to tell me that there was a stipulated manner [tint113].

Even though there are formal networks and communication channels for departmental information such as policy directives, the implementation of these at the school level is often done through informal interpretations of whatever documentation is available. Teachers attempt to do what they think is the right thing, but often without recourse to the official policy or related documents. One example of this is one respondent's perception of the department's communicative language teaching policy:

> Language policies — well, I suppose LOTE, obviously ah, they are expecting us language pro – us language teachers to teach in a communicative way; which I try do to, because, ah, that's the heart of the whole thing, you know [tint33].

Except for formal external organisations such as the MLTAQ, LOTE teachers have few avenues to get their voices into the policy stream. Those teachers who make the effort are often frustrated because of a dearth of feedback from the policy makers, which leads to a not unwarranted perception that no one is really listening. A respondent from Education Queensland [eqint4] stated flatly that teachers do not have direct input into policy, except for the initial stage of fact-finding, often through public meetings leading up to the preparation of documentation which may or may not lead to a policy, or a change in an existing policy. Examples of this input into the initial stage of policy development are the series of public meetings held by Professor Rix in 1999 [tint213], or more recently, the reports on the Department's Education 2010 project, where over 10,000 people were involved in consultation and discussion (EQ, 2000).[2]

As a group, there is little cohesion amongst LOTE teachers. The difficulties lie principally in the fact that there are at least six languages being taught in over 200 high schools across Queensland. For reasons mentioned above, it is difficult to see how teachers can raise a collective voice on issues of concern because of isolation, the perceived and real lack of communication channels, the inability of the professional organisations to have a major voice within the policy domain, and the simple pressure of time on the teachers.

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[2] The website for these reports may be found at http://education.qld.gov.au/corporate/qse2010/research.html Section 6.6 of this study discusses the Education 2010 project.

In terms of communication media, email use appears to be growing, but its biggest apparent drawback is a lack of facilities and time in the school for teachers to make best use of this medium either to contact one another, or to send their concerns to the department, although Education Queensland has established a number of discussion groups for this, such as *lote@qed.qld.edu.au*. The awareness of teachers in using email for their own networking purposes has not yet become a common practice. Most respondents stated that they generally use other communications media such as telephone, fax, and face-to-face meetings, both externally and internally to the school.

Tables 4.7.1 and 4.7.2 in Chapter Four indicate clearly that there are a number of networks that teachers can, or must, belong to, but there appears to be little linkage between them. The interface between formal and informal networks, both horizontally and vertically as well as internally and externally, seems to be quite small. This is a fruitful area for further study.

5.4.3 Professional organisations

Like all professional people, LOTE Teachers tend to network with each other on a formal basis through professional organisations, and the data from teacher respondents indicate that many have either joined, or have organised formal organisations to meet their perceived needs. Table 4.7.2 in Chapter Four, Section 4.7.2 includes professional organisations to which teachers belong. Many of these formal organisations relate to specific languages, such as the Dante Alighieri Society or the Goethe Institut, for example. These organisations are extremely useful for teachers in assisting them to maintain their language skills, or to obtain teaching resources. Teachers also belong to other formal organisations that deal with other issues, such as the Queensland Teachers Union for industrial matters.

For LOTE teachers in Queensland the major professional association is the Modern Language Teachers Association of Queensland (MLTAQ). This part of the discussion looks principally at the teachers' membership patterns in the MLTAQ, because it is the peak organisation for language teachers, and is also affiliated with a federal organisation, the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations (AFMLTA), which gives it the best potential for input into the policy process. The MLTAQ provides a number of printed resource materials

for its members which include a monthly newsletter and a quarterly journal. It also liaises with Education Queensland in an advisory capacity. It runs a biennial conference for language teachers, and maintains an active Web site.

However, the findings of this study indicate that only half of the respondents stated they belonged to the MLTAQ. Several respondents who were interviewed gave various reasons as to why they had not joined:

> I've been to a couple of the MLTAQ meetings, found myself less than impressed. I regard that particular association as being an anachronism [tint113].

> I want to join the MLTAQ, but I've lost my little form that I was given last year. And I couldn't afford it at the time, just didn't have the money for it. So I said I'll keep it until I actually get a job and now I've lost it [tint16].

> I was a member of the MLTAQ, but I think I stopped paying a couple of years ago. I don't know why, I just lapsed, but maybe laziness, but I didn't find their newsletters particularly helpful; I found them rather foolish, rather fatuous, time wasting newsletters. It didn't say anything original, nor do they seem to be creating any unusual competitions, you know, I, I feel a bit removed, I'm not very impressed with the MLTAQ [tint23].

Other teachers, however, were very active in the MLTAQ, and found that their publications and resources were very helpful. Two respondents stated:

> I'm also a member of the MLTAQ, which is the Modern Languages Teachers Association, so um, Up until recently I have been quite an active member, on committee as well. So we try to diligently read all the information that our professional association tries to pass on to us [tint35].

> So, through the MLTAQ, I've always felt I've got to know and have dealings with primary and secondary levels as they relate to um, matters of LOTE through the MLTAQ. And I found it of benefit to me. As a classroom teacher you don't have much time, and turning up at meetings all the time and doing your bit is something you could live without, but the other side is that, yes, ah, I, ah, very much value those connections [tint14].

The findings indicate a pattern that MLTAQ members tend to network more with their peers outside of their school than do non-members. There are variations on this theme depending on the location of the teachers. Teachers based in regional centres tend to be the most active networkers overall.

There are two main concerns here. One is that the MLTAQ is the main professional organisation for all LOTE teachers and provides numerous resources for their members. However, it is also a voluntary body and as such relies on the work of its members to keep the organisation viable. This work takes time, which is one resource that many teachers have stated they simply do not have. There are obviously other rewards that active teachers gain in doing the work of the organisation. The organisation would certainly be far more active and ostensibly could reach more teachers if there was some sort of paid secretariat that could maintain the organisation's operations. The second concern is that of membership. If only half the language teachers in the State belong to the organisation, its representation is by definition limited. The MLTAQ itself could benefit from investigating this particular issue. The propensity for language teachers to prefer informal networks to air their grievances and concerns, rather than through a more formal network such as the MLTAQ may be seen as detrimental to the overall input of teachers into the policy and political processes that affect their daily work.

5.5 Policy: formation to re-formation

This section discusses how policies are developed, implemented, and changed, with specific reference to the policies analysed in Chapter Four, Section 4.2. It also looks at how the respondents to the study perceive policies and their roles within the policy system. An analysis of how teacher respondents interact with policies concludes the section.

The policy documents that have been used in this research are documents from Commonwealth and Queensland State governments. While they are public documents in that they have been published, they generally relate to specific target audiences, as will be discussed below. A policy document might be seen as a seminal text which does two things. First, it brings together into one document the decisions and the rationale for those decisions of the government of the day; and second, it is the end result for the policy actors and decision makers who, as part of the relevant policy domain, have reached some kind of agreement about what the policy should be.

However, once the policy is at the textual and publishable stage, there is still a great deal to do in order to see the concepts, aims, and concerns of the policy translated into action. Further

work, then, is undertaken by various actors and organisations in the policy domain to implement the policy. This in turn generates further policies and implementation documents, such as strategy plans, budget allocations, timetables and personnel recruitment. This process will ultimately require evaluations, re-definitions of policy, re-funding, and re-development of programs generated under the policy.

Policies require continual monitoring and updating by those responsible for their implementation and continuation, as indicated in Figure 5.3.1 in Section 5.3.1. This figure illustrates the basic steps needed to maintain the policy, including the major step of monitoring and evaluation. This process requires continuous input from all the actors in the policy domains responsible for them. To succeed, the policy actors will need to maintain constant vigilance to ensure that communication between all the relevant elements of the domain is open and clear.

Once the policy's aims have been met, and the programs under it are seen to be successful, then it may be time to alter it to meet more current issues and demands. A study of the policy documents relating to language policy and language-in-education policy in Australia is a case in point, and the texts which were analysed in Chapter 4, Section 4.2, indicate this quite clearly.

Language policies have emanated principally from the Commonwealth government; however the development of language-in-education policies is primarily a State affair, and Queensland's LOTE policy (EQ, 1991) is a good example of this. There is a relationship between national and State perspectives in terms of overall language policy and the necessity of teaching foreign languages in classrooms.

Information technology policies, however, are usually solely developed by the States. To date, the Commonwealth has developed no over-arching policy for the use of computers for education, or, more specifically, for language teaching. The national government has funded the establishment of Education Network Australia (EdNA) and has left computer-in-education policies *per se* to other jurisdictions. Queensland has established some detailed policies and programs relating to the use of computers in schools, with a small overlap between language-in-education policies and computer policies. Both these streams have evolved separately, from

different policy systems, and yet they converge at the schools level. While neither set of policies refers specifically to the other, both make recommendations that computers might be of use in language teaching (EQ, 1995; Queensland School Curriculum Council, 2000).

Within these three areas, though, there are significant differences. One such is the difference between language policies (Lo Bianco, 1987; DEET, 1991; EQ, 1991) and language-in-education policies (Baldauf, 1997; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997, p. 122). Languages-in-education policies are frequently subsets of the broader language policies. In language policy and planning, Baldauf (1997, p.44) lists six evolutionary stages of putting the Australian national language policy into place:

- Pre-planning: historical research
- Survey: collecting data from the population and stakeholders
- Report: report (PLANLangPol, 1982)
- Policy: e.g. the *National Policy on Languages* (1987)
- Implementation: e.g. ALLP, which provided Commonwealth funds to States and territories to enhance or carry out new language policies
- Evaluation: evaluate all phases and feedback into the system

Language-in-education policy, however, has six different stages, which follow from the six stages of language policy and planning:

- Education policy: which is separate from general policy
- Curriculum policy: what languages, when
- Personnel policy: in-service/pre-service
- Materials policy: what, where, how much, you want it when?
- Community policy: attitudes thereunder
- Evaluation: how did we do?

Language-in-education policies, therefore, will generally be developed after acceptance of the broader national and/or State language policies. This makes sense: it would be difficult to promulgate a language-in-education policy without some general language policy to refer back to. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997, p. 122-123) discuss this link in some detail. Language-in-education policies are the 'nuts and bolts' of developing and implementing a language teaching/learning system which looks after essentials such as resource allocation, teacher training, curriculum and syllabus development, and ultimately, the assessment of students proceeding through the system. This reiterates the point that State policies have generally followed from Commonwealth initiatives (Queensland School Curriculum Council, 1997) which will be seen in more detail below. Lowe (1989) mentions that the curriculum is in fact a

key site for policy implementation, because it is through the curriculum that policy becomes more than a statement.

5.5.1 Development of language and computer policies

Davis et al. (1993) see public policy as a "complex interplay of values, interests and resources guided through institutions and mediated by politics" (Davis et al., 1993, p. 15). Using the definitions and concepts as outlined by Davis et al. and others (Considine, 1994; Parsons, 1995), a model of a policy system can be developed which is made up of policy actors and policy makers who work within a policy system to achieve decisions to promulgate a specific policy. The development of national language policies, the Queensland language-in-education policy, and the Queensland computers-in-schools policies were analysed using these models and concepts. The overall basis of how public policies are put together, and how policies come to be promulgated is discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.4.

Policy systems are also dynamic entities that change over time, sometimes dramatically, particularly in times of changes of governments, or restructuring of departments and other organisations. When these sorts of changes occur, there appears to be a shift in the networks of policy actors and policy makers, with the resulting upgrading or downgrading of a policy or related strategic approaches, depending on the political stance of the incoming policy makers. One example of this is the 1996 change of national government, with the ensuing development of a national literacy policy: *Literacy for All: The challenge for Australian Schools* (AGPS, 1998),[3] which resulted in the policy *Australian Language and Literacy Policy* being given much less priority within the government, and in the restructured department. A similar event occurred earlier when there was a change of Education Minister in the Hawke Labor government, resulting in the development of *Australian Language and Literacy Policy*, which replaced the *National Policy on Languages*.

In Queensland, the LOTE policy was promulgated after many years of work by a coalition of policy actors, which included academics, teacher organisations, ethnic community organisations, local and state politicians and interested individuals. This coalition of policy

actors carried out a number of activities to gain public awareness and acceptance for a State language policy that also recognised the value of the various ethnic communities in Queensland. This coalition's work was successful in working with the education department, and with the 1989 change of government, the development of the current Queensland LOTE policy.

This approach was successful in achieving the current State policy, and mirrored what had occurred nationally a few years before in the development of a bi-partisan coalition in the development of the National Policy on Languages. Nationally a strong coalition of ethnic organisations, academics, politicians and public servants worked towards the development of a national language policy. The final outcome of the national coalition's work was the development and promulgation of the *National Policy on Languages*.

In Queensland, the development of Education Queensland's policy on the use of computers in school (EQ, 1995), and more particularly the guidelines that follow from the policy, were established within the department, after consultation with officers in the department, tertiary institutions, professional associations, teachers, and principals.

The promulgation of new policies and the alteration of existent policies reflect the dynamism within a policy system. Table 5.5.1 illustrates the major influences on the development of the policies discussed above, following a taxonomy proposed by Davis et al. (1993).

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[3] This policy may be found on DETYA's web site at
http://www.detya.gov.au/schools/Literacy/literacy%20for%20all/cover.html (updated 8 November 1999)

Table 5.5.1: Major influences on the development of four key policies (after Davis et al., 1993)

Influences on policy development	National Policy on Languages	Australian Language and Literacy Policy	Queensland LOTE Policy	Computers
Social & economic conditions	Recession, growing unemployment, inflation, years of high migration of many ethnic groups	Impact of globalisation; high unemployment, growing Asian influences, awareness of low English literacy in many groups	High population growth rate; larger ethnic communities, recession, growing unemployment, greater awareness of national & international issues in Queensland	Pervasive growth of computers in society; growing demand for technically literate workforce
Prevailing ideas	Economic rationalism, multiculturalism, Asian languages & economic imperatives	Greater emphasis on literacy in English; scaling back of multiculturalism and community languages	Multiculturalism, community languages, economic reasons for Asian languages	Need to train students and teachers in the use of computers
Institutions & individuals	See Findings: Section 4.2.2	See Findings: Section 4.2.3	See Findings: Section 4.2.5	See Findings: Section 4.2.6
Technical & analytic procedures	Community consultations, lobbying, statistical analyses	"Green paper", consultation with community groups and institutions	Community consultations, lobbying	Review of previous reports; expert input
General theories about how policies are made	Policy as consensus of policy system with government implementation	Policy as government initiative with local input	Policy as government initiative with local input	Policy as departmental directive

The national and Queensland language policies were developed and promulgated in a period of rapid social and economic changes and this point has been discussed within the policy documents themselves. The influences on policy development as illustrated in the table show some of the forces at work during the time of the development of the respective policies.

Social and economic issues were a major influence on the development of specific policies. In the 1980s there were two recessions, coupled with high migration, increasing unemployment and high inflation. In the early 1990s there was a greater awareness of the impact of globalisation, continuing high unemployment, and a growing awareness of poor English literacy rates in many sectors of the community. There was also the rapid development of Asian economies and the attendant concern that Australia had to become more responsive to

the economic and political changes taking place in Asia, particularly the need for language and cultural awareness of Asian countries. Queensland was not exempt from these influences, as it was experiencing rapid population growth, and an increase in the number of non-English speaking migrants coming to Queensland, especially in the south-east corner. The State also suffered from the same economic and employment difficulties as the southern states, which was partially offset by a rapidly growing tourism industry that increasingly relied heavily on language learning, particularly Japanese. While all this was happening, there was a rapid simultaneous expansion of computer technology, the advent of the Internet, and the evolution of electronic commerce, which resulted in business and industry seeking a more technically literate workforce.

Within this social and economic milieu, certain prevailing ideas and concepts were also being articulated within the government and within the community at large. The main force in galvanising support for a national language policy, and a similar policy in Queensland, was the developing political sophistication of ethnic communities as they worked toward their goals in seeing their cultural and linguistic heritages preserved. One aim of this developing multicultural coalition was to gain increased resources for community language schools.

Toward the end of the 1980s there was also a greater awareness of the lack of English language literacy among many groups in the community, which stimulated the development of the 1991 ALLP. Wickert (1997) discusses the result of these concerns. The need for more educational resources for the teaching and learning of Asian languages was also raised at this time, resulting in special Commonwealth government initiatives (NALSAS) (Baldauf et al., 1998). Queensland had similar concerns, and the State's LOTE policy reflects them. With the explosion of computer technology and the demand for a more technically literate workforce, Education Queensland revamped its computer policies and provided special funding for schools to obtain hardware, software, and some staff training.

As part of the policy system, institutions and individuals had considerable impact on the development of these policies. Leaders in ethnic communities and some senior academics were important in getting the issues on the national and state agendas. Some of the work done by Ingram and John (1990), Clyne (1991) and others, reflects these moves. Related policies of the governments of the day also assisted in further developing the push toward

national language policies. The Fraser government provided considerable resources to the development of ethnic affairs and human rights, for example. Discussion of the individuals and organisations involved in policy development, as part of the context within which the policies were formed is provided in Section 4.2 of Chapter Four.

Each policy system uses various technical and analytic procedures to obtain the necessary information with which to develop a policy. Depending on the culture of the policy system, community and professional consultation may or may not be a significant part of policy development. In the case of the *National Policy on Languages*, community consultations, lobbying and the use of various statistical measures were used to make the case, and to provide input into the ultimate policy document. The *Australian Language and Literacy Policy* was formed differently, in that it arose from government and public service initiatives, rather than principally from the community. But in its development, community consultations were used as a prelude to the "Green Paper", *The Language of Australia: Discussion paper on Australian literacy and language policy for the 1990s* (1990). Community and professional groups and individuals provided over 300 submissions to the working party responsible for the formation of the policy (*Australian Language and Literacy Policy, Companion Volume to the Policy Paper*, 1991). In Chapter 4, Section 4.2, the findings indicated a significant difference between the two national language policies in terms of the much larger role taken by government instrumentalities in the 1991 policy. It was much more centralist in approach and was managed and controlled much more rigidly by DEET than the 1987 policy. This in turn created other problems when the government changed in 1996, followed by the restructuring of DEET into DETYA and a corresponding heavy reduction in staff of the new department. It has meant that the priority given to the 1991 policy has been greatly reduced. This has also been exacerbated to some extent by the current government's priorities on English literacy and numeracy.

Queensland policy approaches used similar strategies to the National Policy on Languages, in the use of a broad coalition of people and groups to work towards the development of a state language policy. The Ingram and John report (1990) is a detailed report to the government, which reflected the concerns of the coalition, and was the basis for the current policy. Education Queensland's computer policy, however, was an internal document written by public servants. The Guidelines for the use of computers in schools (EQ, 1995), however,

went through a consultation period with technical experts, regional officers, principals, and teachers.

Each policy reflects a process in which policies are made. The *National Policy on Languages* reflects that the policy came about after long consultations, lobbying and compromises, which ultimately resulted in the policy. The process can be seen as 'policy as consensus' among actors in the policy system, leading to a government decision to adopt the policy, which is followed by government implementation. The policy *Australian Language and Literacy Policy*, however, saw policy development as the purview of the government of the day, with major input coming from departmental staff and with some consultation and local input through the mechanism of consultations leading to the 'Green paper'. The Queensland LOTE policy might be seen similarly to the *National Policy on Languages*, but it led to a departmental document: principally a language-in-education policy. The computer policies of EQ can be seen as departmental policy directives, but with some external consultation among key stakeholders in schools and communities.

The major implication for these policy developments is that as they become more centralised and bureaucratic, there is less chance for input from those lower in the hierarchy, and less again from people outside the policy system. As a result, changes to the policies begin to reflect a stronger centralist worldview, which may or may not incorporate information from the field. This generates a further implication of reducing the number of active stakeholders in the policy, which in turn reduces the opportunities for changes that reflect the needs of those who are working within the policy framework. More specifically, it can be seen that teachers and teacher organisations have little opportunity for input into the policy process, even though their input is critical to long-term success of the original policy aims.

5.5.2 Policy changes

Since the 1987 *National Policy on Languages* was announced, there have been significant changes in language policy in Australia. The 1987 policy was superseded in 1991 by *Australian Language and Literacy Policy*. This latter policy is still current, but it has been significantly downgraded in priority by the Commonwealth government, which has put much more emphasis on English literacy and numeracy in the schools. Within the purview of the

1991 policy, there have been significant changes in strategies and direction. One of the most important was the development of the NALSAS strategy, which placed special funds and priorities on Asian languages within the CSLP. This led to a further restructuring of how Commonwealth funds were to be dispensed to the States and schools systems through the CSLP.

It is important to note that as the national policies have changed, there has been a corresponding change in national priorities. These changes directly affect the teaching of languages in schools, because all of the policies mentioned either have a strong language-in-education focus, or are principally language-in-education policies, such as the Queensland policy.

So for schools, policy changes can be significant because they lead to different ways of teaching and learning. Policy changes are environmental, and affect a whole system. Fullan (1993) discusses the difficulties of education change:

> In understanding and in coping with educational change it is essential to find out what is happening at the classroom, school, and local levels of education, as well as the regional and national levels (1993, p. 16).

Nationally, feedback from schools to policy makers in the language policies appears to have happened only cursorily; schools' voices are but one of a variety of organisations and institutions that have provided input into the policy making and change processes. The Queensland LOTE policy has remained more or less intact since its promulgation, although some of the details in implementation have been changed because of information received from schools and units within EQ [eqint4]. But, as a number of respondents have stated, the actual promulgation of the LOTE policy came at an awkward time, because there was a large policy shift towards more autonomy for schools, and the imposition of the LOTE policy was seen very much as a direct contradiction to the autonomy moves [rcint1].

Then, once the LOTE policy was implemented and the subjects were in place in the schools, a second wave of policies relating to computers came into play. At this point there were considerable concerns among staff about the effects that computer policies were having on schools, as many of the teacher respondents have mentioned. Respondents to the questionnaire also raised concerns about the impact of these policies.

5.5.3 How respondents see policies

Respondents in this study appear to view the policy process differently, depending on their position within the policy domain. Thus, officers in Education Queensland perceive policies in a very different light than do teachers in the schools or principals and heads of departments. Part of this phenomenon is due simply to their position within the hierarchy of the department, and the roles people carry out at those levels. This reflects the concepts of 'worldview' and the different orders of discourse as discussed by Taylor (1993), Taylor et al. (1996), Fairclough (1995) and Luke (1995-96), which were discussed in Chapter Two, Section 2.2. Briefly, different levels and units within a hierarchical organisation will have different ways of interpreting policies, based on the different worldviews and orders of discourse within each individual unit.

Officers in EQ see policies as working documents which they are responsible for implementing, monitoring, and reviewing. Principals and heads of departments see policies frequently as impediments, or as more things to do in managing their school or department. Teachers often do not know about the policies at all, or their knowledge is very vague, as was discussed above. The following quotes from respondents reflect these different worldviews:

From a principal's perspective:

> The way it works in this school is that we do have some major full school requirements with regard to teachers getting their skills up. The department has more or less imposed that on us. They have an expectation that all teachers will become computer literate and that they will be using the Internet [prin110].

