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**Student Modern Foreign Languages
Teachers Learning to Teach: beliefs,
attitudes and the development of a
methodological landscape**

by

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education

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Table of Contents

List of Figures and Tables	v
Acknowledgements	vii
Abstract.....	viii
Abbreviations and acronyms	ix
Introduction.....	1
Autobiographical context.....	1
Investigating student teachers' beliefs	2
Initial thoughts on the study	3
The initial teacher education context.....	5
Research questions	6
Overview of the chapters	7
Chapter 1: Learning-to-Teach. A review of the literature	9
1.1: Introduction.....	9
1.2 Models of and theories on learning-to-teach	11
1.3 MFL specific research on beginning teachers.....	13
1.4 Beliefs and learning-to-teach.....	15
1.4.1 <i>Stability and change in beliefs</i>	18
1.4.2 <i>Importance of pre-existing beliefs. The basis for investigating change</i>	20
1.5 Student teachers' concerns	22
1.6 Reflection.....	24
1.7 Stages of teacher development.....	25
1.8 Novice/expert research.....	27
1.9 Subject knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge	28
1.10 Socialisation and encounters with dissonance	30
1.11 Conclusion.....	32
Chapter 2: Teaching and learning-to-teach modern foreign languages..	33
2.1: Introduction.....	33
2.2 MFL communities of practice.....	34
2.3 MFL student teachers' developing methodological landscape	35
2.3.1 <i>Method, methodology and approach in MFL</i>	36
2.4 School experience and socialisation.....	37
2.5 Prevailing methodological beliefs. The communicative approach.....	38
2.5.1 <i>The interpretation and misinterpretation of CLT</i>	40
2.5.2 <i>Recent trends in the literature on FLT and learning</i>	43
2.5.3 <i>The folklore of communicative methodology</i>	45
2.5.4 <i>The target language myth</i>	46
2.5.5 <i>Grammar</i>	48

2.6 Conclusion.....	49
Chapter 3: Research design and analysis..	50
3.1: Introduction.....	50
3.2 Research design	50
3.2.1 <i>Methodological stance</i>	50
3.2.2 <i>Quantitative and qualitative approaches</i>	52
3.2.3 <i>Addressing the research questions</i>	53
3.2.4 <i>Choice of research tools</i>	57
3.2.5 <i>Validity and reliability issues</i>	60
3.2.6 <i>Ethical and procedural issues</i>	62
3.3 Research tools	66
3.3.1 <i>Questionnaire design</i>	66
3.3.2 <i>Piloting the questionnaires</i>	66
3.3.3 <i>Structure and layout of the questionnaires</i>	67
3.3.4 <i>Group discussions on video</i>	71
3.4 Data collection.....	73
3.4.1 <i>Data collection points</i>	73
3.4.2 <i>Number of respondents</i>	76
3.4.3 <i>Response rates</i>	78
3.4.3.1 <i>Snapshot questionnaires</i>	78
3.4.3.2 <i>Applicant questionnaires</i>	79
3.5 Data analysis.....	79
3.5.1 <i>Quantitative analysis</i>	80
3.5.2 <i>Qualitative analysis</i>	81
3.5.3 <i>Analysis of material recorded on video</i>	83
3.5.4 <i>Selection of data and use of quotations</i>	83
3.6 Interpretation	84
Chapter 4: Student teachers' pre-course beliefs. The basis for the development of their methodological landscape..	87
4.1: Introduction.....	87
4.2 Student teachers' motivation to teach MFL	88
4.2.1 <i>Reasons to teach MFL. The love of languages</i>	90
4.2.2 <i>Subject knowledge in MFL</i>	92
4.2.3 <i>Student teachers' readiness and preparation for the course</i>	99
4.3 The need for student teachers to examine their existing beliefs and motivations	103
4.3.1 <i>Student teachers' images of 'self as good language teacher'</i>	104
4.3.2 <i>The role of the teacher. To accept or reject the image?</i>	107
4.4 Student teachers' expectations of their teacher education. Initial models of learning-to-teach	109
4.5 Student teachers' initial methodological landscape	114
4.5.1 <i>Communicative language teaching: a partial interpretation</i>	119
4.6 Self, task and impact concerns at the start of the course	126

4.7 Conclusion.....	129
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Chapter 5: Student teachers' perceived experience. From starting the course to newly-qualified teacher..... 130

5.1 Introduction.....	130
5.2 Course structure factors and locus of change	131
5.3 Whole course trends	132
5.3.1 Confidence, concerns and enjoyment.....	132
5.3.2 Time and workload.....	144
5.3.3 Future-wishing and magical fantasies.....	145
5.3.4 Self, task and impact concerns.....	149
5.3.5 Professional decision-making.....	150
5.4 Student teachers' conceptualisation of learning-to-teach	156
5.4.1 Becoming a 'real' teacher; teaching as a real activity	158
5.4.2 Playing a role: discipline and class management.....	161
5.4.3 Creativity, conformity or a balanced approach	165
5.4.4 Reflection, the mentor and feedback.....	169
5.5 A flavour of student teacher experience	170
5.5.1 On the edge of something 'real' (S1).....	170
5.5.2 Frustration builds (S2).....	171
5.5.3 Beginnings of reality (S3).....	172
5.5.4 Reassessing in the light of experience (S4).....	172
5.5.5 Building up momentum to 'doing it again' (S5).....	174
5.5.6 'Still a large hurdle' (S6).....	174
5.5.7 Positive or negative: decision-making time (S7).....	175
5.5.8 'Completely shattered', but nearly real (S8).....	176
5.5.9 Reaching the finishing line (S9).....	177
5.5.10 Real reality: life as an NQT (S10).....	178
5.6 Conclusion.....	180

Chapter 6: Subject knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and an emerging methodological landscape.. 181

6.1 Introduction. Learning-to-teach MFL.....	181
6.2 Views on language and language teaching.....	182
6.3 Subject knowledge in MFL	188
6.3.1 Subject knowledge competence and confidence	189
6.3.2 FL2 competence and confidence	192
6.3.3 Subject knowledge gaps and the need for improvement.....	194
6.3.4 Native speakers and subject knowledge in MFL	195
6.4 MFL as classroom subject and PCK.....	197
6.4.1 Identification of PCK features	199
6.5 MFL methodological development	200
6.5.1 Views on MFL teacher portraits.....	202

6.6 Student teachers' methodological landscape	208
6.6.1 Rationale for landscape classification	208
6.6.2 Grammar.....	211
6.6.3 Target language/English.....	218
6.6.4 Teachers' subject knowledge	222
6.6.5 Linguistic accuracy.....	224
6.6.6 The language learning process	226
6.6.7 MFL lessons and activities.....	229
6.7 Methodological conflict	232
6.8 Conclusion.....	234
Chapter 7: Conclusions and implications.....	235
References	239
Appendix 1: Example of Applicant Questionnaire.....	270
Appendix 2: Example of Snapshot Questionnaire.....	276

Figures and Tables

<i>Figure</i>	<i>Page</i>
i. Research question coverage	8
ii. Learning-to-teach continua	12
iii. Characteristics of the communicative approach	40
iv. The research process.....	53
v. Composition of the video groups	72
vi. Data collection points	74
vii. Data collection overview	75
viii. Respondents.....	77
ix. Actual responses for each SQ over 3 cohorts at two HEIs	78
x. Applicant questionnaire responses.....	79
xi. Numerical codings for rating scale items.....	80
xii. Content analysis procedure	82
xiii. Abbreviations for quotation derivation codings	84
xiv. Student teachers' initial methodological landscape	124
xv. Confidence areas	133
xvi. Overall methodological landscape.....	210

<i>Table</i>	<i>Page</i>
I. Motivation to teach languages	96
II. Student teachers' feelings and how they envisage the year ahead.....	98
III. Student teachers' preparation for the course	102
IV. Students' images of self as good MFL teacher.....	109
V. Processes which beginning teachers believe will help them become good language teachers	111
VI. Aspects student teachers are looking forward to.....	114
VII. Student teachers' own language learning experiences and the significance thereof	117
VIII. Self, task and impact concerns at the start of the course.....	129

IX.	Confidence levels: whole population	135
X.	Confidence levels: native speakers	136
XI.	Confidence levels: males	137
XII.	Confidence levels: females	138
XIII.	Cross-check overview. Confidence levels throughout the course	139
XIV.	Aspects causing concern	142
XV.	Aspects enjoyed	143
XVI.	Sentence completion: At the moment I am feeling ...	153
XVII.	Sentence completion: What I would really like at the moment is/are	154
XVIII.	Sentence completion: The factors most influencing my teaching now are ...	155
XIX.	Views on language and language teaching: whole population	184
XX.	Views on language and language teaching: native speakers	185
XXI.	Views on language and language teaching: males	186
XXII.	Views on language and language teaching: females	187
XXIII.	Overall views on teacher portraits (teachers A, B and C)	206
XXIV.	Statistics on teacher portraits	207
XXV.	Methodological statements: rank order by overall mean.....	209
XXVI.	Grammar.....	213
XXVII.	Grammar rules.....	214
XXVIII.	Grammatical order.....	216
XXIX.	Terminology and L1 grammar.....	217
XXX.	Target language/English	221
XXXI.	Teachers' subject knowledge	223
XXXII.	Importance of linguistic accuracy	225
XXXIII.	The language learning process	227
XXXIV.	MFL lessons and activities.....	230

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Abstract

This study examines the motivations, beliefs and attitudes of beginning modern foreign languages teachers towards foreign language teaching and learning during their initial teacher education and the changes in attitudes towards and beliefs about their subject and its methodology. In so doing, the study uncovers the students' initial and developing methodological landscapes.

The scope of the study is unusual in its breadth of response and in its multi-method approach incorporating qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis, identifying interconnections in the data. A total of 235 student teachers' responses contribute to the research: the pre-course beliefs of eight cohorts of beginning teachers are analysed to establish a basis for exploring any change. The research subsequently adopts a longitudinal approach, where data¹ is obtained through a series of ten snapshot questionnaires administered to three separate cohorts of student teachers. This data is supplemented by smaller samples from two cohorts in a different initial teacher education institution. It is further triangulated through twelve group discussions on video from two cohorts. Analysis is of whole and aggregated cohorts and also by gender and native speaker.

Views indicated by the beginning teachers' stated perceptions of their development incorporate elements from a variety of learning-to-teach theories. Some more generic themes which emerge as important in student teachers' thinking throughout the year include the desire for fantasy solutions and the process of future-wishing, both of which serve as attempts to avoid a true (and difficult) developmental process. Stability of fundamental beliefs is evident, but substantial change occurs in perceptions of items contributing to the methodological landscape, particularly in the areas of target language and grammar.

¹ 'Data' will be treated in the singular throughout

Abbreviations and acronyms

ALL	Association for Language Learning
AQ	Applicant questionnaire
CALL	Computer assisted language learning
CILT	Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
DfE	Department for Education
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
FL	Foreign language
FL1	First foreign language
FL2	Second foreign language
FLA	Foreign Language Assistant
FLE	Français (comme) langue étrangère
FLT	Foreign language teaching
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HoD	Head of Department
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
INSET	In-service training
ITE	Initial Teacher Education
KS3	Key Stage 3 (11-14 years old)
KS4	Key Stage 4 (14-16 years old)
L1	First language
L2	Second language
MFL	Modern Foreign Languages
NC	National Curriculum
NAHT	National Association of Head Teachers

NQT	Newly Qualified Teacher
Ofsted	Office for Standards in Education
OHP	Overhead projector
OHT	Overhead transparency
OUDES	Oxford University Department of Educational Studies
PCK	Pedagogical content knowledge
PGCE	Postgraduate Certificate in Education
PoS	Programme of Study
QTS	Qualified Teacher Status
QIT	Qualifying to Teach
SCITT	School Centred Initial Teacher Training
SK	Subject Knowledge
SMT	Senior management team
SQ	Snapshot questionnaire
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TL	Target Language
TP	Teaching placement
TTA	Teacher Training Agency

Introduction

"I don't think there has ever been a time when I have been so concerned with my development as when a student on a PGCE course." (S9(W)96-7)

Autobiographical context

I am passionate about languages, and about the teaching of languages. As with other researchers, it is this passion that has enabled me to engage fully with this research and all its ensuing implications (Delamont, 1992: 65; Huberman, 1993:xi; Janesick, 1994:217; Russell, 1997:229). I have trained as a language teacher and worked as one for a number of years; this study would have been very different had I investigated prospective Maths teachers or vets. In analysing the beginning teachers' responses in this study, I am therefore able to use my *member's competence* (Woods, 1996:49). I am passionate about working with student teachers¹ of modern languages and am part of that world. I get excited by every encounter with a new way of approaching a topic, or exemplifying a grammatical point and am constantly intrigued by language oddities, word derivations and discoveries of language links. Student teachers on this course have given me a great deal of stimulus for this passion. They have shared with me countless imaginative ways of teaching and learning languages, have made me rethink my own teaching approaches, and have forced me to look at some fundamental issues and assumptions. They have asked the questions that made me ask further questions.

After working as a mentor to a colleague who was at that time termed a *licensed teacher* (Galvin, 1994:65) I developed a strong interest in the development of teachers, particularly in their initial experiences, and how they can be helped most effectively. In nine years of co-ordinating the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) I have enjoyed the company of very many interesting, intelligent, enquiring and talented student teachers. I have

¹ A note on terminology: There is a variety of terms used in the research and professional literature to describe prospective teachers in training. In this study, the terms 'student teacher' and 'beginning teacher' are both used. Where other authors' work is cited, the original terminology is retained. I have also adopted the term 'learning-to-teach' throughout.

been able to watch them develop and have been able to help in that development, alongside a large number of school teachers and PGCE colleagues. Teaching MFL can be hugely exciting, but it is also frequently tremendously challenging. A goal of this study is to improve understanding of how MFL student teachers grow professionally in their subject; a subject that experiences very frequent methodological fashion changes. I felt compelled to find out how student teachers of MFL perceived their experiences during this learning-to-teach process. It was clear from my encounters with them that it was an intensive, sometimes very difficult year. During the time of the study, participating students experienced many significant events both professionally and personally. I did too; including giving birth to my daughter in May 1999. This clearly had an impact on my life and indirectly on the research and, as Punch (1994:86) emphasises, such events form part of the mostly unrecognised tapestry that is the background to any study².

Investigating student teachers' beliefs

'Learning-to-teach' is widely acknowledged as a complex process (Claxton, 1985; Calderhead, 1987 and 1988; Carr, 1992; DeBolt, 1992; Calderhead and Shorrocks, 1997; Nicholls, 1999:6; Freeman, 2002:6), involving complex thought processes. Attempting to investigate the development and progress of student teachers as they learn-to-teach, is a task fraught with challenges but full of promise. The beginning teachers are individuals with their own particular beliefs and circumstances and their professional contexts vary from school to school and in unique classroom situations. How to 'capture' the authentic student voice through research, and the various methodological dilemmas surrounding that endeavour are acknowledged as challenges for researchers in this field (Nicholson, 1996:2). As for Nias (1991), the initial impetus for this research stemmed from a desire to improve student teacher experience and development through obtaining their views. What has taken over subsequently is the wish to try to capture as full and reliable a picture as possible of the MFL student teacher experience and their perceptions

² Some quotations taken from my own diary written during my PGCE in 1986-7 are used occasionally in this thesis and reflect many of the findings of this study.

of that experience. Calderhead (1988:2) highlights the complex cognitive, affective and behavioural changes in learning-to-teach. It is to illuminate some of these changes *in the context of MFL* that this study is situated.

Initial thoughts on the study

The sparse nature of recent research in the specific field of secondary MFL student teachers has been noted (Grenfell, 1998:35; Spezzini and Oxford, 1998:66); two significant exceptions are Grenfell (1998) and Roberts (1998), although Roberts' research focussed primarily on ELT. A substantial body of *generic* research has, however, emerged (for example, Reeves and Kazelkis, 1985; Britzman, 1991; Bennett and Carré, 1993; Leat et al, 1995; Furlong and Maynard, 1995; Furlong, 1996); although many of the generic studies are based on primary student teachers (e.g. Furlong et al, 1988; Calderhead and Shorrock, 1997) and, where studies exist at secondary level, they generally deal with subjects other than MFL. It has been acknowledged that further research is needed (Zeichner et al, 1987:26; Bramald et al, 1995:24) and that this is valuable in improving teacher education programmes (Bullough et al, 1991) and thereby the education of pupils (Beardon et al, 1992:10).

This research investigates the development of one year full-time PGCE MFL student teachers throughout their training, from immediately prior to their course to the first half term of their work as Newly Qualified Teachers (NQT). This covers an approximately 15 month period for each of three cohorts incorporating ten 'snapshot' questionnaires and six video group discussions for each year. The study focuses on student teacher development through this important period of their professional training, and does so through the lens of MFL. Their concerns and feelings are tracked through this period and their methodological development is presented. Factors specific to males, females and native speakers are also investigated.

Over 200 beginning teachers of MFL are studied. Little prior subject-specific research on this scale into the pre-existing beliefs and developing attitudes of MFL student teachers has been conducted. Some research into beginning teachers' beliefs has been carried out in the field of English as a second or foreign language (EFL/ESL) (for example Woods, 1996; Richards, 1998),

although as Woods acknowledges (1996:190), even in this field very little exists. It is also the case that MFL is a distinctive subject in many ways. For example, the essential 'message' of the subject is transmitted via the 'medium' of the subject (Hawkins, 1981; Richards and Lockhart, 1994:182; Macaro and Mutton, 2002:27; King, 2003). In focussing on MFL, the study also addresses an area perceived by Delamont (1992:33) as a bias in the literature: the subjects of this research are predominantly female.

In analysing patterns and trends in beliefs and concerns of three cohorts of MFL student teachers from two Higher Education Institutions (HEI) and the motivations to teach and initial methodological concepts of eight cohorts, the study makes a substantial contribution to knowledge about the development of beginning teachers of MFL and their understanding of MFL teaching and learning by investigating a larger number of students than hitherto. This permits a combination of research methodologies which, to my knowledge, has not been attempted previously. The research engages with a number of areas highlighted as worthy of investigation, including the emotional needs of student teachers (McNally, et al, 1994), teachers' understanding of MFL methodology (Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999:496), and studying the process of learning-to-teach via changes in beliefs and attitudes (Claxton, 1985:86; Woods, 1996:2). It does so longitudinally in a secondary context (Clark and Peterson, 1986:292), and focuses on the hitherto under-researched beliefs of MFL beginning teachers (Woods, 1996:298). It therefore continues a vein of investigation recommended by Lacey (1977:63) in studying the process of becoming a teacher from a *subject* perspective. In Kagan's detailed review of the research on learning-to-teach (1992:156) she indicates some inconsistent findings. This study addresses to varying degrees five of Kagan's seven inconsistencies.

Methodologically, the study also makes a contribution to the approaches available to investigate beginning teachers' beliefs. Adopting a longitudinal cohort approach, it utilises an unusual combination of qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis, providing a rich picture of student teachers' developing beliefs and concerns. The research design enables group trends to emerge whilst retaining the individual 'voices' of the student teachers (Johnston, 1994:71). The more general tendencies are identified but individual perspectives are still present. The multi-

method approach incorporates data also from a second HEI to provide a perspective outside the 'home' institution.

The initial teacher education context

Any longitudinal study is likely to be affected by changes in legislation and administration (Reid et al, 1994; Furlong and Smith, 1996; Graham, 1996; Roth, 1999). This is particularly true in the educational context in the period studied here. National, legislative changes have included the move from the requirements of 9/92 (DfE, 1992), to the competences of 10/97 (DfEE, 1997) to Standards 4/98 (DfEE, 1998), the introduction in 1998 of the Information and Communications Technology (ICT) requirements and in 2002, Qualifying to Teach (QtT) (DfES/TTA, 2002). The way student teachers are assessed has, during this comparatively short period (1994-2002), altered very considerably. Additionally, the programmes of the MFL students in this study were inspected by Ofsted in 1996-7, 1999-2000 and 2002-3. The study is also set against a background of teacher shortage and recruitment crises (MFL was described officially as a *priority subject* throughout the period of the study), and in the context of a range of initiatives introduced to combat these problems. Many of these initiatives have altered annually and recently resulted in a salary for student teachers. The period saw a proposed NAHT boycott of teacher training (February 1997), the TTA campaign 'No-one forgets a good teacher' (October 1997) and the introduction of Career Entry Profiles (summer, 1998).

There has also been intense debate with regard to where initial teacher education (ITE) should be located and what form it should take. A variety of training experiments has been introduced and the locus of accountability has appeared to swing from HEIs to schools and back again. Courses in England are now mostly partnerships between HEIs and schools and course designers attempt to achieve cohesion and partnership between the various locations. Vigorous debate continues as to the frequently mentioned theory/practice divide (McIntyre, 1988; Russell, 1988; Griffiths and Tann, 1992; Furlong and Smith, 1996; Roth, 1999), the relevance of HEI input or, as some more right-wing thinkers have suggested, the prime importance of 'on the job' experience (see, for example, the discussion presented in Calderhead and Shorrock, 1997:4). The present research

intends to illuminate student teacher experience from one subject's perspective and to contribute to the debate. What is the experience of this professional training like for MFL student teachers? What concerns them and what do they value?

Since this investigation looks into the changes experienced by student teachers, the development of their pedagogical thinking, and to some extent, the effects - both positive and negative - of the external demands on their progress, the macro context is therefore relevant when regarding the micro context of student teachers' development (see Usher, 1996:28). Subject specific macro factors such as increased numbers of native speakers taking PGCE courses, changes in the degree content of student teachers, the emergence on to ITE of representatives of the post General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) generation of foreign language learners and changes in the MFL curriculum such as target language testing all play a part (see Kelly et al, 2002). The period under investigation has also obviously seen changes and developments on a micro level to the subject programme I co-ordinate. Some changes and additions have resulted indirectly from responses to the research under discussion here: it is an organic process where I was intrinsically bound up with the subjects of the investigation and had to react accordingly. Whatever the macro or micro context, however, it is the students' lived experience and their perceptions thereof that form the backbone to this investigation.

Research questions

The research questions addressed by the investigation are as follows:

1. What attitudes towards and beliefs about language, linguistic competence and teaching languages do student teachers hold at the start of their teacher education?
2. How, when and why do MFL PGCE student teachers' attitudes towards, beliefs about and perceptions of MFL teaching and learning change throughout the course?
3. Are there identifiable phases or stages in MFL student teachers' development?
4. How, when and why do MFL PGCE student teachers' perceptions of their own confidence in a range of teaching and personal competences change from application to the course to working as an NQT?

5. What themes and trends emerge, for example in the areas of subject knowledge and application, and student teachers' priorities?
6. How do student teachers' linguistic confidence, attitudes towards and beliefs about their subject develop throughout the course?

Overview of the chapters

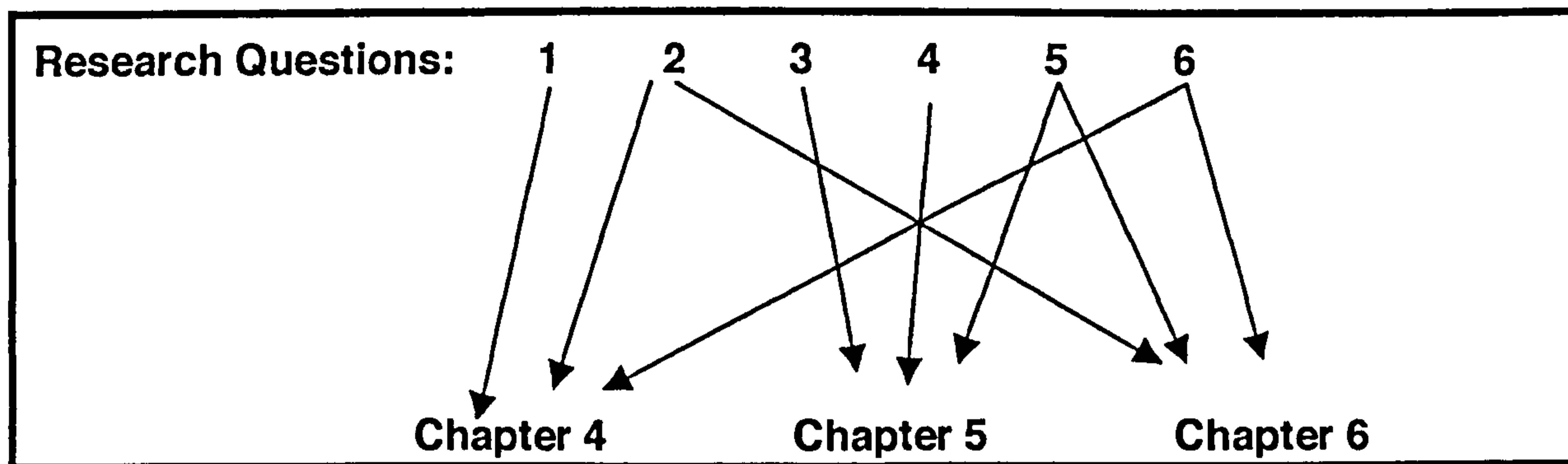
Chapter 1 reviews and synthesises the literature on pre-service teacher education and professional growth and the small number of studies specifically on MFL. It examines previous strands of the research and analyses the developments. It connects previous research to data from the current investigation, focussing on work on beliefs, concerns and theories on learning-to-teach.

Chapter 2 contextualises the study by providing an overview of developments and methodological approaches in MFL teaching and learning. The research is therefore situated in its subject specific context. Dominant methodological ideas and controversies are discussed, providing a summary of the community of practice into which students are placed. It is in this context where student teachers develop and test out their theories which inform their methodological landscape.

Chapter 3 presents the research methods, data collection and analysis employed in the study and justifies their selection from a range of educational research tools. The combination of qualitative and quantitative methods is discussed and analysed. It also considers ethical implications of the study and explains the use of both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis. The design of the data collection tools (the questionnaires and group discussions on video) is presented.

Outcomes of the research are presented and analysed in Chapters 4, 5 and 6, as illustrated in Figure (i).

Figure (i): Research question coverage



Chapter 4 presents the study's findings on the pre-existing beliefs of beginning MFL teachers and identifies their initial methodological ideas and their expectations of the learning-to-teach process. Their motivations to teach MFL are revealed to be primarily altruistic and subject-based. Their tentative methodological concepts display many aspects, both understood and misunderstood, of communicative language teaching (CLT).