From an EQ officer's perspective:

> We have just gone into an era where the powers that be have decreed that technology has to be integrated into the curriculum [eqint2].

Another EQ officer's perspective on the basis of the interview question:

> (Question) If there's a policy that's being written, do you have input into that actual policy; who actually writes it, or is there a planning unit somewhere in the department that deals with all of this or what?

As I said, we got the recommendations, we had to put it into policy. We didn't send it upstairs to the Director-General. He's got a bunch of people up there who are strategic planners and things like that. And they would then look at it and say yes we can live with this, or no, we'd rather do this, or we'd rather do that. So we would probably write it, but then our wishes are not always our – the final result [eqint4].

From a teacher's perspective:

I know very little. I know that technology, that LOTE is a key learning area, and technology is to be incorporated in all the key learning areas. And that's as much as I know. I know that. I also know that teachers ah, are required to have minimum standards of proficiency hopefully by the end of term 3 this year. But I think they're expecting something like fifty percent of staff at schools will have a minimum standards proficiency. But um, yeah, that's about it as far as I know. I don't know very much at all. Is there a policy, a document out at the moment? [tint111].

5.5.4 Analysis

Policies are represented by the documentation used to convey them to the relevant members of the policy domain. Communication of the policy, particularly an explanation of the specific role each of the policy actors is meant to carry out, is essential if the policy is to be successful in meeting its aims. A number of related issues then need to be considered. First, is there a consistent and direct path of communication that is used to convey policies to those who carry them out? Second, is the language of the policy and related documentation clear and understandable to the various policy actors? Third, are there mechanisms within departmental branches and units, and schools, which assist in policy dissemination? Fourth, is there a clear expectation within the policy culture that policy documents should be read and understood by those whom the policy affects? Fifth, are there clear feedback mechanisms in place within the policy system for policy actors to make themselves heard? And sixth, are the antitexts, that is, the interpretation and understanding of a policy, of the people at the schools level consistent with the overall thrust of the policy or is there opposition in the interpretations?

Taking these points in sequence, the dissemination of policies to schools is not consistent, according to respondents from EQ and schools. Teachers were very unsure about who had the responsibility to pass on policy information, and even an officer at EQ stated that disseminating policies to schools is "…quite tricky" [eqint4]. The language of the policy documents which do reach schools and teachers is also sometimes vague and open to interpretation, according to another source in EQ, who said that policies are full of

"contradictions and ambiguities" [eqint1] and open to different interpretations. The third issue, that of mechanisms within EQ and schools to assist in policy dissemination, seems to vary from school to school. Sometimes there is a direct line from district to principal to staff in respect of a policy, but teachers in the main did not seem to know of any particular overall mechanism, and in fact often complained that there was none.

There is an expectation from EQ that policy documents are to be read and understood by relevant staff throughout the system. To assist in this, EQ has developed a comprehensive Web site that includes the department's policy manual,[4] which includes all major policy documents relevant to schools. Policy information is also published in the *Education Gazette*, the department's official organ. But there is still considerable confusion within the ranks of teacher-respondents who were unsure of how and where to obtain policy information. However, policies that directly affected the teachers, such as the minimum standards of computing, and more particularly the Senior syllabus and the new Junior syllabus, were well known by teachers, although they were often unclear on details. In the interviews some teachers were concerned about getting further policy information, but others did not particularly feel that their knowledge of policies was a priority in their working day.

Policy feedback mechanisms also seem to be little understood by many teachers. Some feel there are none; others feel it is dangerous to voice opinions about policies; others feel that their voices are not heard, so why bother. EQ has put in place various mechanisms for teachers to raise policy issues, such as Internet discussion groups that are available on the department's Web site. The development of the Junior LOTE syllabus had considerable input from teachers who provided input into the development, and then the testing, of the various modules of the syllabus. But the overall LOTE policy of the department was only known in general terms. However, respondents from EQ and from inter-state also stated succinctly that teachers and their professional organisations such as the MLTAQ have input into the policy development process only in an advisory capacity, and generally only at the beginning of the policy development process. Policy development is clearly seen as a major role of the relevant government instrumentalities, which, within their own policy cultures, may or may not seek input from staff and community into the development of the policy.

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Some of the policies that respondents mentioned can be seen to have developed an 'antitext', which has been discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.2.3. One such policy is the mandate to use communicative teaching methods. While this approach is purportedly departmental policy, many teachers pay lip service to it, or ignore it completely and proceed to use more traditional grammar-based approaches. Another is the department's computer policy (EQ, 1995), which states in part that teachers need to integrate computers into their workplans. There is most likely an antitext being developed here because a number of teachers who were interviewed stated that they were unable to comply with this policy for a number of reasons, ranging from the simple lack of equipment, to the more complex issues of having a pedagogic framework from which to begin developing computer-based lessons.

There appears to be a factor of simplicity relating to policies, in that simpler policies are easier to implement successfully. For example, the minimum standards directive, based on the department's computer policy, was implemented and carried out on schedule, at least in the schools that participated in the interviews. Some of the reasons were that there was very clear documentation, the methods of administration were clearly outlined, and it was simple for schools to carry out. The outcomes had to be clearly marked and reported to the district office. More complex policies, however, such as the development of a school MALT plan, or the integration of computers into language teaching lesson plans, are more difficult to implement. And large policies, such as the Queensland LOTE policy, or the national *Australian Language and Literacy Policy*, are extremely complex policies to implement, and hence more open to misinterpretation and more subject to difficulties relating to such areas as political changes and resource allocation.

5.6 Funding issues

A large number of respondents stated directly, or implied, that funding was a major issue. This section discusses funding issues mainly within the context of the school, with reference to funding across the education domain. Part 5.6.1 will look at the allocation of resources within

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[4] The DOEM (Department of Education Manual) can be found at http://education.qld.gov.au/corporate/doem/ (as at 9/3/00).

the school. Part 5.6.2 discusses the effects of funding on school computing, with particular emphasis on the quantity and quality of computer hardware and software, access to school computing facilities for LOTE, infrastructure costs, CALL software and site licensing costs, and maintenance and updating of plant and equipment. The effects of funding on training, with emphases on special training for LOTE staff, and training in computing for staff conclude this part.

Funding is provided to State schools from Education Queensland, from special Commonwealth funds through the CSLP, and from other sources through special grants and project funding. Examples of the latter are special allocations given to schools for staff training in computing from EQ, additional grants for the acquisition of computer equipment, and in the case of one school, the development of a local employment program through a contract with the Commonwealth [print110]. When the new LOTE policy was implemented in Queensland, "the funding that became available for LOTE was enormous" [eqint4], most of which, according to this respondent, went towards teacher salaries. The remainder of the funds was allocated to special language programs which included the publication *LoteLink*, the LOTE Olympics, language competitions, LOTE eisteddfods, and funding for regional LOTE coordinators. Commonwealth funds received through the CSLP have been used to fund special projects within schools [eqint4, tint13]. Additional Commonwealth and State funds were used to establish the LOTE Centre [eqint4].

5.6.1 Allocation of resources within the school

The schools have some autonomy in how the funds are to be used, within the direction of EQ funding policy guidelines.[5] According to respondents, specific allocation of funds to departments is often dealt with by school committees, who make recommendations to the school executive. While this approach might be seen to be a democratic way of allocating scarce resources within the school, the reality for small departments is that they appear to be at a serious disadvantage in obtaining necessary resources to carry out their policy commitments, such as the integration of the use of computers into their lesson plans.

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[5] For details on guidelines for expenditure and accounting for schools, see the Financial Resources pages of the Department of Education Manual (DOEM) on the web at http://education.qld.gov.au/corporate/doem/finanres/finanres.htm

Both principals and teachers discussed this issue from their own perspectives. From the principals' end, the well-being of the whole school is their responsibility, and obtaining needed resources from whatever legitimate sources takes up much of their time. The delegation of specific allocations to school committees ensures that there is some form of staff input into the decision making processes in the school, which helps minimize the load on the school executive. However, at least one principal [tint110] raised concerns that small departments were at a disadvantage because of the school committee structure, which means that those teachers have to work harder to get the resources they require. However, respondents stated that it can be done. One teacher [tint113] was quite clear that his strong advocacy and development of special LOTE programs enabled him to obtain additional funds to acquire much needed computer equipment and set up a special small computer-based language laboratory.

So in effect, it appears that language teaching staff have an uphill struggle to acquire the resources needed to actually carry out their programs, particularly in light of the need to integrate computing into the lessons. Certainly some teachers in some schools have been successful in getting things going in this regard, but it took considerable effort and time from the staff to achieve this.

5.6.2 Effects of funding on school computing

Teachers, particularly those who are also heads of departments, expressed considerable frustration in obtaining hardware or CALL software for their language classes. One teacher stated:

> I notice that last year through senior schooling I applied for *Word Games, Triple Play Plus*, you know, it's always been in the pipeline but we've never been able to bring it through because you know, the committee knocks it back. They prioritise. For me, I put essential, but it wasn't achieved unfortunately [tint17].

Another teacher raised the funding difficulties in providing computers throughout the school; that particular school's policy has been to put them into the commerce department and the library. Additionally, computers available for language teaching were obsolete and could not run the CD-ROM CALL programs that were available [tint19].

To put it succinctly, the funds that are available to most State high schools for computer infrastructure are not sufficient to meet the demands of all the school subject areas, including LOTE. The 10:1 ratio of student to computer is apparently too low for all subject areas to make use of computers. This is particularly frustrating for language teachers who are computer literate, who have used computers with their students, and who find gaining access to computers in the school extremely difficult. Clearly more funding for computer infrastructure, for CALL software and for staff training is critical. The difficulty for the school is first, finding the necessary funds, and second, placing computers within the school environment to enable the best access for all who need them. Third, the timetabling of access for language classes to the computer rooms is a concern. And fourth, funds for the maintenance and upkeep of the hardware and peripherals are a continuing source of difficulty.

Another difficulty for schools and funding is the cost of infrastructure related to computer networking. This includes the actual placement of computers and the requisite wiring, and the location of Internet connections and the overall cost of maintaining these. One of the principals [print12] raised the issue as one of the major ones facing the school. One of the external respondents [eqint1] raised other questions regarding teaching spaces, such as: what happens to the configuration of the classroom and then what effects does the introduction of computers have in relation to redesigning teaching methods? The respondent also stated that school buildings were set up inappropriately for integrating computers into classrooms. There are many challenges, such as how can a school obey safety regulations, e.g. placement of wires, cables, power points; how the school can meet ergonomic standards, to develop a successful computer-oriented classroom. Most of the State schools which participated in the round of interviews consist of multiple single or two-storey buildings spread across a relatively large campus. Although a number of the teacher-respondents would like to have computers in their classrooms, the physical layout of the school often makes this very difficult and costly. The counterpoint to this is the placement of networked computers into computer rooms, or laboratories, which then creates logistic and access problems.

All these difficulties would remain less of a priority if it were not for the mandate of EQ that teachers must begin integrating computers into their work plans. This raises a serious problem for a number of language teachers, because they are required to integrate the use of computers

into their work, but they are frequently unable to do so because of problems of access to hardware, acquisition of appropriate software, and training.

While funding for hardware and software is a major concern for LOTE teachers, a significant but related element is the status of LOTE teaching within the respective schools, and the need for LOTE teachers to take on more of an advocacy role. This in turn is difficult for language teachers (any teachers, for that matter), because of time constraints. It is not impossible, as a few respondents have mentioned. But it seems to relate to the motivation of the individual teacher, their political abilities, and their ability to network with appropriate organisations or individuals to meet their expressed needs.

5.6.3 Effects of funding on staff training

According to respondents, some funds have been made available from EQ to schools to assist in training teachers to achieve the mandatory minimum standards in computing. However, specialist training in the use of CALL has not been funded, and some teachers stated that they required specialist training to be able to use computers properly in a classroom setting. The following responses from the questionnaire sum up this concern:

> It is very difficult for teachers to learn, maintain and upgrade computer skills. For some it will be impossible to attain the standards required by the EBA. We need more time and money! [1]

> Yes. If we are to progress with computers we urgently need special training [51].

> Huge potential but dependent on funds and training [108].

None of the principals who were interviewed were aware of any specialist training for LOTE teachers, but they did state that such training could be made available if the LOTE staff requested it [print110, print12]. A head of department [hod110] stated that specialist training plus funding would resolve many problems in the languages area.

Finding specialist training also highlights a communication issue, in that teachers who were interviewed or responded to the questionnaire were quite vague about where to obtain such training. In Queensland some special training for LOTE teachers has been carried out by some of the LOTE advisors based at the LOTE Centre [eqint2], but there is no concentrated effort

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on the part of EQ for a special training project for LOTE teachers. One school principal stated that the school would pay the cost of a specialist course for staff [print110], but this seems to be an exception. There are also issues relating to the type of courses and attendant costs of providing specialist training for LOTE teachers.

It appears that funding for computer training is available for all teachers in the State system, but this training is aimed at getting staff to the required level of basic computer competence. Specialist training for CALL is an exception to the rule, and teachers who stated that they felt competent in using computers for language teaching, either had taught themselves or had undertaken their own study through a university or a TAFE college.

5.7 LOTE teachers' use of computers

This section discusses how LOTE teachers use computers in their profession, and the policy environment in which they work. The use of computers in Queensland State high schools is policy driven. Through the policy, a departmental infrastructure has been organised to assist schools in setting up a computer base, and in providing teachers with training opportunities. The Centre for Teaching Excellence maintains a database of registered trainers, which schools may use to appoint trainers for their staff. The Open Access Centre provides computer training and advice on the establishment of computers in schools. The language advisors based at the LOTE Centre are capable of providing some special training in specific CALL programs, such as *The Language Market*. The department also has policies in place regarding the establishment of computer networks in schools.

The preceding sections of this chapter have discussed many of the issues and concerns that teachers face in attempting to use computers in their work. This section will concentrate more on what is actually being done by LOTE teachers with computers in schools based upon the findings from the interviews and questionnaire. Part 5.7.1 will look at the current computing policies of EQ, and their relationship to the teaching of LOTE. Part 5.7.2 will discuss what LOTE teachers do with computers. Teachers' perceptions of CALL will be discussed in part 5.7.3. The section will conclude with a discussion on the positive side of computer use by language teachers, and will reflect on teachers' concerns which have not as yet been discussed.

5.7.1 Education Queensland policies relating to use of computers in schools

The policy that drives the use of computers in schools is entitled "CS-12, Computers in Learning" (DOEM, 1999),[6] and refers to the *Guidelines for the use of computers in learning* (EQ, 1995) for a more detailed description on the use of computers for teaching. This latter document contains general information regarding the use of computers in the teaching of LOTE, and includes a list of major uses of computers in LOTE (p. 14). This part of the guidelines also suggests that:

> students can learn at their own pace and receive individual attention when needed. This is most suited to the LOTE class where there may be many levels of ability among the students (p. 14).

According to the findings, the computer policy document itself is chiefly oriented to the needs of students, and teachers are expected to gain the requisite computer literacy to be able to carry out the policy's objectives. Also arising from the policy document is the directive "Minimum Standards of Learning Technology Competencies for Teachers" (ND), and "*Management and Learning Technology Plan* (MALT).[7] The latter directive is part of Schooling 2001. Each school is required to prepare a MALT plan, which indicates how the school will be incorporating computer technology into the school. As part of the MALT plan, a school is required to plan how each key learning area will be incorporated into the plan. Suggested outcomes are:

- Increased use of computers across all eight key learning areas, all year levels (P–12), and by students with special needs;
- Increased access to specialist hardware, software and peripherals which address the specific needs of particular year levels, key learning areas or students;
- Increased access to quality curriculum software and courseware;
- Increased integration of learning technology in work and assessment programs;
- Improved levels of student achievement through the use of learning technology (EQ, ND).

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[6] The policy may be found on the Web at http://education.qld.gov.au/corporate/doem/curristu/cs-12000/sections/procedur.htm. This version of the policy updates the 1995 version which was the version used in the text findings.
[7] The details on MALT may be found on the web at http://education.qld.gov.au/tal/2001/sin_mlt.htm (March 2000).

Additionally, there are policies and projects to get schools networked. One such project is The School Local Area Network (LAN) Project (EQ, ND),[8] which is proposing to provide cabling and active network equipment within all schools throughout the state by the end of 2001. To assist schools in planning the sort of network system that is available to them, EQ has provided documentation entitled "School Network Information Kit" (EQ, 1998).[9] The LAN project documentation details what sort of network connections schools will obtain, which is based primarily on the size of the school. This has ramifications for the ability of smaller schools to integrate networked computing into all their curriculum areas.

EQ appears to have given considerable thought to how computers ought to be installed in schools, how schools should plan for the integration of computing infrastructure into the fabric of the school and its curriculum, and how teachers should gain a basic computer literacy. However, from respondents' comments, the policy will succeed only with considerable difficulty, because first, the physical layout of the schools impedes infrastructure design and increases costs. Second, the sort of infrastructure that has been put into place is not sufficient for the increasing demands placed on it by subject areas in the school.

5.7.2 How LOTE teachers use computers

Notwithstanding the difficulties in using computers for teaching, it appears from the respondents that most in fact do use computers for some of their work, both for the preparation of lessons, assessments and administration, and in the actual teaching of lessons. The teachers who were interviewed and those who responded to the questionnaire provided some details on what they actually do, as indicated in Chapter 4, Sections 4.3.4 and 4.4.6. These details are now discussed.

Nearly all the teachers in the study used a word processing program for lesson preparation. Other teachers reported that they used computers for the preparation of assessments and exams, and for administrative purposes. The Internet was used for obtaining current information and resources, assessing materials and Web sites, contacting colleagues overseas,

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[8] The details on the School LAN project may be found on the web at
http://education.qld.gov.au/corporate/slan/.
[9] The details on the kit may be found on the web at http://education.qld.gov.au/corporate/snip/.

and networking locally. The work teachers do with students — given the restraints mentioned in other sections of this study — covers a fairly broad spectrum of computer applications and approaches. The teachers who were interviewed mentioned key-pal projects, pair work on computers, using the computer during class as a reward, and drills and consolidation work for students. The respondents to the questionnaire responded more generally due to the nature of the questions. Their responses may be found in Section 4.3 of the Findings chapter. In essence, they mentioned using the Internet for classroom study, and the use of CALL and generic programs with the students.

It would appear that teachers do experiment with the use of computers in terms of developing lessons using various approaches with computers, as can be seen from the variety of approaches that they take. Teachers also use a number of different language programs. Teachers of Asian languages were more prone to enumerate specific programs. The most popular program mentioned by the teachers was *The Language Market*, which was produced by GoPrint and the LOTE Centre.

5.7.3 Teachers' perceptions of CALL

Teachers are using computer-assisted language learning (CALL), many without labelling it as such. From the responses from teachers who were interviewed, and from questionnaire responses, teachers seem to think that CALL is a specific approach to teaching, and see it principally as academic, rather than as a term which covers all uses of the computer for language teaching purposes. What appears to be lacking is an understanding of how to integrate CALL into the overall curriculum, based on principles that have been outlined by Levy (1997) and others. Burston's (1996) caveat on the critical need to integrate CALL into the curriculum has apparently been heard if one reads the computers in school policy; however, other than some cursory comments on page 14 of the *Guidelines* (EQ, 1995), there has been little in the way of EQ assisting LOTE teachers in this regard. Some of the interviewed teachers' comments on CALL reflect some of the confusion around the subject:

CALL? Yeah, I learned, read about it at the Uni [tint213].

I suppose I should speak, shouldn't I? Sitting here nodding, or shaking my head [laughs]. I've heard of it , and I've heard people discussing it. But I wouldn't be able to tell you much about it [tint17].

Unlike the interviews, the respondents to the questionnaire were asked if they used computers for language teaching, and then what they used them for. Table 4.2.29 in Chapter Four, Section 4.4.6 outlines their perceived uses of CALL. It is significant that a majority of respondents to the questionnaire stated they used some form of CALL, although they may not have considered their use of computers as a CALL activity.

There appears to be a general dynamic in the use of CALL in high schools. The first priority is that teachers use computers for their own work, such as preparing lessons, exams and worksheets. Second, they use the Internet and the Web for acquiring resources materials and information. Third, when they have an opportunity, they will use computers with their students. In working with the students, they will use both generic programs for CALL purposes and when available, specific CALL programs. The use of CALL programs is not as widespread as it could be, either because the computer infrastructure in the schools is insufficient, or the logistics of the school relating to access and timetables are detrimental to language teachers.

Most respondents claimed to use the Internet, with most seeing it as a very positive tool for both their own use and for teaching purposes. Issues relating to the use of the Internet are generally two-fold, the first being the logistics of accessing the Internet at school, and the second the issues relating to the content of Web pages for student consumption, and, as will be discussed further on, the amount of time that the Internet can take in using it for teaching purposes. Teachers mentioned this concern in terms of time-wasting in class, as well as the time taken to get relevant materials and prepare them for class.

There is a clear need for language teachers to receive some specific in-service training in the use of CALL, within the mandate of the computer policy of EQ, and the Queensland LOTE policy. This sort of specialist training, however, has not been forthcoming to many of the respondents for reasons outlined above.

5.7.4 Teachers' attitudes relating to the use of computers for language teaching

Positive attitudes

Respondents in the interviews and the questionnaire perceived many benefits from using computers in teaching, even within the constrained environment in which they worked. The main advantage they saw in using computers in teaching was the motivational factor for students; this was often talked about in the context of using the Internet with the students. However, teachers offered some caveats. The quote below is a response to a question about students finding using computers motivating:

> Oh yes, I do. But you have to definitely plan it in a certain way, have work sheets and guide them through. You just can't have them on a computer and say, OK, have a look at some German sites. That doesn't work. And they're not going to gain anything out of that. You really have to structure it well [tint210].

Teachers see the practical uses of computers for teaching as indicated in the Findings chapter, Sections 4.3 and 4.4. The ability to obtain authentic language, and to work with students through the medium of the Internet, is a clear positive approach. However, as the quote above indicates, the use of computers and the Internet must be planned, and it must be included in the work plans. It is also noteworthy that teachers who did not have access to networked computers also saw a real potential in using them, ranging from obtaining current information and realia for teaching, and to a lesser extent, for email and networking, and planning projects such as key-pals. Some respondents also stated that they thought using computers in language teaching would raise the profile of LOTE among their teaching colleagues and the students, which would also increase the retention rate in the non-compulsory years.

From the interview responses, it appears that teachers see the need for planning in the use of computers, and have many different tools to select, ranging from the Internet to specific CALL programs, either stand-alone or networked. One of the themes which became clear in analyzing the responses from both interviews and the questionnaire is that teachers themselves find the use of computers helpful and motivating, although some respondents expressed concerns over their own abilities.

Issues

A number of teachers who were interviewed raised other concerns in using computers. Six stated they had problems using computers. These generally revolved around inadequate training, or a personal dislike of using them. Four teachers expressed frustration in the use of computers, partly relating to lack of training, but also to the logistic difficulties found within their schools. Five respondents mentioned the need for training. Three stated that they felt there were limits to what computers could do in relation to language learning or teaching, particularly with the lack of an oral component in current programs.