Chapter 5 presents developmental trends and themes which emerge from the data analysed in the study. These include changes in attitudes and confidence, and the chapter charts student teachers' progress through their experience of the whole programme. It discusses how the beginning teachers in this study continue to conceptualise the process of learning-to-teach and the factors which appear to influence their development and decisions.

Chapter 6 investigates beginning teachers' conceptions of subject knowledge in MFL and tracks changes in their MFL methodological beliefs. It presents the methodological landscape student teachers compose and in which they locate themselves as they develop as teachers. The chapter also compares data resulting from males, females and native speakers. The methodological landscape is discussed in the light of the current community of practice.

A final short chapter discusses conclusions and implications emerging from the study and makes recommendations for further research. It argues that some of the study's findings have clear implications for those working with beginning teachers of MFL.

1.1: Introduction

The transition from student to teacher has been described as 'the most dramatic transition in learning to teach' (Morine-Dershimer, 1992:xiii). Student teachers¹ experience what is mostly a very steep learning curve (or even 'unlearning' curve; that is, they may abandon some frequently very strongly held preconceptions), especially at the start of the course (Evans, 1994). Although research has demonstrated the process is certainly not linear (Barnes, 1989:14), in PGCE courses it may from necessity be represented to students in a relatively straightforward, linear manner (Pachler and Field, 2001:19). This study enables the process to be viewed from the student teacher's perspective and to gain an insight into this 'dramatic transition' in their learning-to-teach and to analyse some of the factors involved in their experiences.

Researchers have been attempting to uncover teachers' thinking for many years (Lortie, 1975; Brown and McIntyre, 1993; Freeman, 2002) in order to elucidate the teaching and learning process. These attempts have been conducted in a number of ways, have assumed a range of standpoints and have employed a variety of research designs. Such approaches and perspectives include novice/expert comparisons, research into teacher socialisation, considerations of teachers' professional craft knowledge, investigations of teachers' levels of reflection, studies of putative stages of teacher development, and analyses of knowledge bases for teaching, particularly pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). The major reviews of the associated literature on these themes include Kagan (1992) and Wideen et al (1998) on learning-to-teach and Shavelson and Stern (1981), Clark and Peterson (1986) and Fang (1996) on teachers' thinking and beliefs. Evidence of many of these approaches and conceptualisations of the learning-to-teach process can be seen in the present study.

¹ The terminology for those learning-to-teach varies: for example, novices, trainee teachers (Grenfell, 1998), beginning teachers, student teachers, teacher candidates (Bennett and Carré, 1993), entering teacher candidates (Brookhart and Freeman, 1992).

It is generally agreed that research into teachers' thinking originated in the 1970s (Clark and Peterson, 1986; Wideen et al, 1998; Freeman, 2002). Lortie's 1975 work, *Schoolteacher: a sociological study*, is seen by most researchers in the field as groundbreaking, and Shavelson and Stern's (1981) review as showing the way to increased interest in teachers' thinking. The emphasis of the published work on the process has shifted in the last two decades towards teachers' *thinking* rather than *behaviours* (Barnes, 1989:14; Freeman, 2002). It is argued (Freeman, 2002:4) that prior to this, learning-to-teach focused on mastering content and methodologies in order to ensure learners mastered the content. Continued interest in teachers' thinking led, according to Freeman (2002:6) to the further reconceptualisation of learning-to-teach in the 1980s in the form of Shulman's (1987) concept of pedagogical content knowledge as well as Clandinin's (1985) proposal of teachers' images which emerged from this debate.

Elbaz (1991:1) divides the research field into three broad areas: 'teacher thinking, the culture of teaching, and the personal, practical knowledge of teachers', and Freeman (2002:1) delineates research into teachers' thinking into two broad areas, *teacher learning* and *teacher knowledge*, where the two are clearly interrelated. Freeman also asserts that despite a great deal of research into teachers' thinking and mental lives,

'... the political and social discourse about education in the media and among the general public continues to concentrate on the publicly accessible, behavioural aspects of teaching and to overlook the existence – let alone the critical importance – of teacher thinking and 'teachers' mental lives' in shaping effective teaching and learning'. (Freeman, 2002:2)

Research into how *beginning* teachers learn-to-teach is one element of this substantial body of literature investigating teachers' thinking and how this relates to their practice. Again, different researchers have approached the study of learning-to-teach in a variety of ways, reflecting a range of theoretical and methodological assumptions. Important to note at the onset of this discussion is that whilst the thematic nature of this chapter's structure indicates separate strands of research, many studies have combined one or more of the aspects discussed; the research is to a great extent interdependent and overlapping. For example, Marso and Pigge (1989) investigated *concerns* of *novice* and *experienced* teachers, and Furlong and Maynard (1995)

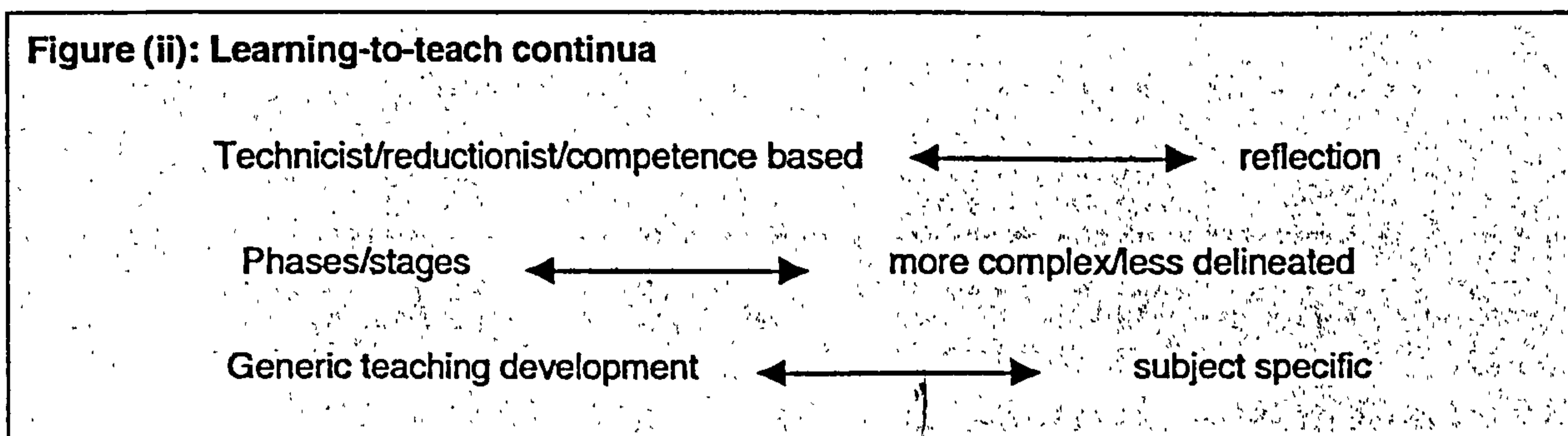
explored potential *stages* of development through a focus on teachers' *concerns*. One strand is informed by and informs the others; the same is true of this study.

Many researchers have acknowledged the challenging nature of investigating the tacit nature of this learning-to-teach process and of expressing the findings (Carter 1990:291; Elbaz, 1990:19-20; Calderhead and Shorrock, 1997:8). Teachers' thinking and the developmental process of learning-to-teach are complex issues; attempts to reveal and understand something so apparently intangible are also not straightforward. Freeman (2002:11) highlights the necessity of enabling the people involved (i.e. the teachers and student teachers) to articulate their understandings of the process and their experience. How to arrive successfully and reliably at this articulation is, however, not easy. What may be experienced at one point in the course of, say, a training programme, may differ significantly from an experience at a later date, in a different context and with the benefits of events, reflection and feedback between the two occasions. Any insight gained into teachers' thought processes at one point therefore provides only a partial picture. This study addresses these reservations by investigating student teachers' perceptions *longitudinally* at a number of points. Furthermore, I find myself in agreement with Klapper (2001:30) that in the case of learning-to-teach MFL, investigating the learning-to-teach process is particularly complicated, given the inherent complications of teaching a subject through the *medium* of the subject. What follows in this chapter is a synthesis of the aspects of this research impacting most significantly on the present study and its findings.

1.2: Models of and theories on learning-to-teach

There exists a great deal of literature on the development of beginning teachers in general (Britzman, 1991), although, as Bennett and Carré (1993:4) and Schulz (2000:516) highlight, little of it is empirically based and, in addition, as Kerry and Shelton-Mayes (1995:89) emphasise, few studies are from the student teacher perspective. A large body of recent work investigates teacher development, and whilst much of this research concentrates on beginning teachers, a great deal of it is concerned with primary (elementary) trainees (Bennett and Carré, 1993; Calderhead and Shorrock, 1997) rather than secondary prospective teachers, and most have relatively small numbers of respondents (as highlighted by Borko et al, 1992 and Brown and

McIntyre, 1993). Despite the researchers normally situating themselves in particular camps, most of the research carried out in this field tends to be located along the three continua illustrated in Figure (ii).



The debate around *professional growth* is generally regarded in the literature as a contrast to the competence-based model of learning-to-teach, which is seen as more technicist or reductionist. Fish (1995), for example, presents two extremes in approach to ITE: the *skills* approach and the *reflective* approach. Many studies, of course, would be situated at neither of these extremes, and most recent models of learning-to-teach acknowledge the complexity of the process and tend towards the more reflective, cognitive end of the spectrum rather than the technicist/reductionist from Figure (ii). This in some ways runs counter perhaps to the competence-based approach introduced to assess student teachers in recent years. Researchers also differ with regard to the extent to which they view learning-to-teach in phases or stages or as a more complex, less delineated process and to what extent they emphasise the subject specific nature of professional growth. There is general agreement, however, that beginning teachers progress from a more teacher-oriented perspective towards more learner-oriented development (Tann, 1994; Leat, 1995; Furlong, 1996; Wilson and Cameron, 1996), whether this is regarded as stage-based or not.

Carr (1992) discusses teaching as a *profession*, where teachers need more than skills and competences (see also Holly and McLoughlin, 1989). A range of work has been published in this debate; Hoyle and John (1995) discuss the nature of teaching as a profession, looking at models of professional knowledge and Wallace (1991:5) defines professionalism as including a basis of scientific knowledge. He divides professional knowledge into *received knowledge* (which, with

regard to language teaching, would include speaking the target language (TL) fluently and being familiar with grammatical terms, (Wallace, 1991:14) and *experiential knowledge* - derived from Schön's (1983) 'knowing-in-action' or reflection. Kagan, (1992:156) lists five different components of professional growth, including an increase in meta-cognition (teachers become more aware of what they know and believe about pupils and classrooms and how they are changing); the acquisition of knowledge about pupils; a shift in attention (from design of instruction to pupil learning); the development of standard procedures (they become increasingly automated); and a growth in problem solving skills.

1.3: MFL specific research on beginning teachers

Literature on prospective (and indeed practising) foreign language teachers' learning is acknowledged as sparse (Lange, 1990; Richards and Nunan, 1990:xi; Arva and Medgyes, 2000) and very little has been data based. Similarly, little attention has been paid to the development of MFL teachers in larger studies of beginning teachers of multiple subjects. Indeed, the majority of studies of beginning foreign language teachers, (such as Richards and Nunan, 1990; Woodward, 1991; Johnson, 1994; Richards and Lockhart, 1994) are concerned with the preparation of teachers of EFL, which, whilst clearly related to MFL, is set in a very different global context. Studies such as the one conducted by Olsen and Osborne (1991) have investigated beginning teachers of MFL, but have focussed on generic rather than subject specific development. In addition, a few studies of beginning teachers of a range of subjects incorporate one or more teacher of MFL, but this is rare (see, for example, Bowman, 1987; Bullough et al, 1991:56; Alexander et al, 1992) or as part of a wider investigation (Kyriacou and Lin, 1994).

Some notable exceptions have investigated beginning teachers of MFL, including Almarza (1996), Grenfell (1998), Roberts (1998), Caboraglu and Roberts (2000) and Jones (2000). These studies and others have all, however, investigated fewer students, often as few as five or six individuals, over a shorter time span than the present study. For example, Raymond (2000) looked at six, Velez-Rendon (2000) three, and Egea-Kuehne (1992) five pre-service MFL teachers from a North American context. Jones' study (2000) focussed on students on a PGCE/Maîtrise programme; Grenfell (1998) studied five female MFL student teachers on a PGCE

programme; and Roberts (1998) investigated the structure and content of an MFL PGCE programme as one example of a training course.

Some studies have had the development of student teachers' beliefs as their focus, such as that of Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000), who reported on a cohort of MFL student teachers in 1997-8, and Cabaroglu's study (1999), which looked at the development of beliefs of 25 MFL beginning teachers, via a naturalistic approach incorporating qualitative techniques. Other studies too have focused on methodological development, for example Gwyn-Paquette and Tochon (2002), who researched four L2 pre-service teachers, focussing on the adoption of a methodological approach at odds in some cases with the school-based context, and Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) researched ten practising L2 teachers' understanding of CLT in Australia. Halbach (2000) investigated beginning English teachers' developing views of language teaching in Spain and Hamilton (1995) looks briefly at the process of learning-to-teach MFL. Almarza (1996) followed four MFL PGCE student teachers in 1990-91 and analysed the development of their professional knowledge and their developing methodological conceptualisation. These students were provided with a specific 'method' in their programme. Whilst studies such as these contain a rich, full description of the student experience, the present study has a much wider focus by including whole cohorts.

Some of the MFL specific studies, however, are particularly relevant for the present investigation. Grenfell (1998) discusses the various models of learning-to-teach and links these with the CLT model presented in his PGCE course. He concludes (ibid:30) that the development of professional knowledge is both the process and the product of the interaction between the complex institutional structure encountered by the students and their own individual biographies. Block (2001) studied 13 foreign national native speakers on a PGCE MFL course, focussing on their feelings of national identity; an important element of the present study involves the perceptions of the native speaker student teachers.

In contrast to the relative lack of work exploring MFL student teacher growth, there has been a substantial number of well-known studies involving *primary* student teachers (Furlong and Maynard, 1995; Skamp and Mueller, 2001) or secondary student teachers of Maths, English or

Science (Grossman, 1991; Carré and Ernest, 1993; Jegede et al, 2000). Johnson, understandably, therefore, (1994:440) in her study of four pre-service ESL teachers, recommends research into those issues which are unique to L2 teachers and teaching and this can be extended to MFL; there are issues pertaining to the individual subject which have not emerged from the generic research. In addition, much of the research informing published work on student teachers, particularly in MFL, was conducted *before* partnerships between HEIs and schools were fully established (McNally et al, 1994; Grenfell, 1998). This has an impact on, for example, the role of the mentor and the process of professional growth based in the school environment, which were much more clearly understood at the time the research in the study presented here was conducted.

1.4: Beliefs and learning-to-teach

Investigating teachers' beliefs is seen by many researchers as essential in order to be able to investigate their classroom actions (Nespor, 1987; Brown, 1990:4; Richards and Lockhart, 1994:29; Williams, 1999:15). Wideen et al (1998), however, assert that any connection between beliefs and practice has yet to be adequately researched. Some studies (for example Fung and Chow, 2002) have found discrepancies between student teachers' *espoused* beliefs and their *practice*. As opposed to investigating teachers' thought processes when planning or whilst teaching, much of which is concerned with reflection-in-action or on-action, this study focuses on what Clark and Peterson (1986:258) categorise as teachers' theories and beliefs, which in turn then affect their planning and interactive thoughts and decisions. Teachers' classroom experiences and their reflections thereon may then of course in turn influence their implicit theories and beliefs.

The study presented here focuses on student teachers' *espoused* beliefs about teaching, about learning and about learning-to-teach MFL. It stems from a recognition that student teachers' beliefs are fundamental to and influential on their professional growth (Clark and Peterson, 1986:255; Roberts, 1998:2) and that consequently the development of any individual student teacher must be viewed from his or her starting point. The beliefs which each student teacher holds as they begin their course then act as a filter for any new input or experience (Clark and

Peterson, 1986; Zeichner et al, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Almarza, 1996; Joram and Gabriele, 1998; Wideen et al, 1998:145). Pajares (1992) even asserts that people go further than filtering information: they create explanations for new input to 'fit' their beliefs. Sato and Kleinsasser (1999:511) found this filter functioning in the L2 teaching context.

A large number of researchers have looked at the *beliefs* of beginning teachers and as Woods points out (1996:192) a plethora of terms has been employed in this field. It is not straightforward to discover common definitions or frameworks for terms and concepts used in such studies. Terms such as 'beliefs', 'implicit theories', 'images' or 'attitudes' have been criticised for being vague (Roberts, 1998:27) or incomplete (Johnson, 1994:440). Woods himself (1996) uses an acronym, BAK (Beliefs/Assumptions/Knowledge) to illustrate the connections involved. As beliefs depend more on evidence that is largely affective or subjective, evidence of beliefs is more disputable than knowledge (Grossman et al, 1989). This is confirmed by Pajares (1992), where he states that beliefs are based on evaluation and judgement, and knowledge on objective fact. Woods (1996:70) points out that beliefs pertain not only to the way things are, but also to the way things *should* be. The difficulty of studying these beliefs is acknowledged for example by Bird et al (1993). A crucial contribution to the understanding of the role and nature of teachers' beliefs was that of Pajares (1992), who considered them to be interrelated to all their other beliefs. Clark and Peterson (1986) differentiated between teachers' theories and beliefs about students and their implicit theories about teaching and learning. Skamp and Mueller (2001) refer to *conceptions* in their investigation of pre-service teachers' views on good teaching whilst Gauld (1987) defines 'beliefs' as *firmly held conceptions*, indicating that beliefs are more stable perhaps than conceptions. Zeichner et al (1987:32) used the term *perspectives*, which they regarded as specific to situations, unlike beliefs. In her investigation of pre-service teachers of ESL, Johnson (1994:439) uses a definition of beliefs from cognitive psychology, where beliefs are 'one's representation of reality that guide both thought and behaviour.' Caboraglu (1999) uses the terms 'beliefs' and 'personal theory' interchangeably and Rust (1994:206) defines beliefs as 'socially constructed representational systems that people use to interpret the world'. Harvey (1986:660) defines beliefs as a 'set of conceptual representations which signify to its holder a

reality or given state of affairs of sufficient validity, truth or trustworthiness to warrant reliance upon it as a guide to personal thought and action'.

Allport (1971:13) defines 'attitude' as '... a mental and neural state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related'. Kennedy and Kennedy (1996:355) use Ajzen's definition: 'Attitudes are an individual's affective and evaluative response to something, while beliefs are cognitive and reflect the knowledge or information we may have about something'. Haggarty (1995b:33) provides a useful distinction between beliefs and attitudes, where she explains that whilst student teachers may have the same beliefs, their attitudes may differ because of their confidence, for example.

Williams (1999:14) explains that Eraut makes the helpful distinction between *public and private theories*, where public theories are 'systems of ideas published in books, discussed in classes and accompanied by a critical literature that expands, interprets, and challenges their meaning and validity'. Private theories, however, are, according to Eraut, 'ideas in people's minds which they use to interpret or explain their experience'. Williams emphasises that the importance of looking at these personal theories give rise to practice (1999:15). This approach to ITE can be described as social constructivist (see also Roberts, 1998), where meanings are constructed by individuals in a social context (Klapper, 2001:21). This is particularly relevant in this study, where theories and beliefs about MFL teaching and learning are represented by the student teachers, the HEI, the teachers in school and the beginning teachers' peers. In the current study, student teachers' beliefs and attitudes are both understood as *conceptual representations* (Harvey, *ibid.*) and constituent parts of their private theories (Eraut, 1988), particularly with regard to methodology. It is primarily, however, the *perception* of these beliefs which is investigated in this study (via verbal statements, for example), and these beliefs are seen within the social context. Beliefs themselves cannot be observed or measured but must be inferred from what people say or what they do in practice. The implications of this are clearly important for the research design and are discussed in Chapter 3.

1.4.1: Stability and change in beliefs

Some researchers see *change* in beliefs and attitudes as a prerequisite for learning-to-teach and professional growth (Claxton, 1985:86; Kagan, 1992:141; Wideen et al 1996; Kennedy, 1999), yet many studies have found little change during teacher education programmes and indeed an almost rigid adherence to the ideas student teachers brought with them on arrival (Bullough et al, 1991:186; Calderhead and Robson, 1991:6; Kagan, 1992; Bennett and Carré, 1993:11; Virta, 2000; Edwards, 2001). This applies to beginning teachers' beliefs about subject matter as well as to beliefs about teaching and learning. Two particularly important elements in shaping prior beliefs and images (Kagan, 1992:154) are exemplary models of teachers and candidates' image of self-as-learner. These role models are then replaced in some ways by teachers encountered during initial training. The current study looks at the images of language and language teaching conveyed by the student teachers and confirms the influence of these on their learning-to-teach.

According to Pajares (1992:317), the explanation for the apparent resistance of beginning teachers to the incorporation of new beliefs may be that newly acquired beliefs are more vulnerable to rejection than well-established beliefs, formed early in life. He asserts further that changes in beliefs during adulthood are rare. This is therefore of crucial importance when attempting to introduce student teachers to methodological ideas which are in conflict, even if only partially, with their lived experience and therefore their beliefs. As indicated above, research also exists which suggests that student teachers filter any new information from the perspective of their prior beliefs and therefore *appear* not to change (Weinstein, 1990). Pajares (1992:323) goes further, and terms this phenomenon a 'self-serving bias'. The stability of these images may also be accounted for by the prospective teachers' conviction that teachers are 'born not made' (John, 1996:100), or that they seek confirmation of what they already believe is true (Zeichner et al, 1987).

As outlined previously, much research has indicated negligible change in beliefs during ITE programmes (Weinstein, 1990; Kagan, 1992; Dunne, 1993; Skamp and Mueller, 2001) and where change *is* detected, this is often at a superficial, technical level and seen as varying widely between individuals (Bramald et al, 1995). Pajares (1992) and Zeichner and Liston (1987)

maintain that pre-existing beliefs can undermine experiences on-course, and therefore explain the stability in the studies cited. Some studies (for example Hogben and Lawson, 1984; Joram and Gabriele, 1998), however, and as reported in research reviews (Nettle, 1998; Wideen et al, 1998) *do* report some change in student teachers' beliefs mostly in the case of particularly collaborative ITE programmes. Some researchers have, for example, found shifts towards a more learner-centred approach (Wray, 1993:72), detected changes in pre-service teachers' planning concept maps (Morine-Dershimer, 1993) or have discovered that more development took place when the beginning teachers had taken up full time posts (Rust, 1994). Grossman and Richert (1988) found that student teachers learnt different things from *course* work and *field* work (teaching placements).

Lack of change may not, however, be in itself negative, and much depends on how 'change' is defined (Cabaroglu and Roberts, 2000:389). Cabaroglu and Roberts (ibid.:392) found the majority of students' beliefs in their study changed, albeit in a minor way and idiosyncratically (Cabaroglu, 1999). As Dunne (1993:87) stresses, when beginning teachers already have beliefs which coincide with prevailing pedagogical ideas, then it is not *change* in belief which is sought, but an understanding and realisation in practice of those beliefs. Zeichner and Liston (1987:36) indicate that while the *beliefs* they investigated actually solidified, student teachers did develop in their *understanding* of the job and in their confidence. Nettle (1998) found evidence of both stability *and* change in student teachers' beliefs, depending on which aspect was investigated, a finding echoed in the present study. Woods (1996:293) also points out that a teacher cannot change a belief 'at will' since each belief is part of a complex network. In this study, for example, many beliefs of the beginning teachers are already partially coherent emergent themes of MFL teaching and learning.

As there is little consensus on whether student teachers' beliefs undergo any change during ITE, and if so, how, then ascertaining the impact or otherwise of ITE programmes is crucial. It is clear that school teachers have a strong influence on student teachers (Feiman-Nemser and Floden, 1986:520) and that the university's influence may even be 'washed-out' (Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1981). Whilst some research indicates that teacher education appears to have very

little impact upon teachers' professional knowledge and practice (Norwich, 1985:46; Grossman, 1991:345; Shkedi, 1996:83; Pepin, 2000), other studies have indicated pre-service programmes can and do influence student teachers' views (Leat et al, 1995). Still others have argued that it is the *hidden curriculum* of teacher preparation programmes that is the real influence (Denscombe, 1982; Zeichner et al, 1987:26; Ginsburg and Clift, 1990). Any lack of perceived impact could be connected with beginning teachers' preconceptions on *how* they will learn-to-teach, and *where*, factors which form part of this investigation.

1.4.2: Importance of pre-existing beliefs. The basis for investigating change

The experiences student teachers bring with them to pre-service courses vary immensely as do their reasons for choosing teaching (Reid and Caudwell, 1996). Becoming a teacher is seen by some researchers as an idiosyncratic process reflecting the differences in student teachers' biographies, personalities, and conceptions of teaching (Hogben and Lawson, 1984; Bullough et al, 1991:187). In MFL, it could be seen here as extremely important *how* pre-service teachers were taught themselves as to how they see the target language (TL), for example, whether they view language as primarily grammar-based and form-focused. Indeed some writers argue that pre-training beliefs and images are *more* influential in the making of a teacher than pre-service training itself or socialisation in the workplace (Zeichner et al, 1987:24-5), and Sugrue (1996:172) stresses the need to investigate students' teaching rationales rather than measure their abilities to apply ours, i.e. those of ITE institutions. It is widely acknowledged that the images and beliefs beginning teachers hold at the start of the process of learning-to-teach, whether positive or negative, shape their professional growth (Calderhead, 1988:54; Claxton, 1988; Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Mager, 1992; Day et al, 1993; Evans, 1994:61; Haggarty, 1995; Korthagen and Lagerwerf, 1998). These beliefs have been found to be strongly influential on student teachers' perceptions of teaching and learning, but can be very basic and not very helpful to their professional growth (Calderhead, 1991). Examining and working with these beliefs is fundamental to encouraging and recognising growth and change for both the beginning teachers and for their teacher educators.

Feiman-Nemser (1983:25) summarises the three most prevalent explanations for the influence of pre-training experiences. 1) 'evolutionary' theory, in which beginning teachers learn to be teachers throughout life; 2) 'psychoanalytic' explanation, in which they are trying to become like significant others in childhood; 3) 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975:61). She acknowledges, however, that there is little empirical, direct evidence for any of these explanations. The beliefs and images (Calderhead and Robson, 1991) with which student teachers enter their ITE programmes are developed throughout their lives prior to the course and comprise a variety of experiences including those spent as learner (Zeichner et al, 1987; Cole and Knowles, 1993:458; Guillaume and Rudney, 1993:66; Roberts, 1998:63). These images of teaching and learning, of 'good' and 'bad' teachers can serve as models of or frameworks for practice for the student teacher during their programme, and can inform their pedagogical perspective (Sikes, 1985:36; Calderhead and Robson, 1991:1; John, 1996:90; Williams, 1999:11). It is generally agreed in the literature that beginning teachers should be helped to uncover these pre-existing beliefs, wherever they originated (Calderhead, 1987:17; McIntyre, 1988; Kagan, 1992:140; Tann, 1993; Tillema, 1994; Bramald et al, 1995:23; Edwards, 2001:38). Such investigations can reveal, for example, beliefs, knowledge and preconceptions about teaching and learning, the subject to be taught, pupils and classrooms. According to Kagan's review of research (Kagan, 1992), for professional growth to occur, prior beliefs and images must be modified and reconstructed.

Student teachers need to examine these beliefs, and indeed perhaps some prejudices, because they are *insiders* (Pajares, 1992:323) in the world of education: they have years of experience as a learner, and years of (albeit subconscious) observation of teaching². Lortie's work (1975) where he attributed these beliefs to the 'apprenticeship of observation' (ibid:160), is cited by many authors as a justification of this. Wideen et al, however, rightly add the proviso (1998:166) that Lortie did not include any pre-service teachers in his study.

² In the case of MFL beginning teachers, a number will have already had some teaching experience, often EFL, prior to their ITE.

Despite Lortie's data collection dating from the 1960s and 70s (Lortie, 1975:ix), however, the principle of foregrounding student teachers' own learning experiences is still valid. If ITE is, as was proposed earlier, viewed from a social-constructivist perspective (Roberts, 1998:26), then understanding pre-existing beliefs is crucial when considering students' development as teachers. It accepts that student teachers bring diverse expectations and have a range of personal theories which will influence their acceptance of or readiness for the programme and the learning-to-teach experience. Each student is learning-to-teach against this background, and in a social context. In addition to their pre-course beliefs, student teachers enter ITE with expectations of how they will learn-to-teach. Calderhead (1991), summarises research suggesting four student teacher approaches to training: 1) those who expect to be told how to teach 2) those who believe that teaching skills 'grow out of oneself' 3) those for whom hands-on experience is central since learning is from experience 4) those who see teaching as unproblematical with nothing particular to learn. Each of these approaches is represented by at least some students in this study.

1.5: Student teachers' concerns

- A growing body of research traces beginning teachers' concerns and any shifts and developments that occur. Particularly important in this area is work using a classification devised by Fuller (1969) and subsequently developed by Fuller and Bown (1975). This classification, which Fuller and Bown regarded as a *sequential* development, comprises *self*, *task* and *impact* concerns. Teachers' concerns, therefore, according to Fuller and Bown, begin with concerns for the 'self', move on to concerns with the 'task' of teaching itself and organisational issues, and culminate in concerns with pupils and their learning - a simple sequence certainly attractive for its 'common-sense' appeal, and, as Fuller and Bown themselves emphasise, concerns about pupils are more conducive to good teaching than concerns about self. But to organise ITE to this sequence (for example adopting solely a technical, skills approach initially) would be reductionist, a similar argument to that made by Lanier and Little (1986:550).

These classifications, according to descriptions similar to those above, have been taken up subsequently by a number of researchers, many of whom contest the conceptualisation of learning-to-teach as sequential movement through phases and who have identified teachers' concerns as multi-faceted and organic rather than linear (Calderhead, 1987; Pigge and Marso, 1987; Guillaume and Rudney, 1993:74; Capel, 1998a; Burn et al, 2000). Capel (2001:248) describes 'self' concerns as pertaining to survival, control, being liked, understanding expectations, being observed and evaluated; 'task' concerns as routines, day to day tasks, time pressures, lack of resources; and 'impact' concerns as concern for and about the learning of pupils, as well as the social and emotional needs of pupils. Gregg (1995) found classroom management and discipline to be the primary concerns of beginner teachers, and indeed these 'survival' concerns are apparent in many studies (e.g. Sikes, 1985:31; Guillaume and Rudney, 1993; Hawkey, 1994:143; Brown et al, 1999). Despite some research appearing to confirm the sequential nature of these concerns (Reeves and Kazelkis, 1985), it is now generally agreed that concerns in all three categories are present throughout the process of learning-to-teach, but that the priority assigned to each fluctuates (Capel, 2001). It is certainly not the case that beginning teachers at the *start* of a programme have no conception of learners and their motivations; Burn et al (2000) found a high level of concern for pupil learning, i.e. for *impact* concerns at this point in their study of pre-service teachers of English, Maths and Science.

Pigge and Marso (1987:38) found there were changes in teachers' concerns as they developed and that to some extent the changes appeared related to gender and subject. Other authors have investigated concerns and analysed responses to identify a number of categories beyond those derived from Fuller and Bown (1975). Kyriacou and Stephens (1999) investigated student teachers' concerns during teaching placements, although through a generic rather than subject specific lens. They highlighted nine main areas of concern and three main categories of accomplishment. In the current study, the organic, complex development of student teachers' concerns is confirmed.

1.6: Reflection

'Impact' issues where student teachers express concerns about pupils' learning and progression, can be seen as evidence of a degree of reflection. *Reflection* has been researched and discussed intensively in the last two decades; the research on reflection and the reflective practitioner is certainly substantial. Wallace (1991), investigating the preparation of teachers of EFL, discusses three models of acquiring professionalism: the craft model (akin to an apprenticeship, 'learning-on-the-job'); the applied science model (putting presented 'theory' into 'practice'); and the reflective model. This third model, that of the reflective practitioner, derived primarily from Schön (1983), achieved widespread popularity in ITE in the 1980s and throughout the 1990s (Furlong et al, 2000).

Reflection has been graded by some researchers into various levels, for example, Gore and Zeichner (1991:122) reiterate Van Manen's three domains of reflection, viz. technical reflection, practical reflection and critical reflection. Some advocates of reflective practice, such as Zeichner (1993, 1995), go as far as to state that reflection (even at the pre-service stage) should be at a *critical*, that is social and political, level in a social reconstructionist tradition (Gore and Zeichner, 1991:121). The literature on reflective practice is vast and the theme of the 'reflective practitioner' and the processes necessary to develop in the above manner, has, in recent years, dominated much discussion on beginning teachers' progress towards becoming competent professionals (Korthagen, 1988; Ruddock, 1991; Calderhead, 1992; Harrington, 1992; Russell and Munby, 1992; Calderhead and Gates, 1993; Harrington and Hathaway, 1994; Bramald et al, 1995; Bright, 1995; Hatton and Smith, 1995; De Jong et al, 1998). Some studies indicate that student teachers do not display much evidence of reflection (e.g. Calderhead, 1987, 1988), whilst others suggest that a considerable degree of reflection about teaching and learning is manifested (e.g. Guillaume and Rudney, 1993:76). Although a degree of reflection has been detected in some studies (for example, Grenfell, 1998:112) and despite assertions from authors such as Gore and Zeichner (1991:124), it is arguable whether the status of *fully* reflective practitioner can be attained during a pre-service course and is now generally accepted as an impossibility or at least as an improbability (see, for example, Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992; Calderhead and Gates, 1993:9;

Russell, 1993; Grenfell, 1998:15). This is not to say reflection is not to be encouraged - quite the contrary - but that expecting student teachers to be able to reflect on their practice effectively during teaching placements and to achieve this in the critical domain is unrealistic (Grenfell, 1998:17).

Despite their prevalence in the literature and the claims of teacher educators that they are preparing reflective practitioners (Gore and Zeichner, 1991:120), the central terms *reflective practice* and the *reflective practitioner* are seldom defined effectively (as discussed by Gore and Zeichner, 1991:120; Barnes, 1998; Roberts, 1998:54). Schemata developed by Korthagen and Wubbels (1995) and Hatton and Smith (1995) go some way to providing categories according to which reflection can be defined, but the danger still exists that the *process* of reflection alone is considered sufficient without the content or outcomes of that reflection being relevant. This study considers *reflection* from the perspective of students' impact concerns and their comments, but does not investigate *degrees* of reflection.

1.7: Stages of teacher development

Closely related to considerations of student teachers' concerns and whether they occur sequentially is the work on stage theories of learning-to-teach. Wideen et al (1996) explain that these stage theories developed in the 1970s and 80s, again following on from Fuller and Bowns' (1975) work. Various sequences of stages and phases have been proposed, with correspondingly varying designations. For example, Norwich (1985:42), expanding on Lacey's stages (1977), identifies four phases of the training period including the *honeymoon period*, during which students are optimistic about overcoming their difficulties; a phase of searching for materials and ways of teaching to attempt to compensate for a lack of classroom control and teaching ability by elaborate preparation; crisis stage – a feeling of not being in control and not getting through to children, blaming the system or children in order to cope; and learning to get by or possibly failing. Furlong (1996) describes the various *stages* of student teacher development as early idealism; survival; recognising difficulties; hitting the plateau; and finally moving on. He argues that after *hitting the plateau*, student teachers need to *decentre* before *moving on*, i.e.

they need to begin to address pupils' learning rather than their own performance and in terms of concerns, move from the self to the impact arena. Calderhead (1987) also identifies three phases: fitting in; passing the test (towards middle of placement); exploring (albeit in a shallow manner).

There is a trend, then, expressed in some of the literature encompassing both *concerns* and *stages* investigations, which denotes students moving from needing *tips* and *survival technique* (Leat, 1995:171) to be more *pedagogically* orientated, where they are concerned with giving pupils learning experiences, and later still they become more *professionally* orientated where they move beyond the specific (Tann, 1994). This follows on, then, from Fuller and Bown's (1975) stages, moving from identification with pupils and 'fantasising' about being the teacher, to concerns about survival in the classroom, to concerns about their own teaching performance and the frustrations of teaching, to concerns about the learning, social and emotional needs of the pupils and their own ability to relate to pupils as individuals. These are, then, stages to match the categories of concerns *self*, *task* and *impact*, with a stage corresponding to beginning teachers' initial beliefs, their teaching 'fantasy'. There is evidence in the research which appears to confirm the existence of stages such as those described here (Sikes, 1985; Ruddock, 1991; Leat, 1995; Furlong, 1996; Wilson and Cameron, 1996) and Oja (1989) connects the literature on ages and stages of adult development with teacher professional growth. Indeed, Keithwood (1992:87) uses the research on stage theories to act as guidelines for school staff when working with beginning teachers. Some authors argue the case for stages, declaring that the highest levels would only be reached after several years of teaching (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992:7). The same authors stress the importance of a positive, supportive context in order for any development to occur. These stages, if they exist, are certainly not inevitable.

Other, in some cases more recent, research, however, tends to argue that learning-to-teach is more complex and less linear than some stage theory might suggest (Calderhead and Shorrock, 1997:186), and even Kagan (1992:160) stresses that the stages cannot be pure or invariant. Huberman (1993:17), for example, argues that stages or phases firstly cannot be in any way age related, and secondly that stages cannot be predetermined. Guillaume and Rudney (1993)

identify six broad categories of concern (lesson planning and evaluation; discipline; working with pupils; working with co-operating teachers and adjusting to their classrooms; working with others in the profession; transition from student to professional teacher) but stress that the *nature* of these concerns shifts as students begin to take more responsibility and move towards independence. It is noticeable, however, that *subject knowledge*, crucial of course for MFL teaching, is absent from Guillaume and Rudney's list. Grossman and Richert (1988:55) in contrast, emphasise the importance of subject knowledge issues from the start of beginning teachers' work, a finding which has resonance in this study. With other researchers (Oppewal, 1993; Pendry, 1997; Roberts, 1998:72), I favour the idea of a multi-layered continuum rather than stages, and certainly not a predictable or uniform development. Furlong and Maynard (1995) despite their identification of five broad stages, also assert that development is far from linear. It is worth considering whether the range of stage theories which have been posited indicate merely that replicating a particular stage model exactly is very difficult, and, whilst there may be an underlying thread in beginning teacher development, searching for discrete, universally experienced stages may be futile. The present study contributes to this debate in the research by demonstrating that learning-to-teach does not proceed along sequential stages but rather involves a more complex process of layers of development, where many concepts already in place grow and develop during training, thus confirming research by Roberts (1998).

1.8: Novice/expert research

Related to stage theories are studies comparing novice and expert teachers, where teachers develop from 'novices' to 'experts' and pass through various stages. Schempp et al, for example, (1998) cite Berliner's (1986) five stage theory of expertise development: novice; advanced beginner; competent; proficient; expert. Some researchers have worked in this way to investigate teachers' professional development, aiming at determining more certainly professional knowledge and thinking (Berliner, 1987; Carter et al, 1987; Russell, 1988; Tochon and Munby, 1993; Schempp et al, 1998; Jegede et al, 2000). This is entirely logical, as experienced teachers' craft knowledge should be a reservoir of help available to student teachers (Brown and McIntyre, 1993), if it were more accessible and could easily be expressed. Teachers' thinking is described

by Zeichner et al (1987), and by Calderhead (1987), as being a complex interaction between thought and action, and very difficult to articulate. This expert craft knowledge is, then, very different from the 'craft/apprenticeship model', which Hirst (1996) presents as *reductionist* and Grenfell (1998) and others see as *technicist*. Calderhead and Shorrocks (1997:5) draw a distinction between 'knowing that and how' and 'knowing why and when' and argue the latter are also necessary in learning-to-teach rather than only the former, more reductionist approach. Teaching for them is more complicated than just subject knowledge or the development of skills. Berliner cautions that, of course, *experience* is not a synonym for *expertise* (Berliner, 1987:60) and Zeichner et al (1987) explain that there is a substantial amount of disagreement about the nature of teachers' craft knowledge.

A variety of findings has emerged, including differences in novices' and experts' perception of time (Tochon and Munby, 1993), their representation of teaching and learning problems (Borko et al, 1992:49), and their differing needs for specific information on pupils (Carter et al, 1987:149). This is not, however, an approach adopted in the study presented here, with its focus exclusively on novice teachers, but data from this study can help illuminate the experience of beginning teachers and their needs. Many of the concerns of the beginning teachers in this study are resonant of the contrasting needs of novices and experts.

1.9: Subject knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge

An important strand of research since the mid 1980s has focussed on the knowledge bases required for teaching (Shulman, 1986). Wilson et al (1987) label subject matter knowledge³ as the missing paradigm in educational research and others stress the need to incorporate this aspect fully into teacher education programmes (Grossman et al, 1989:23). In earlier research, Lacey (1977:61) found differences between subjects in teaching attitudes and cites French as an example; indeed, he labels them 'subject sub-cultures'.

³ Terms for subject knowledge also vary, e.g. *content knowledge* (Grossman and Richert, 1988:54; Jegede et al, 2000:287), *subject matter knowledge* (Tamir, 1988), *conceptual knowledge* (Eraut, 1988:197).

In Kagan's (1992) survey of studies into the professional growth of novice teachers, the focus is primarily *generic* knowledge and growth, with an emphasis on *procedural* knowledge for the classroom. Grossman (1992) points out that Kagan's survey omits much subject specific work and argues strongly for the subject element to be foregrounded in studies of learning-to-teach. She asserts (ibid:176) that if we wish student teachers to ask worthwhile questions of their teaching, then subject matter needs to be a focus. Some researchers argue that beginning teachers' beliefs about subject matter can powerfully affect their teaching; their beliefs about content can affect how they teach it (Grossman et al, 1989:31; Carter, 1992:111) and that these beliefs about subject matter are as powerful and influential as their beliefs about teaching and learning (Grossman et al 1989:32). Teaching is seen by some to depend considerably on the teacher's subject understanding of what it is that students are supposed to learn (Ball and McDiarmid, 1990:437).

Yet, as Floden et al (1996:228) argue, subject matter knowledge alone - even broadly defined - is an insufficient basis for teaching. Shulman (1987) and others (Ball and McDiarmid, 1990:438) argue that teachers must have not only knowledge in terms of subject content but also knowledge of ways of presenting that content which will lead to pupil learning (McDiarmid et al, 1989:194). Shulman labels this latter aspect *pedagogical content knowledge*. This dual aspect of teaching has been given various labels. John (1996) and Darling-Hammond (1999) discuss the development of PCK in subject seminars and Moore (1994:29) argues that 'subject expertise and expertise in the education process should be seen as equally necessary, complementary dimensions.' PCK is much more than 'knowing' the subject in order to be able to 'tell' learners about it (McDiarmid et al, 1989:198; Grossman et al, 1989:24): it is understanding the subject matter sufficiently to be able to represent it effectively. Student teachers' conceptions of learning-to-teach may consist at the beginning of somewhat vague notions of 'making the subject fun' (McDiarmid et al, 1989:193), but without the development of a pedagogically sound understanding of their subject matter, this is unlikely to be effective.

Few studies have been conducted into subject knowledge (SK) and PCK in MFL, although a considerable amount of research exists into other subjects such as Maths, (McDiarmid et al,

1989), Science (Jegede et al, 2000:287) and English (Carter, 1990:305). What is clear is that beginning teachers need to restructure their own content knowledge in order to teach it effectively (Carter, 1992:120), and this manifestly has to be approached from a *subject* rather than *generic* perspective (McDiarmid et al, 1989:195). As acknowledged by McDiarmid et al (1989:196), 'ready-made repertoires' for every conceivable context cannot be provided by ITE courses for beginning teachers. They need to develop the knowledge and ability themselves to be able to select and judge appropriate representations for their subject. 'Knowing' the content knowledge itself is therefore a prerequisite for developing the ability to transform the SK appropriately. Confidence and competence in the subject matter are essential. A concern in some research of this type is whether this SK can be assumed as ITE commences (McDiarmid et al, 1989:199), or if the ITE needs to expand or indeed supply this to some extent. This is particularly true in the present study of competence and confidence in student teachers' second foreign language (FL2). Student teachers in this study value their subject and the love of their subject highly and they develop PCK in a variety of ways, many of which are influenced by their prior experiences and the MFL community in which they are located.

1.10: Socialisation and encounters with dissonance

The MFL teaching and learning community provides the arena for socialisation in this study. Wider than its usual narrower definition, (Zeichner and Gore, 1990:343) teacher socialisation research has been defined as investigation into the transmission of teacher beliefs, knowledge, attitudes and values (Feiman-Nemser and Floden, 1986:520). Links are clearly made, then, between many strands of the research field. In his 1977 study of PGCE students in a variety of subjects, Lacey discussed the extent to which students grow towards or against the target pedagogic culture; the degree of *socialisation*. He preferred this term to 'learning-to-teach' (Lacey, 1977:13). Interestingly, despite Lacey's study being conducted in the early 1970s, the course context, innovative for that period, shares many similarities with the current partnership structure.

More recent research has also found elements of socialisation contributing to learning-to-teach: McNally et al (1994) found for example that the 22 pre-service teachers of their study regarded

fitting in as a crucial element of their professional growth. Socialisation studies tend to have as their outcomes stages or phases of development, thus again demonstrating the overlapping nature of this field of research. Denscombe (1982) explains the distinction between the formal and the hidden pedagogy; the latter has its roots firmly in classroom experience, where the socialisation into teaching occurs. It is what Cullingford (1994) refers to as the 'Catch 22' of teacher education: to be effective, teachers need to know a great deal before they enter the classroom, but the input and theory only makes sense once they have been in the classroom. Florio-Ruane (1989:169) points out that learning-to-teach requires the beginning teacher to make the familiar (i.e. the classroom environment) strange (i.e. see it from a teaching/learning perspective). This involves both new knowledge and reflection on the experience they have already gained. Kennedy and Kennedy (1996:356) present perceived behavioural control as an influence also on espoused beliefs – i.e. beginning teachers are concerned to 'say the right thing' to increase their chances of passing the course. Furthermore, Hogben and Lawson (1984) found change in attitudes of the beginning teachers they studied was influenced by the school context and how far the new teachers were accepted.

Dart and Drake (1993) stress the possibly conservative nature of school-based training and Downes (1996) emphasises the desired balance between HEI and schools, and points out that schools' main responsibility is to teach pupils, therefore implying that the methodological debate is not best dealt with in that location. Grenfell (1998:21-2) asserts that student teachers require experience of a range of types of theory in order to reflect and analyse and develop as a teacher, in both HEI and school. He (1998:132) sees the process of training as a period of heightened sense of problematisation, during which this analysis can take place. Tochon and Munby (1993:215) describe a possible confrontation between *didactics* and *pedagogy*, where they regard didactics (the novice perspective) as a reduction of pedagogy (the expert perspective). They assert that this confrontation is especially evident *after* teacher training when instructional theories and their resulting designs reveal themselves to be apparently inapplicable in practice, i.e. when a degree of socialisation has occurred. This is a source of possible methodological or pedagogical dissonance and I would add at this point that this does not solely apply to when a gap is perceived between 'theory' and 'practice', but when student teachers encounter

methodological difficulties and contradictions within the school department. Gebhard et al (1990:16) assert that this situation can lead to resentment when student teachers are expected to follow a prescription. They emphasise that prescriptive approaches take the responsibility for decision-making away from the student teacher and Lacey (1977) points out that beginning teachers may adopt *strategic compliance*, where their *beliefs* are not changed, but their *behaviour* is. Richardson (1990) found that beginning teachers tend to follow the norms of the school context in which they are placed and as Feiman-Nemser and Floden (1986:521) point out, the judgement on this socialisation process depends on how the 'norms' are viewed, i.e. positively or negatively. If the school context is viewed as a role model, then *socialisation* is surely more desirable.

1.11: Conclusion

The strands of research and debate presented in this chapter all have relevance in the present study. Its findings correspond to some of the themes uncovered by researchers cited here; but the findings in this study see these themes from an MFL perspective. They illustrate the experiences of MFL student teachers learning-to-teach, and their attitudes and knowledge growth. Freeman (1994) and Korthagen and Lagerwerf (1998) question the assumed 'transfer' of knowledge from the training institution into the classroom context. Particularly appealing is the assertion from Griffiths and Tann (1992:76) that the theory/practice divide is perhaps more accurately expressed as a divide between public and personal theories. Pachler and Field (2001:17) state that the necessity of theory is widely accepted, but that its exact nature remains a question for considerable debate. The next chapter in this study explores the methodological arena the MFL student teachers enter in the process of learning-to-teach, and the potential controversies they may find when attempting to synthesise their own experience, the presented theories and the school experience.

Chapter 2: Teaching and learning-to-teach modern foreign languages. The contemporary context and the legacy from the past

'Modern Languages is a complex discipline and nowhere is the complexity more evident than in the varied backgrounds and training needs of foreign language teachers.' (Klapper 2001:2)

'... the complexity of the task of language learning, and therefore of teaching, has become more and more apparent. That complexity has been met with the ingenuity of learners and teachers to devise methods, to create environments, to understand the processes, to simplify and systematise, to find appropriate institutions, all of which is multiplied by the number of traditions which have developed at different times and in different places more or less independently of each other. For those who are professionally engaged in language teaching [...] the field has become so complex that it is difficult to know.' (Byram 2000:xiii)

2.1: Introduction

This chapter presents the professional discourse in MFL teaching and learning during the focus period of this study and the approaches generally encountered in ITE MFL programmes.¹ It is in this context that the emerging methodological concepts of the student teachers must be seen. Those methodological issues which provoke the most controversy and confusion in the MFL community and are therefore potentially the most problematic for beginning teachers are outlined; where these student teachers may desire clear, unambiguous advice and guidelines, they may encounter mixed messages. The issues discussed in this chapter enable the emergent methodological landscape of the beginning teachers to be viewed more clearly. As Grenfell found, (1998:144) student teachers' reflections on methodology are crucial in their development as teachers. This chapter seeks to elucidate some of the generally held characteristics of good MFL teaching, and the corresponding misinterpretations, and therefore underpins the analysis of the views expressed by the research respondents. Any discussion of student teachers' development in this study must be seen against this background.

¹ For an overview of the development of MFL teaching and learning prior to the period discussed in this chapter, and for a context setting, see Moys, 1996

Elements from the professional debates and the pedagogical context are presented in this chapter; elements that are subsequently accepted, rejected or found difficult by the students involved in this study. This chapter situates FLT and learning and the accompanying theoretical foundations in the professional context student teachers encounter as they undergo their process of development². It provides the background to the study as a whole; namely the MFL *community* of the late 1990s and the turn of the century. It explores some general trends and movements within FLT in the UK and the potential impact on student teachers as they attempt to establish their own teaching and learning rationale. The language teaching and learning context in which they undertake their teaching placements provides the ground, fertile or otherwise, in which they can begin their professional growth.

2.2: MFL communities of practice

Fletcher and Calvert (1994) see the HEI as providing the methodological model of good practice, but as both Jones (1999) and Macrory (1999) argue, professional discourse must be mutually comprehensible for student teachers, school staff and HEI tutors. Aspects cited by Jones as crucial include terminology involved in the learning and teaching of the FL. For this discourse to be successful, it includes of course not only *knowing* the terminology, but *understanding* the shared meanings; these meanings are particularly problematic where the practitioners are also unsure. This constitutes part of what Denscombe (1982) termed 'hidden pedagogy', i.e. fitting in with the context, and which may be found in the methodological beliefs and manifestations in the school context. MFL student teachers learn-to-teach in the prevailing MFL context. Of course it is not only in MFL that debates and controversies exist; Pendry (1990) explores the dilemmas involved in the teaching of history, Haggarty (1995b) and Andrews and Hatch (1997) explore varying perceptions in the teaching of maths and Skamp and Mueller (2001:332) compare pre-service primary science teachers' conceptions of good science teaching with those generally

² It is important to note at this point that very few works cited in this chapter are based on *empirical* research; the MFL methodological folklore therefore emerges to a large extent from a range of views, traditions and speculations as outlined in this chapter.

agreed by the profession. But each subject has its own specific areas which provoke argument which are therefore of particular importance for those beginning their teaching careers.