Respondents to the questionnaire also listed a number of concerns regarding the use of computers, with nearly a quarter of them feeling that there has been an over-emphasis on the use of computers in schools. This is partly due to the current priority of EQ to get all teachers up to the minimum level of computer literacy, and the policy statements relating to integrating computer use into all key learning areas. Other issues which were raised related to the quality of CALL programs available to teachers, and the problems of managing a class in a computer environment. Some of the respondents saw computers as impersonal tools which, if over-used, could be damaging to the development of social skills of the students. A related concern was the perceived lack of computers to deal with the oral component of language learning, a lack which respondents felt was detrimental to an overall communicative approach to language learning.

A number of respondents to the questionnaire raised issues relating to the value of using technology in language teaching. One perception was that the use of computers in schools was an objective in its own right, regardless of what teachers could do with them in their subject areas. Respondents saw that while there were positive reasons to use computers, the perceived 'bells and whistles' mentality of the department often precluded a timely and thoughtful development of appropriate computer applications for learning areas.

These sorts of concerns from respondents indicate that there is some ambivalence among teachers around the wholesale adoption of computer technology into the language teaching arena without adequate training and preparation. There are also expressed needs from respondents for specialised training in the use of computers for language teaching, with some overall theoretical and philosophical frameworks which see computers as tools, and not as a

technology that will make their profession redundant. None of these issues appear to have been addressed by policies or guidelines from EQ.

5.8 Other concerns from respondents

Throughout this chapter, the concerns of respondents have been discussed in some detail. Most of these concerns have been related to the use of computers and the related policy issues which encompass the environment in which teachers work: the education department and the State high schools. This section discusses issues which have not as yet been addressed, but which have direct relevance to the research questions. The first of these concerns relates to the fears teachers have expressed, which are discussed in Part 5.8.1. The pressure for language teachers to maintain student motivation and student retention, particularly in light of the perceived poor attitudes to language teaching within the community and the school, is discussed in Part 5.8.2. Time factors seem to be perennial problems with teachers, and those factors which were mentioned by respondents are discussed in Part 5.8.3. Part 5.8.4 elucidates the concern of many respondents over the articulation between primary and secondary schools in regard to LOTE. And finally, the roles of universities and TAFEs in pre-service training are highlighted in Part 5.8.5.

5.8.1 Teachers' fears

Both external respondents and teachers who were interviewed expressed a number of their fears. External respondents mentioned specifically their understanding of the perceived fear of using technology by most teachers. One external respondent stated that while in the mid-1990s there was a considerable amount of technophobia amongst language teachers, this has been alleviated somewhat because of the department's computer policy and the establishment of minimum standards in computing for all teachers [eqint2]. Teachers were now more likely to be familiar with using computers, and hence less fearful of them. This concern was also corroborated by another respondent in a discussion about teachers' concerns on meeting the minimum standards:

> I'll throw in two comments, and one is absolute fear and dread because the implication is that it's linked to your performance as a teacher sort of like a condition of employment if you like. You have to meet these competencies like you meet competencies of being able to organise a class. But, talking with other people, and

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actually having read the minimum competencies for Level I probably agree with teachers who SAY that the competencies are quite basic, and, ah, we'd probably need to be, I guess, sensitive in dealing with the alarm that teachers may face but especially for someone who may, um be computer illiterate…. although probably what is also scary if you like is this idea of a new approach to teaching that comes with the technology that this is being pushed a lot too, um, a paradigm shift towards learner-centred things which a lot of teachers are doing anyway, but it just sounds that it's put in terms of it's very new and revolutionary and teachers have to cope with yet another change in their job which is a bit scary [rcint1].

This respondent also highlighted a concern of teachers which was implied in the interviews but not necessarily stated: the continuous series of changes that teachers have to deal with. One such is the introduction of the new Junior LOTE syllabus. One respondent who was interviewed discussed this in terms of changes:

> but we are just changing the approach of teaching and the content of teaching, the whole – the so-called embedded approach, and even that, even though in the embedded approach teachers don't have to learn how to use computers, they have computers, even that is a major change, and I tell you, it will take years to change teachers' habits, the teachers' perceptions of what the language class should be like, from having exercise A and B and True and False statements, then another drill type, grammar type of activity, to more meaningful embedded holistic ways of teaching language. That in itself already is very, very difficult to get teachers to change. On top of that, to get them to use computers and be able to have a computer in their classroom and change their teaching again with that is a big task [tint21].

Thus, for some respondents, change is something to be feared, although eventually most teachers manage to cope with the changes, such as using computers in the classroom for language teaching.

Another fear of teachers which was mentioned is the possible loss of employment because of low numbers of students taking a particular language. One respondent summed this concern up as:

> I find the, um, always, not much being threatened — threatened's not the right word for it, but intimidated by the fact that if enough students don't go on, our languages could be wiped out at this school. We virtually had that, not said in those words, but if we don't have enough students to go on the language will be cancelled. That's basically it. And I find that extremely intimidating, to think that if I don't have enough students I may not have a job here any longer [tint15].

Some respondents also expressed fears about speaking out about policy or implementation issues, because of their backgrounds and experiences. Two respondents came from socialist

countries and still hold considerable fear in talking about policy issues. Another teacher was reticent to speak for fear of drawing attention. The teacher stated:

> I wouldn't, because we rank and file teachers have a healthy fear of um, raising your hand? And we have a fear about, you know, drawing attention to ourselves [tint23].

It would appear that the education system itself has not traditionally fostered an open or communicative approach for its staff to raise issues directly with decision makers or policy makers within the department, although this also appears to be changing with the advent of the department's intranet.

This latter point is worth pursuing, particularly if one takes into account the precepts of Fullan (1993) in ensuring that teachers' voices are heard in the policy making and implementing processes. Policies leading to changes in the school system need to consider both bottom-up and top-down processes. This is also a communication issue. If staff are left out of the decision making process entirely until the directives appear, there will be some resentment and frustration by the staff. Fears of staff are not heard, and hence not understood by decision makers, which will lead to greater problems in the implementation of the policy or directives.

5.8.2 The status of LOTE and community attitudes

There are two related concerns which were raised by external respondents and teachers who were interviewed: the perceived low status of LOTE, and motivating students to study languages. These concerns appear to feed on each other. Many communities regard LOTE as low status subjects at best, and useless ones at worst. These attitudes are picked up by the students who then raise them with the teachers, who must then attempt to generate motivation in the students to study in the compulsory year, and then to continue their language studies in the non-compulsory years. Fourteen teachers raised motivational factors in the classroom as a major pressure on them. Six discussed the pressure of the low status of LOTE in the school and in the community. As an example of classroom motivation, one respondent stated:

> Um, so far it's just been you know, just getting the kids interested in it so that — But I also want them to come out of Grade 8 with a, um, you know, some Indonesian. I don't want this to be the fun bludge course or anything like that. Um, but I think that some kind of challenge has to be faced by anyone who takes this job at this school because it's just — you know, I've had the comment from the kids in the first week um, when I asked them all — I did a survey on how they thought about Indonesian,

and some had done it previously at primary school. And one question was "what's your favourite thing about having studied Indonesian?" Oh, making the teacher cry and quit. And I was reading it, the kids said, and yeah, that's what we want to do to you too, Miss [tint16].

However, while these concerns were raised by teachers, others stated that they had successfully turned these attitudes around, both within the school, and slowly within the community. It must be said, however, that it takes an exceptional teacher to be able to do this. One teacher in particular has worked extremely hard to increase the numbers of students taking Japanese to year 12, with considerable success on the one hand, but at a cost of time and energy for the teacher. The teacher commented:

> Well, I think that from an administrative point of view, in this particular school, there has been a bit of a revision or a review of attitude and approach. Um, hitherto, and I'd say that in many schools LOTE is regarded as an administrative pain in the bum because it doesn't attract large numbers of students....we've managed in twelve months to increase the rate of those continuing from grade eight to nine by 200 percent. I've managed to do that in virtually this time because I know my craft I think. I'm fortunate to have another teacher in support of me here who is not only qualified to teach the language, but like myself has been to Japan for quite a number of years and can speak it... As a function of my, ah, possibly forceful attitude to funding, and demonstrated outcomes, I think we've turned thinking around here to the point where at my insistence – they had taster courses here for the first semester of grade eight, but they now have the choice of languages until the end of grade nine. My argument there being that ah, this is a policy in other schools, which has been to not run small classes, and my own of course being that if I've got them for longer I can give them more confidence and competence and a better outcome. So the boss is prepared to run with them as a — all in all I'd say it's the school's policy. In this particular case and it's at odds with many places, is supportive. Notwithstanding that it's very good PR for the school to have a lot of Japanese tours come [tint113].

But as mentioned, this is at a cost. The pressure this teacher feels is:

> No time to do anything. I'm in the unfortunate situation that having an absolutely full teaching load, I'm also expected to do a HOD's role, right down to policy espousal, budgetary design, attending all the consequent meetings attached thereto, and teach a full load. My class, my outcomes are suffering, because the HOD's given three loads, which constitutes eighteen sessions out of thirty, sorry, out of forty. And in practicality they deal with sixteen. I don't have that luxury, but I still have all these other things to do [tint113].

It seems that in general the community attitude to LOTEs is not very favourable. This is not only reflected for the reasons mentioned above, but also reinforced by some senior educators themselves. There was concern in the early 1990s about the imposition of compulsory LOTE

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in primary and secondary schools as mentioned by some respondents, and while the LOTE policy has been implemented for a number of years, there are still some concerns on how it was done and the effect of this on overall school resources. Sherwood (1993) highlights a dilemma:

> Resources that may once have been used for computer education are now being directed to 'new' curriculum areas such as Languages Other Than English and Human Resource education (p. 5).

If one then takes this fact into account when relating it to the problems LOTE teachers have in local school committees in the acquisition of resources, particularly computer resources, it would link back to the imposition of a policy into a system whose personnel had little input into the overall formation and promulgation of it. In other words, in some schools, resentment of LOTE is still being felt, and the language teachers — who had nothing to do with setting policy — bear the brunt of it.

5.8.3 Time factors

Time factors were mentioned by respondents either explicitly or by implication. The time pressures on teachers appear to be immense, and when anything goes wrong, or if extra-curricular activities are increased, then the time for teaching and lesson preparation suffers. Many respondents stated that they do work at home after hours, as well as maintaining a full professional life that includes teaching, lesson and assessment preparation, marking, meetings, in-service training, and membership of school and professional association committees. Respondents stated that time pressures for many of these activities were a major concern. The following quotes from the interviews and the questionnaire illustrate this.

> Time is a major hindrance both for me in preparation and for completing syllabus requirements [3].

> Oh, probably preparing lessons. And teaching, that's probably the most important one. It often gets the least amount of time. It doesn't sort of reflect the importance. Again, at the end of the day, because I'm head of department you teach fifty percent of the time. And that's primarily, if you can't go in and deliver a good lesson, everything else seems to pale in comparison [tint112].

> As a classroom teacher you don't have much time, and turning up at meetings all the time and doing your bit is something you could live without, but the other side is that, yes, ah, I, ah, very much value that um, those connections [tint14].

One issue that was discussed by numerous respondents from the interviews and from the questionnaire is the amount of time that it takes to use computers in the school. Teachers are well aware of the requirements for achieving minimum standards in computing, and the related policy pressures on them to integrate computers into their teaching. This, however, frequently takes an inordinate amount of time, as the following quotes indicate:

> Because they tell us that the new directive from EQ is that all subjects should have so many hours on a computer. Well, that's a great idea, you show us where we're gonna use them. You show us where we're gonna fit our kids in this timetable, you know? Computer rooms booked out eight days, eight periods [tint213].

> Now my class, we had four lessons in there which we prepared this week, and I'm having to spend lunch hours with them, because there wasn't enough time, and the rooms are booked out. I can't keep doing it [tint17].

> Teachers need training and time to administer programs. Time intensive when using Internet for lessons. Need to use lots of time planning lesson and resources [25].

> OK. It's a matter of finding the time to a) study the CD-ROMs myself; b) look into the different sites on Internet to prepare meaningful lessons based around them.
> I am already doing 11 hour days at school (i.e. not touching computers). By the time I finally make home, I don't feel like sitting down at the computer for another 2 hours of school related work [41].

It seems that because of all the time pressures on teachers, they are reluctant to spend their own time, particularly on weekends, to attend events such as language maintenance workshops that are offered by the LOTE advisors from the LOTE Centre. Nevertheless, it seems that most teachers who participated in the study do manage to fit most things in, but time pressures are probably one major reason why more teachers are not active members of a professional association, or are not prepared to take active roles in any education-related activities outside their normal work.

5.8.4 Primary to secondary articulation

One issue which was raised by interviewed respondents was the difficulties relating to the articulation from primary to secondary schools in terms of continuity of language. Each high school has 'feeder' primary schools within a catchment area, and it is not necessarily the case that languages taught in the primary schools are taught in the high school. This has led in many instances to Year Eight students having to take a language that they were not taught in

their primary schools. Additionally, a mobile population means that children may attend a high school in a different catchment area with totally different languages being taught. A combination of these two factors lead to what is termed 'multilevel classes', where students who are beginners in the language are mixed in with students who may have had up to four years of primary language. One teacher summed this concern up by stating:

> I would say it is the multilevel teaching. When in grade eight you've got — you've just worked hard for three months and the students — twenty-eight students, say 25 students have done Japanese in primary for three years. You've got two learning Chinese, two for Indonesian, and you've basically got the Chinese and Indonesians over their paranoia, and you've got them all going, and then boom! Two kids will come rocking in your classroom months later who've done Spanish. And you just look at them — that would have to be the ultimate — I still haven't worked out what to do [tint213].

Another respondent stated, however, that the school had managed to put new Year Eights into a beginner and advanced stream, and found that the use of computers was very useful for the beginners:

> But you see, our students are divided into beginners and ah, continuing students. So at the end of each year with a new lot coming in, I go through their records and I put them into classes. We've had some hiccups this year and it hasn't worked out quite so easily. Um, that's an understatement. But, ah, last year I had beginners. And of course the beginners could cope with, you know, Stage A [of *The Language Market*] was just wonderful and for those who were continuing, well it was like revision [tint25].

Another respondent would have liked to use computers for her mixed class, if she had access:

> The other thing that personally I would like is because we have the different, we have such different levels of experience of French in our classes; some of our kids come from primary schools that do a different language. Some kids have done one year, some kids have done two years, they're all in one class. And we need to try to manage that. Um, I would like to be able to at least have one or two computers in the back of the room, so for those kids who are really good, who've got their work done, and who want, or need to be pushed ahead, you can take a seat down there, and there's a CD-ROM, and it's all set up. and I won't let go. Alternatively for the child who's struggling to be able to say, don't worry about doing this, I'll go to the computer and set that up [tint28].

From these comments, it is clear that multilevel classes are not favoured by language teachers. It is also apparent that the syllabus and lesson plans stemming from it do not have a multilevel system built into them, and consequently it seems to be up to individual teachers to cope with multilevel classes as best they can.

5.8.5 Pre-service training in computing

Pre-service training in computing was discussed by numerous respondents to the questionnaire, one respondent from EQ, and by teachers who were interviewed. The main upshot of their comments was that new teachers had to be computer-literate prior to their arrival in the school, and they frequently were not. This appears to be due to the fact that until very recently there were no compulsory computing subjects for education students, and still no special training in computing for prospective LOTE teachers. Many respondents appear to have been speaking from their own experiences in attempting to learn computing through in-services, and through special courses, and reflected on their lack of training in computing when they were in pre-service education.

Some reflections on pre-service training from respondents to the questionnaire illustrate the concern:

> Subjects and course content should have computer relevant section/unit of study [20].

> Vital. First year is such a shock to new teachers. They need all their basics in place to help. them. Older teachers need upgrading. In country areas it's very difficult to get to in-services at coastal areas. In my case 4.5 hours by car one way [26].

> An integral role. It should be an integral component of each teacher's professional development [32].

> They need to be totally familiar and comfortable with all aspects/programs on computers as there isn't time to develop those skills when one is full time teaching [41].

> It definitely should be incorporated as part of a degree/diploma with examples of how to use computers in the classroom [45].

It is evident that the need for teachers to enter the workforce not only with basic computer literacy, but also with specialist skills to be able to integrate computing into their work, is essential. To date, however, this does not appear to be the case. This can be seen to be part of the problem that Fullan (1993) discusses at some length: the critical need for sound pre-service teacher education, which actually provides new teachers with the skills required to begin teaching. This includes a basic technological literacy. This general issue of pre-service training is also raised by Robinson (1997), who states that it is important for teacher educators

to consider the needs of pre-service and in-service teachers in understanding and mastering the change processes inherent in the introduction of information technology in their school and in their subject area. The problems relating to in-service training mentioned by current teachers regarding computer literacy could be overcome to a large extent if new teachers arrived at the school with the requisite skills.

5.9 Synthesis

From this discussion, there are two ways one can look at the dynamic that occurs between the various actors within the education domain. A 'top down' perspective provides a broad picture of how policies have been formulated, promulgated, and to a lesser extent, how they appear to have been implemented. The 'bottom up' perspective provides a more detailed picture of the impact of the policies upon the practitioners (teachers) and the policy's target groups (students), and a more extensive look at how the policies are implemented. This approach also highlights the difficulties and concerns that face the practitioners and the target groups. Many of the difficulties mentioned by respondents relate directly to communication within the domain from both directions.

5.9.1 Communication

The major theme throughout this study has been that of communication in the education domain. Based on the assumption that an organisation is defined first by its conversations and then by its texts (Taylor, 1993, 1994; Taylor et al., 1996), the study has attempted to look at how various actors actually communicate both horizontally and vertically within the domain. Vertically, most communication is of a formal, downward nature because of the hierarchical structure of the domain, although this is changing slightly through the medium of the Internet. Horizontally, communication is of an informal nature. Vertical communication from the bottom to the top is extremely difficult and does not appear to be done easily in the domain. Communication from the bottom to higher levels of the hierarchy takes place through formal reporting mechanisms, which do not necessarily indicate the real issues the people at the bottom are facing.

Informal communication channels — the seemingly preferred mode of respondents — works well in a horizontal fashion, but not vertically. Respondents communicate regularly with their peers and with other teachers, and through this communication reinforce their beliefs and concerns. Some of the more vocal and dynamic respondents certainly have stated that they will initiate communication with more senior members of the domain if it will assist them in getting what they want or need. Other respondents prefer to voice their opinions horizontally only; this is considered safer, but not necessarily effective in some instances.

Thus, from a systems perspective, implementers and practitioners of policies are effectively removed from those who evaluate and make policy decisions except through very formal channels. Hierarchical feedback loops within the domain are fragile and at times non-existent. The difficulties that this creates are threefold. First, managers and decision makers lack adequate detailed information to act on problems emanating from the lower echelons. Second, the practitioners have difficulty in providing this much needed information. Third, the interpretation of policies and directives by practitioners is subject to their own worldviews which are more to do with their daily work and their own *modus operandi*. The issues summarised below may be seen in the first instance to be partly exacerbated by this lack of communication within the system.

5.9.2 Policies

The policy process, from conception to implementation, occurs within the entire education domain. Each element of this domain carries out specific roles in the policy process, and in order for the policy to achieve its aims, the organisational structures within the domain must have some means of communicating with one another, as do the actors within the domain. How the different actors at the different levels within this hierarchical domain communicate will decide how well a policy can be implemented.

Another factor in the policy process is that of time. As was discussed in the findings and in the literature review, policies are dynamic and relate very much to the priority placed on them by the policy makers. Policies have a sort of life cycle, and within that cycle, actors and organisations carry out certain tasks. In the formulation and promulgation stages of major public policies, there is frequently a strong coalition of people and organisations who have

mutual interests in seeing the policy promulgated. This coalition will cut across many of the normal organisational and societal boundaries, in that politicians, public servants, practitioners and community groups and representatives will work together to achieve the aim of getting the policy promulgated.

However, once the policy is promulgated, then the coalition fades away, and the execution and implementation of the policy become the roles of a much smaller group, generally within the organisations who have responsibility for the policy. In the case of the national language policies, this has been the Commonwealth Government's Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs (DETYA). In the case of Queensland, it has been Education Queensland. In both instances, the groups responsible for implementation are public servants within the respective departments. Input from the former coalition at this juncture is drastically reduced, partly because members of the coalition feel their job is done, and the next stage is now the responsibility of the respective departments, and partly because this is the traditional way in which public policies are implemented in Australia. Then, depending on the particular approach of the responsible department, there may or may not be further input from external sources.

Another essential element in the policy dynamic is the change of priority that the policy undergoes over time. Other issues and concerns will begin to exercise the minds of the politicians; and the policy, which at the beginning was launched with considerable fanfare, fades into the political background. In a worst-case situation, the policy simply dies quietly with a phasing out of government support and resources. In a better situation, the policy is seldom referred to, but resources to keep the projects generated under the policy continue. The ideal situation is that the policy is explicitly recognised, communicated and funded, and is reinforced over time.

While the policy goes through this evolution, the practitioners are attempting to implement it. This implementation also goes through some phases, and depending on the success of each phase, may collapse, or may go on to succeed admirably. What the findings show in regard to the policies relating to language teaching and computers in schools is that the implementation phase has not been without considerable problems. Nevertheless, the policy appears to be

succeeding because the priority languages are being taught in schools, and computers are taking a larger role in the teaching of them.

A phenomenon that has become clear in this study is that the level of complexity of a policy will indicate its chances of successful implementation. The point made by Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991), when they state that policies left ambiguous and general do not get very far, is partly relevant here, but the main point is that a complex policy will have many components that will have to be implemented, often in conjunction with one another. So for example, the Queensland LOTE policy could only be implemented if there were a sufficient number of qualified language teachers appointed to begin the implementation process. This in turn required a whole system of teacher and language qualifications, which was undertaken by a new unit established in the central office, LACU, in collaboration with the Teachers' Registration Board. Recruitment drives were taken within the State's teacher education organisations as well as nationally, and in some cases, internationally. While this was going on, the LOTE Centre, a major resource centre for language teachers, was established to provide needed linkages and resource materials for the new teachers. At the same time, work was simultaneously going on with the Board of Senior Secondary School Studies in terms of senior years' assessments and syllabus preparation and revision. While these events were taking place, the school community itself had to begin working on incorporating LOTE subjects in an already crowded curriculum. If any one of these elements failed, then the policy as a whole would be affected detrimentally. Certainly the information gained through this study indicates that the problems of implementation and feedback have been difficult.

On the other hand, simpler policies, given proper guidelines and implementation strategies, have a greater chance of succeeding. While the complex policy of placing computers into schools has had its fair share of problems, the establishment of the minimum standards in the computing element of the policy has gone relatively successfully, with a concomitant increase in teachers' comfort and skills in using computers for teaching. While this relatively simple policy aimed to enhance teachers' computing skills has been very successful, it in turn is part of the larger, more complex policy relating to the use of computers for teaching all subject areas, and this, according to respondents, has not been as successful.