2.3: MFL student teachers' developing methodological landscape

The definition of methodological landscape used in this study involves the beliefs and attitudes towards teaching and learning MFL which beginning teachers begin to establish during their training and continue to develop throughout their teaching career. It is the methodological landscape against which they make judgements with regard to the selection and sequencing of specific linguistic objectives, make choices of suitable activities to improve learning, and includes their understanding of the language learning process itself, as well as their analysis of how to increase motivation and the many other decisions teachers make daily. This landscape also informs their longer term teaching and learning philosophy. The student teachers' beliefs about language teaching and learning inform their theory (Brown, 1990:86) and build their methodological landscape.

This methodological landscape can become distorted or confusing when student teachers are faced with an apparently disjointed or contradictory MFL community in the school; when they encounter points of tension between their growing landscape and the avowed beliefs of or the approach demonstrated by their school-based colleagues. This is certainly not to say student teachers are provided with a definitive, ready-made and prescriptive methodological landscape from the course; rather they are given some principles and then opportunities to develop their own thinking. The dominant approach of ITE MFL in the UK, and indeed Europe in general, is essentially based on communicative language teaching (CLT) (Kelly et al, 2002:435). Grenfell (1998:38) describes this communicative approach as the subject approach through which individuals build up their craft knowledge. He (ibid.:178) provides two basic approaches to teacher training, where the process of teaching is acknowledged as problematic and student teachers and trainers work on this together; or a basic method is given for trainees to operationalise in their practice.

Whereas Grenfell claims the latter approach, in the study presented here, the former describes more accurately the approach adopted. The approach in the two HEIs whose student teachers are under scrutiny in this study was broadly CLT-based during the period of the investigation, but also endowed each individual student teacher with the responsibility of developing her own landscape to suit herself and the context. Both courses involved the students in questioning CLT concepts and interpretations; CLT is not presented in either course as a panacea. Whereas CLT and associated approaches are discussed in detail, and principles emphasised, at no point in there any prescription of methodology.

2.3.1: Method, methodology and approach in MFL

Balboni (2001:109) describes research into language teaching methodology as an 'academic Cinderella'. It is generally agreed that there is a lack of any agreed methodology in MFL (Brown, 1990:85; Whitehead, 1996; Byram, 2000:xiv; King, 2003) and Decoo (2001) explains that the constant changes in MFL methods reveal how complex the process of language learning actually is. Klapper (2001:15) emphasises the distinctive nature of second and foreign language teaching pedagogy, but concludes that there is no teaching method or approach which can be described as 'the best'.

In the years preceding the spread of CLT, that is, an *approach*, it had been the norm to use a *method* in FLT. A method incorporates a more prescriptive format, where the role of the teacher and the learner and activities adopted are clearly delineated (Klippel, 2000; Richards and Rodgers, 2001:245). Decoo (2001) defines method as 'a teaching-learning model that emphasises a core concept as the key solution to successful language learning'. He goes on to explain that 'methodology' is sometimes used to indicate a 'grouping of similar methods.' He gives as an example the communicative approach, which he describes as 'a conglomerate of various specific methods'. Since it is an *approach*, with no rigid framework against which activities and lessons can be judged, it is perhaps more open to misinterpretation or partial understanding than a method, and poses thereby a complex challenge for beginning teachers as they search for guidelines.

2.4: School experience and socialisation

When engaged in their work in schools, student teachers enter a context with which they must familiarise themselves quickly and learn from in an intensive manner (Pepin, 2000). This is true no matter how detailed their reading and informal research, no matter how conscientious their participation in University-based work or how keen their observation during visits and brief periods spent in a school. They must also, on the whole, *fit in* to the accepted ethos of the school, the MFL department and, often, the different teachers' styles, approaches and predilections. Whilst the National Curriculum (NC) may have provided more of a regulated structure, its interpretation and implementation vary immensely. Students may encounter a fairly rigid, prescriptive approach (Kyriacou and Lin, 1994:167), or one where the recommended approach on paper differs greatly from the reality they discover in classrooms.

In entering the sometimes labyrinthine 'theories' and, indeed, 'pseudo-theories', underpinning FLT in the 1990s, student teachers encounter what Bruner (1999:17) calls *folk theories* on a subject specific level. These tensions may perhaps be beneficial with regard to their individual professional growth, provided student teachers have the confidence and tools to reflect productively, but they can also be confusing and even lead to disillusionment. Departments and individual teachers inevitably represent a range of responses to what might be termed 'methodology bandwagons'. The aim of this chapter is not to investigate the causes or uncover the reasons for these misunderstandings; rather to highlight the main issues and to expose those areas of the prevailing pedagogy which student teachers tend to experience doubt and conflict. Schools are chosen for student teachers' placements which can provide as supportive an environment as possible, and within those schools, classes where the student teacher can gain the pedagogical experience they need. The range of schools in which student teachers are placed is wide. Differences in factors such as facilities, location, examination results, reputation, and structure are inevitable. The way student teachers are regarded in the school context and the 'folklore' which prevails about 'what it is to be a student MFL teacher today' also vary. The range of student teachers' backgrounds and the diversity of school experience during their course guarantee a number of potential beliefs and attitudes towards language and its teaching are

represented in any group of beginning teachers; this is inevitably also true of the school staff with whom they work. Yet for 'linguists to become language teachers' (Macrory, 1999), they must learn the appropriate professional discourse and work in the community of practice.

It must also be remembered that student teachers are entering a community where questions of methodological approach are often not the highest priority and may not be frequently discussed. This is true both of subject specific aspects as well as more general school and educational issues. One only has to follow the debates conducted via the Lingu@net email forum³ to sample the challenges facing MFL teachers and the pressured existence many of them face. This forum, which could be regarded as to some extent representative of the community of practice, is generally a positive, constructive arena for language teachers to share ideas and air concerns, but topics mentioned for example in a particularly vigorous debate in December 2000 included the following:

- teaching time reduction for Key Stage 4 (KS4) classes from the early 90s;
- reduction in numbers of Foreign Language Assistants (FLA) in schools;
- perceived deterioration in pupil attitudes/behaviour in recent years;
- low morale of the teaching profession and a sense of being expected to solve all society's 'problems';
- performance management/targets;
- Ofsted and legislative expectations;
- changes in post-16 subject specifications and the accompanying lack of text books;
- pupil 'exclusion' or lack thereof;
- unacceptable school physical environment;
- the apparently ever increasing burden of paperwork/administration.

Many of these themes also emerge in this study as preoccupations of students.

2.5: Prevailing methodological beliefs: the communicative approach

The claimed dominant methodological approach of the last twenty to thirty years in the teaching of MFL in the UK has been that of the communicative approach (Hawkins, 1996; Pachler and

³ Archives of the discussions can be found at <http://www.mailbase.ac.uk/lists/linguanet-forum/>

Field, 1997:4; Grenfell, 2000a:3). Decoo (2001) points to the communicative approach having emerged from 'bubbling, diverse, and often ill-defined tendencies' in the 1970s. Indeed, as Grenfell asserts (2000b:23) the advent of the GCSE in the wake of the spread of CLT in the mid 80s was 'the single biggest shift in modern languages teaching and learning since the audio-lingual revolution'. MFL teaching, continues Grenfell, was on a 'communicative high'.

Whenever reference is made to FLT, now as in recent years, one tends to encounter the concept of 'the communicative approach'. It represents what is widely perceived as 'good practice'. The great majority of teachers would nowadays still claim, albeit to a greater or lesser extent, (Kelly et al, 2002) that they subscribe to this approach. It also coincides closely with the findings of language acquisition research (Swarbrick, 1994). After all, what is the aim of language teaching, if not successful communication, the imparting and receiving of information? Richards and Rodgers (2001:viii) endow the communicative approach with the status of methodological orthodoxy and Whitehead (1996) describes it as 'broadly accepted'. King (2003), however, acknowledges that most 'mainstream' teachers will actually follow more eclectic practices. Sato and Kleinsasser (1999:501), furthermore, found that although the teachers they studied *claimed* to follow a broadly CLT approach, they were able only to provide fragmentary, and varied, explanations of what that entailed. Despite CLT being the officially endorsed approach, they found it played a minor part, if any, in their subjects' repertoire (ibid:512). In a UK context, Block (2002:23) found similar partial understanding, or even a perversion, of the official discourse of CLT amongst MFL teachers, a view endorsed by Klapper (2003:33). Appel (1995:xv) regards teachers as resistant to methodological change, and that what changes in reality is the *terminology* rather than the practice. They may, for example, claim to practise CLT, but in reality adopt their own 'best-fit' approach.

The communicative approach, summarised below by the Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research (CILT, 1989) and more recently reassessed by King (2003), is also

embodied in the recent important work from the Council for Cultural Co-operation Education Committee (2001). In Figure (iii) I have rephrased, expanded and adapted the original for clarity⁴:

Figure (iii): Characteristics of the communicative approach

1. Intention to mean. *Questions are asked and answered with an aim in mind, rather than just to practise a structure.*
2. Information gap. *One party has information which the other one does not. A fundamental activity in modern classrooms, in pair or group work. These activities create a pseudo 'need' for the language task, approximating L1 acquisition.*
3. Personalisation. *Learners are encouraged to talk about themselves, their families, friends and interests.*
4. Unpredictability. *Dealing with unexpected situations.*
5. Legitimacy of tasks and activities. *Genuine tasks have a greater motivational force.*
6. Status of foreign language in classroom. *TL used as means of instruction and communication. Use of learners as interpreters, visual and physical back-up and selected language (not merely a torrent of language).*
7. Approach to error. *Emphasis on positive rather than negative penalisation - fluency not impeded by over-concentration on accuracy.*
8. Authenticity of language. *Real materials, exposure to TL culture.*
9. Distinction between spoken and written language. *The two reflect separate registers.*
10. Practice versus real language. *Evolution of natural, authentic language in meaningful contexts.*

In addition, this approach presupposes active learner involvement and a learner-centred outlook. Learning by doing, that is to say an active and interactive approach, is expected. Here is not the place to trace the origins and history of the approach (see, for example, Swarbrick, 1994; Hawkins, 1996; Whitehead, 1996; Wringe, 1996; Grenfell, 2000a, for comprehensive overviews) but to examine its implications for the student teachers of MFL in this study. A key implication is how the approach is understood in the contexts they encounter when they are learning-to-teach.

2.5.1: The interpretation and misinterpretation of CLT

'The process has been not unlike a game of Chinese Whispers. In the same way as, in the game, the message whispered down the line becomes muddled and usually results in something hardly approximating to the original, so too some of the central points of the communicative approach have been eroded from one generation to the next.' (Swarbrick 2002:28)

⁴ Additions in Italics

When investigating what has been written on the communicative approach and its interpretation (for example, Dobson, 1998:16; Coyle, 2000), one can gain the impression that communicative methodology has stagnated at its (necessary but insufficient) *pre-communicative* stage, where it does not offer sufficient challenge and opportunity for pupils. Communicative activities only succeed when the pre-communicative stages of comprehensively presenting the language that will be required and practising it intensively are completed. But if the learning never or only rarely progresses beyond the *pre-communicative*, then learners will not achieve any real success. It is, however, the overall approach, and particularly TL use, the teaching of grammar and the balance of language skills, which has been misapplied by teachers of MFL to a great extent, or only partially understood or adopted. Gwyn-Paquette and Tochon (2002:205) state that even in the dual language context of French speaking Canada, the advocated approach of CLT is by no means always found in the L2 classrooms, and Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) confirm the misinterpretation and lack of adoption of CLT in Australia despite its official status.

Pachler et al (1999:23) highlight the gradual equation of CLT over the years with transactional approaches, and Decoo (2001) sees the original concept of CLT as descending in the 1990s into a 'slow agony, of which its own supporters are not yet always aware'. This approach, this methodological stance, has been fundamentally misinterpreted on a wide scale by the MFL community and this in turn has led to an uncertain teaching and learning context for student teachers (a view endorsed recently by, for example, Coyle, 1999 and 2000; Macrory, 1999:19; Adams, 2000; Brown, 2000; Grenfell, 2000b; Savignon, 2000; Block, 2002; King 2003). These doubts and confusions are also reflected in the current study, where student teachers themselves are uncertain of their understandings and this uncertainty is compounded when they begin their work in schools.

Sato and Kleinsasser (1999:501) discovered four main misconceptions or distorted views about CLT, all of which are also to be found in discussions of UK-based MFL teaching:

- CLT is learning to communicate in the L2;
- CLT uses mainly speaking and listening;
- CLT involves little grammar instruction;
- CLT uses (time-consuming) activities.

Grenfell (1998:43) in similar vein sees the influence of CLT on classroom methodology as the use of authentic materials, TL, predominance of the first person, the near abolition of translation and more inductive treatments of grammar. These areas would certainly find resonance among the MFL community in the UK.

The approach appears to have been misunderstood even by some MFL text book writers (such as Durrant, 1998). This is certainly not because of a lack of published research or academic work outlining the full version of CLT and its subsequent misunderstandings. The communicative approach was already seen by Grenfell (1995:142) as ill-defined and as a 'loose term'. This misinterpretation was also discussed in the early 1990s (Legutke and Thomas, 1991:6; Joy, 1994; Swarbrick, 1994) and involves an oversimplification or over-interpretation of elements of the approach. These include an over-reliance on English comprehension answers, following the GCSE testing framework and the idea of *message* having supremacy over *medium*, closely linked with the GCSE concept of the *sympathetic native speaker*, leading in some classrooms to virtually wholesale neglect of accuracy (see Adams, 2000). A further misconception is that to be 'communicative' requires an almost exclusively oral approach. This misunderstanding often manifests itself in a lack of belief that pupils could *generate* language in a communicative approach and be creative, without it becoming 'parrot fashion' learning or the 'chunks' of language often referred to. Grenfell (2000b:24) argues that the problems of the approach stem from its misinterpretation in a *British* context, whilst Decoo (2001), from a North American perspective, goes further and assigns the blame for the misinterpretation of CLT to its inappropriateness for *school* situations.

Intensive debate has been conducted amongst teacher trainers and theoreticians (for example Coyle, 1999), as well as implied in Ofsted publications (Dobson, 1998). This debate concerns the *nature* of the misinterpretation of the communicative approach. Coyle, for example, (ibid:13) describes the interpretation of the communicative approach itself 'having potentially led to a fossilised orthodoxy of accepted practice.' She shows concern about the lack of *real* communication and the preponderance of transactional, predictable language, where classroom methodology appears increasingly restrictive and prescriptive (Coyle 2002:157). This is

particularly worrying, she claims, when the trend in pedagogy has been towards a greater focus on the learner (ibid:14). The increasing emphasis on learning to learn was a general focus in pedagogy of the late 20th century (Bruner, 1999:18). It is in this decade of methodological turning points (Decoo, 2001) that the student teachers in this study were learning-to-teach MFL.

2.5.2: Recent trends in the literature on FLT and learning

There was, unsurprisingly, a great deal of published output on CLT in the 1980s (see, for example, Littlewood, 1981 and 1983; Brumfit, 1983; Hawkins, 1987; Mitchell, 1988; Johnstone, 1989; Wringe, 1989). The communicative approach and its legacy are fundamental in any discussion of MFL teaching and learning in recent years. Other, related, topics arousing substantial debate in the early 1990s and continuing up to the present day, arise from the theoretical move towards a communicative approach and wider educational debates. These include differentiation (Holmes, 1994; Thomas 1994), Special Educational Needs and MFL (Lee, 1994; Holmes, 1996), and autonomy (Little, 1994 and 2000; Harris, 1996; Lamb, 1998). These themes are, of course, not MFL specific but have been incorporated into the MFL methodological debate frequently as a result of, for example, the introduction of 'languages for all' necessitating the rethinking of teaching and learning strategies. Many of these themes were linked directly with the advent of the NC for MFL in the early 1990s.

This is also true of teaching in the target language; a topic which triggered great debate and achieved widespread currency in the MFL teaching community (see, for example, Chambers, 1992; Macdonald, 1993; NCC, 1993). The focus of TL teaching, one particularly over-interpreted element of CLT, has only relatively recently achieved an emphasis on pupils' TL, although it was always, of course, there implicitly. The debate surrounding TL continues to rage around the banishment or otherwise of English (or other L1) from the classroom (Macaro, 1997). As Macaro (2001b:545) also points out, the adherence to a principle such as avoidance of L1 at all costs would 'appear to stifle reflective practice', i.e. to deny other possibilities than those 'allowed' in the orthodoxy. The teaching of grammar (Page, 1990; Boaks and King, 1994), preferably in the TL as the dominant theme implied, certainly sparked debate (Roberts, 1994) and also spawned a large number of publications. It is the teaching (or otherwise) of grammar, another largely

misapplied aspect of CLT, which provoked most *public* interest. This included the debate fired up by journalist Melanie Phillips (Phillips, 1996; Gardiner, 1997), and the topic remains a very thorny issue within the profession (Pachler et al, 1999:2; Block, 2002; Swarbrick, 2002:10). The combination of grammar/English/TL is a volatile one guaranteed to provoke debate amongst MFL educators and beginning teachers. Grammar is certainly an area of great concern for the student teachers in this study.

The focus of the later 1990s moved on to, for example, dictionary skills and coursework (Horsfall, 1997a), responding in the main to examination regulation changes and additions. Boys' underachievement in MFL remained a theme throughout the period and more generally (Powell, 1986; Graham and Rees, 1995; Barton, 1997; Taylor, 2000). Motivation, particularly important in language learning (King, 2003), was (and remains) a major concern (Alison and Bettsworth, 1998; Chambers, 1994 and 2001; Williams et al, 2002). Many publications, of course, combine two or more topics, (for example Bourne et al, 1995, combining IT and differentiation). Work on learner strategies also grew throughout this period, in generic language learning terms as well as for specific language skills (Barnes and Powell, 1996; Harris, 1997).

Using ICT in MFL has also been a theme throughout (Rendall, 1991; Atkinson, 1994; Murray and Barnes, 1998) but it is dubious whether the many interesting and stimulating publications have had a generally successful effect on most schools by the period studied in the research presented here (Gray, 1996 and 1997). At present, it is the aspect with the widest range of application on a practical level, as well as accessibility and resources. Confronted by widely varying ICT contexts, and 'burdened' with the institutional, national and personal ICT expectations, student teachers arrive in school ICT 'expectant', but are often disappointed (Hewer, 1996; Barnes and Murray, 1999). Hood (2000:128) comments on the current ICT provision, access and use in MFL as varying 'dramatically from an extreme of virtual non-use [...] to a pattern of use which is coherent, frequent and fruitful.' This is echoed by Dobson, (1998:26). Davies (1996 and 2003) provides a thorough overview of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) developments, emphasizing the necessity for pedagogically-based *decisions* rather than technology led *mistakes*. Interestingly, as Decoo (2001) points out, even at the height of CLT in the 1980s and

early 1990s, computer use in MFL frequently 'reverted' to grammatical drill and practice. To incorporate ICT successfully into MFL teaching and learning, the methodological landscape must be coherent.

Such universally accepted works as that of Swarbrick (1994), a book widely recommended to PGCE students from the mid until the late 1990s and with its relevance still largely applicable, place emphasis on most of the topics cited above. The prime focus, of course, in Swarbrick's collection is that of the communicative approach; the overarching concept which dominated teaching and learning theories in MFL from the early 1980s. At the time of writing, however, it could be argued that we are approaching a *post-communicative* era, where the communicative approach and its realisation are being questioned as outlined above. Indeed, King (2003) has recently called for a reassessment of guidance on communicative methodology. The findings in this study would appear to confirm this.

2.5.3: The folklore of communicative methodology

Much of the (mis-)interpretation described above has contributed to the often vague 'theories' student teachers may encounter in their school experiences. There is an abundance of literature on teaching methodology and practical tips for MFL which has appeared in the last 20 years⁵. Much less exists on how these methodological approaches have been received and interpreted in school contexts, except by implication (exceptions include Macaro, 1997 and Neill, 1997). A lot of the work on methodology has been focussed, of course, on improving pupil performance. Ofsted's⁶ publications (e.g. Dobson, 1998) reveal, again by implication, more of what actually happens in practice.

⁵ See, for example, the many publications from the Association for Language Learning (ALL) and CILT. Most works cited in this chapter are widely read in the MFL teaching community.

⁶ References to Ofsted do not imply that I am ascribing Ofsted's views as defining quality, but indicating that those views have an inevitable impact on the community of practice.

Some familiar manifestations of this 'folklore' may consist of utterances such as 'what the University expects', or 'what Ofsted want to see', or 'what the communicative approach means in my classroom'. Of course, it is never the case that one methodological approach, however good, is applied to the exclusion of all others. As Decoo asserts (2001), a range of approaches and methods exist in the shadow of prevailing trends. Randall (1999:120) compares the misinterpretation of reflective practice with that of CLT, explaining that it was understood on a superficial level with key aspects over-emphasised. The key aspects which recur in many of the discussions are TL and grammar.

2.5.4: The target language myth

One important component of the communicative folklore is the use of the TL. Pachler and Field (1997:49) describe this aspect as a 'methodological imperative of maximum use of the target language for instruction and interaction.' The primacy of the TL in all circumstances and the rationale of TL teaching is widely acknowledged (Pachler and Field, 1997:57). The TL was seen as the 'normal means of communication' in the NC proposals (DES, 1990:6) and then became part of the Programme of Study (PoS) in the revised NC in 1995, and expected (and inspected) by Ofsted. By others it was viewed as dogma (Bauckham, 1994:11) or orthodoxy (Atkinson, 1993:2). Primacy of the TL is linked with the concept of the requirement for comprehensible input (King, 2003). Yet as Macaro (2001b:544) asserts, the communicative approach, properly implemented, does *not* exclude the use of L1, despite this being a widely-held view.

The TL debate of the 1990s was interpreted to a great extent as *teacher* TL; only relatively recently has the wider MFL teaching public's attention shifted to an emphasis on *pupil* TL (see Dobson, 1998:6 and 27). Rationalised, justified and thought-through use of English, as exemplified in the NC 2000, was hardly mentioned. This TL focus can intimidate teachers, particularly beginning teachers, and, in the extreme, result in classrooms where teacher TL predominates, but where pupils do not understand enough about *how* the target language works to generate their own language, or are overwhelmed by a torrent of incomprehensible TL (Macaro, 2000; Guest and Pachler, 2001).

For example, Dobson (1998:13) gives an example of a German lesson judged as 'very good' in an Ofsted inspection, dealing with prepositions taking the dative. The lesson is described, and concludes with 'They were able to work out the correct inflections from the teacher's examples and to explain the rules afterwards.' The crucial omission in the final sentence in this quotation of either 'in the target language' or 'in English' contributes to the myth of TL. Teachers assume it is TL, in the light of Ofsted's view of this as being a sign of good teaching (Grenfell, 2000b:24). If they cannot carry out such feats themselves, their teaching confidence risks being undermined or defeatism creeps in, which may be particularly true if the TL in question is the teacher's FL2. Similarly, as Dobson, (1998:15) states '[in KS4] pupils often lack confidence [in the TL] because they were taught too much in English in the early years.' This conveys a clear message to teachers: exclusive TL teaching is preferable (whatever their experience may tell them).

In this way, teachers worry about use of English and think it is 'wrong'. Macaro (2001b:532) states that 'For some authors, exclusive L2 use by the teacher becomes a teaching strategy that dominates all other pedagogic strategies'. Macaro illustrates with great conviction how arguments for exclusive TL use are, to a great extent, pedagogically unsound. Some of the published ideals on the myth of TL teaching in the early and mid 90s appeared virtually impossible to the language teacher confronted by real pupils. Having viewed examples such as Bromidge and Burch (1993) and even NCC (1993), where teachers were seen teaching everything (including grammar) in the TL, a teacher can perceive their own practice as inadequate or even feel guilty (Chambers, 1992:66; Bauckham, 1994:11; Brumfit, 2001:91).

Recently, Meiring and Norman (2002) have argued for establishing a pedagogic rationale for using TL. In their study of teachers' TL use, they found wide variation in percentage use of TL in lesson time, with teachers using far more TL with higher ability groups, for example. With the advent of the Key Stage 3 (KS3) framework for MFL, piloted in 2002-3, the role of TL use remains controversial. The implementation of the strategy involves use of starter activities, plenaries, reflections on language learning and learning strategies: much of this appears to be conducted in L1. Interestingly, in the ELT field, Arva and Medgyes (2000:362) assert that rights to use L1 in

the FL classroom have been 'reinstated'. Student teachers in the present study perceive TL use as a challenging aspect of their developing landscape.

2.5.5: Grammar

Another widely held misinterpretation of the communicative approach is that it emphasises 'getting the message over' to the virtual exclusion of accuracy in written or spoken form. Authors somewhat outside the MFL teaching community such as Bassnett (2001:69) lament the loss to MFL learning of knowledge of structure and memorisation and even claim this approach resulted in 'grammatical illiteracy' (Jordan, 2001:161). Widdowson (1990) sets the record straight (*my italics*): 'A communicative approach, properly conceived, does *not* involve the rejection of grammar. On the contrary, it involves a recognition of its central mediating role in the use and learning of language.' Moreover, Canale and Swain (1980), writing in the early years of the elaboration of a CLT approach, include grammatical competence in their four essential components of communicative competence. It is the debate over fluency and accuracy (see for example Morrow, 1994; Page, 1994) which could be responsible, it can be argued, for the abandonment or marginalisation (Pachler and Field, 1997:53; Grenfell, 2000b) of the formal teaching of grammar in a number of MFL classrooms. 'Grammar' is still perceived by some to be the stultifying and 'academic' learning of rules rather than learning grammar to communicate (Hornsey, 2000:152).

Like TL, grammar's role in MFL teaching and learning has been over-interpreted and its original part in CLT has been lost. After the Council of Europe made the case in the 1970s for a communicative approach to FLT where *function* achieved precedence over *form*, i.e. communication over grammatical correctness, this was over-interpreted to mean exclusion of grammar from the accepted methodological landscape. Any investigation into the full implications of a communicative approach (Klapper, 1997; Pachler et al, 1999:22; Pachler, 2000; King, 2003) contradicts this simplistic assumption and reveals that grammar is part of true communicative teaching and this synthesis of communication and grammar is embodied in many methodological texts of the 90s (Peck, 1998). 'Grammar' as a term of course is, and always has been, understood in a number of ways (Jones, 1999:12).

Connected with the neglect of grammar is the almost total abandonment of its erstwhile methodological partner, translation (Decoo, 2001), both in written and spoken form. With the more recent focus on learner styles, cognitive processes and learning strategies, some have questioned this apparent veto on translation into the L1. As Decoo (2001) maintains, 'If a student wants to translate, let him (*sic*) translate; if he hankers after insight, give him grammar'.

2.6: Conclusion

The present study reveals the perspectives of student teachers on the debates presented in this chapter. Considerable confusion for beginning teachers can stem from methodological misunderstandings, contradictions or mismatches encountered during the process of learning-to-teach (Tamir, 1988:107; Laws, 1999:2; Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999:504). Sato and Kleinsasser (*ibid.*) found this to be particularly problematic in the sphere of approaches to grammar in the MFL classroom. This 'cognitive dissonance' (Mahan and Lacefield, 1978), or gap between one's own understandings and those manifest in the particular context, could lead to a *change* in attitude in order to reduce the dissonance. Veenman (1984) sees this influence from schools as strong, but effectively conservative. The effects on student teachers' methodological landscapes, then, stem at least partially from a process of socialisation. In the methodological landscape the student teachers in this study develop, presented in Chapter 6, the areas appearing most problematic to them are generally those most controversial in the MFL professional community as a whole. As Grenfell (1996:15) asserts: 'Initial training must start with developing teachers with enquiring attitudes to the processes of language teaching and learning'. The next chapter explains how the research was designed and how the tools were used to investigate the beliefs held and developed by the MFL beginning teachers.

3.1: Introduction

This chapter describes the research in the present study from the initial deliberations as to how to approach the topic, the respondents and the research questions, to the design of the research tools, and the analysis and interpretation of the data. It presents justifications for and some concerns inherent in the study and emphasises the investigation's contrasting methods with those selected by researchers exploring similar themes. Fundamental to the research design were two potentially conflicting needs: the need to uncover student teachers' beliefs over the course of the PGCE and the need to ensure they were not further or unnecessarily burdened by participation in the research. The relatively large number of students involved, the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches and the frequency of data-collection points all contribute to the meeting of these needs.

3.2: Research design

3.2.1: Methodological stance

This research assumes a social constructivist standpoint. The *constructivist* element of this approach sees student teachers as learners who interpret experiences and ideas in ways which are personal to them and where each individual constructs his or her own reality and mental structures (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994:18; Williams and Burden, 1997; Jessel, 2000:3). This interpretation occurs in a complex *social* landscape (Nicholson, 1996:9; Roberts, 1998:44) and a social constructivist approach therefore assumes an interaction between the internal, mental developments of the student teachers and the social contexts in which they are learning (Zeichner et al, 1987).

Investigating student teachers' development and changing beliefs involves attempting to reveal their thoughts and beliefs and any trends via a phenomenological, interpretive approach (McNeill, 1990:118) to attempt to see their experiences from their viewpoint. This research too is situated in a phenomenological orientation (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) which acknowledges that the research

cannot reveal causal links or generalisable results. A study of this sort can never expect to gain a comprehensive picture of participants' mental processes (Nicholson, 1996:7) or to assert that the findings are a genuine, full reflection of their beliefs. Unlike some research in this field, I am not pursuing a process-product investigation, as carried out by Brophy and Good (1986): it is the student teachers' perceptions that are studied, not the realisation of these perceptions in the classroom. The research is investigating student teachers' avowed *perceptions* of their beliefs and must be regarded as such, not as absolute knowledge or truth (Clark and Peterson, 1986:259; Williams, 1999:13). Yet this phenomenological position, generally associated with qualitative approaches (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994:3) is partnered in this study by quantitative data, thus incorporating methodological triangulation into the design. The intention is to gain a deeper understanding of the issues involved.

Most research in this area has been qualitative: Clark and Peterson (1986:289), for example, outline the five *qualitative* methods of inquiry used to investigate teachers' thought processes. This study, in contrast, uses both qualitative and quantitative in combination to address the research questions in what was perceived to be the most appropriate manner. It incorporates qualitative data, quantitative data, statistical and interpretive analysis, and indeed this would seem logical, given the acknowledged complex nature of the research theme (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994:14). Using the two approaches also endowed the study from my perspective with more reliability and gave me more confidence in my analysis as a lone researcher. The qualitative, interpretive approach (Cohen et al, 2000:21-2) assumes that people interpret events, contexts and situations and that reality is multi-layered and complex. The approach attempts to examine situations (Cohen et al, 2000:21) through the eyes of participants as far as possible. This interpretive paradigm, therefore (Cohen et al, 2000:22) aims at understanding the subjective world of human experience. But in the light of what I wanted to discover and the number of participants, the *quantitative* strand of the research was crucial to reveal possible trends of groups over time, although adopting some quantitative elements in this study does not imply any type of experimental or positivist stance.

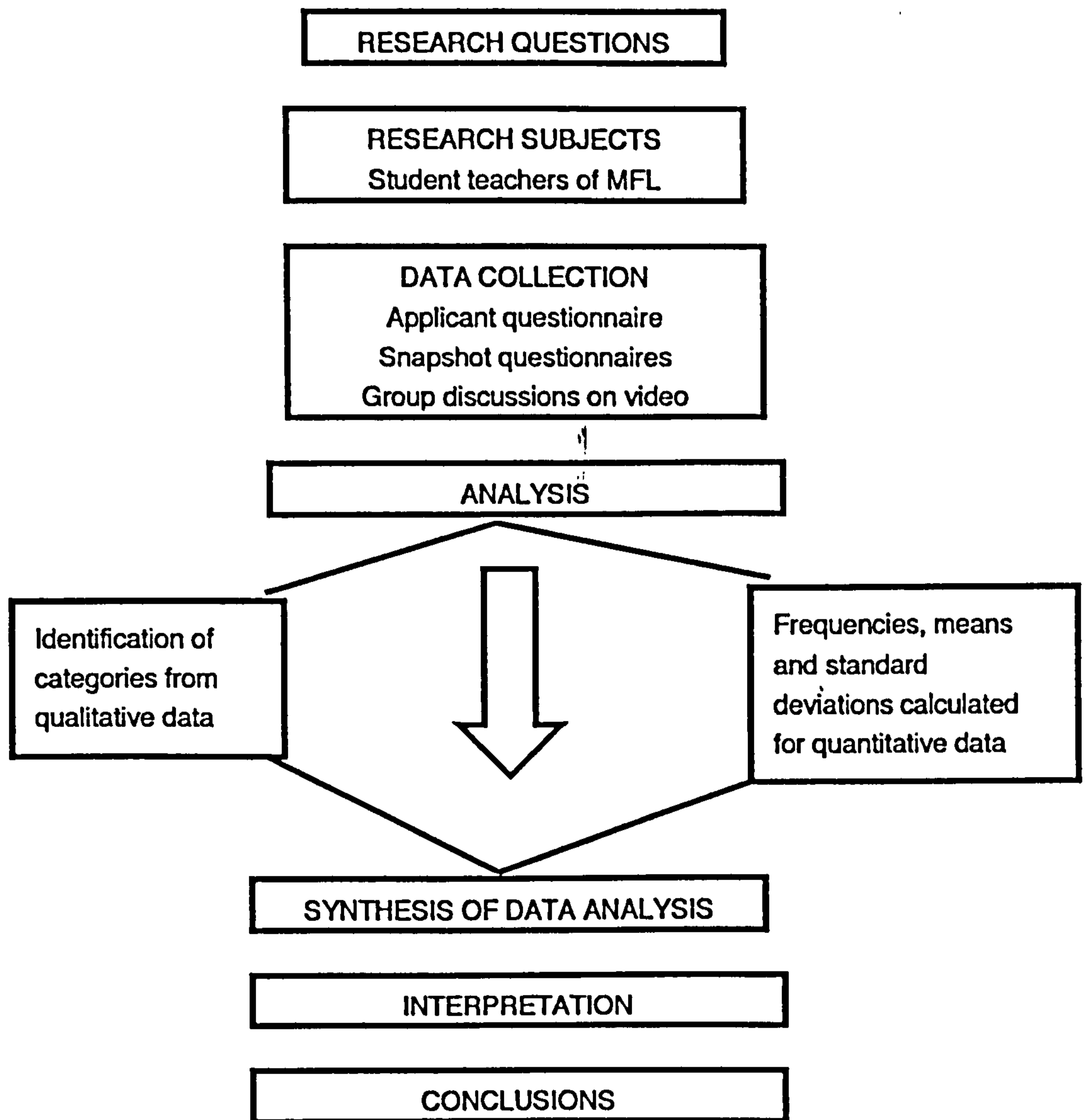
3.2.2: Quantitative and qualitative approaches

Brannen (1992:4) describes the qualitative researcher as looking through a wide lens, searching for patterns of inter-relationships between a previously unspecified set of concepts, and the quantitative researcher as looking through a narrow lens at a specified set of variables. I wanted in this study to incorporate both approaches, whilst looking at a large number of students.

Maykut and Morehouse (1994:12) deny the possibility of adopting a quantitative approach if one's ontological stance is not in the positivist, objective camp. I would dispute this and favour the arguments for the advantages of mixed methods (Brannen, 1992), where selecting from quantitative *methods* does not imply a particular ontology or epistemology. For example, this study acknowledges fully the interdependence of the researcher and the respondents and does not claim any 'pseudo-objectivity' in light of numerical data. Nunan (1992:42) asserts further that qualitative information is often crucial for the interpretation of quantitative data, and I would add that the converse is also the case.

In the current study, quantitative, statistical techniques are employed for appropriate data on the snapshot questionnaires, whilst both quantitative and qualitative analyses are employed for the narrative responses to look both at the respondents' *words* and the frequencies and tendencies revealed *through* their words. Robson (1993:291) highlights this as a way of enhancing the interpretability of a study. Such an approach endeavours both to reveal something worthwhile in a complex situation over time (Burgess, 1989:116) and to do so in as reliable a manner as possible. Other researchers (for example, Bramald et al, 1995:27) have also successfully employed qualitative data to extend the quantitative data, and Robson (1993:307) comments that most real world studies produce data requiring qualitative and quantitative analysis. There is no possibility, however, that the quantitative approaches employed in this study resemble a positivist stance: for this to be the case, measurable variables within an objective inquiry and provable propositions would have to be involved (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994:3). By their very nature, student teachers' stated thoughts and perceptions could not fit such a framework.

Figure (iv): The research process



3.2.3: Addressing the research questions

The research questions underpinning this study are as follows:

1. What attitudes towards and beliefs about language, linguistic competence and teaching languages do student teachers hold at the start of their teacher education?
2. How, when and why do MFL PGCE student teachers' attitudes towards, beliefs about and perceptions of MFL teaching and learning change throughout the course?
3. Are there identifiable phases or stages in MFL student teachers' development?

4. How, when and why do MFL PGCE student teachers' perceptions of their own confidence in a range of teaching and personal competences change from application to the course to working as an NQT?
5. What themes and trends emerge, for example in the areas of subject knowledge and application, and student teachers' priorities?
6. How do student teachers' linguistic confidence and their attitudes towards and beliefs about their subject develop throughout the course?

A main aim of this research, then, was to discover what prior beliefs and attitudes MFL student teachers bring with them and if and how their attitudes and beliefs develop and change during the course. By their very nature, these beliefs are unobservable (Clark and Peterson, 1986:257).

There is little consensus on how uncovering attitudes and beliefs is best done (Fife-Schaw, 1995:186). Like Delamont (1992:7), my goal was to find out how these student teachers understood their world. In doing this, I wanted to include whole cohorts of students rather than selected case studies, but without removing the voices of individuals from the study. I was aware also of the necessity of ensuring the research did not demand too much of the student teachers in a period when pressures on their time are great.

Cohen et al (2000:182) characterise case studies as striving to portray 'what it is like' to be in a particular situation. Paramount, however, in the design of the research tools for this study was the acknowledgement of the need to ensure students were not expected to dedicate a substantial amount of time to the study, in terms of extended interviews (such as those carried out by Grossman and Richert, 1988) or lengthy and demanding journal entries (Bullough et al, 1991:15) diaries (Bennett and Carré, 1993) or writing education-related life histories (Bullough, 1992:240). This decision was vindicated in a clear if unsurprising finding from the study: the tiredness and stress experienced by students at many points throughout the course. Indeed, where responses were brief (unlike the majority, which were expansive), comments were usually restricted to one or two words on the theme of exhaustion.

✎ I don't feel I ever get enough time at all - I feel as though I've got very little time to prepare ...(V1/97-8)

At the same time, I wanted to capture as wide a picture as possible, i.e. to involve all or almost all students in each cohort. In addition, this picture was not to be of a single point in time, but it was to track participants' beliefs throughout the year. Devising a means of achieving this to a satisfactory level was a challenge, as emphasised by Clark and Peterson (1986:257). This research may best be described in words used by Robson, (1993:3), it is '... seeking to say something sensible about a complex, relatively poorly controlled and generally 'messy' situation.'

The present study has a number of features which go beyond previous work in this area. I was aware for example of Kagan's comment on 'learning-to-teach' literature of the 1980s, which tended to be qualitative and concentrated on a handful of teachers (Kagan, 1992:129) and also of Zeichner's view of examples of questionnaire research, which have tended to rely on pre and post questionnaires (for example, Carré, 1993a:29; Wray, 1993:51; Nettle, 1998) and not what happens *during* the experience (Zeichner et al, 1987:27). Even when longitudinal approaches *are* adopted, the 'snapshots' taken are fewer, on fewer subjects (for example Hogben and Lawson, 1984, studied four respondents, with snapshots taken at five points over two years). Scott (1996a:68) sees researchers confronted by a series of methodological dilemmas, the solutions to which determine the data that is collected. A variety of approaches has been used by other researchers investigating this area: diaries (Gilpin and Jorgé, 1995), group and individual interviews (Jubeh, 1997); attitude scale (Halbach, 2000). Jegede et al (2000:292) studied the whole population of maths and science student teachers at two institutions for their study, involving voluntary participation. Many studies (e.g. Nespor, 1987; Grossman and Richert, 1988; Cole and Knowles, 1993; Aitken, 1994; Virta, 2000) have focused on a small number of student teachers when investigating their pre-course beliefs and development. Indeed, Clark and Peterson (1986:287) point out that studies of teachers' implicit theories up to that time were 'small-sample descriptive research.' I am attempting in this study to go further. Other researchers working since the mid 1980s looking at student beliefs during their teacher education programmes and as practising teachers have made use of a variety of different sources of data. These include reflective essays and interviews (Virta, 2000), journals, interviews and observations (Almarza, 1996), interviews and video lesson commentaries (Calderhead and Robson, 1991), ethnographic studies (Goodman, 1988); stimulated recall (Nespor, 1987; Morine-

Dershimer, 1988), concept-mapping (Beyerbach, 1988), pen portraits (Dunne, 1993), as well as questionnaires (Bramald et al, 1995; Andrews and Hatch, 1997). Kyriacou and Stephens (1999) conducted their research on 16 English and History student teachers via semi-structured group discussions recorded on audio tape. Haggarty (1995b) studied ten student teachers of maths using a range of data collection methods. These studies and others (see Wideen et al. 1998 and Kagan, 1992) have investigated fewer, and in the majority of cases, far fewer students than the investigation presented here. The number of respondents and the time covered are distinctive features of the current study.

Over 200 MFL trainees have been involved throughout the project and many have given a substantial amount of time and a wide range of opinions. In my arguably privileged position as subject tutor throughout the study period, I am also aware, at least for the Warwick student teachers, of the personal stories which lie behind the collected data. Occasional glimpses emerge in the data of the years and years of personal time covered in the study period, during which some trainees have given birth, at least one has experienced an arranged marriage, some have suffered the death of a near relative and many others have experienced similar life-changing events whilst simultaneously undergoing the experience of learning-to-teach, arguably also life-changing and certainly challenging. The research is not, of course, adopting a life history approach, but in a study such as this, personal stories and events inevitably contribute to the context. It is important to emphasise that the research is essentially *second order*, i.e. it is concerned with what the respondents *perceive* rather than what they *do*. Grenfell (1998:113) states that 'Different trainees have different demands put on them in different situations to which they respond in different ways. Developing teaching abilities therefore often appears fragmentary, highly personal and indeterminate.' This is undoubtedly true; but with the research presented here I was attempting to establish a more general picture of the trends experienced by student MFL teachers.

The proposed solution, then, was to design the research in such a way that all student teachers who wished to participate were able to in a time effective manner and that the development process could be traced throughout the course. This necessitated the incorporation of both

qualitative and quantitative tools and analysis as indicated above. Huberman, (1993:viii) looked at 160 teachers and successfully combined qualitative and quantitative techniques to attempt to show what it was like to be a beginning teacher. Nicholson (1996:6) sees an interpretative, qualitative approach as appropriate for researching teachers' thinking, but, as Nunan (1992:140) points out, a survey meets the requirement of obtaining a snapshot of conditions at a certain point in time. Survey studies, often through a form of questionnaire, are seen by a number of authors as suitable to investigate a group's beliefs, attitudes or opinions (Nunan, 1992:8; Richards and Lockhart, 1994:10).

3.2.4: Choice of research tools

It has been explained above that multiple methods are employed in this study; an approach recognised as positive in this type of complex investigation (McNeill, 1990:122; Walford, 1991; Delamont, 1992:6; Bennett and Carré, 1993; Pope, 1993:29, Robson, 1993:290; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994:2).

Three research tools were selected:

- An applicant questionnaire (Appendix 1; administered to eight separate cohorts of students)
- A snapshot questionnaire at ten separate points in the year (Appendix 2; administered in three cohorts plus two 'control' groups)
- Group discussions recorded on video (conducted with samples from two cohorts)

Figure (iv) illustrates the relationship between the research questions, the research tools and the analysis.

Despite Robson's (1993:50) caveat that this method of research is demanding on the time and resources of the investigator, the longitudinal snapshot questionnaire was selected as the main data collection tool. Surveys generally aim to obtain a snapshot of conditions, attitudes or events at a single point in time (Nunan, 1992:141). The advantages of longitudinal studies (McNeill, 1990:45) include the possibility of studying change over time (as a series of snapshots rather than a continuous process). Bennett and Carré (1993), for example, used this approach to elicit views from a cohort of 59 primary students and Fung and Chow (2002) employed questionnaires for their study of physical education students' beliefs. This approach is one which suits

investigations of this type (Robson, 1993:243; Kennedy, 1999:102). As both rich data and more quantitative data was sought, a questionnaire was designed which incorporated both qualitative, less-structured, word-based and open-ended items (Cohen et al, 2000:247) and closed and rating scale items (Cohen et al, 2000:248). In this way, even those respondents who would not have felt able to contribute greatly to a more 'in-depth' study, could at least tick the boxes and complete sentences in a minimal way, with the result of at least having their opinion noted, albeit briefly expressed. To provide a further, contrasting, and more qualitative source of data, group discussions on video would also be carried out. This longitudinal (Robson, 1993:50), multi-method approach was selected therefore as it allows the voices of the whole cohort to be taken into account without adding unduly to their already full schedules. Some students, particularly in the applicant questionnaire and in later discussions on video, explore their development in extended narratives akin to stories (Doyle and Carter, 2003). Although a number of other longitudinal studies exist investigating similar developments, (e.g. Aitken, 1994; Bennett and Carré, 1993), I have encountered no other which:

- a) follow more than one whole cohort;
- b) administer as many snapshot questionnaires as regularly as the present research;
- c) concentrate on MFL.

Indeed, Skamp and Mueller (2001:333) highlight the virtual absence of subject-specific longitudinal studies on student teachers' beliefs from the literature and in the reviews by Kagan (1992) and Wideen et al (1998), studies cited have fewer respondents than the one presented here and the majority focus on a shorter time span.

The purpose of the applicant questionnaire (AQ) was at least twofold:

- To research pre-service MFL teachers' reasons for choosing to teach their subject and their pre-existing beliefs;
- To enable these prospective teachers to elucidate their thoughts on teaching in general, languages, teaching languages, and learning to teach languages.

The AQ issued as part of this study aims at helping student teachers state and then explore their personal theories (Williams, 1999:14). According to research findings, student teachers need to do this before they can reconstruct their beliefs about teaching and then develop. Williams (*ibid.*)

explains that whilst an expert can see more of the 'whole' picture, a novice is trying to connect various parts from their experience so far, and fit them in to the whole.

The snapshot questionnaire (SQ) element of the design could be described as the main tool in a *longitudinal cohort study* (Cohen et al, 2000:174) or *panel study* (McNeill, 1990:43; Robson, 1993:131), since successive 'snapshots' are taken at different points in time from the same respondents. Cohen et al (ibid.) acknowledge that it is legitimate in such a study that some members of a cohort may not be included each time; they do not see this as invalidating the approach. Unlike conventional case studies of individual trainees, the chosen approach enables the researcher to depict a variety of trainees' opinions and to investigate whole and sub-group trends (such as native speakers), whilst endeavouring at the same time to take into account individual differences and highlight unique aspects in more depth where appropriate. Using the research methods and tools outlined here is an attempt to gain a combination of broad but also rich data. I did not want to select respondents, or request what is in effect self-selection, as I wished to include whole cohorts in order to give as full a picture as possible.

By electing to administer the SQ at no fewer than ten separate points, I was trying to identify when (if at all) changes in beliefs and attitudes occurred. There is justification for using this intensive, regular approach, in that themes emerging from the analysis of the data sometimes occur at only one point in the programme, or trends show distinct peaks or troughs at particular times. It was also intended that the students regard the SQ as very different from, for example, the normal evaluation questionnaires issued as part of the course and certainly completely separate from the profiles and self-evaluations student teachers fill in as part of the assessment process. The evaluation tools forming part of the programme serve a very different purpose. The research tools in this study were clearly delineated for the student teachers: conventional evaluation feedback, for example, was collated and acted upon explicitly during the course; profiles and reports were used in the tutorial system. Students were fully aware initially and reminded regularly throughout that the questionnaires designed for this research project fulfilled a separate function.

3.2.5: Validity and reliability issues

It is commonly accepted that if only one method is used in an investigation, this may lead to bias, as data may be the product of the particular method of collection (McNeill, 1990:15; Cohen et al, 2000:112). To strengthen the reliability and validity of the data, this study involves multiple, contrasting sources of data, oral and written information (Delamont, 1992:107; Wideen et al, 1998:162; Cohen et al, 2000:112), and qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis. As Denzin and Lincoln (1994:2) assert, objective reality can never be captured, but the use of triangulation, of different perspectives and of multiple methods can add breadth, perspective and depth to the study (Bailey and Nunan, 1996:3). The numbers of respondents and the quantitative data also contribute to the reliability of the study and the qualitative, individual data increases the validity (McNeill, 1990:121).

The study therefore employs a variety of triangulation types to enhance credibility (Brannen, 1992:11; Janesick, 1994) and 'trustworthiness' (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994:145). Multiple data sources (questionnaires plus group discussions), triangulation within-method (questionnaire administered at multiple points in the year and with different cohorts), multiple locations (involvement of two separate HEIs), and triangulation over time (both within and between cohorts of students). An additional element of triangulation was provided by cross check questions within the questionnaires. In this way, the same variable is tested in a number of different statements to provide a degree of internal reliability. Freeman (1996: 370) states that longitudinally designed studies can help to build an ongoing, and thus potentially more coherent, second-order picture (i.e. one aimed at uncovering participants' thoughts). Robson (1993:404) also sees persistent observation as a substantial contribution to the credibility of a study, although Scott (1996b:151) cautions that where triangulation involves collection of data at different times it is not comparing like with like. Leat (1995:166), however, successfully tested the ability of a questionnaire to measure changed thinking by using interviews with 12 students as a check for their questionnaire responses. In this study, similar checks are provided through the extra information from the discussions recorded on video as well as the free response questions on the questionnaires themselves.

As responses from one institution may be heavily course structure/institution/tutor specific, ten respondents for two years were tracked from another HEI with a different course structure to act as a cross-check and help balance the possibly institution specific nature of the data (an approach which has been used effectively by other researchers investigating their own students, for example, Nias, 1991:151; Skamp and Mueller, 2001). For two cohorts, (1997-8 and 1998-9), the main data therefore is supplemented by responses to all the SQ from a sample of trainees from Oxford University (OUDES). This is seen as a strength in research of this type (Wideen et al, 1998:163; Kennedy,1999:102). The use of a variety of methods also combats to some extent the issue of 'researcher-as-insider' (Bird, 1992:127). As Wideen et al (1998:163) recommend, it is crucial to acknowledge that researching one's own students is a dilemma and also to ensure steps are taken to combat this. Both HEIs were training beginning teachers for secondary and both were working under the appropriate government requirements, for example relating to time spent in school. Both courses also incorporated language maintenance or refreshment elements.

Like Calderhead and Shorrock (1997:32), this study relied to a great extent on students' self-reporting, something Clark and Peterson (1986:259) and McNeill (1990:15) see as a problem in survey style research. There may be a tendency for respondents to be defensive or produce answers they feel appropriate and there is certainly no guarantee that they will tell the 'truth' or how accurately they describe their thoughts. Feiman-Nemser and Floden (1986) see this as a central problem in research into teachers' beliefs and attitudes, i.e. how to 'get inside teachers' heads'. The *Hawthorne effect* (Brown, 1988:32; Cohen et al, 2000: 116) is reduced at least in part in this study as whole cohorts are investigated, thus negating much of the feeling of being 'special'. The response rate is also generally very high, thus increasing the validity. Another possible drawback is the potential difficulty of respondents' desire to please or impress, the so-called 'halo effect' (Brown, 1988:32; Fife-Schaw, 1995:182; Cohen et al, 2000:116). Although the three cohorts who were intensively studied via regular snapshot questionnaires all submitted named responses, all the applicant questionnaires were anonymous. There was no dedicated space for name on the form. This decision was taken as an attempt to avoid an over-emphasis by the students on trying to make a positive impression on me as their subject tutor at the start of their course. Despite snapshot questionnaires being named, at the data analysis stage all

comments were collated and statistics analysed by sub-group, thus I was not aware of the origin of each comment as I devised categories.