5.9.3 The 'top down' picture

Nationally

Since 1987, Australian Language and Literacy Policy policies have evolved, resulting in a decreasing emphasis on the original base of language policies: multiculturalism, and an increasing focus on literacy in English. In the ensuing thirteen years, the teaching of languages other than English in Australian schools has increased dramatically. This has been achieved even though there continue to be massive problems relating to resource and staff allocation into the schools. The rationale for the teaching of languages has also changed from one of traditional support for Latin and French, to a community-based concern for language maintenance and preservation, and then to one of the need for Australia to compete more successfully in the world marketplace, particularly in Asia. Thus, the Commonwealth government put a greater priority on the teaching of Asian languages, and the emphasis on community languages was reduced in priority, although still maintained. Special funding was made available for schools that taught Asian languages, additional to the priority language funding already available to schools (Baldauf et al., 1998). Although there is a current emphasis on literacy and numeracy, the Commonwealth continues to fund the Commonwealth Second Languages Program.

One area that appears to have been curtailed significantly is that of consultancy mechanisms to DETYA in relation to languages. The Australian Language and Literacy Council, for example, was dissolved shortly after the Howard government came into power in 1996. The National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia was gradually defunded, and its major projects now are more in the English literacy area. Through these changes, which are political and administrative, there are virtually no official feedback mechanisms into the department in regards to the teaching of foreign languages. It would appear that the emphasis on the teaching of LOTE has been handed to the States and territories.

In Queensland

In Queensland, the LOTE policy has been implemented in primary and secondary schools. And although there have been several changes of government since the promulgation of the policy in 1991, the policy is still extant, with some changes to reflect implementation issues. In Queensland the development and implementation phases of the policy seemed to follow a

similar pattern to the national policies, in that initially it was based very much on a multicultural approach. Unlike the national policies, however, the Queensland language policy was very much a language-in-education policy, and the total responsibility for its implementation rests with Education Queensland.

Consultation mechanisms in this department appear to be better than the national system at present, in that there are departmentally based officers in the LOTE Centre and within the head office, in Languages and Cultures. But like the national policies, there has been a de-emphasis on languages. The officers responsible for languages, formerly in their own unit (LACU), now handle a variety of other subject areas as well. The LOTE Centre has had a reduction in staff and resource allocation, although it still serves a critical role in providing resources to schools. The greatest concern from all case sets in the study, has been the departmental policy of re-structuring from regions to districts, and the attendant loss of regional advisors. These advisors had a major 'reticulist' role (Friend et al., 1974), by acting as a conduit between language teachers in the schools and the department, and their loss has been commented on by numerous respondents.

However, the Queensland policy has been successful in that languages are being taught in most primary and secondary schools in the State, notwithstanding the issues that respondents to this study have raised. What is of concern, though, is the quality of the teaching and learning that is going on. This has been partly addressed by the department with the forthcoming launch of a new Junior language syllabus [eqint2, eqint4] that is aimed at making languages more relevant to students. This approach is also seen by officers in EQ to partially answer community criticism about the need for foreign language study in a rapidly changing world and a shrinking job market.

All of this may change, if the concerns that have been discussed in the consultation report of the Education 2010 (EQ, 2000) project are developed into new policy directions. According to the consultation report of this program,[10] school principals and community representatives were highly critical of the compulsory nature of language teaching. This raises a basic question about the nature of language teaching in schools as to their relevance for all students,

or for the community at large. What it also shows is that over the fifteen year period of language policy making and implementation, there has not been sufficient attention given to providing sound answers to valid community questions on the relevance of language study. As discussed above, this community concern is reflected by the motivational concerns of students, and reinforces the difficulty language teachers have within the current school environment.

Computer policies

Education Queensland has placed considerable emphasis on the introduction of computers into the schools, and has provided policies and guidelines in their introduction into schools and their use in the curriculum. What has not necessarily happened is the successful promulgation of specific guidelines and materials for subject areas. In the case of language teaching, the policy documents and related publications speak in general terms and provide few concrete guidelines for successful integration of computers into the daily workplans of language teachers.

At the time of this study, the policy aim of providing a ratio of students to computers in EQ schools was 10:1, which was insufficient for the increasing demand on their use by most of the subject areas in the schools. LOTE subjects appear to have suffered considerably, as numerous respondents have stated in their comments — both written and orally — about the difficulties relating to access, the quality of the hardware and software, and the difficulties LOTE seems to have in getting the necessary CALL programs so that language teachers can fulfil the requirements of the computers in schools policy.

5.9.4 The 'bottom up' picture

The education domain and its related policies look very different 'bottom up'. A staff colleague said flatly that teachers do not read policies, and certainly the findings suggest that this is indeed the case. It is understandable why teachers don't read policies, or have a marked lack of awareness of them. The pressure of time and work commitments and the teachers'

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[10] A summary of the consultations may be found at
http://education/qld.gov.au/corporate/qse2010/reports.html#consultations

sense of priorities, put any serious reading and understanding of policy documents well to the rear.

Policies from a school perspective

While policies, their related projects and resource allocation, have a direct impact on the daily working lives of teachers, they are most often unfamiliar with them. As has been discussed above, teachers will be more aware of policies such as syllabuses, which are directly relevant to their daily work. Respondents' awareness of even these policies was unclear and vague, except for those teachers who had some input into either designing the policy, or piloting various sections of it. They were also unsure about the best way to get their concerns about policies heard. Most teachers felt that raising issues through the school hierarchy was the most appropriate path, but the more dynamic of the respondents simply would 'go to the top'. In some instances respondents had an expressed lack of faith in the system to, first, hear their concerns, and second, take any action on them.

Communication about policies from the central office of EQ to schools is, in the words of one respondent, "tricky" [eqint4]. The dissemination of policies and directives from EQ to the schools is through official channels via the Department's intranet, to the school principal and thence to the rest of the school staff and students. From then on it is really the internal operations of the particular school that dictate how these items reach the teachers. More recently all major policies and publications relating to school management may be found on the department's Web site. It remains to be seen, however, if school staff make use of this resource to keep informed.

Once a policy or directive reaches a school and is disseminated to the relevant staff, there is still the matter of interpretation and dealing with the respective worldviews of the staff and of the school executive. The more complex a directive or a policy, then the greater the chance for its misinterpretation and poor implementation. Thus, while there were many respondents who were not very happy about having to meet the minimum standards in computing, most have done so, and have thereby gained more confidence in using computers, as Sections 4.3.4 and 4.4.6 indicate in Chapter Four. In contrast, the understanding and interpretation of the ostensible policy relating to communicative language teaching seems to vary from teacher to teacher. In terms of the department's computer policy, teachers are aware enough of it to

know that they have to begin organising their workplans with computing included. However, there is a considerable amount of frustration from staff because there is not adequate infrastructure to be able to implement this element of the policy.

Teacher networks

Teachers network heavily, but often these networks are more for the immediate needs of the members of the network, than for any sort of long term concerns, such as policy issues, or resource allocation. This may well be due to the seeming gap between the policy making of the department and the activities of classroom teachers.

Respondents from schools appear to favour informal networks far more than the formal ones, even those that are horizontal, such as the MLTAQ. In some sense this sort of informal networking assists in alleviating the senses of threat and isolation which language teachers feel: it is easier to be able to unload concerns and complaints to one's colleagues in an informal setting, than it is through a formal network. The negative side of this is that genuine concerns and issues facing the teachers will seldom get to the people who could be in a position to do something about them.

Networks also provide a sense of identification and enable individuals to share their worldviews as well as their concerns, and in at least two instances, teachers formed their own formal network in the local area: Mt Isa Teachers Network [20] and Gamelan Giri Jaya Toowoomba [12]. Other respondents are active in language-specific organisations, such as the Dante Alighieri Society, Alliance Française, Chinese Teachers' Association, and the Goethe Society. It is also apparent that teachers who tend towards networking in any form are generally members of formal organisations as well as assisting in forming more local networks. One respondent for example, [tint35] is very active in the Brisbane Dante Alighieri Society, and also networks heavily with that society and other Italian teachers throughout Queensland. The respondent expressed considerable concern that while Italian is considered a priority language, there appears to have been little resource allocation to the language, but the Italian teachers' network continues to lobby the government to ensure that Italian maintains some priority within the education system.

Teachers' use of computers in school

Almost all the language teachers who responded to the study use computers for their own teaching and administrative purposes, with a significant number also using their computer at home. However, fewer actually use computers for teaching purposes because of numerous difficulties inherent in doing so at the present time. In the latter case, a number of teachers who were interviewed stated that given the opportunity do so they would use computers for teaching.

The difficulties raised by teachers in using computers for teaching are manifold and are related to hardware, software and training issues. In some schools the existing hardware and peripheral base is not adequate for language teaching purposes. In other schools, there are simply not enough computers to meet the needs of the school. In yet other schools, the difficulties stem from issues relating to access: timetabling, the location of the computers within the campus, and the nature of resource allocation mechanisms within the school. Most schools have difficulties relating to maintenance: computers break down frequently, the peripheral equipment, particularly headsets are inoperable, and printing is difficult.

The costs borne by the school to equip, upgrade, and maintain its computer base are enormous and many schools do not have the funds to be able to meet all the demands placed upon them for computing infrastructure, notwithstanding special funds made available by Education Queensland. However, more entrepreneurial schools, and teachers, appear to be able to overcome this particular difficulty, but at considerable cost in time and effort.

The teachers who do use computers for teaching often have difficulties in obtaining the desired CALL programs, such as *Twinbridge*, because of the costs. In other instances the stock of CALL programs is incompatible with the hardware or is out of date. In many instances the language teachers in the school do not have the financial resources to be able to purchase the programs they would like to use. Few teachers have had special training in the use of CALL, and hence most appear to be attempting to integrate computers into their lesson plans, as required by the school computer policy, without any experiential or theoretical basis.

This leads to the need for in-service, pre-service and postgraduate training for language teachers. In the case of in-service training, some respondents stated that there were some

resources available to provide specialist training for LOTE teachers in CALL and computing, but most respondents seem to believe there is little funding or time available for such training. In the case of pre-service training, many respondents stated that teacher education organisations had a responsibility to ensure that graduate teachers were computer literate in their subject areas, and this includes the ability to integrate CALL into the language teaching work plans. Other teachers stated that there was a need for post-graduate courses to assist in getting current teachers trained in the use of computers for language teaching, but the drawbacks were the lack of time for teachers to take advantage of these courses. A related issue of post-graduate training for teachers has been the change of funding arrangements for postgraduate courses, in that now all postgraduate courses are full fee paying. Financially this would appear to be a major deterrent to current teachers.

Notwithstanding all these issues, it is noteworthy that so many respondents still felt comfortable in using computers, as indicated in Chapter Four, Section 4.4. Nonetheless, respondents have also been vocal in discussing the difficulties they face in attempting to use them. Many respondents stated that they saw computers as a positive motivational force for students, one that could be of assistance in boosting the numbers of students who continue their language studies past the compulsory years. The advent of the Internet, and the networking of schools, have been a very positive force, enabling teachers and students to obtain real language resources, being able to contact native speakers easily and quickly, and assisting students to gain skills both in the language and in computing. But because the Internet has been introduced to schools so recently, it is difficult to predict just how schools and language teachers will make use of this resource. One area that teachers may well take up more frequently is the use of email for their own networking purposes; this has not as yet become part of teachers' working life.

Although there is a growing body of literature in the application of CALL in language teaching, as indicated in the literature review, it seems that Queensland high schools in the main are not yet in a position to be able to take advantage of many of the different teaching approaches which have been discussed in Chapter Two. A significant reason for this is that the schools' infrastructures are not yet set up for language teaching. Van Lier (1999) has written cogently about the need for a total planning approach to putting computer infrastructure into schools, because existing schools were never designed with computers in

mind. A respondent from EQ [eqint1] also mentioned the difficulties that the department had in setting up computer networking infrastructure in schools with such concerns as safety and ergonomics, as well as considerations for optimum design for different subject areas. The literature on CALL also seems to be much more oriented towards tertiary and adult education and much less towards the integration of computing into primary or secondary schools.

6.0 Conclusion

6.1 Position of language teachers

This study has investigated the nexus between policies and practices in foreign language teaching in Queensland high schools, chiefly from the viewpoint of the language teachers. The picture that has evolved through the course of this study is a complex one. One of the main issues that has been highlighted is that language education in Australia and Queensland is a policy-driven enterprise and, according to respondents, is also highly politicised. Because of this, language teachers, who are the primary implementers of policy, are caught in an ever-changing policy dynamic in which they always lag behind. Because of the standard communication patterns inbuilt into the organisational structures, they also have no way of directly influencing policy, strategies, or directions, because they have poor access to policy and decision makers. The results of these issues have a direct impact on the teachers' daily work and are indicated in the concerns they raised regarding access to computers and specialist training. The next sections explain why.

6.2 Policy environment

Over the past few years, the national language policies have been downgraded. In part this is due to newer government policy priorities taking greater precedence, e.g. English literacy and numeracy, and a strong de-emphasis on multiculturalism, which was a major element of the 1987 and 1991 language policies. While funding may continue through the CSLP and other programs, the political emphasis on language policies has not been sustained. As a consequence, the national leadership that was evident in the implementation of both the 1987 and the 1991 policies in effect has ceased. As one of the external respondents pointed out, there is now a collection of programs masquerading as a policy [vic1int].

Notwithstanding the Commonwealth's change in educational priorities, Education Queensland has maintained its LOTE policy, although the initial impetus of 1991-92 has been slowed with a diminution of funds and personnel. LACU, for example, was effectively disbanded as a unit and is now a part of a larger curriculum section within EQ. The LOTE Centre has lost staff and funding. What remains, however, is a partially successful

implementation of the State's LOTE program within high schools. It is partially successful because through the LOTE policy and the attendant funding and personnel establishment, EQ has managed to get LOTE established as one of the eight Key Learning Areas in the State school system. It has managed to extend language teaching from year 5 to year 12. It has recruited a number of qualified language teachers. It maintains an infrastructure of senior officers at EQ, LOTE advisors in the LOTE Centre, and provides written and electronic resources for teachers throughout the State. Just recently the new Junior curriculum for LOTE has been put into place, with materials now available for use by teachers, through the Web, and on CD-ROM.

What neither EQ nor the Commonwealth government has been able to do successfully is to promote languages other than English to the general community. As a result, after nearly fourteen years of funded language teaching, respondents have claimed that the community at large remains very skeptical about the value of learning a foreign language. There is also residual resentment within the schools themselves, and within the larger education policy domain regarding the establishment of compulsory LOTE subjects within schools.

Language teachers then have to work within this milieu of reluctant support, and in the main work from a corresponding position of weakness in regard to gaining necessary resources within the schools. They frequently have to contend with a lack of support from within the school system, and certainly in some schools, from the community they serve. Language teachers are located frequently in departments where they are a minority of one or two, which means that their voice politically within the school structure is minimal. However, there are exceptions. Where there are particularly entrepreneurial or dynamic teachers, they often can overcome the anti-LOTE prejudices and lack of resources. But their work comes at a personal cost, and that is their lack of time to carry out their required regular teaching tasks [tint113].

Computing policies have been implemented at the same time as the LOTE policy, with virtually all State high schools being able to provide limited computing facilities to staff and to students. Most language teachers, although with some trepidation, now use computers for their own work; less do so in classroom teaching, mainly because of the lack of computer resources, maintenance, or the logistics within the school. The Internet is being used more extensively and most teachers find it a useful resource, although many complain of the

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inordinate amount of time that can be wasted in 'surfing' for resources. Some respondents were concerned about the impact of computers on teaching, and were concerned about the implied change of roles that computers have brought about. It would appear, however, that the computer policy has been successful insofar as teachers have achieved at least a basic computer literacy and can use computers for various tasks. However, the policy's success has also raised expectations and a high demand for more equipment, software and specialist training in order for teachers to actually meet the objectives of the policy. These resources may not be forthcoming, principally because of the expense involved.

For language teachers, there are needs for access to hardware, CALL software and specialist training in order for them to even begin to meet the requirements of the computer policies, as well as attempting to integrate computers into the Junior and Senior syllabuses as required. Officers within EQ who have responsibility for overseeing the LOTE policy and the development and dissemination of information and resources are themselves a small cadre, and it appears that their power over policy development and decisions is also precarious [eqint4]. They consider themselves as educational specialists, and their input and advice may or may not be heeded by the senior decision-makers within the department. Thus, even as teachers with legitimate concerns approach officers in Languages and Cultures, the latter are often in no position to make the necessary decisions to redress the issues.

Throughout all of this, language teachers carry on doing their work as best they can. But their concerns and fears, ranging from lack of resources to their continued employment certainly raises morale and motivational issues, which have a cumulative deleterious effect on language teaching. How they manage within this political milieu is frequently through their own networks.

6.3 Teacher networks

According to Thompson et al. (1991), networks may be seen generally as informal, cooperatively run, with a tendency to enhance social relationships. These elements can be seen strongly in informal teacher networks, and respondents have made reference to these points in their discussions. While their networks appear to follow the definition mentioned above, they are also generally apolitical, which means in effect that their input into policy processes is small; politics and policies are not part of the networks' agendas. Generally it is through professional associations that teachers may, or may not, have any direct input into national or departmental policy processes.

Professional organisations may be seen as formal, horizontal networks, and are more devoted to providing resources for their members, being a sounding board for common issues, and to a very small extent, providing some 'lobby' effort into the policy processes within the respective departments. Because of the way departments work — chiefly through a standard bureaucratic hierarchical approach — professional organisations only have minimal input into the early fact-finding part of policy development. This is not to say that individual members of the organisation, or for that matter, individual teachers, do not have input into the policy processes, but it is through other channels than the formal hierarchical ones, or through other associations. An example of this is the network of teachers of Italian, who maintain a strong lobby effort to the government promoting the continuation of Italian as one of the priority languages.

Of some concern is the fact that only slightly more than half the LOTE teachers are members of the MLTAQ. Some respondents who are not members have expressed some doubt as to the philosophy and the effectiveness of the organisation. Other teachers are heavily involved and work quite hard in producing newsletters, articles, special projects and contact points for the membership. Other professional organisations, such as the Goethe Institut, the Alliance Française and the Chinese Language Teachers' Association, specialise principally in the language itself and provide opportunities for language maintenance, special resources, and are not necessarily aimed primarily at school language education. The MLTAQ could take a more political role, and as it had done in the past [ingram999], develop a strong presence to lobby actively for language teachers. The association might consider forming coalitions with like-minded organisations and individuals to meet the needs of its constituents.

Language teacher networks, then, are geared principally to deal with day-to-day issues and concerns, relating to classroom teaching. Resources are shared, solidarity is maintained, and social bonds among teaching peers are enhanced. However, the media of communication that are used within both the informal and formal networks do not as yet include the Internet in any substantial way. There were few mentions by respondents of using email, or other Internet applications, for the purposes of networking. This is principally because of the newness of the medium, and the more recent ability of teachers to use the Internet. However, there are some Internet-based initiatives that provide opportunities for teachers to network with one another. The LOTE-Internet discussion group based at the Queensland University of Technology (QUT) is one such, as are the EQ discussion groups available for teachers on the department's intranet for dialogue between the central office and teachers.

Networks, as defined in this study, have three dimensions. One is the horizontal/vertical dimension, which is important because in essence this dimension mirrors how communication takes place within the education domain. Formal, vertical networks are principally hierarchical, and communication through them is generally top down. Communication from the bottom up is generally carried out through official reporting structures, with little or no recourse for concerns not covered by official reports to be passed up to the decision makers. Formal, horizontal networks represent professional organisations, and the communication patterns of these organisations are primarily through the formation of special interest groups and production and dissemination of newsletters and other print media. Informal, horizontal networks are represented by many small, somewhat ephemeral groups of teachers who work together to meet some common aims, such as sharing resources within a school area, or to generate issues relating to the teaching of a particular language.

In essence, these network types represent most of the networking that goes on. The difficulty is that there appears to be little communication or contact between the horizontal and the vertical types of networks. This is mainly due to the nature of Australian government departments, which communicate principally top down and have few contact points for informal or non-official communication from staff at the bottom of the hierarchy. The horizontal networks, both informal and formal, aim at meeting professional and social needs of their members, which includes some input into policy-makers. While many concerns of language teachers are discussed in the horizontal networks, it appears that few are carried to

decision makers, due to the nature of the networks. What is needed is a group of language teachers, such as the former regional LOTE advisors, who could assist in the communication flow across the hierarchy, offer support to teachers as well as to departmental officers responsible for relevant policies. The fact that this cadre was disbanded when the regions were changed into districts, has been commented on by respondents from all case sets in the study.

The change to districts and the disbanding of regional LOTE coordinators means in effect that other than fact-finding missions carried out first by Professor Alan Rix and then by Professor Alan Luke, there are no clear mechanisms whereby language teachers can raise their concerns to decision makers in a direct way. This is a problem for both the decision-makers and for the teachers. The former are gaining their information from performance standards reports which do not necessarily provide the essential details of many issues faced by teachers in the school. The teachers, on the other hand, have no clear way of finding out what the policies are, how they are to be implemented, and what their roles might be. This will clearly have a deleterious effect on any long-term implementation of any policy.

As a general rule communication channels across, down and up within an organisation need to be clearly delineated, with set rules and set points of contact clearly understood by all actors within the organisation (Taylor, 1993, p. 188ff). There also needs to be commitments by both decision-makers and by practitioners that messages conveyed through such channels are heard, and acted upon. As long as there are hierarchical organisations within governments, there is a paramount need for such communication. Without them, successful implementation of any policy will be extremely difficult.

In order to achieve positive results in the schools' formal system, language teachers should consider using both the informal and the formal communication mechanisms more effectively. Further, it is important to consider also that many of the issues relating to training, hardware and software acquisition and access stem from the shortage of overall resources available to the school, which might be seen to be system-wide. But the status of language teaching is another issue which needs to be addressed by the department as well as by language teachers and practitioners. The perceived low status of LOTE in school and community would appear to be a definite handicap in any further allocation of resources to languages.

6.4 Implementation and continuity

Most reforms foundered on the rocks of flawed implementation (Cuban, 1988, p. 343, cited in Fullan & Steigelbauer, 1991, p. 29).

From reports such as Nicholas (1993), and the ALLC (1996a, 1996b), the provision of competent language teachers has been seen as the critical element in the development of a sound language teaching program within Australia's schools. Certainly this was adopted by Queensland through the Ingram and John report (1990), and followed up by the Queensland government through the LOTE policy in 1991. Having done this however, it appears that the system has left these teachers in a precarious position with lessening degrees of support. As the quote from Cuban indicates, this is the case in terms of language teaching in Queensland at least, if not nationally.

As discussed in Chapter Five, the language-in-education policy and the computers-in-schools policies of Education Queensland are complex, with many different components that need to mesh together in order to reach the aims of the policies. As discussed in Chapter Two Section 2.6.1, Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) talk about implementation in some detail, and raise many points that need to be addressed in the implementation phase of any policy-based program, because no policy will succeed without it. They discuss the processes of implementation, and its success or failure in terms of two key elements: factors and themes. The points in the next part indicate how EQ has dealt with each of Fullan and Stiegelbauer's variables. To recap, the key factors and key themes are:

- Key factors:
    - characteristics of change: need, clarity, complexity, and quality and practicality
    - local characteristics
    - external factors
- Key themes:
    - vision-building
    - evolutionary planning and development
    - initiative-taking and empowerment
    - staff development and resource assistance
    - problem coping
    - restructuring

6.4.1 Key factors

The first element within the characteristics of change is *need*. Schools must understand the need for the change. In the case of language-in-education policies which have led to large changes within school curricula, the policy had to be understood and seen as a need which the school, and its staff, were prepared to meet. In Queensland, the 1991 LOTE policy addressed what was seen by the government of the day to be an unmet need: a lack of foreign language education in Queensland schools. It was then up to the department to implement this policy; this was only accomplished with difficulty in that there was not an agreement by many educators that language teaching was, in fact, a need. This problem of school and community acceptance of language teaching is not yet resolved, and from the discussions of the respondents, is still creating difficulties in terms of student motivation, and the allocation of needed resources.

The second of these characteristics is *clarity*. In terms of the Queensland LOTE policy, the findings of this study indicate that teacher respondents who were interviewed were only vaguely aware of this policy, and not at all aware of related policy initiatives, particularly those emanating from the Commonwealth, such as *Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (1991). In short, teachers do their jobs on a day-to-day basis without much consideration or understanding of the overall policy structure within which languages are taught. There are two issues here: first is the mechanisms by which policies are disseminated to teachers, and the second is the motivation of teachers to become familiar with the policies.

Complexity is the third characteristic. At the time of this study, the implementation of the language program in Queensland high schools was partially complete, and notwithstanding the issues raised by respondents, has a good chance of meeting the aims of the policy, provided that the relevant decision-makers provide the leadership and resources to see the implementation phase through to completion. The same holds true for the computers in education policies and programs. The question in both cases is whether the political will to continue the programs promulgated under the policies is still present, and then to ensure that they are adequately resourced. Both policies have been implemented in an incremental fashion, and Fullan and Steigelbauer state clearly that the success of such policies depends very much on sustained allocation of resources.

The fourth characteristic is called *quality and practicality*. In the case of the LOTE policy, much work went into the lead-up to the promulgation of the policy, thereby making the implementation of it easier, based on details in such reports as Ingram and John (1990), which in turn was based on much work with teachers and schools and community groups with an interest in language education. The computers-in-schools policy was also implemented based on earlier research and discussion. In both of the policies, however, once the political agenda was altered to deal with other priorities, the leadership and the resourcing of the implementers of these policies were reduced. Thus the quality of the changes was reduced because of the lack of resourcing.

The second key factor is the impact of *local characteristics* in the change, which relates to the roles various people and units within the education system carry out in the implementation process. This study indicates that the repercussions of a hostile or negative community towards language teaching directly affect the motivation of the students in the school, and consequently the teaching staff. The battle to maintain motivation was a theme raised by numerous respondents.

The main agents of change at the local level are principals and teachers. Principals have the major role in resource allocation in Queensland State schools, and are obliged to meet performance standards in terms of finances and policy-mandated priorities within the school. The language and computer policies are but two they are faced with managing. However, the attitude and motivation of the principal will predict the ease in which various subject areas within a school are resourced. Based on the findings of this study, this is the case in terms of the LOTE policy and the computer policies. While the principal is responsible for funding and resource allocation within the school, the preliminary work and recommendations for resources frequently are developed in school-based committees, and the principal approves the recommendations of the committees. As discussed in the previous chapter, this arrangement may provide a balanced and democratic way of ensuring fair resource allocation in terms of numbers, but it also puts small units and individual teachers (in the case of many schools with one or two LOTE teachers) at a considerable disadvantage.

The principals who were interviewed in this study saw languages as another policy-driven discipline area which needed to be incorporated into the life of the school. They indicated that languages were not given any particular special treatment; they also recognised,

however, that languages were difficult subjects, were not popular in the higher grades because of this, and that language teachers had to advocate their case in a much stronger way than teachers of other subject areas did. None of the respondents was aware of any particular specialist training available for language teachers, although they were willing to fund the training if the teachers wanted it. In essence, the principals were not special advocates of LOTE teaching, but saw these subjects as an integral part of the school's role.

The role of the teacher in implementation is critical because the teacher is the person who carries out the day-to-day tasks relating to implementing the mandated changes. In terms of the implementation of the LOTE policy, the dynamic of LOTE teachers interacting with one another within a school, and with peers outside the school in various forms of networks, has assisted the development of language teaching in schools, and through these networks, the sharing of their feelings, ideas, and resources. However, the interaction between school administrators and LOTE teachers, while generally easy and informal, does not necessarily lead to the teachers' desired outcomes for gaining further resources, or to circumstances which are conducive to dealing with such issues as timetabling and gaining access to computer labs.

Fullan and Stiegelbauer describe *external factors* as those which place the school within the context of a broader society (1991, p. 78). The school is influenced by policies and directives emanating from the education department, from Commonwealth policies and programs, from university faculties of education, research and development centres, and so forth. What the school teaches, how subjects are to be taught, and what resources are provided to teach, are in part influenced by all of the organisations mentioned above, as well as the State or national perspective on education. In regard to this study, the national language policies of 1987 and 1991 reflected community concerns as well as government philosophy at the time.

This illustrates one of the main themes of this study: the necessity for good communication between the various actors and units, who each is partly responsible for the development and implementation of education policies.

6.4.2 Key themes

Fullan and Stiegelbauer's key themes are: *vision-building, evolutionary planning and development, initiative-taking and empowerment, staff development and resource assistance, problem coping, and restructuring* (1991, p. 82).

Vision-building is an important theme because it is a process which requires the input of teachers and administrators at the school level, working together to look at the change processes, and what these will mean for the well-being of the school and all within it. This study did not pursue this theme, but from the respondents' comments, it seems that in terms of the LOTE policy at least, vision-building was undertaken more by the regional LOTE advisors and the LOTE Centre's language advisors with teachers, region by region. Once the regional advisors were disbanded, maintaining and promoting a vision has been left to the LOTE advisors at the LOTE Centre and the officers of Languages and Cultures.

The second key theme is *evolutionary planning and development*. This study indicates that in some instances this has been done when teachers had negotiated with the principal or other administrators to obtain further computer resources, improved timetabling, and specialist staff training. Unfortunately this has been more the exception than the rule, with the more entrepreneurial teachers being able to persuade the school administration to provide needed resources.

Initiative taking and empowerment is the third key theme. Schools that successfully implemented some innovation also established discussion groups and committees which included teaching staff, administrators, and sometimes students and parents, to work through the necessary problems relating to the changes. Fullan and Stiegelbauer discuss this theme in relation to implementation within a school, but it would seem that the same sort of procedure would work across the hierarchical divides within the department itself, if a major change were going to affect more than one school, as is the case of implementing the LOTE policy and the computer policy. Comments from teachers who were interviewed, however, indicate that frequently language teachers are reluctant to take initiatives in regard to policy issues because there is little incentive for them to do so. From respondents' statements, the concepts of initiative taking and empowerment in regard to LOTE teaching are more the exception than the rule.

A fourth key theme is that of *staff development and resource assistance*. In the case of the implementation of the Queensland LOTE policy, staff development has consisted of a variety of ongoing workshops, language maintenance sessions, and teacher meetings with LOTE advisors. However, respondents reported that they often consider these forms of staff development difficult. Factors they mentioned include having to do the training in their own time, or else the in-service sessions available to the school are not specific enough for their needs. While teachers have attempted to come to terms with the training issues surrounding the teaching of languages, at the same time the department's computer policies have compounded the need for further staff development in the use of computers, and further specialist training in being able to integrate the use of computers into their work plans. Again, respondents claimed that there has been some in-service training sessions in their schools to assist in getting staff up to the minimum standards mandated by the policy. However, they also report that there is a big demand for specialist training in the use of computers for language teaching. In many respects, the staff development needs of language teachers are not being met in any sort of consistent and ongoing fashion. Certainly skilled educators are available from universities, the Open Learning Centre, and the LOTE Centre, but then the issues of time and finances arise, often making intensive or ongoing training difficult to impossible for most teachers.

Monitoring and problem-coping is another key theme, and relates to the ability of an organisation to keep track of the implementation process, and then to act if necessary on problems that arise. From the responses to questions in this study, there are few such monitoring mechanisms in place for teachers to get their concerns heard and acted upon, except for the departmental performance standards. This is an important issue: how does a department as complex as Education Queensland set up appropriate monitoring systems that allow for the quantitative measurements, such as the current performance standards, as well as the ability to gain an in-depth understanding of the issues facing practitioners in the classroom? As an example, performance standards state that there should be a ratio of 10 students per one computer in every school. This criterion has been met by all schools across the state, but it does not inform the department of the conflicts relating to the placement of computers in the school environment, nor does it explain issues such as access, timetabling and logistical problems. Fullan and Stiegelbauer state:

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The success of implementation is highly dependent on the establishment of effective ways of getting information on how well or how poorly a change is going in the classroom and school. The crux of the matter is getting the right people talking together on a regular basis with the right information at their disposal (p. 87).

The last key theme discussed is that of *restructuring*, relating more to how the school is organised, rather than departmental restructuring. In the case of Queensland, the introduction of computers into the school has been in essence a major restructuring exercise. It has led to the establishment in many schools of technology committees, the employment of specialist staff, or re-vamping teacher roles to include computer maintenance. Because the computer policy mandates the inclusion of computers into the curriculum, this will no doubt lead to further restructuring of the overall curriculum. In some schools this has already taken place, with language and computing subjects taken out of the mainstream curriculum and made available in out-of-school hours.

6.4.3 Continuity

Once a change is implemented and becomes part of the operations of a school, the question then becomes one of continuing the projects brought about by the change. Two issues of continuity relate to the implementation of the language policy, and the computers in schools policy. When the Queensland LOTE policy was promulgated, the government of the day earmarked over sixty million dollars for implementation of the policy. The bulk of these funds went towards teachers' salaries. Once the LOTE program was in place, it was then up to the schools to continue the funding of the language program. Because LOTE was deemed a key learning area, schools had to continue the teaching of languages, even if the school and its community were not particularly enthusiastic about languages.

A second issue of continuity is that of special funding attached to the department's computer policy. A capital grant was made available to each school to set up networked computers, but then it became the responsibility of the school to maintain the infrastructure, and to ensure that it is operational and upgraded as the needs arise. So the quality of language teaching is dependent on quality teaching staff who are adequately resourced and supported. The question remains as to how this is to be carried out as the government's and the department's priorities change.

6.5 Computers and language teachers

Given the limited number of computers accessible to language teachers in the schools, it is noteworthy that so many of them are using computers in the classroom. They are using a combination of stand-alone programs such as *The Language Market*, and the Internet for a variety of applications such as email, and the Web. Of those who are not using computers in the classroom, some of them are eager to do so, and see that the introduction of computers will be a good motivating factor for the students. The limited supply of equipment and adequate software, however, is generating considerable frustration because on the one hand the department's computer policy dictates that all teachers are to integrate computers into their lessons, and on the other, the lack of access does not allow them to do so in any practical sense.

A related issue is the lack of specialist training for language teachers that will allow them to make the best use of computers in the classroom. While the literature review in this study indicates how successful application of CALL in the classroom may occur, teachers are generally not aware of this, e.g. which sorts of programs are useful and how they can be used. Education Queensland's publications and policies suggest the use of some applications, but lag behind the technology and the more current applications, particularly in the use of the Web. Enterprising teachers have nonetheless managed to integrate some computer work into their lessons. But the issue is still the need for some ongoing, specialist training for language teachers to assist them in this area.

The study also indicated that most teachers do use computers for their administrative work, lesson preparation, assessment preparation, and reporting. Results from the questionnaire indicated that most teachers use computers at home and at work, with the majority familiar with word processing and the use of the Internet. The minimum standards in computing seems to have enabled most teachers to become sufficiently competent for these sorts of uses, and the responses to the questionnaire and interviews indicate that most are relatively comfortable in using computers.

However, respondents did raise issues that bear further scrutiny, particularly in looking at the perceived use of computers for their own sake, rather than as seeing them as a tool for enhancing language education. The lack of understanding about how best to use computers

for language teaching has also exacerbated the problem of where computers for language teaching should be located in the school campus, and which sorts of software and applications should be made available. As language teachers become more competent, these issues will become more apparent, but at that point the decisions on placement, networking, etc. will have been already established. This is already the case in many schools. The issue may well then become the need for further funding for the purchase of hardware, software and network infrastructure. Teachers who responded to the study were also of two minds about whether computers in the classroom or computers in laboratories were the more appropriate way to set up the school's computer infrastructure. Given the nature of the school buildings, the placement of sufficient computers in language classrooms may not be feasible — to say nothing of the expense. However, if this is the case, then languages as a key learning area should have adequate access to existing computer facilities in order for language teachers to meet the requirements of the computer and language policies.

6.6 Suggestions to consider in a changing environment

This study has shown that language teaching in Queensland high schools is a policy-driven enterprise, which is seen by respondents to be highly politicised as well. While the study has not compared this key learning area with the other seven mandated by Education Queensland, it appears from respondents' comments that even after nearly a decade of development, languages other than English have not settled into an equal footing of study within schools. Compulsory language teaching is not looked on favourably by students, their communities, and to some extent the educators themselves. In addition, resourcing of language teachers has been reduced. Students generally do not elect to take foreign languages past the compulsory years, leading to concerns about the value of maintaining language programs within schools, which are already stretched in terms of resources and staff.

But, even if languages other then English were to be restructured such that there were no compulsory years, and the number of schools adopting to teach languages up to the senior years was reduced, issues raised in this study are still relevant. Patterns of communication, provision of adequate computer infrastructure to schools, specialist training of language teachers, teachers' interpretations and understanding of policies, and related issues need to be considered. Here are some suggested approaches, which may assist in redressing the issues.

6.6.1 Teacher communication and participation in policy implementation

The Department should consider how to enhance teacher participation in the policy implementation processes. As this study has discussed, in order to more successfully achieve the aims of a policy, the people involved in implementing as well as developing it need to be heard regularly. In terms of LOTE, there are several avenues which could be usefully explored. First, the Department should establish an intranet discussion forum exclusively for language teachers. This forum could then be vetted on a regular basis by senior officers of the department, who have the power to address issues raised therein. This forum ought to be accompanied by a relevant set of Web pages within the department's excellent Web site, to address issues emerging from language teachers. The Web pages could contain copies of all relevant policies and directives germane to the teaching of languages, as well as links to resources for each language. Junior and senior syllabus materials could be made available, or links to these if they are already on the Web in another location. Other publications such as the *Education Gazette* should continuously refer to the Internet facilities available to teachers, and reiterate any specific policies and directives relevant to language teachers.

Second, the department needs to re-establish a system of LOTE advisors throughout the State, who have a brief to assist language teachers in their training and development, as well as provide a conduit to the department's central office, to assist in developing vertical communication links with senior officers in the department. These advisors would be in addition to the language-specific LOTE advisors who are based at the LOTE Centre in Brisbane. Through the use of email and on-line chat, advisors can keep in continuous touch with teachers in schools throughout the state.

Third, formal teacher networks, such as the MLTAQ, have an important role in providing a formal venue for language teachers to bring concerns and issues for discussion and development. The organisation should be seen by Education Queensland and the Association's members as being a major supporting force for language teachers. This organisation has a role in reinforcing professional roles, and also providing a collective, formal voice which may be used in discussion with the Department, and with community organisations such as Parent and Citizen committees. The organisation should also continue to provide a forum for sharing resources. Like the department, the MLTAQ should consider providing more resources via the Internet. The organisation might also wish to consider

seeking special grants from the department, or from other sources, to assist in upgrading its Internet presence, and to provide resources through this medium.

Schools should ensure that all new staff are provided with an orientation program which includes the provision of copies of all relevant departmental and school-based policies and directives, or at least some information as to where these might be obtained. As part of the orientation, new staff ought to be required to indicate that they have an appropriate awareness of these policies and directives. Schools should also establish an appropriate routing mechanism which ensures that all staff have access to any new policies or directives emanating from the department or the school itself, with this system monitored periodically to ensure that it works.

Teachers themselves need to be aware of the communication venues available to them, both of a formal and an informal nature, both horizontally and vertically. Teachers should be encouraged by the departmental and the school levels to use the relevant departmental intranet discussion groups as well as using email to contact the language advisors and one another.

6.6.2 Provision of adequate computer infrastructure to schools

If the department is committed to its computer policies and expects all subject areas to incorporate the use of computers in teaching, then it will have to ensure that there is adequate infrastructure within the schools to allow this to occur. Schools themselves are financially constrained and spend a considerable percentage of their current budgets simply maintaining the existing computer infrastructure, let alone the purchase of additional equipment and software. A number of school principals and heads of departments have taken valuable initiatives in this regard, and through obtaining external grants, have been able to considerably enhance the schools' computer infrastructure. Schools and school administrations need to consider issues relating to timetabling and location of the computers in the school, to ensure that all key learning areas have some time made available to them for access to computers. Each school will need to address this issue in its own way; however, there should be general departmental guidelines that provide a template for schools to work within to allow more equitable access, particularly to subjects of smaller enrolments.

6.6.3 Specialist training of language teachers

In the first instance, if language teachers are expected to be competent in integrating computers into their lesson plans and overall curricula, then they will have to have the requisite skills to do so. Part of this issue relates to the questions of time and funds, in that most schools have few financial resources for teacher relief to allow for adequate training to take place. The department should consider enhancing the provision of teacher relief so that language teachers can obtain the required training, either from within the department, or from external sources.

One approach might be to consider developing a skills matrix similar to the minimum competency in computing, but tailored specifically to language teachers. This could be developed through a collaborative effort of universities, language advisors, teachers and departmental officers, and then implemented first as a pilot program in selected schools, and then throughout the State. New teachers coming into the system should also be examined for their computer competency in language teaching and, if they have the needed skills, exempted from the program. Currently, prospective language teachers have to indicate to the department that they have specific competencies in their language; a similar sort of approach might be taken in regard to their computing skills.

6.6.4 Teachers' interpretations and understanding of policies

The issue of teachers' interpretations and understanding of policies is one which can be resolved in the main by following some of the suggestions stated above. As the study has indicated, the closer a policy is to teachers' day-to-day work, the greater the chance that they will have an understanding of it. However, some of the more 'remote' policies do have a considerable impact on teachers' work, and thus, teachers should have some awareness of them, if for no other reason than to understand the policy environment in which they operate. An awareness of some of these policies, and the programs under them, such as the Commonwealth Second Language Program (CSLP), may assist teachers to obtain resources which they might otherwise not be aware of. As discussed previously, the Department's Web site could be instrumental in assisting this awareness.

6.6.5 Marketing language learning

If foreign language teaching is going to succeed in Queensland high schools, the department should consider a forceful marketing campaign on the benefits of learning a language, in terms that relate to the current perceptions in the community. There are sound reasons for learning a second language, which has been discussed at length in the professional literature (Parkinson, 1999-2000; McKay, 2000) and highlighted in policy documents (EQ, 1991), but which has not translated well into terms that the community can grasp easily. Such a marketing campaign should start with some survey and focus groups to ascertain the current understanding and opinions of community members, and of school staff, and through the data thus obtained, develop a targeted campaign which will assist in convincing the target groups that second language learning is an essential educational task. The department should consider appointing an appropriate organisation, such as an advertising agency that has had experience in promoting social issues, to undertake the campaign.

6.7 New policy initiatives

As this study was nearing completion, Education Queensland undertook another major policy change which has been outlined in the Education 2010 documents (EQ, 2000). The development of this project began by wide community and school consultations which were undertaken by Professor Alan Luke in mid-1999. The consultation documents have raised doubts as to the future of compulsory LOTE teaching in schools, as a reflection on the related concerns of communities and school principals which have been mentioned in this study. According to the discussion document from the Education 2010 project (EQ, 2000) there is some evidence to suggest that LOTE is not a favoured learning area by the decision-makers within the department.

With the concerns about language teaching mentioned in the documentation, language teachers will surely exhibit more anxiety in respect to such areas as their job status. This is in spite of the fact that the department had undertaken extensive consultations with teachers, students and community groups in the development of the program. One might consider the fact that even through these sorts of consultations, language teachers may well have been a minority voice and hence not heard.

Notwithstanding this new policy direction, there is still a need for enhanced communication links among all segments of the education domain. The Education 2010 documents (EQ, 2000) indicate that while great changes are forthcoming to the whole schooling structure, and wide consultations were held throughout the State, there is little mention within the documents of any ongoing commitment to enhancing communication. In short, what will occur is another set of major changes being implemented, apparently using the same communications and hierarchical structure, and the same problems discussed in this study may simply continue. This study demonstrates that these innovations will not succeed unless changes to communication patterns are included into the implementation plans, and if they are embedded into the proposed new school culture that is being suggested in these new documents.

6.8 Concluding remarks

As Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) suggest, contemporary school education can be seen as a process of continuous change. Much of this change is politically driven, and manifests itself in the form of strategies of change based on policies. The study of foreign languages in Australian and in Queensland schools was considerably enhanced by the promulgation of national language policies, which provided a solid impetus for Queensland to follow suit. In this study, two policies, the Queensland LOTE policy and the school computer policy, have been considered. Though implemented at roughly the same time, there was little linkage between the two. In the same period of time, the introduction of the Internet and a rapid growth of CALL has meant that using computers for language teaching has become feasible. The study indicates, however, that much work needs to be done within the department to ensure that, first, there is an adequate computer infrastructure to allow for all subject areas to have reasonable access to it. Second, there is also work needed to ensure that there is adequate specialist training for teachers so that they will be able to use the computer infrastructure for teaching in an appropriate manner.

Education Queensland is a complex organisational structure using a control hierarchy. But it is also a complex structure of networks of all eight types discussed in this study. The communication and organisational theories of Taylor, Fullan and Stiegelbauer, and others have provided a solid theoretical base for the analysis of the data collected in this study. It is important that the analysis of how teachers in this system relate to policy initiatives and, as

importantly, how decision-makers relate to concerns of teachers, are considered in light of a communication system that allows for formal and informal networking and contact. Both horizontal and vertical approaches need to be enhanced if the Department and its staff at all levels are to collaborate in policy implementation, continuation and change.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Letter to Principals seeking access to schools

Letter to Principals seeking access to schools

Dear

I am writing to seek your permission to undertake some research interviews in your school with your language teaching staff. I am currently undertaking a PhD at the Centre for Language Teaching and Research at The University of Queensland. Previously I was the Director of the National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia's Language and Technology Centre, in which I developed databases, carried out research projects, and trained primary and secondary language teachers in basic computing and the use of the Internet.