3.2.6: Ethical and procedural issues

I was an insider in this research; I was both tutor and researcher. This was epistemologically an important issue to confront and is one reason my autobiographical context makes up the very first section in this thesis. Kyriacou (1990) emphasises the importance of maintaining a critical distance in this type of situation. McNeill (1990:14) highlights the danger of a study being thought unreliable where a lone researcher is involved. Partially this problem was countered by involving students from a separate HEI, as described above. Another partial response was to focus entirely on the data specifically collected for this study, and not incorporate other anecdotal or course specific information. In the case of an ethnographic investigation or case study, the inclusion of further sources of data would, of course, have been vital. In this study, given the involvement of the researcher, collection and selection of data had to be clear cut; anecdotes and examples occurring in the data responses to the questionnaires included in the study were regarded as valid – outside this definition, they were not.

It is also true that the period studied saw my own professional development progress too. I learnt from the research as it was underway. It was imperative I was aware of the researcher-respondent relationship inherent in the research design (Delamont, 1992:8). For this reason, it is even more important than usual that data collection and analysis procedures are detailed explicitly here. The problems of my being their tutor and the researcher are countered by the sheer breadth and length of the study. The distance in time between the initial collation of data and the final analysis involving all cohorts was particularly useful in this regard.

As Denzin and Lincoln point out (1994:12), any observation is socially situated in the worlds of the observer and the observed. This means the interpretation of the data is also perspectival (Nicholson, 1996), i.e. seen through my eyes. This is certainly not an unproblematic issue (Burgess, 1989:6), but this study has attempted to ensure all areas in this regard have been addressed. Lanier and Little (1986:535) emphasise student teachers' vulnerability as research

subjects for their University tutors. I was determined not to exploit their relative lack of power in this relationship. Student teachers were fully aware of their role in the research. I outlined the research to all participants and stressed that they would never be 'expected' to complete any of the surveys or participate in any of the discussions on video. I also asked every cohort for their permission to use their responses anonymously and confidentially. Participation in the study was completely voluntary and had no implications for assessment or success. Assessment during the PGCE involved both school and university staff, was subject to moderation and external examining and was judged against clear criteria: the beginning teachers' success was not dependent on me as subject tutor and responses for the research were not revealed to any other assessor or considered at all when reaching decisions.

When the aims of the research were explained, trainees' reactions ranged from high to little interest, but nobody objected. All students were asked to participate, but any student was able to remain uninvolved should they wish. Informed consent therefore also meant informed refusal (Cohen et al, 2000:51); participants had the right to take part or to withdraw once the research had begun and no pressure was exerted to gain further completed questionnaires. The students were able to 'withdraw' at any time (Cohen et al, 2000:245), and complete as much or as little of the questionnaires as they wished. My very peripheral role in the video recording of the discussions was deliberate, precisely because of the potential issues in my dual role.

Confidentiality and anonymity were guaranteed, improving the chances of truthfulness (McNeill, 1990:41): quotations used in the research, for example, indicate only the cohort and the particular SQ. Additionally, no information which could identify respondents is provided (Cohen et al, 2000:61); something which is a risk in survey research through a perhaps unique combination of characteristics (Raffe et al, 1989:22). Where any quotation used in this thesis contained specific names such as universities or schools which could possibly have led to the identification of a student, these have been removed. Because of the numbers involved and the goal of anonymity, pseudonyms were also not adopted. It was felt that as over 200 students' views contribute to the study, it was not a requirement to acknowledge individuals, even by using a pseudonym, unlike in

the case of a life-history (for example, Delamont, 1992:23), where the focus is on the detailed and subjective experiences of only a few individuals.

The data analysis process acted to a great extent as a tool to mitigate the inevitably close relationship between me, the researcher and the students, my respondents. I did this by firstly entering all the data into an overall document where names were not linked with statements.

When analysing this data, the responses were no longer linked in my mind with individuals.

However, a main aim of the research is, clearly, to investigate *how* the trainees develop, but my aim as their tutor is to *help* them in this development. Consequently, issues arising during the research were dealt with as appropriate and not left for some future 'objective' analysis. I am, therefore, an agent in the process, not an external observer. Of course, I knew I would not be able to pretend that I had not heard or read something if it was disturbing. Fortunately, although some of the students' comments on the questionnaires indicated disillusionment, exhaustion or disappointment, on no occasion did I feel they were revealing anything which necessitated action of any type on my part, or, something they had not already revealed to me in a different (non-research-based) context.

No research design is infallible, and there are certainly some areas where there are potential areas of difficulty or flaws in the current study. Any change apparently detected, for example, could be due to student maturation and not the program itself (Robson, 1993; Kennedy, 1999:102). As *course* impact is not the focus of the study, however, more the development of students' beliefs and attitudes, which could be described as student maturation, this is not an issue. Indeed, student maturation is of inherent interest to the study. An additional weakness in much research of this kind (as acknowledged also by Skamp and Mueller, 2001) is the question of how far these beliefs carry over into practice (Kennedy, 1999:103). As Kennedy and Kennedy (1996) stress, self-reports only reflect *stated* behaviour, not actual behaviour. They also point out that change in attitude does not mean change in behaviour: the relationship is not causal. Woods also asserts (1996:252) that beliefs and behaviour do not necessarily correspond. This criticism is undoubtedly true of the current study, and is an area where further, supplementary research would be of benefit. Realistically, however, such research would be far more limited in scope by

focussing on fewer respondents. The aim of the study, moreover, is to investigate student teachers' perceptions, feelings and understandings – not their resultant practice.

The analysis of *cohort* trends presents another potential problem. Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000:389) view studies where responses are analysed on a group level as masking belief change in individuals. This is certainly true: the data could also be analysed from an individual perspective, but this would be to neglect one of the main aims of the study, namely to involve whole groups of students and to identify patterns and trends overall. Anonymity would certainly be more problematic in this case. The individual voices are still represented in this study, due to the multiple methods employed. Cohen et al (2000:176) and Robson (1993:50) highlight some other disadvantages of longitudinal studies, including sample mortality. This study's generally high response rate counters this to some extent and by using whole cohorts and multiple sources of data this is less damaging for this particular study. Chambers and Roper (2000:26), when reflecting on the relatively low response rate of student teachers who had withdrawn, comment that these student teachers may not wish to re-live a possibly unpleasant experience. It could be seen as a weakness of the present study that I have not probed the views of those who withdrew, or indeed, in a small number of cases, failed the course, although their views are included up until the point of their leaving the course. Finally, as Furlong et al (2000:120) and Robson (1993:128) highlight, students' views are just that: their views and should be treated with caution. But it is my belief that these views are interesting in themselves, to obtain a picture of their perceptions of themselves during the process of learning-to-teach.

Captive audiences such as students or student teachers often serve as respondents based on convenience sampling (Cohen et al, 2000:103). The parameters of generalisability in this type of sample are negligible (*ibid.*). I am not making generalisable claims with this study: the numbers of respondents and the research design do not warrant generalisable claims, and the two HEIs involved cannot be equated exactly. In addition, responses over a number of cohorts have been aggregated. Despite these provisos, however, the study is certainly replicable: trends, patterns and understandings can be highlighted with a high degree of confidence due to the high response rate and the triangulation techniques employed.

3.3: Research tools

3.3.1: Questionnaire design

There are now questionnaires in existence looking at the degree of 'communicativeness' in language teachers (Karavas-Doukas, 1996), but these emerged after I had developed my original questionnaire. They cover very similar items to elements of the one in the current study. Generic tools also exist, such as the *Stages of Concern Questionnaire*, analysed by Shotsberger and Crawford (1999), designed to investigate practising teachers' concerns during periods of reform and another is the *Teacher Belief Inventory* (Zeichner et al, 1987:33). Gilpin (1999:116) comments that such questionnaires may be familiar to participants and completed mechanistically or that they may use technical terms not understood by all. It was my intention to create tailored tools for my research questions (Edwards, 2001:48), rather than use or adapt one already available.

Fife-Schaw (1995:175) emphasises that 'designing the perfect questionnaire is probably impossible', a point reiterated by Nunan (1992:142) and Blaxter et al (1996:162). A semi-structured questionnaire met the requirements of the research design most appropriately (Cohen et al, 2000:248). The questionnaire was designed to include rating scales, open-ended questions and multiple-choice questions. Instructions were precisely phrased (McNeill, 1990:27) and care was taken to not include too many time-consuming open-ended items, but nevertheless to ensure respondents were able to include further information should they wish. The questionnaires adopt, clearly, a 'survey' approach, as Robson defines (1993:40) as a 'collection of information in standardised form from groups of people' but also employs qualitative methods to provide richer descriptions (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994:5). The open-ended sentence completion items in the SQ, for example, invited respondents to comment on their affective concerns.

3.3.2: Piloting the questionnaires

The process of piloting the questionnaire was essential in selecting response items and categories (McNeill, 1990:34; Nunan, 1992:145; Fife-Schaw, 1995:178; Cohen et al, 2000:255). It was also crucial to establish that the questionnaire would be straightforward to complete and

clear (Janesick, 1994:213). The pre-pilot (Cohen et al, 2000:173) involved open-ended questions in material administered in 1994-6 from which categories were then devised. A list of closed format items for those items on the applicant and snapshot questionnaires were thus created (Robson, 1993:243), with an 'other' category as appropriate. The selection of items appears to have been validated; for example, very few applicants completed the 'other' section in the first question, implying the selection of items met their needs. The items on the questionnaire were checked for face validity with practising language teachers. At this stage, a very open response task for Question 7 was replaced by three sentence completion items. The pilot which emerged from the pre-pilot material was then tested on a number of respondents to check wording and time required for completion. Particular attention was paid to the use of English given the number of non-native speakers of English on the course.

After drafting and piloting, some question wording was altered, sentence completion items changed and the layout of the questionnaire improved. It was designed to be completed in as short a time as possible whilst still eliciting sufficient data; time was precious for the respondents, and they would be meeting the questionnaire ten times in total. It was important they should not resent its completion. Thus, most of the items required only a tick or a ranking and only three sentence completion items were included. Respondents did, however, have the opportunity to comment throughout should they wish. Since the population being researched was known to the researcher, much of the factual data often required on questionnaires was unnecessary as questionnaires were named and distributed to each individual beginning teacher.

3.3.3: Structure and layout of the questionnaires

The applicant questionnaire (pre-course) and NQT questionnaire (post-course) differed slightly from the on-course SQ to accommodate the different circumstances. The questionnaire sent out pre-course also contains some language teaching pen portraits (short scenarios of language teachers' practice and opinions) to be graded according to applicants' judgements, which were then administered for a second time at the end of the course. The AQ comprised mainly open-ended questions with few predetermined categories. They were completed at length and in an apparently open manner by most respondents. This questionnaire had a strong MFL specific

focus, concentrating on students' perceptions of MFL teaching and learning and their attitudes and beliefs.

Scott (1996a:61) states that items in a questionnaire may be located along three continua: factual/opinion, open/closed, structured/unstructured. Both open-ended and closed format items were included in the tools used in this study. Closed items have the advantage (McNeill, 1990:26) that the results can be presented in the form of statistics and tables; open-ended items, such as the sentence completions, aimed at eliciting a more personal comment (Cohen et al, 2000:255) and increases the validity of survey style data (McNeill, 1990:26). There are, of course, inherent data handling and analysis difficulties with more open-ended items (Robson, 1993:243; Cohen et al, 2000:256). The sentence completion items were aimed at eliciting more spontaneity; respondents could write whatever they felt necessary or relevant. Some of the data involved the student teachers in a form of 'reflection-on-action' (Schön, 1987), but in an undirected manner. The physical layout of the questionnaires was also taken into account, leaving sufficient 'white space' to encourage completion (Fife-Schaw, 1995:190).

For most of the closed format items, a rating scale was used. Rating scales, or measures of intensity (Robson, 1993:248), are recommended for investigating attitudes, perceptions and opinions of respondents (Cohen et al, 2000:255) and build in a degree of sensitivity and differentiation of response while still generating numbers (Cohen et al, 2000:253). Such a scale is often referred to as a Likert scale, but technically this is only the case if a normal distribution is expected from the design (Fife-Schaw, 1995:187); not the case in this study. Mostly, this was a five point scale, but this can result in respondents' over-reliance on the neutral response (Robson, 1993:258; Fife-Schaw 1995:186). For this reason, in addition to the five-point scale, one question used a three-point scale and another a four-point scale. Closed format items require the researcher to have a reasonable idea of the likely responses to the items in advance (Fife-Schaw, 1995:177). This was developed through the pilot work. The closed format items had distinct advantages, especially that the respondents were able to complete them quickly. A range of items was used to avoid basing any conclusions on responses to single items, an approach that can contribute to triangulation (Robson, 1993:256).

The sequence of items was planned carefully (Robson, 1993:250; Fife-Schaw, 1995:188). Lead-in items were placed first on both questionnaires (Cohen et al, 2000:257). Question 1 on the AQ is very straightforward for example, concerning reasons for choosing the particular institution. The 31 statements on MFL methodology were randomly ordered rather than thematically grouped. The aim was to record students' initial reaction to a statement. If, for example, two statements such as:

'Grammar rules should be taught in English'
'Grammar should be dealt with in the target language'

had been situated immediately next to each other, the juxtaposition may have led to less spontaneity of response. Presented as they are, the statements offer the opportunity of some internal cross-checking. Sentence completion items covered both affective issues and pedagogical issues (similar categories to those used by Marti and Huberman, 1993:194).

Despite the piloting and considerations taken into account when designing the questionnaire, there are nevertheless elements which in retrospect could have been improved. Some of the individual items within questions could have been better worded to avoid potential ambiguity or the possibility of conveying a value judgement¹, thus confirming the view that the perfect questionnaire is impossible to design. Huberman and Miles acknowledge (1994:431) that changes in research tools in field studies usually indicate a better understanding of the setting, heightening the internal validity of the study. Whilst not wanting to invalidate the research design by changing the wording to questions (despite some shortcomings identified even after the piloting phase, these were kept intact), items were nevertheless added to the 1998-9 questionnaire in order to probe language learning and teaching attitudes more deeply and a question on significant subject knowledge experiences was also included.

Rating scales generate numerical data, which at first sight can appear quantitatively reassuring (Robson, 1993:125), but the significance of that data must be treated cautiously. As Cohen et al (2000: 254) rightly state, if a respondent ticks 'agree' this does not mean that another who ticks

¹ Especially given the number of non-native speakers of English on the course

'strongly agree' agrees twice as much. This impacts, then, on the interpretation of the data. Closed format items may also restrict a respondent's scope of response. Scott (1996a:57) emphasises that correlations identified in survey research are literally no more than this and need to be distinguished from causal relationships. Cohen et al (ibid.) recommend piloting the material and including an 'other' category to counter these points; action taken with regard to this study (see 3.3.2).

Many researchers (for example, Bullough et al, 1991; Bennett and Turner-Bisset, 1993:165; Dunne, 1993; Virta, 2000) choose methods other than surveys as they feel group averages do not reveal enough of the reality of experience. The approach adopted by this study, however, enabled students to go further than merely ticking a box, and it must also be remembered one of the main aims of the research design: namely to ensure respondents were not coerced into dedicating too much time to the research process. In addition, the open-ended responses are generally very full, and particularly so for the final snapshot, when respondents are working full-time in school. The combination of quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis serves to combat this criticism. Other researchers are quite disparaging of surveys or questionnaires on teachers' attitudes and beliefs, as, they claim, the researcher has decided the agenda (for example Zeichner et al, 1987:22). In the case of the present study, the open-ended nature of elements of the questionnaires plus the group discussions counter this argument to a great extent. The respondents were able, for example, in the sentence completion items, to include any information they felt appropriate and in the group discussions on video to talk about any topic they chose. Both Gilpin (1999:116) and Scott (1996a:57) criticise 'teacher's credo' style surveys as they have a tendency to have an ideologically 'correct' set of answers that the lecturer knows, and that categories are devised without reference to emerging data. The inclusion of a range of diverse and contrasting methodological statements in the SQ for this study counters this potential limitation.

A further criticism of survey research is that the respondents do not feel sufficiently involved in the research topic (Brookhart and Freeman, 1992:52). The response rate and extensive narrative responses in the present study would appear to refute this. Brookhart and Freeman (ibid.) also

state that much survey research is based in a single institutional context and does not differentiate on, for example, gender. Again, I have sought strategies in this study to counteract these criticisms. There are also other, well-established drawbacks of survey research, to a great extent inevitable in this type of study. Maturation (Brown, 1988:32; Robson, 1993:70), where the group diverges over time; and the reactivity effect (Brown, 1988:35; Kennedy, 1999:103), where the very process of administering the questionnaire on attitudes may result in respondents forming or solidifying attitudes they did not hold prior to completion of the questionnaire. Since responses to the questionnaires show considerable change and variation during the time period, this would appear to be less of a concern. Despite the caveats outlined above, the questionnaires would appear robust in design and to enable data to be collected which responds to the research questions.

3.3.4: Group discussions on video

A more informal means of data collection was also employed, that of unstructured group discussions recorded on video. Cohen et al (2000:281) describe a factor of the ideal interview as when the subject's answers are longer than the interviewer's questions. In the case of the group discussions in this study, my 'question' consisted of only a brief stimulus at the start of the discussion encouraging them to discuss their progress and their thoughts; the group then talked about whatever came to mind. The resultant discussions were open-ended in nature and each lasted approximately 45 minutes. Each discussion was started with a stimulus comment and students were then left to talk. It was their decision as to who contributed and what topics they discussed. Maykut and Morehouse (1994:103), describing a group interview, emphasise its usefulness in understanding people's experiences and bringing several perspectives into contact. They define a group interview as 'a group conversation with a purpose' (ibid:104), something I certainly intended with the discussions in this study, but where the purpose was to discover which topics emerged in the course of the discussion.

For the video discussion groups, a representative sample was attempted each time, which resulted in eleven and twelve student teachers respectively in the groups for the two cohorts who participated in this data collection; a figure recommended as appropriate for such activities

(Cohen et al, 2000:287). Each language specialism, (French, German, Spanish) presents its own challenges and I therefore also categorised the trainees according to gender, native speaker/non-native speaker, and age and then selected randomly (Nunan,1992:152).

Figure (v): Composition of the video groups

Year	Female	Male	Native speaker of TL	Total participants
1996-7	9	2	2	11
1997-8	9	3	3	12

The groups were brought together six times during the programme. On each occasion, the participants were reminded of the research purpose and the fact that the video recordings would only ever be seen by me. They were assured that any comments used would be anonymous and their confidentiality guaranteed.

As the discussions took place, I recorded them on video. This meant I was likely to exert less unintentional influence (Nunan, 1992:150) on what they were saying; indeed, I was not expected by the students to respond or even have facial expressions as I was behind the camera. I was 'there but not there', and achieved relative anonymity, illustrated in the quotation below, where the German teacher referred to is myself:

☛ I think one of the reasons why the A level German was so good, especially in the last few weeks, I was focussing not so much on the German but on the techniques that the teacher was using (V5/97-8)

Their agenda rather than mine could predominate (Cohen et al, 2000:288 refer to the employment of such 'free' group discussion as a 'focus group'). The discussions proved a source of rich qualitative data; there was the potential for discussions to develop, thereby yielding a wide range of responses (Cohen et al, 2000:287). The outcomes of these discussions clearly convey the preoccupations of the trainees, whether these are positive or negative, general or subject-specific.

Restrictions of time in the full PGCE programme meant I recorded the video discussions after lunch on a Friday when students had had a general professional studies morning. This meant

that more core topics were discussed almost as a follow on to their morning sessions than perhaps would have been the case on a 'subject' day, which might have been preferable with the focus of my research. It could also be argued that the discussions were subject to such an open agenda that the focus could not be on the research questions. Since, however, the use of these discussions was an attempt to increase the validity of the research, the emergence of data corresponding with that collected through the more formal methods strengthens the study's analysis.

3.4: Data collection

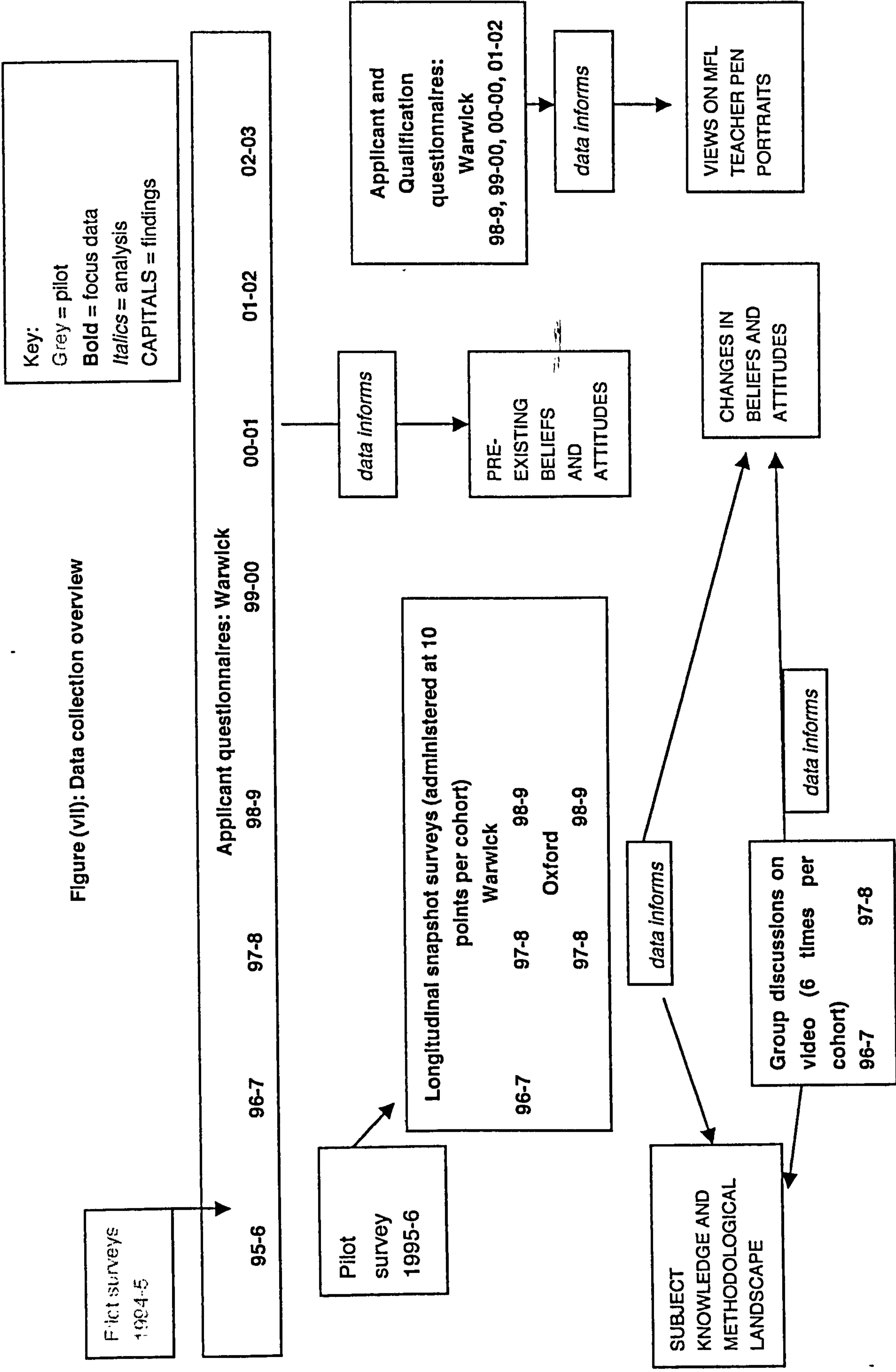
3.4.1: Data collection points

The majority of the SQ were completed during MFL subject sessions, but some were sent out and completed in students' own time (e.g. during TP); Figure (vi) presents the data collection points. Students did not keep their questionnaires once completed, ensuring they were unable to compare their current answers with previous ones. The AQ were not completed as a group but individually prior to the course, lessening the risk of peer influence. Data was collated and stored on an ongoing basis. With a longitudinal survey such as that employed here, and the number of individual questionnaire responses involved (around 1,300 in total), careful management of the growing data was essential (Huberman and Miles, 1994:430). All narrative responses were collated into a *Word* document, and rating scale responses into an *Excel* file. Hard copies of responses were filed per student to enable accurate checking of response rates. Figure (vii) illustrates the connection of data collection to research questions.

Figure (vi) Data collection points

Research tool	Collection points
Applicant questionnaire	Pre-course each year from 1995
S1	Early October 1996, 1997, 1998 (after 2 weeks of the University course)
Video 1	Early October 1996, 1997
S2	Late October 1996, 1997, 1998 (just prior to first Block Placement)
Video 2	Late October 1996, 1997
S3	Mid November 1996, 1997, 1998 (half way through first Block Placement)
S4	January 1997, 1998, 1999 (University-based)
Video 3	January 1997, 1998
S5	February 1997, 1998, 1999 (during school <i>and</i> University based time)
Video 4	February 1997, 1998
S6	March 1997, 1998, 1999 (just before second Block Placement)
Video 5	March 1997, 1998
S7	April 1997, 1998, 1999 (one third through second Block Placement)
S8	May 1997, 1998, 1999 (two thirds way through second Block Placement)
S9	Late June 1997, 1998, 1999 (at end of course)
Video 6	Late June 1997, 1998
S10	October 1997, 1998, 1999 (when qualified and working as NQTs)

Figure (VII): Data collection overview



3.4.2: Number of respondents

Many studies of beginning teachers involve a small number of pre-service teachers (e.g. Bullough, 1992: two beginning English teachers; Grenfell, 1998: five female MFL student teachers; Brown, 1987: seven pre-service teachers in a range of subjects). The focus for the SQ in this study was on three complete cohorts of student teachers. The whole population of the MFL PGCE group was invited to participate each time (Robson, 1993:136). In addition, the two groups of students from OUDES comprised approximately half of the MFL cohort from that institution each year. There are no claims, however, that these numbers are thereby representative of all MFL student teachers. Figure (viii) illustrates numbers of females, males, native speakers (including bilingual students) and course completions for each cohort and for each HEI². Variations in potential numbers of responses is dependent on the varying numbers of student teachers admitted on to the programme. For most items where statistical analysis has been carried out, the number of respondents is large enough to warrant such a statistical treatment. However, on *some* items analysed for male and native speaker respondents, numbers are very small and results for those specific elements must be treated cautiously.