My PhD dissertation is on the policies and practices relating to using computers in language teaching in South-East Queensland high schools. Over the past nine years I have been involved in developing Internet applications for use by language professionals including school teachers. This was frequently a frustrating task, because while my team was capable of developing state-of-the-art applications, the intended audiences were not familiar with the Internet, or frequently with computers at all. Times have changed though, and now computers and the Internet – particularly the World Wide Web – are pervasive. But I believe there are still difficulties in adapting these tools for language teaching in schools.

Because I was involved in several areas: evaluation of language policies and programs, training teachers in the use of computers and the Internet, and developing applications, I have formed a view that language education policies, computer policies, and developing a computer-literate teaching force do not appear to have come together in any coherent fashion. So my research relates to these areas, and their joint impact on language teachers in high schools.

The findings from the schools-based research will be the empirical basis of my PhD dissertation. While the final thesis will only be read in full by a select few academics (those who will mark it and my supervisors), I intend to provide an executive summary of the findings of the research to all participating schools. There may also be a published version of the original thesis some time in the future.

Selection of schools have been made from the eight education districts which make up the greater Brisbane area, from Deception Bay and Caboolture in the north to Beenleigh in the south. The selection of sixteen high schools was made randomly from the high schools in these districts.

The research will provide some benefits and also a slight risk. The benefits are:
- the research will provide an overview of how policies and practices in the use of computers in language teaching impact on schools and language teachers
- an awareness of how communication works between various networks in the language teaching area such as the policy making and implementation networks, school networks, and language teacher networks
- a summary of the research will be made available to you and to your language staff.

The risk is simply one of rapidly moving technology outstripping the findings of the research. However, the findings will be able to be used as a basis for further studies in the area.

No names of individuals or of schools will be used in the written thesis. I intend to use pseudonyms in the thesis.

I will be using three research methods: interviewing LOTE teachers individually; and of the schools selected and willing to participate, I will seek interviews with three Principals, and relevant Heads of Departments, and a printed questionnaire which will be distributed to LOTE teachers in state high schools State-wide.

I expect that each interview will last no longer than 30 minutes. I hope to do two interviews per day, given the time constraints on the teachers and the other school staff.

As part of the research method, I will need to tape record the interviews and take some notes during the interviews. The recorded interviews will be used for analysis, and to reiterate, no names of persons or schools will be used in the research documents. I would also like to clarify also that the research is not meant to be an evaluation of school or State policies or practices; rather I need to talk to school staff to gain an understanding of how the policies and programs under them affect the teaching of languages in a school setting.

There are no right or wrong answers in this sort of research. What is important are the concerns, opinions, beliefs, and practices of school staff. The research can then make use of these collective concerns, wisdom, and practices to generate a thorough description of language teaching practices using computers.

I attach a list of questions which I will use for the teacher and other interviews, and the approval form for research from the PRO, Education Queensland.

I can be reached by telephone at the University, or at home. Alternatively, a message can be faxed. My email address is peterw@lingua.arts.uq.edu.au

I will be contacting you in the next several days to make a time to discuss this project with you further.

Yours faithfully,

Peter White

Appendix B: Questions for teacher interviews

Questions for teacher interviews

Do you use a computer in your work?

What do you do with it?

Are you aware of Computer-Assisted Language Learning, CALL as it's known?

What do you know about language policies of the Department?

What do you know about language policies of the Commonwealth?

Who tells you about these policies?

If you have concerns about a policy, or how it's being implemented, who do you talk to?

What problems do you have in using computers in the school setting?

Who do you talk to about them?

How do you communicate with your principal and head of department?

Who do you relate to most in your school?

Who do you relate to most in your profession?

Are you a member of any professional organisation, like the Modern Language Teachers' Association of Queensland (MLTAQ)?

Of all the pressures on you, what do you consider to be the most important?

Appendix C: Questionnaire for teachers
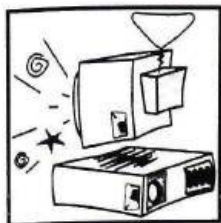
**SURVEY OF QUEENSLAND HIGH SCHOOL LANGUAGE TEACHERS:
POLICIES AND PRACTICE IN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND COMPUTING**

Please fill in the relevant information as indicated in the instructions below. Your responses will be used in research relating to my PhD and will be kept confidential. No personal names, or names of schools will be used. Please do NOT put your name, or the name of your school anywhere on this questionnaire.

1. About your school

1.1   Is your school located in: *(Please tick ONE option only)*

[   ] the Brisbane metropolitan area (including Logan & Pine Rivers)
[   ] a regional Centre, e.g. Townsville, Mt. Isa, etc.
[   ] a remote area

1.2   What languages are taught in your school? *(Please tick all that apply)*

[   ] French   [   ] German   [   ] Italian   [   ] Spanish [   ] Indonesian
[   ] Chinese [   ] Korean   [   ] Japanese   [   ] Other *(List)* _____

1.3   How many language teaching staff are there in your school?_____

1.4   Does your Head of Department currently teach a language in your school?

[   ] Yes [   ] No

1.5   How many students are there at your school? _____

1.6   How many students study languages in *(Please provide as accurate a number as you can)*

[   ] Year 8 [   ] Year 9 [   ] Year 10 [   ] Year 11 [   ] Year 12.

1.7   Does your school have computers which are generally: *(Please tick all that apply)*

[   ] accessible to staff [   ] accessible to students [   ] accessible to administration.

1.8   How many computers are: *(Please provide as accurate a number as you can)*

[   ] accessible to staff [   ] accessible to students [   ] accessible to administration.

1.9   Is Internet access available to: *(Please tick all that apply)*

[   ] teaching staff [   ] administration [   ] all students [   ] School does not have Internet access [   ] particular student groups *(Please explain):*

_____

_____

1.10   How many computers does your school have *(Please insert a number in all categories that apply)*

[   ] library [   ] staff room [   ] computer lab [   ] classrooms [   ] admin. offices
[   ] Other (list)_____

1.11   When you use a computer at school, where do you use it?

[   ] library [   ] staff room [   ] computer lab [   ] classrooms [   ] my office
[   ] admin. offices [   ] other (list)_____

1.12   Does your school provide in-service training in the use of computers?

[ ] Yes [ ] No

2. About you.

This section has been designed to obtain some details on your knowledge and opinions on policies, language teaching and computing in schools. The information you provide is confidential. Please be as accurate and specific as you can.

2.1 Your professional networks and training.

2.1.1   Do you belong to the MLTAQ? [ ] Yes [ ] No *(Please tick one.)*

2.1.2   Does the MLTAQ offer any training or help to you in using computers in language teaching?

[ ] Yes [ ] No [ ] Don't know. *(Please tick one.)*

2.1.3   Does your school offer any training or help to you in using computers in language teaching?

[ ] Yes [ ] No [ ] Don't know. *(Please tick one.)*

2.1.4   Do Languages and Cultures provide support in using computers in language teaching?

[ ] Yes [ ] No [ ] Don't know. *(Please tick one.)*

2.1.5   Does Education Queensland provide support in using computers in language teaching?

[ ] Yes [ ] No [ ] Don't know. *(Please tick one.)*

2.1.6   What other professional organisations do you belong to? *(Please list all that apply.)*

_____

_____

2.1.7   Which other teachers do you communicate with regularly about language teaching? *(Please tick all that apply.)*

[ ] fellow teachers at my school.
[ ] other language teachers in my school
[ ] other language teachers outside of my school
[ ] Other *(Please list below).*

_____

2.2 Language and computer policies in schools

2.2.1   What <u>Commonwealth</u> language policies and programs are you familiar with? *(please tick all that apply.)*
[ ] *Australia's Language*
[ ] NALSAS
[ ] Priority Languages Element (PLE)
[ ] Community Languages Element (CLE)
[ ] Agreed National Languages Other Than English Curriculum Framework
[ ] Collaborative Strategy for Education in Languages Other Than English in Schools
[ ] ALL guidelines
[ ] Other *(Please list)* _____

2.2.2   What <u>Queensland</u> language policies and programs are you familiar with? *(please tick all that apply.)*
[   ] 1991 Ministerial Statement *'Languages Other Than English (LOTE)'*
[   ] Community Languages program
[   ] Years 1-10 Languages other than English Curriculum Development Project
[   ] Queensland School Curriculum Council Design Brief: Languages other than English
[   ] BOSSS Senior Syllabus in various languages.
[   ] Computers in Learning Policy
[   ] Minimum standards of learning technology competencies for teachers: Level One
[   ] Other *(Please list)* _____

2.2.3   Have you had a role in the <u>development</u> of any of these policies and programs?
[   ] Yes [   ] No   *(Please tick one.)*

2.2.4   If you answered 'Yes', please list which policies or programs you had a role in, and what you did.

_____
_____
_____

2.2.5   Have you had a role in the <u>implementation</u> of these policies and programs?
[   ] Yes [   ] No *(Please tick one.)*

2.2.6   If you answered 'Yes', please explain what you did.

_____
_____
_____

2.2.7   Are you aware of any <u>Commonwealth</u> policies and programs relating to the use of computers in schools? *(Please tick one.)*
[   ] Yes [   ] No

2.2.8   If you answered 'Yes', please list which policies and programs you know about.

_____
_____

2.2.9   Are you aware of any <u>Queensland</u> policies and programs relating to the use of computers in schools? *(Please tick one.)*
[   ] Yes [   ] No

2.2.10   If you answered 'Yes', please list which policies and programs you know about.

_____
_____
_____

2.2.11   Have you had a role in the <u>development</u> of these policies and programs? *(Please tick one.)*
[   ] Yes [   ] No

2.2.12 If you answered 'Yes', please list which policies and programs you had a role in.

_____
_____

2.2.13   Have you had a role in the <u>implementation</u> of these policies and programs? *(Please tick one.)*
[   ] Yes [   ] No

2.2.14   If you answered 'Yes' please list which policies and programs you have assisted in implementing.

_____
_____

2.3 Your computer knowledge

2.3.1   **Do you use a computer?** *(Please tick one.)*
[ ] Yes [ ] No

2.3.2   **Do you have a computer at home?** *(Please tick one.)*
[ ] Yes [ ] No

2.3.3   **If you answered 'Yes', what do you use your computer at home for?** *(Please tick all that apply.)*

[ ] word processing   [ ] spreadsheets   [ ] databases
[ ] lesson preparation   [ ] desk top publishing   [ ] games
[ ] authoring programs   [ ] email & WWW   [ ] other *(Please list)*.

2.3.4   **Do you use a computer at school?** *(Please tick one.)*
[ ] Yes [ ] No

2.3.5   **If you answered 'Yes', what do you use your computer at school for?** *(Please tick all that apply.)*

[ ] word processing   [ ] spreadsheets   [ ] databases
[ ] lesson preparation   [ ] desk top publishing   [ ] games
[ ] CALL   [ ] email & WWW   [ ] other *(Please list)*.

2.3.6   **Have you ever had any training in computing or using computer programs?** *(Please tick one.)*
[ ] Yes [ ] No

2.3.7   **If you answered 'Yes', please list the training sessions you have had, when you had them, and if you remember, the organisation which provided the training.**

_____

_____

_____

2.4 Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

2.4.1   **Does your school use computers in conjunction with LOTE teaching?** *(Please tick one.)*
[ ] Yes [ ] No

2.4.2   **If you answered 'Yes', please indicate what the computers are used for. You may tick as many that apply.**
[ ] CALL programs for learning support, e.g. French irregular verbs
[ ] Generic programs (e.g., word processing, spread sheets) for language learning purposes
[ ] Email for staff
[ ] Email for students, e.g. key-pals
[ ] World Wide Web for gathering teaching resources
[ ] World Wide Web for classroom study
[ ] Resources preparation, e.g. word processing, graphics program
[[Other *(Please list)*

2.4.3   If computers are used in your school for language study, who looks after the computers and the software (CALL and other programs)?

_____

_____

3. Your Opinions.

Please answer the following questions in your own words. Please feel free to use the back of the questionnaire or other paper if your responses require it.

3.1.1   Computers are being used more frequently in language teaching. What advantages do you see in using computers in language teaching?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

3.1.2   What disadvantages do you see in using computers in language teaching?

_____

_____

_____

_____

3.1.3   The Internet (and the World Wide Web) are becoming more available in Queensland schools. How do you see the Internet being used for language teaching?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

3.1.4   How comfortable do you feel about using computers for language teaching?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

3.1.5　What role do you think teacher education and training organisations (e.g. universities, TAFEs,) should have to help language teachers maintain and learn new computer skills?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

3.1.6　Is there anything else you would like to say regarding language teaching and computers?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

3.2 Some quick personal details

3.2.1　How long have you been teaching languages? _____

3.2.2　How many years have you been in your present school? _____

3.2.3　What languages do you teach? _____

3.2.4　What year levels do you teach? _____

This completes the questionnaire. Please post the completed questionnaire in the self-addressed stamped envelope which accompanied it.

If you want to talk to me further, I can be contacted at:

Peter White
Centre for Language Teaching and Research
The University of Queensland, Qld 4072.
Tel: (07) 3365 6893; Fax: (07) 3365 7077
Email: peterw@lingua.cltr.uq.edu.au

Thank you for your time and effort. ☺

Appendix D: Approval form from Education Queensland

Application to Conduct Research
in Education Queensland State Schools and Other Units

Supporting information may be attached, but the information presented here must stand alone to convey the salient features of the research proposal. (*See attachments* will not suffice.)

Ref. no. *650/5 (499)*

1. Name of principal researcher

Peter White

Designation *Mr. (PhD candidate)*

Organisation *The University of Queensland*

Contact address
Centre For Language Teaching and Research
The University of Queensland, 4072

Telephone *3365-6893 (w) 3368-2141 (h)*

Fax *3365 7077*

Email *peterw@lingua.arts.uq.edu.au*

2. Title of the research *Policies & Practices in the use of computer Technology For Languages Teaching in South Eastern Queensland High Schools.*

3. Purpose of the research (e.g. to fulfil requirements for MEd, trial of test instruments)
To Fulfil requirements For PhD research

4. Research aim *How are educational information Technology and language policies communicated and implemented in high schools in South-eastern Queensland?*

5. Summary of field activity
- Subjects *LOTE Teachers - interviews Q'aire; Focus Groups: principals, HODs.*
- Sample sizes *LOTE Teachers in 2 high schools in each 8 school districts in Brisbane only.*
- Instruments *Taped interviews; printed Q'aire.*
- Time required *Interviews: 30 minutes; Focus groups (3). 90 mins. Q'aire - 30 mins.*
- Administration *Interviews & Focus groups - visit to schools; Q'aire by post.*

6. Schools and/or organisational units to be approached
Interviews: 2 schools in 8 greater Brisbane Education Districts;
Focus Groups: 3 schools selected From the 8 districts
Q'aire: Posted to LOTE Teachers in Qld.
(Please turn over to complete this application.)

The section below is to be completed only by the appropriate officer in Education Queensland.

Conditions of approval
Draw a line through conditions that do not apply.

If any additional conditions apply, list them in the adjacent space.

Conditions applicable to all research:
- All data to be treated as confidential; anonymity of participants to be preserved.
- An executive summary of the research findings to be provided to the participating schools and approval authority.
- Audiotapes and videotapes to be used only for the purposes of the research.

Conditions that may apply:
- Parental permission to be obtained for participating students.
- Permission to be obtained from participating teachers.

Additional conditions:

This research application is approved/~~not approved~~.
(Cross out what does **not** apply.)

Signed: _____ Date: *4/2/99*

Name: Paul Leitch   Designation: Director, Performance Measurement Office
Address: PO Box 33, Brisbane Albert St Q 4002   Telephone: (07) 3237 0770   Fax: (07) 3237 0203

Approval allows the principal researcher named above to approach schools and other units within Education Queensland to seek their cooperation to participate in the approved research. Although approval may be granted by the department, there is no obligation for participation in the study.

A copy of this signed approval should be provided as evidence of approval to school principals, districts and others when cooperation is requested.

Appendix E: Cover letter for teacher questionnaire

Cover letter for teacher questionnaire

20 April 1999

Dear

I am writing to seek your assistance in a research study about language teaching and computers. I am currently undertaking a PhD at the Centre for Language Teaching and Research at The University of Queensland. Previously I was the Director of the National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia's Language and Technology Centre, in which I developed databases, carried out research projects, and trained primary and secondary language teachers in basic computing and the use of the Internet.

You can help me in this research by filling in the attached questionnaire, and send it back to me in the self-addressed stamped envelope. What I will do in return is to make sure that you get a copy of the summary of the research when it's completed.

The research study is on the policies and practices relating to using computers in language teaching in South-East Queensland high schools. Because I have been involved in several related areas: evaluation of language policies and programs, training teachers in the use of computers and the Internet, and developing computer applications, I have wanted to investigate how language education policies, computer policies, and developing a computer-literate teaching force come together. So my research relates to these areas, and their joint impact on language teachers in high schools.

The findings from the questionnaire will be part of the empirical basis of my research, and will provide a general picture of teachers' opinions and attitudes to the research area. I intend to provide an executive summary of the findings of the research to all participating schools. There may also be a published version of the original thesis some time in the future.

I have obtained permission from Education Queensland to send you the questionnaire, and I also enclose a copy of the permission form. I am sending the same questionnaire to every LOTE teacher in Queensland State High Schools. It is a vital part of the research to get opinions from LOTE teachers state-wide; your contribution will thus be very meaningful in developing a portrait of what Queensland teachers think about the research area.

The research will provide some benefits and also a slight risk. The benefits are:
- the research will provide an overview of how policies and practices in the use of computers in language teaching impact on schools and language teachers
- an awareness of how communication works between various networks in the language teaching area such as the policy making and implementation networks, school networks, and language teacher networks
- a summary of the research will be made available to you.

The risk is simply one of rapidly moving technology outstripping the findings of the research. However, the findings will be able to be used a basis for further studies in the area.

No names of individuals or of schools will be used in the written thesis. I intend to use pseudonyms in the thesis.

There are no right or wrong answers in this sort of research. What is important are the concerns, opinions, beliefs, and practices of you and your LOTE teaching colleagues across Queensland. The research can then make use of these collective concerns, wisdom, and practices to generate a thorough description of language teaching practices using computers.

I can be reached by telephone on at the University, or at home, or by fax. Please do not call the number on the letterhead. My email address is peterw@lingua.arts.uq.edu.au

I hope you can fill in the questionnaire and get it back to me quickly; try to get the questionnaire in the post within two weeks.

Yours faithfully,

Peter White

(encl):
1. Permission from Education Queensland to conduct the survey;
2. Self-addressed stamped return envelope
3. Questionnaire

Appendix F: Layout of worksheets: samples

Layout of worksheets: samples

The worksheets are designed as follows:

- NUMBER refers to the unique number given to each respondent.
- The other columns (1.1, 1.2FR…) refer to the question numbers on the questionnaire (Appendix C).
- The cells under the question numbers indicate the response to the question.

NUMBER	1.1	1.2.FR	1.2.GR	1.2.IT	1.2.SP	1.2.IN	1.2.CH	1.2.KO	1.2.JA	1.2.OTH	1.3
1	M	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	10
2	R	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	3

1.4	1.5	1.6.8	1.6.9	1.6.10	1.6.11	1.6.12	1.7.STA	1.7.STU	1.7.ADM
Y	2000	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	1	1	1
N	NA	100	10	10	3	9	1	1	1

1.8.STA	1.8.STU	1.8.ADM	1.9.STA	1.9.ADM	1.9.STU	1.9.NIT	1.9.PSG	1.10.LIB	1.10.STA	1.10.LAB	1.10.CLA
70	65	NA	NA	NA	1	1	0	5	0	60	0
80	70	NA	1	1	1	1	0	10	7	60	0

1.10.ADM	1.10.OTH	1.11.LIB	1.11.STA	1.11.LAB	1.11.CLA	1.11.OFF	1.11.ADM	1.11.OTH	1.12
NA	1-2 x DEPT	0	0	0	0	0	0	HOD OFFICE	Y
	7	2 common room	0	0	0	0	0	0 common room	Y

NUMBER	2.1.1	2.1.2	2.1.3	2.1.4	2.1.5	2.1.6	2.1.7.FTS	2.1.7.OTS	2.1.7.OTO	2.1.7.O
1	N	D	N	D	D		1	0	0	0
2	N	D	N	D	D	QTU	1	1	1	0

NUMBER	2.2.1.AL	2.2.1.NAL	2.2.1.PLE	2.2.1.CLE	2.2.1.NLO	2.2.1.CSL	2.2.1.ALL	2.2.1.O	2.2.2.QLO	2.2.2.CLP	2.2.2YLT
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

2.2.2QSC	2.2.2.BOS	2.2.2.COM	2.2.2.MSC	2.2.2.O
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	0	1	0

NUMBER	2.2.3	2.2.5	2.2.7	2.2.9	2.2.11	2.2.13
1	N	Y	N	N	N	N
2	N	N	N	N	N	N

NUMBER	2.3.1	2.3.2	2.3.3.WP	2.3.3.LP	2.3.3.AP	2.3.3.SP	2.3.3.DP	2.3.3.EW	2.3.3.DB	2.3.3.GA	2.3.3.O
1	Y	Y	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
2	Y	Y	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0

2.3.4	2.3.5.WP	2.3.5.LP	2.3.5.CA	2.3.5.SP	2.3.5.DP	2.3.5.EW	2.3.5.DB	2.3.5.GA	2.3.5.O	2.3.6
Y	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0Y
Y	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0N

NUMBER	2.4.1	2.4.2.CA	2.4.2.GP	2.4.2.ES	2.4.2.ESU	2.4.2.WTR	2.4.2.WC	2.4.2.RP	2.2.4.O	3.2.1	3.2.2
1	Y	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6.25	2.25
2	Y	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	3.00	2.00

3.2.3.L1	3.2.3.L2	3.2.4
Japanese	English	8-12
Japanese	N	8-12

333

Appendix G: Descriptive codes used for school interviews and questionnaire analysis

Note

These codes have been developed from text-based items in the questionnaire and from school interviews with teachers. The concept of descriptive, inductive coding follows from Miles and Huberman (1994, pp 57ff).

	CODE	EXPLANATION
1	*Computers in schools*	
1-1	COMP-AWARE-CALL-NO	Is not aware of CALL
1-2	COMP-AWARE-CALL-VAGUE	Is partly aware of CALL
1-3	COMP-AWARE-CALL-OK	Is generally knowledgeable about CALL
2	COMP-LOC	Location of computers in the school
3	COMP-NS	Computers in school not specified
3-1	COMP-USE-SCHOOL	Uses computer mainly in school
3-2	COMP-USE-HOME	Uses computer mainly at home
3-3	COMP-USE-RARE	Seldom uses a computer
4-1	COMP-USE-ACTIVITIES	Using computer for student activities
4-2	COMP-USE-ADMIN	Using computers for admin. purposes
4-3	COMP-USE-ASSESS	Using computers for assessment prep.
4-4	COMP-USE-INTERACTIVE	Using interactive facilities of computers
4-5	COMP-USE-INTERNET	Using the Internet in school
4-6	COMP-USE-INTERNET-DE	Using Internet for distance education
4-7	COMP-USE-INTERNET-EVAL	assessing resources and other stuff from net
4-8	COMP-USE-INTERNET-INFO	Getting info from the Internet
4-9	COMP-USE-INTERNET-LOTESITE	Accessing LOTE Web sites
4-10	COMP-USE-INTERNET-LTEACH	Using Internet for LOTE teaching
4-11	COMP-USE-INTERNET-NETWORKING	Teachers use it to talk to other teachers
4-12	COMP-USE-INTERNET-RESEARCH	Internet is a good research tool
4-13	COMP-USE-INTERNET-RESOURCES	Good resources on the Internet
4-14	COMP-USE-INTERNET-SPEED	Speed of using the Internet
4-15	COMP-USE-INTERNET-UPTODATE	Internet provides up to date information
4-16	COMP-USE-INTERNET-WEBP	Setting up Websites
4-17	COMP-USE-LOTEPROF	Using computers lifts LOTE's profile
4-18	COMP-USE-MULTIMEDIA	Multimedia very good for language learning
4-19	COMP-USE-NO	Doesn't use computers
4-20	COMP-USE-NS	Use of computers not specified
4-21	COMP-USE-OSCOMM	School can communicate overseas
4-22	COMP-USE-PROG-CDS	Using LOTE CD-ROM programs not specified
4-23	COMP-USE-PROG-GAMES	Games not specified
4-24	COMP-USE-PROG-GEN	Using generic programs: w/p, spreadsheets, etc.
4-25	COMP-USE-PROG-JAPMAS	Using Japanese Master
4-26	COMP-USE-PROG-JSCD	Using the new junior syllabus CD of resources
4-27	COMP-USE-PROG-IDEO	Using a non-Roman script word processor
4-28	COMP-USE-PROG-KAN	Using Kantaro
4-29	COMP-USE-PROG-KANJI	Using Kanji Master
4-30	COMP-USE-PROG-KANK	Using Kanakun
4-31	COMP-USE-PROG-LANGMARK	Using Language Market
4-32	COMP-USE-PROG-LOTE	LOTE programs not otherwise specified
4-33	COMP-USE-PROG-NS	Using LOTE programs not specified
4-34	COMP-USE-PROG-OSKAR	Using Oskar Lake
4-35	COMP-USE-PROG-POWJAP	Using Power Japanese
4-36	COMP-USE-PROG-TRIPLE	Using Triple Play Plus
4-37	COMP-USE-PROG-TWIN	Using Twinbridge
4-38	COMP-USE-PROG-WEBW	Using Webwhacker
4-39	COMP-USE-RETT	Using computers increases retention rates in higher grade LOTE classes
4-40	COMP-USE-SKILLEARN	Using computers enhances other skills

4-41	COMP-USE-STU-ACTIVITY	Computers provide more activities for students
4-42	COMP-USE-STU-CONSOL	Students use computers to consolidate their learning
4-43	COMP-USE-STU-CULTURE	Helps to teach cultural components of LOTE classes
4-44	COMP-USE-STU-DRILLS	Computers can be used for language drills
4-45	COMP-USE-STU-FASTLEARN	Computers help students learn faster
4-46	COMP-USE-STU-FEEDBACK	Gives students & teachers rapid feedback
4-47	COMP-USE-STU-GENDER	Helps to even out gender imbalance in LOTE classes
4-48	COMP-USE-STU-GROUPWORK	Works with students as a group with computers
4-49	COMP-USE-STU-KEYPALS	Students can talk to o/s keypals
4-50	COMP-USE-STU-MOTIV	Computers are motivating for students
4-51	COMP-USE-STU-MULTILEVEL	Computers can help with multilevel classes
4-52	COMP-USE-STU-PAIRS	Students work in pairs or small groups
4-53	COMP-USE-STU-PRESENT	Improves students' presentation
4-54	COMP-USE-STU-REALANG	Real language available
4-55	COMP-USE-STU-REPEAT	Students use computers to repeat/progress
4-56	COMP-USE-STU-REWARD	Using the computer can be a reward
4-57	COMP-USE-STU-SELF	Computers allow self-paced learning
4-58	COMP-USE-STU-VARY	Computers provide more ways of learning
4-59	COMP-USE-STU-XTNSN	Computers can be used for extension work
4-60	COMP-USE-TEACH-INDATT	Frees teachers to give more individual attention
4-61	COMP-USE-TEACH-LMETHOD	More teaching methods for LOTE
5-1	COMP-WHO	Who gets to use computers
5-2	COMP-WHO-STU	Student computers
6	***Training in computing***	
6-1	CTRAIN-SCHOOL	Teacher has attended training sessions run by school staff
6-2	CTRAIN-CALL	Teacher has some training in CALL
6-3	CTRAIN-GENERIC	Teacher has some basic computer training
6-4	CTRAIN-INTERNET	Teacher has some training in using the Internet
6-5	CTRAIN-ITCOURSE	Teacher has done some formal IT training
6-6	CTRAIN-LOTE	Teacher has done some specific computer training in LOTE
6-7	CTRAIN-NS	Training not specified
6-8	CTRAIN-SELF	Teacher is self-taught
6-9	CTRAIN-SHORT	Teacher has attended some short training sessions in computing
6-10	CTRAIN-SP	Training in specific programs (generic)
7	***Computer problems in schools***	
7-1	COMP-PROB-ACCESS	Difficulties getting access to computers at school
7-2	COMP-PROB-EQUITY	Problems regarding student equity in computing
7-3	COMP-PROB-EVAL	Need to evaluate software packages
7-4	COMP-PROB-FUNDS	Lack of funding
7-5	COMP-PROB-IMPERSONAL	Impersonal tool; student is more reliant on machines than people
7-6	COMP-PROB-LIMIT	Limited nature of computers re language
7-7	COMP-PROB-LOC	Location of computers re LOTE classes
7-8	COMP-PROB-LOTEPOOR	LOTE has low status in the school
7-9	COMP-PROB-MAINT	Maintenance of school computers
7-10	COMP-PROB-MANAGE	Managing classes with computers
7-11	COMP-PROB-MOREPROG	Needs newer and better programs
7-12	COMP-PROB-NETWORK	Difficulties using the Internet at school
7-13	COMP-PROB-NORAL	Lack of an oral component for LOTE
7-14	COMP-PROB-OLD	Antiquated hardware/software
7-15	COMP-PROB-PERIP	Peripheral problems (printers, headphones etc)
7-16	COMP-PROB-PERSONAL	Teacher is not skilled in computing
7-17	COMP-PROB-PROGS	Poor programs for LOTE
7-18	COMP-PROB-QUANTITY	Insufficient numbers of computers at school

7-19	COMP-PROB-SDISC	Student behaviour
7-20	COMP-PROB-SITE	Cost of site licences
7-21	COMP-PROB-STFTR	Lack of staff training
7-22	COMP-PROB-STRAIN	Need to train students
7-23	COMP-PROB-THEFT	Computers are stolen from school
7-24	COMP-PROB-TIME	Time consuming
7-25	COMP-PROB-TPROB	Technical problems
7-26	COMP-PROB-TSUP	Lack of technical support
7-27	COMP-PROB-TTECH	Teachers' ability to fix technical faults
7-28	COMP-PROB-VALUES	Over-emphasis on computers; teacher concerns
	Who to talk to about computing problems in schools	
7-29	COMP-PROB-TELL-ADMIN	Talks to admin. staff
7-30	COMP-PROB-TELL-COLL	Talking to colleagues about computer problems
7-31	COMP-PROB-TELL-CTTE	Talking to relevant committee in school about computer problems
7-32	COMP-PROB-TELL-HOD	Talking to head of dept about computer problems
7-33	COMP-PROB-TELL-ITSTAFF	Talking to IT staff in school about computer problems
7-34	COMP-PROB-TELL-OTHER	Talking to other people not specified
7-35	COMP-PROB-TELL-PRIN	Talking to the principal about computer problems
7-36	COMP-PROB-TELL-STAFF	Tells other staff about computer problems
8	*Teachers' attitudes on their computer competency*	
8-1	COMP-ATT-FAIR	Teacher feels fairly comfortable using computers
8-2	COMP-ATT-FRUST	Teachers is frustrated in using computers
8-3	COMP-ATT-IMPROVE	Teacher is improving in using computers
8-4	COMP-ATT-LIMITED	Teacher claims to have limited skills on computer
8-5	COMP-ATT-NOT	Teacher is not comfortable at all using computers
8-6	COMP-ATT-NTRAIN	Teacher claims to need training in using computers
8-7	COMP-ATT-ULPLAN	Teacher wants to learn how to incorporate computers into lesson plans
8-8	COMP-ATT-UNCOMF	Teacher feels uncomfortable using computers
8-98	COMP-ATT-VERY	Teacher feels very comfortable using computers
9	*Internet use in schools*	
9-1	INTER-ACCESS-BADSITE	Finding appropriate/bad sites on Web
9-2	INTER-ACCESS-BUSY	Difficulties in getting on Internet computers
9-3	INTER-ACCESS-COST	Internet too expensive to use.
9-4	INTER-ACCESS-LOC	Location of Internet computers in school
9-5	INTER-ACCESS-NS	Use of Internet not specified
9-6	INTER-ACCESS-STU	Internet access by students
9-7	INTER-ACCESS-STU-AGREE	Agreement signed by students
10	*Teachers' attitudes on of teacher-training in computing*	
10-1	COMP-RTED-COMPLIT	All new teachers should be computer literate
10-2	COMP-RTED-COMPULSORY	Should be compulsory subjects
10-3	COMP-RTED-CURR	Computer subjects should be integrated into the curriculum
10-4	COMP-RTED-IMPORTANT	Very important
10-5	COMP-RTED-INFOPROV	Should provide up to date information
1-=6	COMP-RTED-INSERVICE	Should offer in-service courses
10-7	COMP-RTED-LOCAL	Should provide training locally to teachers
10-8	COMP-RTED-LOTETRAIN	Should provide LOTE specific computer training
10-9	COMP-RTED-MIN	Minimal as most are self-taught
10-10	COMP-RTED-PGCOURSE	Should offer postgraduate courses
10-11	COMP-RTED-PROGEVAL	Should provide program evaluation
10-12	COMP-RTED-SUBJECT	Computer subjects should be made available
10-13	COMP-RTED-TAFESHORT	TAFE should offer short courses
10-14	COMP-RTED-TECHSKILL	Should provide technical skills, e.g. networks

10-15	COMP-RTED-TIMEPROB	No time for training
10-16	COMP-RTED-TRLEVEL	Should be aware of clients' skills levels
10-17	COMP-RTED-TSTRAT	Should provide teaching strategies in integrating computers into teaching
10-18	COMP-RTED-UPGRADE	Should offer courses for skills upgrading
10-19	COMP-RTED-WSITES	Should provide index of good sites/programs
11	*Who looks after LOTE computers in school*	
11-1	COMP-MAINT-ADMIN	Administration looks after computers
11-2	COMP-MAINT-CCOORD	School has a computer coordinator
11-3	COMP-MAINT-ITMAN	School has an IT manager
11-4	COMP-MAINT-LHOD	Language HOD looks after LOTE computers
11-5	COMP-MAINT-LIB	Librarian looks after computers
11-6	COMP-MAINT-NS	Designated staff not specified
11-7	COMP-MAINT-OHOD	Other HODS look after computers
11-8	COMP-MAINT-TEACH	Teachers look after computers
11-9	COMP-MAINT-TECH	School has computer technicians
11-10	COMP-MAINT-THOD	IT HOD has computer management role
12	*Policy details- National*	
12-1	POL-NAT-ALL	ALL Guidelines
12-2	POL-NAT-CHI	Chinese national curriculum guidelines
12-3	POL-NAT-CLP	Community Language Program
12-4	POL-NAT-NALSAS	National Asian studies policy
12-5	POL-NAT-NCG	National Curriculum Guidelines
12-6	POL-NAT-NO	Hasn't heard of any national policies
12-7	POL-NAT-NS	National policies not otherwise specified
12-8	POL-NAT-PLE	Aware of Priority Languages Element
13	*Policy details-Queensland*	
13-1	POL-QLD-BOSSS	Senior syllabus
13-2	POL-QLD-COMMUN	The Qld communicative language policy
13-3	POL-QLD-COMP-DE	Queensland policy on dist ed.
13-4	POL-QLD-COMP-MALT	Schools' technical plan
13-5	POL-QLD-COMP-S2000	Schools 2000 policy document from EQ
13-6	POL-QLD-EQSP	Education Qld strategic plan
13-7	POL-QLD-JSYL	New junior syllabus
13-8	POL-QLD-LOTE	1991 LOTE Policy
13-9	POL-QLD-MINSTAN	Teacher level 1 competence
13-10	POL-QLD-NO	Hasn't heard of any Qld policies
13-11	POL-QLD-NS	Queensland policy not specified
13-12	POL-QLD-PANEL	On a language panel
13-13	POL-QLD-QSCC	QSCC Design brief for junior LOTE curriculum
13-14	POL-QLD-REFG	Reference group for a language
13-15	POL-QLD-SBA	School based management policy
13-16	POL-QLD-SENIORP	Senior curriculum panel
13-17	POL-QLD-SWORK	School workplans
13-18	POL-QLD-TCONNECT	Teachers and Internet policy
13-19	POL-QLD-TRIAL	Part of a school trialing new junior syllabus
14	*Who tells teachers about policies*	
14-1	POL-TELL-SCHOOL	Learned about policy through school hierarchy
14-2	POL-TELL-EQ	Heard about policies from sources in Ed. Qld.
14-3	POL-TELL-INTERNET	Heard about policies from Internet (Web) sites
14-4	POL-TELL-OTHER	Heard about policies from other sources
14-5	POL-TELL-PD	Heard about policies in prof. dev. sessions
14-6	POL-TELL-PROFORG	Learned about policy through professional organisation
14-7	POL-TELL-PRONET	Learned about policies through professional network
14-8	POL-TELL-PUBS	Learned about policy through publications
14-9	POL-TELL-STUDIES	Learned about policy through studies

15	*Who teachers talk to about policy concerns*	
15-1	POL-CONCERN-EQ	Talks to officers of Ed. Qld.
15-2	POL-CONCERN-FEAR	Fear of being seen as a troublesome person
15-3	POL-CONCERN-LOTEPROF	Talks to other LOTE professionals
15-4	POL-CONCERN-OTHER	Other concerns
15-5	POL-CONCERN-POLITIC	Takes concerns directly to politicians
15-6	POL-CONCERN-PROFORG	Takes concerns to professional organisation
15-7	POL-CONCERN-SCHOOL	Talks to HOD or Principal
15-8	POL-CONCERN-STAFF	Talks to other staff members
15-9	POL-LOTE-POLITICS	LOTE policy seen as highly politicised
16	*Languages taught*	
16-1	LANG-FRIMM	Teaches French immersion
16-2	LANG-GREEK	Teaches modern Greek
16-3	LANG-GRIMM	Teaches German immersion
17	*Where teachers teach*	
17-1	TEACH-MIXED	Teaches at primary & secondary schools
18	*Curriculum*	
18-1	CURR-NON-STR	Teaches LOTE outside of curriculum streams
18-2	CURR-VERT	Using a vertical curriculum
	Communication	
18-3	COMM-HOD/PR-DIFF	Difficulties in communication with Principal/HOD
18-4	COMM-HOD/PR-FOR	Formal communication with HOD/Principal
18-5	COMM-HOD/PR-INF	Informal communication with HOD/Principal
18-6	COMM-LOTE-ADVISORS	Teacher talks to LOTE advisors from EQ
18-7	COMM-LOTE-INSCHOOL	Teacher talks to other LOTE teachers in school
18-8	COMM-LOTE-OTHER	Other contacts not specified
18-9	COMM-LOTE-OUTSCHOOL	Teacher talks to other LOTE teachers outside of school
18-10	COMM-OTHER-INSCHOOL	Teacher talks to other teachers in school
18-11	COMM-OTHER-INSCHOOL-STU	Relates mostly to students
18-12	COMM-OTHER-OUTSCHOOL	Teacher talks to other people outside of school
18-13	COMM-TEACH-STROOM	Staff room is major discussion forum
19	*Professional associations*	
19-1	PROF-ASSOC-AF	Teacher is member of Alliance Francaise
19-2	PROF-ASSOC-AFMLTA	AFMLTA specifically mentioned by teacher
19-2	PROF-ASSOC-CHI	Teacher is a member of the Chinese Teachers Association
19-3	PROF-ASSOC-DA	Teacher is member of Dante Alighieri Society
19-4	PROF-ASSOC-GOETHE	Teachers is member of Goethe Society
19-5	PROF-ASSOC-MLTAQ	Teacher is a member of MLTAQ
19-6	PROF-ASSOC-MLTAQ-SSUB	School is orgnisational member of MLTAQ
19-6	PROF-ASSOC-NO	Doesn't belong to any prof. assoc.
19-7	PROF-ASSOC-OTHER	Other organisations not specified
19-8	PROF-ASSOC-QTU	Teacher is member of Queensland Teachers Union
	Informal networks	
20-1	NET-TEACH-INF	Informal teacher networks
21	*Pressures on teachers*	
21-1	PRESS-ADMIN	Administrivia is main pressure
21-2	PRESS-DEMORAL	Demoralising areas of teaching: community attitudes etc.
21-3	PRESS-EXTDEC	Decisions out of school impacting teachers in school
21-4	PRESS-FACILITATE	Assisting other staff (as HOD) to keep up is main pressure
21-5	PRESS-KNOWSTU	Getting to know the students is a main pressure
21-6	PRESS-LANGCOMP	Maintaining one's language competence
21-7	PRESS-LESPREP	Lesson preparation is major pressure
21-8	PRESS-LEXP	Lack of language teaching experience

21-9	PRESS-LOWNUM	Concern of low numbers of students taking LOTE after compulsory year 8
21-10	PRESS-MARKING	Marking is the main pressure
21-11	PRESS-MOTIV	Pressure in keeping students motivated
21-12	PRESS-MULTILEVEL	Teaching a multilevel LOTE class.
21-13	PRESS-PROFESS	Maintaining a professional attitude & leaving work at work
21-14	PRESS-RELEVANT	Being relevant to students
21-15	PRESS-SDISC	Student behaviour a main pressure
21-16	PRESS-TEACHWELL	To teach well
21-17	PRESS-TECH	Using technology in teaching
21-18	PRESS-TIME-PER	Lack of personal time
21-19	PRESS-TIME-TEA	Lack of time to teach
22	**Use of other technology**	
22-1	TECH-USE-NS	Other technology not specified`
22-2	TECH-USE-TELEARN	Telelearning
22-3	TECH-USE-VIDCON	Videoconferencing

Decision rules

1. Always use the most specific code
2. Use the code only if the subject is specifically mentioned.
3. Where there are two codes that can be used – see Rule 1. If that can't help, select the strongest of the two.
4. Where email is mentioned in a student setting, the Keypal code should be used. Otherwise use Oscomm
5. Where there is doubt about who's in charge of school computers, use Ccoord.

Note:
These codes were developed from interviews with school principals and heads of departments.

EQ-COM-S2000	EQ's computer policy
EQ-POL-ADVISOR	LOTE advisors and LOTE policy
EQ-POL-BANDS	Which band a school is in
EQ-POL-LIMITS	Limits on what as school is allowed to do
EQ-POL-LOTE	Queensland LOTE policy
EQ-POL-MINSTAN	Minimum standards policy
EQ-POL-SBM	School-based management
PCOM-CCOORD	Principal's comments on computer coordinator in school
PCOM-LOC	Principal's comments on location of computers
PCOM-LOTE	Use of computers in school for LOTE
PCOM-LOTE-INTERNET	Comments on use of Internet in LOTE teaching
PCOM-LOTE-SPEC	Special LOTE programs
PCOM-PROB-ACCESS	Logistics of students-computers in school
PCOM-PROB-EQUITY	Issues regarding access equity to computers to all students
PCOM-PROB-FUNDS	Funding issues for computing in the school
PCOM-PROB-MAIN	Maintenance of computers in school
PCOM-PROB-STFTR	Lack of funding for staff training
PCOM-TECH-KNOW	Technical knowledge of staff
PCOM-USE-INTERNET	How the school uses the Internet
PCOM-USE-NETWORKS	How school is networked
PCOM-USE-PROG-LOTE	Getting programs for LOTE
PCOM-USE-SELF	Self access to computers for students & staff
PCOM-USE-SKILEARN	Principal's comments on skilling students on computers
PCOM-USE-VARY	Computers needed for various classes and projects
PFUNDS-EQ	Funding from EQ
PFUNDS-BUDGET	Budgeting issues
PFUNDS-GRANTS	grants from other sources
PFUNDS-ISSUES	Funding issues not specified
PFUNDS-PROJ	Special project funding
PFUNDS-TTRAIN	Special funds for teacher training in computing
PLOTE-HARD	LOTE is difficult
PLOTE-STU-PROB	Keeping students in LOTE 10-12
PPROB-TEACH-ADVOCATE	Teachers need to advocate their needs
PPROB-TEACH-TURNOVER	Turnover of LOTE staff
PPROJ-SPECIAL	Special projects in the school
PRESOURCE-COMPETE	Teachers need to compete for scarce resources
PROLE-PRIN	Principal's role in the school
PTRAIN-L0TE-NONE	No special training for LOTE staff
PTRAIN-MINSTAN	Principal's comments on Minimum Standards in school
PTRAIN-NS	Staff computer training not specified
PTRAIN-SPEC	Special computer training for staff
SPOL-COMMITTEES	How school decisions are made via committees

Appendix H: Time frame for the study

Time frame for the study

The first segment of the research was conducting interviews with language professionals and officers of EQ. This was followed by the development and piloting of the questionnaire. The text analysis component followed, and then the development of the questions, letters, etc. for conducting interviews with teachers. The below provides a breakdown of the time frame for the study.