² The Oxford sample from 1998-9 did not complete S10

Figure (vIII): Respondents

Key
W = Warwick
Ox = Oxford

Shaded boxes indicate focus cohorts

Year	Females					Males					Total (Males + Females)
	Number	HEI	Native speakers	Completed course	Number	HEI	Native speakers	Completed course			
94-5 (pilot)	21	W	3	19	5	W	1	5	26		
95-6	25	W	5	22	5	W	0	4	30		
96-7	30	W	6	28	10	W	3	9	40		
97-8	38	W	16 ³	34	9	W	2	8	47		
97-8	9	Ox	1	9	1	Ox	0	1	10		
98-9	28	W	7	24	7	W	2	6	35		
98-9	8	Ox	2	8	2	Ox	1	2	10		
99-00	20	W	4	19	4	W	2	4	24		
00-01	25	W	4	22	5	W	2	5	30		
01-02	26	W	6	21	8	W	2	5	34		
02-03	18	W	4	16	8	W	3	8	26		

³ The percentage of native speaker student teachers in 1997-8 was relatively high, although numbers of students overall in that cohort were higher than otherwise.

3.4.3: Response rates

3.4.3.1: Snapshot questionnaires (S1 – S10)

This study achieved an average response rate of 85%. Brookhart and Freeman (1992:51) indicate that 57%-87% is a high response rate for questionnaire surveys. McNeill (1990:40) indicates that face-to-face research (of which this study is a type, as opposed to postal surveys) can hope to achieve 70% or even 80% response. The response rate for S10 in this study, i.e. from newly qualified teachers in their first post, is particularly gratifying, particularly as not all students qualifying to teach entered teaching immediately. The high response rate may result partly through the personal contact with me but it also shows the students' interest in the issue and commitment to their own development.

Figure (ix): Actual responses for each SQ over 3 cohorts at two HEIs

	Potential responses	Actual responses ⁴	Percentage response
S1	143	133	93%
S2	137	127	93%
S3	135	107	79%
S4	133	120	90%
S5	133	120	90%
S6	133	119	89%
S7	133	110	83%
S8	133	98	74%
S9	132	124	94%
S10	120	78	65%

The difference between *potential* responses and *actual* responses in Figure (ix) indicates the mortality rate (Robson, 1993:70). This consists of both non-response and students who withdrew from the course during the year. There is also a slightly lower response rate in the summer term 1999 during my maternity leave; this explains the overall lowest percentage response for S8 for those questionnaires administered during the course. SQs during block teaching placements (S3, S7, and S8) achieve a lower response rate than those completed during HEI based periods or

⁴ Does not indicate each respondent completed all items in a particular questionnaire

when students were spending time in both school and University. S10 was the only questionnaire administered wholly by post, yet resulted in a very high response rate of 65%. For S10, those beginning teachers who had not yet taken up a teaching post (some had returned to France for a year, for example) were clearly unable to complete a questionnaire.

3.4.3.2: Applicant questionnaires

The applicant questionnaire (AQ) developed over the eight years of this study which of necessity resulted in varying numbers of responses to individual items, but numbers of completed questionnaires are as illustrated in Figure (x).

Figure (x): AQ responses:

	Potential responses	Actual responses	Percentage response
AQ/95-6	30	26	87%
AQ/96-7	40	35	88%
AQ/97-8	47	38	81%
AQ/98-9	35	33	94%
AQ/99-00	24	20	83%
AQ/00-01	30	30	100%
AQ/01-02	34	31	91%
AQ/02-03	26	22	85%

3.5: Data analysis

This study employs two types of analysis: statistical and interpretive (Nunan, 1992:4). This results in qualitative research findings inductively derived from the data (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994:121) and quantitative research findings derived from elements in the research design where non-verbal responses were requested. Statistical, quantitative analysis is used with the data collection methods generating numerical data (for example the rating scale items). Interpretive, qualitative analysis (Cohen et al, 2000:282) is conducted with the open-ended items (for example, the sentence completions and the group discussions). There is also some simple quantitative analysis of qualitative data (Bailey and Nunan, 1996:3), for example, to illustrate the frequency of occurrence of a particular theme (Robson, 1993:402)

3.5.1: Quantitative analysis

A sample size of 30 is held by many (Cohen et al, 2000:93) to be the minimum number of cases if researchers plan to use some form of statistical analysis on their data. This number was exceeded in virtually all cases where statistical analysis was employed (except on some occasions when native speaker and male sub-groups were analysed). For all closed format questionnaire items, data sets were created in SPSS and Excel. Excel proved to be the most suitable for the statistical analyses required. For rating scale or multi-choice items on the applicant and snapshot questionnaires, responses were numerically coded as in Figure (xi) (Robson, 1993:253) and percentages calculated for level of agreement or disagreement with each response for each cohort in each institution. Trends were then identified across cohorts and between HEIs.

Figure (xi): Numerical codings for rating scale items

Agree strongly	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Disagree strongly
5	4	3	2	1
Very confident	Confident	Not very confident	Not at all confident	
4	3	2	1	
Very confident	Reasonably confident		Not very confident	
3	2		1	

Further statistical analysis was then carried out collating all responses from all cohorts and both institutions to each item. The arithmetical means and standard deviations were calculated as descriptive statistics using Excel. The mean would therefore provide information about the central tendencies on the attitude scales, whilst the standard deviation would convey vital information regarding the dispersion of the responses, i.e. to what extent the ratings varied from the mean. I present tables in Chapters 5 and 6 for each item showing the mean and standard deviation (at the 10 snapshot points) for the whole population and sub groups of males, females

and native-speakers⁵. Items where there were differences in means of 0.5 or more for rating scales of 1-5 and 1-4, and over 0.4 or more for scales of 1-3 over the period studied (S1-S9) are also highlighted. Deciding on this figure as demonstrating change is, of course, to some extent arbitrary, but taking into account response rate and the rating scale spread it would seem sensible. Changes from S1-S9, and from S9-S10 are presented. Tests for statistical significance were carried out, but detectable trends and changes in means were more revealing.

3.5.2: Qualitative analysis

Maykut and Morehouse (1994:x) see data analysis as one aspect in which qualitative and quantitative research are most dissimilar. This is to a great extent also true of this study: but both the qualitative and the quantitative analysis are designed to be rigorous and thorough and for each to strengthen the other. Qualitative analysis was used for the open-ended responses in the applicant and snapshot questionnaire. The process followed well-established methods of inductive content analysis (Delamont, 1992:150; Robson, 1993:253; Janesick, 1994:215; Maykut and Morehouse, 1994:126; Scott, 1996b:143) where the data was collated, read, re-read, and themes, patterns and categories identified and regularities discovered (Robson, 1993:372). Tentative conceptual categories were then coded. The responses were analysed systematically, and occurrences of each category or theme counted. Like Woods, (1996:32), *implicit* beliefs emerged through the respondents' comments. This was certainly a time-consuming (Brown and McIntyre, 1993:53) but revealing process as themes and trends emerged from approximately 114,000 words of narrative response to the sentence completion items alone. Most responses were very full and often contained multiple themes, necessitating a number of separate codings for each response. This necessitated careful reading and the use of judgement in the devising and composition of categories (Nunan, 1992:146; Cohen et al, 2000:284).

The questionnaire responses were therefore post-coded (Cohen et al, 2000:265); generally, no *a priori* categories were used (Freeman, 1996:371; Cohen et al, 2000:106); the data was analysed

⁵ As the responses for the AQ were anonymous, data was analysed from a whole cohort perspective, and individual differences such as gender or age could not be taken into account, or only tangentially if these factors emerged in the responses to items within the questionnaire

inductively. One set of *a priori* categories was, however, employed with some items; those of *self, task and impact* concerns (Fuller and Bown, 1975). These were used as *guided categories* (as also employed by Freeman, 1996:371) and in the process of data analysis, supplementary categories were deemed necessary (see Chapter 5). As this is a longitudinal study, with data collected over a number of years, preliminary, interim categories began to emerge during the process of data collection (Robson, 1993:377) and memos and notes (Robson, 1993:386) were made throughout the research period.

The process for content analysis was based initially on that recommended by Cohen et al (2000:148-9), and is described in Figure (xii). The labelling of individual responses (seen by Maykut and Morehouse, 1994:127 as an essential preparation for data analysis) ensured the derivation of any quotation or response would be clear, for example, which snapshot (S1-S10), which Institution (W or Ox) and which cohort.

Figure (xii): Content analysis procedure

1. Responses collated and entered into a word document
2. Individual responses labelled (e.g. 'App/98-9')
3. Initial reading of collated responses
4. Second reading
5. Drafting and naming of categories and allocation of codes for each
6. Initial coding
7. Merging of snapshot data from different cohorts
8. Third reading
9. Revising and discarding of categories as appropriate and amendments to codings as necessary
10. Coding of responses (many individual responses received a large number of codings)
11. Read through and check allocations
12. Tally conducted for numbers of occurrences
13. Overarching themes, relationships, trends and issues identified
14. Qualitative and quantitative analysis compared and merged

As well as the identification of trends, I was conscious of the need not to lose any unique or contradictory information (Huberman, 1993:20), nor to be swayed by positive instances (Robson, 1993:374) and made notes and devised additional categories as necessary.

3.5.3: Analysis of material recorded on video

As I was recording the group discussions, I was able to watch and think as the participants were talking. If there were any issues that needed addressing immediately, I did so afterwards; it would have been unethical to ignore problems. The video was then watched through initially, and I made notes on major points. It was then watched in more detail, pausing to transcribe as much as possible in what proved inevitably to be a very time-consuming process (Mercer, 1991:49; Maykut and Morehouse, 1994:100) with around 66,000 words of transcript. The transcriptions were then typed up in word documents and each response labelled (e.g. V1/96-7). As Cohen et al (2000:281) point out, a transcription inevitably loses some of the original information such as non-verbal communication. I attempted to counter this by including references to, for example, *'general agreement'*, *'laughter'* etc. in the transcription. Themes were then identified through a process of coding, categorising and cross-checking with the other qualitative and quantitative data resulting in a synthesised analysis.

3.5.4: Selection of data and use of quotations

Any process of analysis involves selection and potential fragmentation of the data (Cohen et al, 2000:282). I have attempted to retain as much of the 'whole' picture as possible by selecting quotations which are representative of a trend or pattern, and reinforcing the pattern by presenting tables illustrating the frequency of occurrence of each category. Quotations are therefore to be read against both the quantitative and qualitative background provided. They are usually instances of a type illustrating a particular trend (Wideen et al, 1998:162). Occasionally, they are selected because they are unusual or highlight contradictory evidence. Where this occurs, it is indicated. I have also ensured that the derivation of any quotation is clear: each is followed by a brief abbreviated description of the questionnaire or video discussion, the HEI and year of its origin (Figure xiii). All quotations in double quotation marks stem from questionnaires; those with a video camera symbol are taken from discussions on video. Quotations derived from sentence completion items, where the sense of the response is not clear in isolation, an abbreviated version of the sentence starter precedes the quotation. These are as follows: *'feeling'*, *'would like'*, and *'teaching influence'*. All quotations are reproduced exactly (i.e. with

student teachers' own spelling and emphasis) but most have been edited to illustrate the particular point they are illustrating; the student teachers' responses were generally very detailed and to reproduce each response in full would have had substantial implications for the presentation of this study.

Figure (xiii): Abbreviations for quotation derivation codings

Ox	W	V	App	Qual	S1-S10
Oxford	Warwick	Video	Applicant questionnaire	End of year questionnaire	Snapshot questionnaire number

Some items in the questionnaires were not analysed for the purpose of this study; partly for reasons of space but mainly to enable a focus on the more revealing data. It would have also been possible to use further, supplementary data (for example placement evaluations) to provide additional evidence for trends. It was the case, however, that it was deemed important to focus and to use data common to both HEIs as far as possible. The video discussion data was then employed to provide triangulation. With large numbers of respondents, it would in any case have been very difficult to take the naturalistic approach of Grenfell (1998) where he made use of data which would have been generated in the usual course of the programme (e.g. diaries and lesson debriefs). The research tools I have adopted for this study are common to all participants and therefore increase the reliability of the study.

3.6: Interpretation

The choice of research design results in an analysis that combines narrative and statistics: the interpretation is a synthesis of all the components. Following the data analysis process outlined above, and the adoption of a multi-method approach, I have endeavoured to portray the respondents' views as fully and honestly as possible. Nevertheless, I must put forward some provisos about the complexity of interpretation. I concur with Elbaz (1991:10) who explains that however desirable it is to search to express the teacher's perspective and voice, it is still the researcher who 'writes' the voice. Any interpretation of the respondents' perspectives involves an interpretation by the researcher and then a writing (or 'languaging', Usher, 1996:27) of the respondents' reality. I prefer the term 'perspectival' (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994:19) to

'subjective'; I was as *objective* (in the sense of portraying student teachers' views fairly) as possible, given my inevitable perspective. This written interpretation is then read and again interpreted by the reader (Nicholson, 1996:2); this is referred to, of course, as the double hermeneutic (Usher, 1996:20). By incorporating the beginning teachers' words exactly as they said or wrote them, I am confident I have addressed the risk of bias as far as possible.

Scott (1996a:64) cautions that this type of research is a social activity and is therefore never likely to be completely coherent, reliable or valid (however defined). Apposite to the present study is perhaps the metaphor of the 'bricoleur' (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994:3), where they acknowledge that the product is complex and collage-like. Alexander et al (1992:60) comment that their interpretation involved discovering themes from fragments. This study has sought to minimise any potential bias by using data as representatively as possible (Cohen et al, 2000:117) and ensuring that qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis are combined. In the process of interpretation, I present some figures and models which serve as heuristic devices (as employed successfully by Clark and Peterson, 1986:256) to aid visualisation of the methodological landscape. These models are not presented as definitive, but as indicative of the interpretation of the data. The interpretation therefore could be described as Maykut and Morehouse (1994:122) term 'interpretive-descriptive', but where the quantitative data amplifies the qualitative analysis and vice versa.

In order to conceptualise student teachers' ideas and mental structures of methodological approaches, I have elected to use a metaphor, that of *methodological landscape*. As Oxford et al (1998:4) explain, this use of a familiar object can help elucidate features of a more complex situation. Thus in the landscape described here, ideas and approaches which are fundamental to student teachers' methodological beliefs are portrayed as significant landmarks, whereas others are less prominent or even beyond the horizon. Woods (1996:213) uses the term *pedagogical concepts* to perform a similar function. He also refers (ibid:293) to 'core' and 'peripheral' beliefs. To change core beliefs, according to Woods, is a far more complex operation than to alter those on the periphery. Although many metaphors have been used to express facets of language teaching and learning (Oxford et al, 1998), I have not encountered 'landscape'. Beginning

teachers in this study used many metaphors of their own, some of which appear in quotations used in this study.

Chapter 4: Student teachers' pre-course beliefs. The basis for the development of their methodological landscape

4.1: Introduction

The findings presented in this chapter build a picture of the MFL student teachers' beliefs, motivations and concerns as they embark upon their teaching careers. Beginning with a discussion on their motivations to teach MFL, it explores the background of the respondents in this study as they are about to start their training. It then considers what beliefs and emerging ideas on languages and methodology they bring with them and what expectations they have of the year ahead. It is at this point immediately before their training that one might expect Furlong's (1996) stage of 'early Idealism', where, for example, students identify closely with their future pupils. Both cognitive and affective factors are explored (Elbaz, 1983:23) in the chapter, incorporating, for example, beginning teachers' preparation for the year ahead and their feelings and concerns. The themes discussed are derived from a variety of stimulus questions in the applicant questionnaire (Appendix 1): all analysis is based on data collected, therefore, before each cohort's official programme began covering a total of eight year groups.

The analysis of this data provides a view of the background against which any change or growth in student teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards languages and methodology must be seen. The analysis of data emerging from the three cohorts studied intensively and analysed in Chapters 5 and 6 is more valuable and visible in the light of this overview. The analysis results in a preliminary outline of a conceptual *methodological landscape* held by student teachers, providing the background against which any subsequent modification or development occurs. Themes emerging from this pre-course data continue to be important during the year, such as the desire for fantasy solutions and future wishing, although changes and fluctuations occur in other aspects. In addition to providing a basis against which to evaluate changes and developments in these beliefs and attitudes for the purposes of this study, the AQ in practice gave student

teachers themselves a means of exploring their individual feelings and beliefs about teaching, learning and languages to help them set the course in context. A clear desire is expressed by these student teachers to organise their thinking in preparation for the forthcoming year.

The overall impression is one of a very conscientious group of student teachers, thoroughly committed at this stage to their choice of career, but who are tentative in many of their responses and who appear to be aware at least partially of the learning ahead.

“Spent the summer as a personal tutor to two young people aged 15 and 12 - which gave me some understanding of what is expected of kids in school at present. Was able to look at their textbooks, monitor their work and talk to them about their work, all of which gave me an insight into current practice.”
(App/97-8)

“So far I have been on 2 observational placements at 2 different schools, during which I was able to talk extensively with not only the subject teachers but also with other key figures within the schools. I have also read some of the course books, both core and language specific. I have also familiarised myself with the national curriculum for modern languages and schemes of work for KS3 & 4.” (App/01-2)

4.2: Student teachers' motivation to teach MFL

Studies on motivation to teach reveal a variety of relevant factors. Although it is pointed out by some (for example, Huberman and Grounauer, 1993:109) that these reasons do include at least some material motivations, most research has found that beginning teachers are primarily motivated by reasons which are positive, altruistic (Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Spear et al, 2000) and professionally *sound* (Brookhart and Freeman, 1992:40; Calderhead and Shorrock, 1997:205; Reid and Caudwell, 1997:46; Kyriacou et al, 1999; Pepin, 2000; Hammond, 2002). This has been confirmed by a recent GTC/Guardian/MORI survey (General Teaching Council, 2003), where pay was not viewed as a strong factor in the decision to teach. Moreover, Wideen et al (1998:142) state that research shows the beliefs of beginning teachers to be liberal and humanistic (for example, with the emphasis on such characteristics as 'caring', 'helpful', and 'keen for social betterment' on the part of the pupils). Protherough and Atkinson (1991:21) found that English teachers regarded personal qualities even more highly than knowledge of the subject. As early as 1975 Lortie also confirmed this: reasons he termed 'idealistic' achieved the highest

ranking in motivating factors (Lortie, 1975:107) and Feiman-Nemser and Floden (1986:510) state that intrinsic rewards gain in importance due to the relative absence of extrinsic benefits. The findings of this study reveal similar reasons for choosing to teach as those found in the literature.

These intrinsic motivating factors cited in the research often include enjoyment of working with children, job satisfaction and a desire to use subject knowledge (Reid and Caudwell, 1997), although the factors vary in their relative importance in individual studies, and it is more usual to find the subject as a high priority with *secondary* student teachers (Lyons, 1981); indeed the subject choice may take precedence for them over the decision to *teach per se* (Virta, 2000) and even in Lortie's 1975 study, where subject matter plays little part in his analysis of motivation, 'continuation', which incorporates subject matter interest, is more popular with high school than with elementary teachers. Heafford and Jennison (1998:153) found that working with children and using subject knowledge were still enjoyable for their respondents 15 years into their teaching careers. Chambers and Roper (2000:26) reveal that some student teachers who withdraw from the PGCE nevertheless still claim to love their subject and children. The factors appear to vary for different subject specialisms but there has, however, been little research into MFL student teachers' reasons for electing to teach and very little research on foreign native speakers training to become MFL teachers (Block, 2001:293). Kyriacou and Benmansour (1999) found that the chief reason for prospective MFL teachers choosing to teach was their subject: both enjoyment of languages and viewing languages as important. Spezzini and Oxford (1998) investigated MFL teachers' motivations to teach in a North American context and found *culture* was of greater importance to their respondents than *language*. The present study's investigation over eight cohorts reveals both love of languages and recognition of the importance of TL culture as powerful motivators.

Kyriacou et al (1999:374) divide motivation into *altruistic*, *intrinsic*, and *extrinsic* factors, and Huberman and Grounauer (1993) use *active*, *material*, and *passive* motivators in their classification. In the present study, the latter two categories were not mentioned by any

respondents; it is certainly *altruistic* factors rather than *material* rewards which act as motivators for them (Table I), although it is passion for the subject (that is, *intrinsic* motivation) which is paramount. This emphasis on altruism and the passion for languages continues until they are about to qualify (see Chapter 5). At that point, money is mentioned tentatively by a few respondents, albeit frequently accompanied by an apology. Indeed, far from entering teaching *because* of the pay, as is evident from their motivations to teach, some students in this study are financially insecure *because* of their decision to teach, and some have taken pay cuts. As Huberman and Grounauer (1993:121) acknowledge, however, researchers cannot expect respondents to open up with such information very readily. This is particularly true, of course, where respondents are about to embark on their course and may be wishing to create a positive impression.

4.2.1: Reasons to teach MFL. The love of languages

The love of the subject as a motivating factor in the desire to teach is widely acknowledged (Sikes 1985:35; Laws, 1999:4; Pepin, 2000:17), and, as in this study, Virta (2000:3) found prospective history teachers also spoke of a passion for their subject. Bullough et al (1991:119) cite a case study where the student teacher's motivation to teach language was driven by love of the Spanish language during residence in Argentina; a finding also mirrored in this study, where many respondents cite experiences in a TL country as pivotal in their decision to teach.

Huberman and Grounauer (1993:113) found love of the discipline was mentioned by 30% of their respondents, and (ibid.:115) also call this strong feeling a 'passion'. They go on to amplify their findings by pointing out that (ibid.:123-4) more women chose love of the subject as a reason and that material motivations play a lesser role. This finding has resonance in the current study, where the majority of respondents are female (Figure viii) in a female dominated subject (Trafford, 1999:52). The student teachers in this study display an overwhelming love of languages prior to starting this course. This passion is their prime motivation to teach and it shines through the responses, providing an apparently certain foundation for their learning-to-teach.

Table I presents student teachers' motivating factors in rank order of overall numbers of responses. (See Appendix 1 for original item order). Some of the key elements of the emerging methodological landscape are also evident as strong motivating factors for electing to teach, and to teach languages:

- The enjoyment of languages;
- The crucial nature of the cultural aspects of the subject;
- The pre-eminence of communication.

Also evident is the strong conviction (90%) that inspiration from the teacher will be vital in their teaching but the inspiration from the teacher is seen to stem from the love of the subject. The love of the subject is something that they have generally felt for a long time. An extremely consistent theme throughout this chapter is straightforward *enjoyment* of languages when they were learners themselves, a factor that appears to have led almost directly to student teachers' reasons for wishing to teach languages. This is for some respondents distinct from the opinion on the teacher. They appear to think this will now happen again, with them in the role of inspirational, enthusiastic teacher. It has been pointed out that this is a common tendency for pre-service teachers (Joram and Gabriele, 1998:187) and that maintaining learners' interest and motivation is seen as pre-eminent, without focusing on the *learning* which may or may not be happening:

“I think I enjoyed my language lessons on the whole merely because I love talking and learning languages - but not because the teachers were particularly inspiring. On the contrary, in fact, I am surprised that I wasn't completely put off them as a result of the dull, traditional way in which we were taught (mainly).” (App/01-2)

Student teachers show a very high level of passion and enthusiasm throughout their often very extensive responses; they are about to start their course and it would clearly be disappointing if they were to be cynical at this stage. The degree of passion displayed for languages is nevertheless striking (echoing their motivation to teach): over eight cohorts comprising of 235 respondents, 115 express the love of their subject as a prime reason for their being potentially a good teacher of MFL (Table IV). This enthusiasm and passion is often the first reason mentioned in responses.

"I have a great passion for the languages I have studied and I will teach them with enthusiasm. I feel it is important that pupils are able to enjoy learning a foreign language as much as I do." (App/98-9)

24 of the 115 responses allocated to this category explicitly use the words 'passion' or 'passionate' and often prefaced by 'real' or 'genuine', and 38 used the word 'love' in this context. Given the nature of the responses in this study, it is crucial to consider student teachers' passion for their subject when constructing their motivation to teach and their beliefs about their role as teachers. As Virta (2000:1) asserts, little research has been conducted into this aspect, although of course there is a rich vein of research on student teacher beliefs about *teaching* at the beginning of their pre-service education (e.g. Calderhead, 1991; John, 1996). Linked to this avowed passion is a strong desire (expressed by 62 respondents) to share this enthusiasm with others.

"I have great enthusiasm for the learning of foreign languages and I want to work alongside children to see them develop a love for languages (App/98-9)

Enthusiasm for the language to be taught is mentioned far more frequently than *competence* in the language itself as a reason for believing they would be a good language teacher. These findings clearly illustrate a path leading to the motivating factors they cite as reasons for wanting to teach.

"I love French, and want others to love it. I have lots of ideas about lessons. I want language lessons to be enjoyable." (App/00-1)

49 responses included comments relating to enjoyment of working with children, but mostly these were closely linked with languages, rather than working with children *per se*. The subject remains paramount. However, when asked what they were looking forward to (Table VI), student teachers cited working with pupils as the most popular response. This is now their opportunity to bring languages into the classroom and into pupils' lives.

4.2.2: Subject knowledge in MFL

The *love* of languages is clear from the findings already discussed in this chapter. *Competence* in the language (what they consider to be the requisite levels of knowledge and what is needed to

improve) is less visible, although for some students it is more important than others. Teachers' educational experiences and attitudes are seen as very important in their construction of subject knowledge (Allebone and Davies, 2000:64). In this sphere, Wilson et al (1987:110) looked at novice teachers' prior beliefs to investigate the development of their SK, but unfortunately no linguists were included in their sample of 21. However, Sato and Kleinsasser (1999:510) found that the practising MFL teachers they studied were strongly influenced by how they had learned languages themselves, an unsurprising yet important finding for this study. SK concerns understandably in this study depend on individuals' needs and backgrounds. Non-native speakers of English for example relate SK directly to concerns about having to complete academic work in English.

Many comments relate to *specific* areas of SK where the respondents feel they have gaps or weaknesses, and many of these relate to grammar. This is an element that becomes a controversial aspect of their methodological landscape as the year progresses. They feel uncertain because of their own perceived imprecise knowledge of the TL grammar, and partly because they are unsure as to how they will incorporate (or be *expected* to incorporate) grammar in their teaching.