The research time frame

Jan98 - July 98	interviews with language professionals nationally & in EQ
June 98	piloting questionnaire
May 98 - Dec 98	formulating questions, questionnaire design
Nov 98 - Dec 99	Text analysis
Jan 99	gaining permission to interview teachers in schools, etc.
Jan 99	finalising questions and questionnaire
Jan 99 Feb 99	finalising principals' letter and accompanying documentation
Feb 99 - Jun 99	interviews of school personnel
March 99 - April 99	preparation of questionnaire and posting same
March '99 - July 99	interview transcripts
May 99 - August 99	entering questionnaire data; preliminary analyses
July '99 - Oct 99	interview transcript analysis
Oct '99 – Feb 00	analysis of all components

Appendix I: List of subjects in policy documents

List of subjects in policy documents

Four policy documents have been analysed:
- *National Policy on Languages* (Lo Bianco, 1987)
- *Australia's Language* (Dawkins, 1991)
- Queensland LOTE Policy (EQ, 1991)
- Computers in Learning Policy (EQ, 1995)

National policy on languages (Lo Bianco, 1987)

Sorted by Category and Quantity, 1987 policy

SUBJECT	QTY	CATEGORY
panel, independent expert	3	advisory
AFMLTA	2	advisory
Aboriginal Language Association	1	advisory
Australian Advisory Council on Bibliographic Services	1	advisory
Australian Council of TESOL Asociations	1	advisory
FECCA	1	advisory
figures, authority	1	advisory
Library Association of Australia	1	advisory
researchers	1	advisory
associations, part-time schools	1	advisory
groups	29	general
Australians	20	general
community	18	general
society	17	general
community, Australian	12	general
families	10	general
community, wider	8	general
organisations	7	general
society, Australian	7	general
society, information	4	general
bodies, private	3	general
citizens	3	general
population, Australian	3	general
employers	3	general
business	2	general
business, international,	2	general
community, group	2	general
bodies, public	1	general
business people	1	general
citizens, ordinary	1	general
community, general	1	general
population, general	1	general
travellers	1	general
bodies, employing	1	general
Northern Territory	7	gov
Department of Science	3	gov
departments	3	gov
state/territory, governments	3	gov
Commonwealth Education Department	2	gov
departments, Commonwealth	2	gov
Department of Employment and Industrial Relations	1	gov

Ministers of Ethnic Affairs	1	gov
committee, standing	30	gov advisory
Advisory Council for the Australian Language Program (ACALP)	25	gov advisory
committees	14	gov advisory
Commonwealth Schools Commission	8	gov advisory
Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission	7	gov advisory
Curriculum Development Council	6	gov advisory
CTEC	4	gov advisory
NALP	4	gov advisory
Asian Studies Council	3	gov advisory
Australian Education Council	3	gov advisory
National Aboriginal Education Committee	3	gov advisory
commissions, state/territory level	2	gov advisory
ELLP	2	gov advisory
commissions, Commonwealth	1	gov advisory
Australian Bicentennial Authority	1	gov advisory
Australian Institute of Aboriginal Studies	1	gov advisory
NACCME	1	gov advisory
governments, state/territory	2	gov, providers
NT Dept of Education	1	gov, providers
ASLLP	9	provider, advisory
libraries	32	providers
schools	32	providers
teachers	30	providers
media	21	providers
Commonwealth	18	providers
media, electronic	15	providers
interpreters	14	providers
institutions	11	providers
media, print	11	providers
translators	11	providers
unit, language testing	11	providers
educators	8	providers
libraries, public	8	providers
institutions, tertiary	7	providers
centres, key	6	providers
institutions, teacher education	6	providers
schools, ethnic	6	providers
professionals, other	5	providers
specialists	5	providers
Batchelor College	4	providers
schools, primary	4	providers
staff	4	providers
teacher-educators	4	providers
teachers, English	4	providers
teachers, language	4	providers
teachers, subject	4	providers
centres	3	providers
professionals, language	3	providers
schools, part-time	3	providers
states/territories	3	providers
teachers, ESL	3	providers
unit, Aboriginal Education	3	providers
administrators	2	providers
authorities, public	2	providers
authority, public	2	providers
institutions, higher education	2	providers

schools, Aboriginal	2	providers
schools, bilingual	2	providers
schools, community language	2	providers
schools, secondary	2	providers
staff, library	2	providers
systems	2	providers
teachers, Aboriginal bilingual	2	providers
Council on Overseas Professional Qualification English Test	1	providers
unit, multicultural educational national information	1	providers
administration, education	1	providers
agencies, funding	1	providers
authorities, education	1	providers
authorities, non-government curriculum	1	providers
authorities, responsible	1	providers
authorities, state/territories	1	providers
authorities, teacher education	1	providers
authority, accrediting	1	providers
authority, community language school	1	providers
authority, day school	1	providers
authority, regional	1	providers
bodies, appraisal	1	providers
centres, training	1	providers
educators, Aboriginal	1	providers
generalists	1	providers
interpreters, Aboriginal	1	providers
libraries, school	1	providers
linguists	1	providers
linguists, Aboriginal	1	providers
media, mass	1	providers
population, post-primary teachers	1	providers
providers, adult education	1	providers
providers, adult education	1	providers
providers, ESL	1	providers
schools, accredited	1	providers
schools, correspondence	1	providers
schools, English language	1	providers
schools, government	1	providers
schools, junior secondary	1	providers
schools, non-government	1	providers
schools, non-systemic non-government	1	providers
schools, post-primary	1	providers
schools, systemic non-government	1	providers
speakers, native	1	providers
specialists, English	1	providers
staff, Aboriginal	1	providers
staff, bilingual	1	providers
staff, day school	1	providers
staff, language teaching	1	providers
systems, education	1	providers
systems, formal education	1	providers
systems, informal education	1	providers
teacher-educators, specialist English	1	providers
teachers, English (EFL)	1	providers
teachers, primary	1	providers
teachers, specialist English	1	providers
teachers, targeted	1	providers
teachers, TESOL	1	providers

teachers, trained Aboriginal	1	providers
teacher-trainers	1	providers
translators, Aboriginal	1	providers
unit, literacy production	1	providers
NAATI	7	providers, advisory
planners	2	providers, advisory
planners, education	2	providers, advisory
libraries, national & state	1	providers, advisory
government	12	providers, gov
governments,	2	providers, gov
bodies, government	1	providers, gov
children	88	recipients
students	56	recipients
learners	29	recipients
people	28	recipients
speakers	28	recipients
Aborigines	27	recipients
adults	20	recipients
communities	15	recipients
deaf	15	recipients
people, Aboriginal	15	recipients
Aboriginal people	14	recipients
students, Australian	13	recipients
disabled, communication	12	recipients
communities, Aboriginal	8	recipients
community, Aboriginal	8	recipients
immigrants	8	recipients
children, non-English speaking	7	recipients
parents	7	recipients
children, Aboriginal	6	recipients
individual	6	recipients
arrivals, new	5	recipients
children, Australian	5	recipients
disabled	5	recipients
populations, target	5	recipients
students, overseas	5	recipients
Aboriginal, adults	4	recipients
groups, non-English speaking	4	recipients
learners, adult ESL	4	recipients
peers	4	recipients
people, non-Aboriginal	4	recipients
clients, Aboriginal	3	recipients
communities, school	3	recipients
community of speakers	3	recipients
immigrants, recent	3	recipients
learners, ESL	3	recipients
society, Aboriginal	3	recipients
students, fee paying	3	recipients
speakers, Aboriginal languages	3	recipients
children, English speaking	2	recipients
children, preschool	2	recipients
clients, Aboriginal	2	recipients
illiterate(s)	2	recipients
learners, English	2	recipients
minorities	2	recipients
people, deaf	2	recipients
population, school	2	recipients

population, student	2	recipients
relatives	2	recipients
society, multilingual	2	recipients
students, ESL	2	recipients
Aboriginal, learners of English	1	recipients
adult, ESL learners	1	recipients
applicants, citizenship	1	recipients
Australians, deaf	1	recipients
Australians, non-English speaking background	1	recipients
Australians, second generation	1	recipients
authorities, employing	1	recipients
children, English language background	1	recipients
children, refugees	1	recipients
community, language education	1	recipients
employers, private	1	recipients
employers, public	1	recipients
girls	1	recipients
groups, adult literacy	1	recipients
immigrants, post-war	1	recipients
learners, EFL	1	recipients
neighbourhoods	1	recipients
networks, family	1	recipients
peers, age	1	recipients
people, Aboriginal, non-English speaking	1	recipients
people, business	1	recipients
people, communications disabled	1	recipients
people, disabled	1	recipients
people, European	1	recipients
people, older	1	recipients
public, the	1	recipients
students, lack of English	1	recipients
students 1st language not English	1	recipients
students, 1st language other than English	1	recipients
students, Australian non-English background	1	recipients
students, Australian school	1	recipients
students, bi-lingually competent	1	recipients
students, foreign	1	recipients
students, newly arrived	1	recipients
students, non-native speaking background	1	recipients
students, primary	1	recipients
students, secondary ESL	1	recipients
teachers, intending	1	recipients
Torres Strait Islanders	1	recipients

Australia's Language (Dawkins, 1991)

Subjects by Category & Qty 1991 policy

SUBJECT	QTY	CATEGORY
Asia Education Foundation	1	advisory
exporters, Australian	1	advisory
groups, relevant interest	1	advisory
ILY	1	advisory
leaders, Asia-competent	1	advisory
networks, research	1	advisory
NLLIA	1	advisory

parents	1	advisory
Special Conference of Teacher Training Providers	1	advisory
staff, teaching appropriately qualified	1	advisory
societies, cultural	2	advisory
industry	5	general
workers	5	general
business	4	general
community	3	general
unions	3	general
business, international	1	general
citizens	1	general
industry, Australian	1	general
marketplace, international	1	general
members, community other	1	general
residents, Australian	1	general
Commonwealth	22	gov
AMEP	11	gov
states & territories	10	gov
government	7	gov
governments, state & territory	6	gov
states	6	gov
governments	4	gov
AACLAME	3	gov
Minister DEET	3	gov
MOVEET	2	gov
Commonwealth (decision making bodies)	1	gov
Commonwealth Government	1	gov
government, Commonwealth	1	gov
government, federal	1	gov
government, host	1	gov
government, national	1	gov
government, New South Wales	1	gov
government, states	1	gov
government, Victoria	1	gov
governments, state	1	gov
heads of government	1	gov
Minister, DILGEA	1	gov
Ministers of Vocational Education, Employment and Training	1	gov
ministers, states & territories	1	gov
Prime Minister	1	gov
State and Territory (decision making bodies)	1	gov
DILGEA	5	gov
DEET	3	gov
DIR	1	gov
Australian Education Council	6	gov advisory
Asian Studies Council	4	gov advisory
Australian Committee on TAFE Curriculum	2	gov advisory
ALLC	1	gov advisory
Asia in Australian Council	1	gov advisory
Australian Literacy Foundation	1	gov advisory
committee, House of Reps. Employment, education & Training (on literacy in the workplace)	1	gov advisory
committee, senate standing on education and the Arts	1	gov advisory
NBEET	1	gov advisory
NCC for ILY	1	gov advisory
SBS	1	providers
TAFE	10	providers

children	9	providers
sector, adult & community education	5	providers
teachers	5	providers
schools	4	providers
schools, non-systemic	4	providers
systems, education	4	providers
systems, government education, states & territories	4	providers
systems, non government schools	4	providers
higher education	3	providers
interpreters	3	providers
media, electronic	3	providers
systems, school	3	providers
translators	3	providers
institutions, TAFE	2	providers
librarians	2	providers
media, print	2	providers
schools, secondary	2	providers
ABC	1	providers
agencies, national, based in higher education institutions	1	providers
associations, professional English Teachers	1	providers
authorities, state & territory	1	providers
centres, regional Aboriginal	1	providers
classes, language maintenance	1	providers
governments, foreign	1	providers
groups, professional	1	providers
institutions, education & training	1	providers
professionals, other	1	providers
professions, supporting	1	providers
providers, adult education	1	providers
schools, Australian	1	providers
schools, disadvantaged	1	providers
schools, primary	1	providers
sector, education, all	1	providers
services, university extension	1	providers
speakers, native	1	providers
Style Council	1	providers
systems, higher education	1	providers
systems, labour market preparation	1	providers
systems, TAFE	1	providers
systems, training	1	providers
systems, vocational training	1	providers
teachers, all	1	providers
teachers, specialists	1	providers
trainers, community	1	providers
workers, media	1	providers
workers, trained literacy	1	providers
schools, ethnic	1	providers
jobseekers	9	recipients
students, year 12	6	recipients
students	5	recipients
Australians	4	recipients
workplace	4	recipients
people, Aboriginal & Torres Strait Islanders	3	recipients
students, higher education	3	recipients
adults	2	recipients
clients	2	recipients
clients, AMEP	2	recipients

communities, Aboriginal & Torres Strait Islanders	2	recipients
community, Australian	2	recipients
community, Australian broader	2	recipients
community, our	2	recipients
community, whole	2	recipients
immigrants	2	recipients
adults, Aboriginal	1	recipients
adults, Australian	1	recipients
Australian, society	1	recipients
Australians (different ethnic backgrounds)	1	recipients
Australians, Aboriginal	1	recipients
Australians, all	1	recipients
Australians, individual	1	recipients
children (school ESL)	1	recipients
children, Australian	1	recipients
children, Australian born	1	recipients
children, overseas born	1	recipients
children, recently arrived in Australia	1	recipients
citizens, Aboriginal & Torres Strait Islanders	1	recipients
communities, relevant	1	recipients
community, wider	1	recipients
employers	1	recipients
families	1	recipients
groups, community	1	recipients
groups, language	1	recipients
immigrants, < 3 years	1	recipients
immigrants, adult	1	recipients
immigrants, newly arrived	1	recipients
immigrants, with Australian born children	1	recipients
individuals	1	recipients
labour force	1	recipients
migrants	1	recipients
migrants, adult	1	recipients
organisations, Aboriginal	1	recipients
participants, AMEP	1	recipients
people, Aboriginal & Torres Strait Islanders, NESB	1	recipients
people, Australian	1	recipients
people, deaf	1	recipients
people, elderly	1	recipients
students, Aboriginal primary & secondary	1	recipients
students, final year	1	recipients
students, junior primary	1	recipients
students, junior secondary	1	recipients
students, school-age	1	recipients
unemployed	1	recipients
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Queensland 1991 policy: subjects

Queensland LOTE policy, subjects by category

SUBJECTS	SUBTOTAL SUBJECTS	CATEGORY
group, Italian Teachers	1	advisory
groups, community	1	advisory
groups, community language	1	advisory
groups, interested	1	advisory
groups, particular interest	1	advisory
groups, special interest	1	advisory
parents	4	advisory
Canada	1	internat
USA	1	internat
ASEAN	1	internat
China	3	internat
countries, Asian	2	internat
government, China	1	internat
Indonesia	1	internat
Japan	5	internat
Korea	3	internat
Malaysia	1	internat
Singapore	1	internat
societies, Asian	1	internat
Taiwan	1	internat
Britain	1	internat
civilisation, European	1	internat
Europe	3	internat
France	1	internat
Germany	1	internat
government, France	1	internat
Italy	2	internat
areas	1	general
areas, Chinese speaking	1	general
areas, local	2	general
areas, regional	1	general
Asia	2	general
Australia	11	general
Australians, Indonesian/Malay ancestry	1	general
Brisbane	3	general
communities, local	2	general
community	3	general
community, deaf	1	general
community, local	1	general
countries	1	general
country	1	general
education	1	general
New South Wales	1	general
QTU	1	general
Queensland	21	general
Queenslanders	2	general
region	4	general
regions	4	general
regions, other	1	general

society, our own	1	general
state	3	general
states	1	general
systems, socio-political	1	general
West End	1	general
Asian Studies Council	3	gov advisory
Board of Teacher Registration	1	government
Commonwealth	1	government
EQ	3	government
government	4	government
Government, Goss	1	government
government, Queensland	1	government
LACU	4	government
Benowa High School	2	providers
government, Germany	1	providers
government, Italy	1	providers
government, Japan	1	providers
government, Spain	1	providers
governments	1	providers
Griffith University	1	providers
Hong Kong	1	providers
Inala	1	providers
Kenmore High School	1	providers
LOTE Centre	2	providers
Mansfield High School	1	providers
advisors, language	4	providers
assistants, teacher	1	providers
Darra	1	providers
education, distance	1	providers
governments, foreign	1	providers
governments, other	1	providers
principals	4	providers
regional LOTE Coordinators	2	providers
school	1	providers
school	1	providers
school, primary	1	providers
schools	27	providers
schools, local	1	providers
schools, primary	8	providers
schools, Queensland	4	providers
schools, secondary	4	providers
schools, special	1	providers
service, teaching	1	providers
services, support	1	providers
speakers, native	4	providers
speakers, non-native	2	providers
systems, other school	1	providers
teachers	21	providers
teachers, Chinese	1	providers
teachers, high school language		providers
teachers, high school language	2	providers
teachers, inadequately trained	1	providers
teachers, Japanese	1	providers
teachers, language	12	providers
teachers, native-speaker	1	providers
teachers, primary	1	providers
teachers, prospective LOTE	1	providers

teachers, qualified native-speaker	1	providers
teachers, specialist	1	providers
teachers, specialist language	2	providers
teachers, specialist primary school language	1	providers
teachers, travelling	1	providers
universities	10	providers
universities, Queensland	1	providers
University of Queensland	2	providers
children	4	recipients
children, NESB	1	recipients
children, Vietnamese	1	recipients
children, young	1	recipients
graduates	1	recipients
learners	1	recipients
level, primary	1	recipients
level, secondary	1	recipients
levels, primary	1	recipients
levels, secondary	1	recipients
Queenslanders, young	1	recipients
regions, isolated	1	recipients
schools, disadvantaged	1	recipients
students	28	recipients
students, primary	1	recipients
students, year 12	1	recipients

EQ computer policies

Computers in Learning Policy

Subjects X Category

Subjects	Number	Category
department	1	department
EQ	3	department
Learning, Teaching & Tech Unit	1	department
people	1	general
workplace	1	general
Treasury	1	government
teachers	11	providers
girls	1	recipients
graduates, teacher	1	recipients
learners	2	recipients
learners, group	1	recipients
students	22	recipients
students, groups	1	recipients
students, NESB	1	recipients
management, school	1	school exec
school	1	school exec
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Appendix J: Questions for principals and other school staff

Questions for principals and other school staff

1. From your perspective, how do you see computers helping in language teaching?

2. What would help you in getting computers organised for language teaching?

3. What training does your school get in the use of computers?

4. What training does your staff get in computer assisted language learning (CALL)?

5. What issues do you have now regarding the use of computers for language teaching?

6. What issues do you see in the future regarding language teaching in your high school?

7. What do see in the future regarding using computers in language teaching in your school?

Appendix K: Cross-case matrix of themes and the comments from each case set

Cross-case matrix of themes and the comments from each case set

The table below is the cross-case matrix of themes and the comments from each case set. The issues raised by respondents are listed in point form, and page numbers at the bottom of each point refer back to the findings chapter. The following set of codes is used to indicate other themes:

- * = a main point
- \$ = issues relating to funding
- \+ = a positive point
- \-- = a negative point
- C = a communication theme
- Page numbers refer to the relevant section in Chapter Four.

Theme	Teacher interviews	Questionnaire	Principals/HOD	External
Policy	P. 113 * Finding out about policies mostly via school (C) * Who teachers talk to: EQ + LOTE colleagues (C) *Very vague on Commonwealth policies; only clear on syllabus documents. (C)	P. 142 * 28% had some input into policy development for Qld, less for Commonwealth	P. 197 * Loss of regional advisors (C) * Politically driven * Implements policies but some resentment on method of policy decisions (C)	P. 179 * Policy by rumour (C) * Written policies (C) * Tricky dissemination (C) * Ambiguity of policies (C) * School interpretation of policies (C) * will LOTE continue? * devolution of national language policies
Training	P. 128 * Lack of PD for LOTE, esp. using computers in the classroom * Needs help from unis & TAFEs * New teachers need to be computer literate.	P. 170 * School computer training generally only basic * < 30% of schools offer special LOTE/computer training *Vague about what professional organisations offer in training *Unis & TAFEs should offer inservice * Pre-service curriculum. Should include computer subjects.	P. 196 * $ available for staff training to minimum standards from EQ * No specific training for LOTE; * Loss of regional advisors * General lack of $ for PD	P. 182 * EQ offers some training; $ available for basic computer training * PD $ for LOTE is scant * PD in teachers' own time * Pre-service computer training major issue

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Theme	Teacher interviews	Questionnaire	Prin/HOD	External
Computers in schools	P. 118 Teachers use computers for: . mostly lesson prep. & w/p . some student activities . more use internet * Issues: – access – lack of $ -- not enough computers . location of computers . $ for programs * Technical problems: . – networks . – peripherals * Most teachers vague about CALL * Attitudes . + motivating for students. . + o/s commun. – frustration . – personal probs. . – need for train. * Who Teachers talk to re computers . for probs – IT staff . for $, time etc. to school c'ttee)	P. 149 * Qty of comps: 10:1 ratio * Internet in most schools * Location of computers: distributed * 40% of teachers look after computers * Computer knowledge: . most do w/p, lesson prep.; half do email . resource prep. . 40% do CALL * Advantages: . + motivating for students . + self-paced learning . + real language + o/s communication * Disadvantages: – over-emphasis on use of computers . – tech. problems . – bad LOTE programs . – access to computers . – class management * Attitudes: . + most comfortable . – frustrated . – needed training	P. 193 * $ for maintenance * Access to computers * Not enough computers * Equity problems * Good for self access * Internet use * $: sheer cost of upgrades & infrastructure	P. 183 * Positives + networked comps. in most schools + motivational for students + improved LOTE programs * Negatives -- not enough computers -- CALL software. too expensive ($) -- access to computers -- school configuration -- lack of preparation time for teachers

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Theme	Teacher interviews	Questionnaire	Prin/HOD	External
Networking	P. 111 * Communication with school hierarchy: . mostly informal . formal via hierarchy * Relates most to: . LOTE teachers in school, then . other staff in school (lots through staff room) . informal networks * Professional association: . app. 50% belong to MLTAQ	P. 139 * Prof assoc: . 53% members * Teachers organise own local networks * Communication: . teachers @ school . LOTE teachers in school . LOTE teachers out of school	P. 199 * LOTE teachers need to advocate more (see school dynamics)	P. 182, 185 * Professional association: . some input into policy @ fact finding stages . advisory role * loss of regional advisors "Don't get to see other teachers" * HOD networks * EQ intranet & internet * Teachers network via "traditional means" * Staff room networking
Teacher concerns	P. 130 * Motivating the students in LOTE classes * Need to teach well * Student discipline * Multilevel classes * Attitudes to LOTE in school & community * Lack of time for: . training . preparing computers . personal activities . lesson preparation . other school activities . Specific training in LOTE/CALL * Access and quantity of computers in school * Lack of $ for resources	P. 157 * Using computers: . poor LOTE programs . over-emphasis on use of computers . managing a class using computers . access & qty of computers . location of computers . technical problems . frustrations in using computers for a number of reasons * Funding: . expensive software, esp. site licenses . maintenance & getting new hardware * Training: . staff: esp. LOTE/CALL . students	None raised	P. 186 * Teachers' fear of technology & change . technophobia lessening . reluctant to change roles * Perceived low status of LOTE: "parasitising on system" . LOTE not seen as important . LOTE precarious in school curriculum (low numbers) * Compulsory LOTE classes: not favoured * CALL can be highly motivational *LOTE & Community: . need to sell LOTE to community . "We're in a pretty racist period" . technology can help to sell LOTE

Theme	Teacher interviews	Questionnaire	Prin/HOD	External
School dynamics	P. 130 * Committees: . getting resources . difficulties in getting heard in decision-making processes * Access to computers for LOTE * LOTE perceived to have low priority in school	P. 161 * Computers: . LOTE classes getting access to computers + quantity of hardware/software	P. 198 * Committee structure . teachers need to advocate . small LOTE staff = less voice in resource allocation . competition for resources	P. 187 * Key people: . Principal . HODs, esp. LOTE HODs . movitated teachers . community now more active in school * Teachers network esp. in staff rooms

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