"I have learnt German since I lived in [TL country] for well over 10 years, I therefore never actually learnt the grammar, I just know it, I know the right way but often do not know why. I am worried this will pose difficulties and hope I will learn this on the course." (App/95-6)

Personal competence and improvement in the TL are emphasised by many. They appear to realise that their SK gained in higher education and even by living in the TL culture may not match up sufficiently to the 'TL of the classroom'.

"Motivated, looking forward to it, but a little apprehensive about bridging the gap between 'degree language' and 'classroom language'." (App/01-2)

"My knowledge of basic German (e.g. classroom vocabulary) which I have forgotten or never learned (i.e. I am an expert in medieval text, but can't ask for the board rubber!" (App/96-7)

Most SK concerns, however, are expressed in vague terms, and revolve around retrieving fluency, as well as demonstrating understanding that the TL will need to be *used* in the classroom.

Despite their unequivocal passion for the subject, there is a distinct undercurrent of anxiety about their level of competence. They are generally not at all complacent about their SK in the teaching and learning context.

“Brushing up my French to enable me to be more marketable and gain more confidence in classroom.” (App/99-00)

In spite of these concerns, the respondents have clearly succeeded with languages. When pinpointing the reasons for their success with learning languages, three factors prevail. Firstly, an inspirational teacher (whatever that may mean) is crucial. Secondly, early success, and having that success (often called ‘flair’ or ‘talent’ by respondents) acknowledged. Thirdly, a positive experience abroad and/or with native speakers, even through pen friends. However, this positive attitude and self-belief appears to be very strongly linked with a *particular* TL: it does not transfer automatically to all foreign languages. Many respondents explain at length about why they achieved in one language, but why the other was viewed much more negatively. This is certainly a matter of concern for ITE MFL. It is often essential that a student teacher is prepared to teach their FL2. Effective linguistic preparation and support in both FL1 and FL2, often to re-motivate their FL2 learning is crucial. Additional comments frequently relate to SK, especially concerns about their FL2, demonstrating a tendency to place this aspect of SK at the forefront of concerns:

“Slightly worried about linguistic ability in subsidiary language (particularly basics as I started at University level and thus skipped important GCSE type of vocabulary.” (App/00-01)

The awareness of the perceived gap between their language and their assumptions about classroom language indicates the beginnings of an embryonic pedagogical content knowledge (or a pale version thereof). This is certainly evident in some responses, or at least, the acknowledgement that there is a need to ‘do something’ with the language; a factor which emerges later in the year as central in their methodological landscape. They are, however, not clear at this stage what it may involve, but their perspectives on their previous teachers’ explanations are also linked with PCK.

“Disliked: we used to learn just grammar (foreign language – English); some teachers know a lot, they are nice, but they don’t know how to teach (frustration for both: pupils and teacher). Enjoyed: activities with magazines, videos, small trips, movement; group work (which was not very often); debates; teachers using anecdotes to illustrate ideas.” (App/98-9)

“I have a good level of the foreign language. But I also feel that I have good ideas on how to break down the language into a basic form to make it easily understood, by using games and visual materials.” (App/98-9)

Cultural information and experiences are pivotal factors in the positive attitude the student teachers developed towards languages. 168 of the 200 responses (Table VII) include reference to culture or native speaker contact in some form. Many cite a trip or exchange as crucial in their language learning history and cultural factors are viewed as essential in teaching and learning MFL. This is again echoed in the methodological landscape that continues to emerge throughout the year. These are people who have a desire to communicate in the TL and make contact with people abroad, and want to enable the same experiences for their future pupils. They also believe they can do this, however many reservations they may cite.

Table 1: Motivation to teach languages

Cohort(n)	1996-7 (35)	1997-8 (38)	1998-9 (33)	1999-00 (20)	2000-01 (30)	2001-2 (31)	2002-3 (22)	Total n=209
I want to be able to inspire pupils to learn languages	20(57%)	31(82%)	27(82%)	19(95%)	26(87%)	26(84%)	20(91%)	189(90%)
Teaching languages will be challenging but rewarding	2(7%)	34(90%)	30(91%)	18(90%)	27(90%)	30(97%)	16(73%)	182(87%)
I want others to enjoy languages as much as I do	26(74%)	31(82%)	25(76%)	17(85%)	28(93%)	23(74%)	19(86%)	169(81%)
It is important for pupils to appreciate other cultures	23(66%)	28(74%)	23(70%)	16(80%)	27(90%)	22(71%)	20(91%)	159(76%)
I want a job where I can use my language(s)	24(69%)	31(82%)	21(64%)	16(80%)	21(70%)	19(61%)	16(73%)	148(71%)
I want to pass on my knowledge to others	21(60%)	26(68%)	24(73%)	17(85%)	22(73%)	22(71%)	11(50%)	143(68%)
Languages are exciting to teach as they involve real communication	23(66%)	28(74%)	19(58%)	13(65%)	17(57%)	16(52%)	12(55%)	140(67%)
I already have experience in teaching and feel it is the right job for me	23(66%)	27(71%)	23(70%)	13(65%)	17(57%)	19(61%)	14(64%)	136(65%)
Teaching languages will enable me to use my abilities (for example to be creative)	19(54%)	25(66%)	20(61%)	12(60%)	18(60%)	16(52%)	5(23%)	115(55%)
I feel at home in an educational environment	22(63%)	21(55%)	19(58%)	11(55%)	14(47%)	16(52%)	6(28%)	109(52%)
This country needs people to learn languages	19(54%)	19(50%)	12(36%)	11(55%)	18(60%)	17(55%)	11(50%)	107(51%)
Other (please describe)	3(9%)	2(5%)	1(3%)	0	1(3%)	0	0	7(3%)

Data derived from AQ, question 2 (NB: this question did not appear in this form in 1995-6)

There are other, related, aspects informing student teachers' decision to teach MFL. Important for many respondents is the decision they have taken to change career (see also Hunt, 2002).

Positive factors emerging in this major decision again involve a love of foreign languages:

"Having recently given up a career which made me thoroughly miserable, I'm looking forward to meeting my fellow students and other people who share my love of languages and interest in education." (App/96-7)

Most comments related to career change echo the reasons cited in general for wanting to teach MFL: there appears to be no major difference between motivations for those embarking on a second or third career and those entering teaching immediately after completion of their own education. Themes which subsequently recur throughout the programme for non-career changers are also evident in these comments, such as the desire to start teaching as soon as possible and questions about the self and their own (teaching) ability.

"Really excited and motivated at the prospect of starting the course. Having now finished work, I know I've made the right decision and can't wait to start!" (App/01-2)

Some student teachers express an excitement (or apprehension concerning the challenge) about the opportunity to study again.

"Nervous and excited at the prospect of returning to study after 15 years and work after 8 years at home. I feel excited that I am finally starting what has been a long held ambition." (App/01-2)

"Very excited about the whole course (I cannot wait to get started) after this initial observation week. I look forward to being a student again as well - to have time solely to learn again. Seems blissful after 2 years in a boring office." (App/01-2)

It is apparent that the majority of the student teachers have thought very carefully about their choice, whether or not they have had previous professional experience.

"I am very excited, yet I am also slightly worried, as I am yet not sure how I will do in this new environment, what tasks I will have to face and how I will manage them. On the whole I am, however, very much looking forward to my new experiences next year. This is especially so as I will be able to do much more practical work than I was allowed so far. From conversations with PGCE students (fellow students from [*named University*]), I expect next year to be hard work with very little time for relaxation scattered in between. I was also warned of the attitude some students/pupils take at schools which take part in PGCE programmes. Yet I was also told about the rewarding experiences which, at least for most students, seem to outnumber the unpleasant ones. I

therefore expect to have a great time after some initial starting problems until I get used to my new environment and the tasks which I have to fulfil.”
(App/97-8)

Although student teachers *without* family responsibilities were certainly concerned about the potential workload of the course, career change entrants and student teachers with families differed in the expression of their concerns regarding combining the course with other responsibilities.

“This year will be quite hard as I am out of the habit of learning and studying. I am rather nervous about meeting all the new people. I am worried about how I will cope with my children and their activities, the housework, having time with my husband and on my own, when I have a full day and preparation to do in the evenings. But I am also excited to be taking a new step in my life.”
(App/96-7)

Table II: Student teachers' feelings and how they envisage the year ahead

Positive	Total n = 209
Challenging/demanding	130
Rewarding/fulfilling/satisfying	88
Enjoyable/fun	50
Interesting/stimulating	39
Exciting	19
Valuable/useful/worthwhile	14
Enlightening/enriching/eye-opener	10

Negative	Total
Hard work	90
Hectic/busy/intensive	49
Tiring/exhausting	22
Stressful	14
Tough	11

Overall feeling	Total
Excited	101
Nervous	63
Looking forward	51
Apprehensive/concerned	47
Enthusiastic/positive	33
Eager/keen	30
Worried	30
Focused/motivated	19
Confident	10
Scared/afraid	10

Notes:

Categories derived from AQ, question 13

Due to the development of the questionnaire, the 95-6 cohort did not specifically answer this question. Categories with fewer than 10 mentions over the cohorts represented are not included in the tables.

As with other studies, Lacey (1977:78) reports that students approach courses with high levels of enthusiasm and feelings of excitement and expectancy. This is true however only to some extent of this study. These beginning teachers of MFL are certainly excited (Table II), but this appears to be tempered by the knowledge they have gained about teaching and the course itself, as well as understandable apprehension when starting something new. The majority of student teachers report that they are experiencing a *mixture* of feelings immediately prior to the course: it is certainly not the case that they are experiencing unbridled idealism and solely excitement. This mixture of feelings persists throughout the course until S6. Despite Lanier and Little's (1986:544) understandable statement that 'Prospective teachers can hardly maintain the naïve optimism they once held', the student teachers in the current study appear to cling on to their idealism for most of the year, but this is simultaneously and consistently grounded by realistic concerns. This is understandable of course, and is evidenced by the large number of respondents simply replying in a similar way to this student:

"Enthusiastic but apprehensive." (App/00-1)

The numbers of positive and negative statements therefore must be seen in this context: in the replies to this item, 'but' appears 165 times, 'also' 45 times, 'yet' 13 times and 'both' 7 times (in all cases in an occurrence where positive(s) and negative(s) are mentioned). The vast majority of the responses contain such mixed statements and this is true across all cohorts.

4.2.3: Student teachers' readiness and preparation for the course

Spezzini and Oxford (1998:73) found MFL student teachers judged their linguistic skills unreasonably high at the start of the course but modified them as the course progressed. It has already become clear in this chapter that SK is, in contrast, a concern amongst respondents. In the current study, only 56% of student teachers feel very prepared linguistically and a further 41% reasonably (and it must be remembered that this also includes native speakers). The beginning teachers appear unwilling to assess their SK too optimistically at this point. In contrast, and perhaps surprisingly, 78% felt reasonably prepared for how the course would work, (10% very

prepared and 12% not very). Findings¹ reveal less confidence for knowing what is expected of *them* (18% very, 67% reasonably and 15% not very) although they are more confident about their knowledge of schools (30% very, 64% reasonably and only 6% not very). It would appear that where it is their *personal* abilities or knowledge which are demanded, beginning teachers' assertiveness and confidence dissipates, but when the area lies outside their personal sphere, they can express more confidence.

They express relative confidence, for example, in what they know about the course. Student teachers' accounts of what they have done to prepare for the course reveal what they regard as important for the learning-to-teach process (see Table III). Since this question was answered in an open manner with no *a priori* categories provided, they could mention any factor they viewed as appropriate. This means of course that the data does not reveal necessarily all those student teachers who had worked as FLAs or who had observed in schools; merely those who deemed this relevant to the question on preparation.

Analysis of responses revealed three main themes of preparatory work mentioned by respondents (see Table III). The categories are:

- Investigative;
- Linguistic;
- Pedagogic.

An 'other' group was also necessary for additional preparation activities.

Investigative preparation is by far the largest category. It is a factor mentioned by nearly all respondents and provides perhaps the explanation for the perceived confidence in, for example, how the course works or what a school is like. This type of preparation consists primarily of *reading*; all successful applicants had received a brief (subject-specific and generic) reading list in preparation for the course. This accounts at least in part for the popularity of reading course-related literature as preparation. Also significant in this category is more *active* investigation, such

¹ Data from AQ, question 11

as observing in schools or discussing with practising teachers. Current affairs figure quite extensively, where respondents seek to gain an insight into the whole educational picture.

“I have tried to trace my steps back to when I was a beginner in order to get a better picture of how I should proceed in the classroom. I have scoured newspapers for articles on teaching.” (App/01-2)

Some student teachers are concerned that their experience of school is limited to a particular sector or age group and native TL speakers again express concerns about a lack of knowledge of the English school system. For non-native speakers of English in this study, investigative preparation often includes investigating the English educational system, confirming other studies' findings (Taylor and Whitehead, 2002:10 and Davies, 1996).

Pedagogic preparation includes a wide range of experiences. The breadth and length of these teaching experiences vary considerably, but they are invariably regarded as useful to their developing pedagogy. They illustrate the widely differing starting points of the beginning teachers. Prior teaching experience and knowledge of the demands of teaching are understandably frequently mentioned (Table III).

“I have spent the summer teaching English as a foreign language to Italian and Japanese students and I have tried to improve aspects of my teaching, such as lesson planning, correcting mistakes, giving feedback.” (App/96-7)

“As I planned to become a teacher, I have prepared and completed a module concerning teaching methods as part of my degree. I also gained some experience in teaching languages during the past three years since an English school [*name of school*] employed me as a French assistant for two years and an unqualified teacher for a term.” (App/99-00)

Considering the importance bestowed on beginning teachers' use of language by the respondents, *linguistic preparation* is far less prominent than their avowed passion for the subject. Where it is mentioned, and this is relatively frequently, the preparatory activities are often vague references to 'polishing' or 'brushing up' as mentioned above.

An interesting element within the 'other' category is *visualisation/reflection*. Respondents used phrasing such as '*imagined what it will be like*', '*tried to visualise aspects of the year*', '*I have mentally prepared*'. *Discussing issues with people* re-emerges as a significant thread throughout

the year, although the discussion partners (at this stage mainly friends or family) are gradually replaced by peers or mentors. It is true however even at this point that many respondents consider their conversations with current and ex-teachers and learners as worthy of mention.

Table III: Student teachers' preparation for the course

Investigative preparation	TOTAL n = 235
Read recommended books (generic and subject specific)	148
Discussed with teacher or PGCE friends	60
Observed/helped voluntarily in schools	52
Taken an interest in educational current affairs in media	23
Collated useful educational documents (e.g. NC)	17
Discussed teaching with secondary age learners	11
Learned about English educational system	4
Attended taster days/open days at an HEI	2
	317

Linguistic preparation (including FL1 and FL2)	TOTAL
Worked on TL (non-specific, e.g. 'looking through')	46
Read TL	22
Revised TL grammar/vocabulary	18
Spent time in a TL country	16
Listened to TL (e.g. tapes, TV)	10
Participated as learner in formal language classes (group or individual)	10
Spoken TL (e.g. joined a conversation group)	7
Worked on pronunciation	1
Written in TL	1
	121

Pedagogic preparation	TOTAL
Taught English abroad or as TEFL here	12
Worked as FLA here	11
Collecting authentic TL resources	10
Worked in school (e.g. as LSA, or in summer school)	9
Collated ideas for lessons	7
Taught TL privately (individuals or small groups)	5
Completed module in Undergraduate course/qualification in TEFL/TESOL	5
	59

Other preparation	TOTAL
Visualisation/reflection	13
Worked on IT	11
Nothing	6
Smart clothes, professional appearance	1
	31

NB - Because student teachers could mention more than one issue, some total numbers for umbrella categories are greater than the number of respondents. Categories derived from AQ, question 12. Data is presented in rank order of total mentions

4.3: The need for student teachers to examine their existing beliefs and motivations

Student teachers possess a great deal of experience, knowledge and preconceptions (Evans, 1994:61) on starting the course, acknowledged by researchers for many decades, including one major influence in this area, Lortie (1975:66). It is important in this context that beginning teachers are given the opportunity to identify and examine their beliefs, experiences and practices (Ruddock, 1988:205; Pennington, 1990; Powell, 1992; Wubbels, 1992:137; Bramald et al, 1995; Haggarty, 1995a; Joram and Gabriele, 1998; Williams, 1999:13; Peacock, 2001) and to work from these belief systems in order to improve the likelihood of effective professional learning. Tillema (1994) posited the view that without congruence between student teachers' beliefs and course contact, learning is less likely to take place. The AQ in the present study aims therefore to prepare student teachers mentally for the initial part of the subject course, where models of MFL teaching are presented and worked with. It is at this point that beginning teachers' prior experiences and perhaps prejudices are illuminated and used explicitly to inform their evaluations of models they encounter; an essentially *constructivist* approach endorsed by Klapper (2001:18). Bullough et al (1991:190) argue that student teachers need to be helped to understand their own conception of themselves as teachers and the origins of the meanings they hold. Moreover, according to John (1996:102), prospective teachers' images about teaching their subjects are best explored in a *subject* rather than a general pedagogic context and Klapper (2001:20) sees it as the *sine qua non* of teacher change and development. Also in a language context, Edwards (2001:36), Freeman (2002:11) and Grenfell (1998:11) acknowledge that language teachers need to become conscious of the beliefs (and personal theories) informing their practice. Williams (1999:15) and Brown (1990:4) stress the importance of discovering teachers' beliefs at the start of their training, as these beliefs will inform their development of their teaching concepts. In this study, beginning teachers' understandings of MFL teaching and learning and their expectations of the learning-to-teach process demonstrate their commitment to their subject and to teaching, but that their concepts of methodology and pedagogy are still understandably partial. Their understanding of their subject displays signs of beginning to view the TL from a learner perspective, i.e. of

pedagogical content knowledge, and their understandings of learning-to-teach incorporate a range of ideas. The AQ is also an opportunity for respondents to air their views on language teaching methodology, occasionally implying criticism of teaching they have experienced or observed. Many student teachers express strong feelings about the importance of MFL in the curriculum, particularly in England, and also express the need to make a positive contribution towards the image and status of languages in England.

4.3.1: Student teachers' images of 'self as good language teacher'

As McIntyre states, student teachers have their own repertoires and agendas (McIntyre, 1988:104) and have different ideas about who creates knowledge and understanding in the learning process. The student teachers studied by Weinstein (1990) entered the first year of teaching with strongly held but not rigid conceptions of themselves as teachers. She found that all had been overly optimistic in their expectations of selves as teachers and of students as learners. This finding is mirrored in investigations by Bullough et al (1991). Brookhart and Freeman (1992:40) found that entering teacher candidates (ETC) have a high level of confidence in their teaching abilities (although this was found to differ by University, gender and level). ETC, according to Brookhart and Freeman, report more anxieties and concerns about *subject matter* than about relationships with pupils (again, this differs according to gender and level). Johnson (1994:443) found the ESL teachers she studied had beliefs originating from their own formal and informal language learning experiences, images of themselves as teachers and images of the teacher preparation programme. Calderhead and Shorrock (1997:155) found their 20 beginning primary teachers had clear mental pictures at the start of the course. Huberman (1993:5) found evidence of headiness at being in a position of responsibility.

Whereas Weinstein (1988) and others found 'unrealistic optimism' amongst beginning teachers, many responses² to this study (Table VI) reveal considerable modesty, reservation, self-deprecation, and hesitation, where beginning teachers use a large number of qualifiers,

² Data analysed from AQ, Questions 4, 5, 6 and 7

expressing their qualities within phrases such as '*I think ..*' '*I hope*' , '*I have been told that ..*'.

Indeed Estola (2003) found that *hope* played a significant part in the beginning teachers' teaching identity. They may be reasonably confident of their FL1, but in their role as 'teacher' they express themselves cautiously (see also '*Factors pertaining to the teacher*' in Table VII). They know what they *hope* to achieve, but they are reluctant to demonstrate self-confidence in this (my italics have been added to the following quotations).

"From my *brief* experience as an EFL teacher I know that I enjoy it and I also consider myself a good communicator. *I would like to think that* I can also be creative." (App/97-8)

"I like my main language a lot – find it fascinating and had lots of positive experiences abroad. *I think* I could convey this. I'm *fairly good* at explaining things." (App/00-01)

"I think I could be quite creative. I hope I could communicate my interest in a language and culture." (App/01-2)

Some of their comments conveying concern relate to their image of themselves as teachers; i.e. that they perceive a gap between themselves and the *real* teacher:

"Not being able to teach effectively, i.e. not knowing enough; overriding my conception of still being a student and thus too young to have any authority as a teacher." (App/96-7)

"Discipline – I'm worried that pupils will laugh at me and play around in my lessons, and that they won't treat me as they usually would a teacher because my age is so close to theirs." (App/99-00)

The idea of *testing themselves out* is important, and developing what experience they have had already and there are frequent *questions to self* Included in the beginning teachers' responses, where the questions relate to how they will progress. Huberman (1993:5) describes these questions as evidence of a preoccupation with 'self' and this preoccupation fits in with Fuller and Bown's (1975) emphasis on 'self' concerns. There are numerous occurrences of questions such as the following:

"Now - am I really good teacher material?" (App/97-8)

"Do I have what it takes, am I clever enough and have I got the knowledge needed to teach?" (App/02-3)

There is an apparent recognition of the need for *transition*, for *transformation* from their current state to that of a 'real' teacher (a process McNamara et. al, 2002, refer to as 'rites of passage').

Some student teachers are clearly eager to start the course in keen anticipation of reaching a goal or even fulfilling a long held dream, and in some cases learning-to-teach is seen as a transformation of the self. They know there is a need to change.

"Teaching is something I have always wanted to do and I am determined to achieve my goal of being a teacher. I am looking forward enormously to next year, I cannot wait to be in the classroom and enter a completely different way of life from the one I have." (App/96-7)

Many respondents are definite about the influence their experience as language learners has had on their images and beliefs about teaching. This experience is seen by some as having given them a valuable insight into teaching and learning:

"I think my various own language learning experiences over the years have given me a fairly good insight into language teaching in general. I have always made it a habit to view them critically - trying to assess why they teach something a particular way and how it is received by students." (App/01-2)

For others this experience serves as a model of what *not* to do:

"Because I was a language student myself for all my school years and I know as a recent student how hard and boring it can be." (App/97-8)

Some respondents are aware that it has an influence, but remain to be convinced as to exactly how the influence will manifest itself:

"Let's say I intend to be so. Because I've got experience in learning languages which I can use as a reference; because I spent 2 years as a French assistant in this country (valuable in many respects); because I do like languages and will endeavour to make the pupils feel languages as inspiring as I do." (App/98-9)

Native speakers of the TL have mixed views regarding whether their linguistic status is an advantage or disadvantage. Responses which highlight the fact a student teacher is a native speaker of the TL display two separate reasons for citing this as an advantage, namely a) native speaker status lends the respondent an air of perfect language (and cultural) knowledge (see also Davies, 1996:8), or b) that the experience of being a non-native speaker of English enables pupils to identify with them as a language learner. This finding is echoed in the study by

Whitehead and Taylor (2000:378), where native speaker status is additionally viewed simultaneously as an advantage and a disadvantage. Block (2001) found too that native speakers on PGCE courses in his study sometimes distanced themselves from their home nationality and at other times aligned themselves with it, findings similar to those of Davies (1996). This dual viewpoint is also evident from the native speaker responses in this study. Some clearly see it as something of benefit to learners:

“I am a native speaker so I have got a very good knowledge of not only written French but also the French which is spoken today and I can give up to date information on French culture.” (App/97-8)

Others express concerns about the position in which it places them from the pupil perspective:

“Well, first of all because I am a native speaker, which can also be a drawback since I didn't learn French like the pupils in England do.” (App/99-00)

It is also seen as something to intrigue pupils:

“I think it's a good point for me to be a French native speaker, and the pupils may feel more curious.” (App/02-3)

The love of languages is accompanied by very frequent mentions of the TL culture, and their specialist knowledge of this (Table IV). This is viewed both by native and non-native speakers of the TL as something enabling them to teach languages more effectively. Personal characteristics, with the exception of 'love of languages', are those to be expected from prospective teachers and also found in other studies: for example, patience, energy, creativity. The selection of these qualities certainly gives a clear idea of what, for these student teachers, is involved in being a teacher.

4.3.2: The role of the teacher. To accept or reject the image?

The central role of the influence of the teacher is recognised by virtually all respondents, and recognised as a catalyst for loving or even hating a subject. Responses are not always specific in exactly what it was that made the difference, citing for example the teacher's personality, but most respondents do identify certain factors, such as the use of praise, or, more often, the teacher's

enthusiasm for the subject. Where an effective, influential teacher is described, these descriptions closely resemble the teacher respondents would like to be.

“The biggest single influence (both positive and negative) was undoubtedly always the teacher. I always loved languages and yet I’ve experienced teachers in both languages who either bored the pants off me or motivated me no end. Subjects are not boring or interesting, only the people that teach them.” (App/98-9)

Many student teachers are adamant that they want to eschew negative role models and, conversely, that they will strive to emulate what they perceive as effective:

“There were teachers who left such a good impact on me and other fellow pupils. Others who made some days of our years spent at school a real misery. Ideally, I should be inspired by the methods of those teachers who succeeded in enhancing my motivation, follow their steps and/or develop the methods/styles they used. Avoid inflicting on my future pupils what was inflicted on me by unsuccessful teachers.” (App/97-8)

Some just know what they certainly do not want to emulate:

“I won’t get pupils to simply learn phrases by rote.” (App/97-8)

Table IV: Students' images of self as good MFL teacher*Knowledge*

Knowledge of the TL culture	40
Knowledge of language/how language works	33
Native speaker of the language	20
Knowledge of the demands of teaching	10

Skills

Good communicator	37
Explaining	16
Sharing enthusiasm/knowledge	5
Presentation	2

Personal characteristics

Love of/enthusiasm for language(s)	115
Energetic/lively	36
Patience	32
Artistic/creative	21
Approachable/ understanding	16
Well-organised	15
Hard-working	12
Confident	7
Sense of humour	7
Flexible/adaptable	3

Experiences

Working with children/ young people	49
Prior teaching experience	40
Helping people learn and understand	13
Transferable skills from previous work	10

Professional desires

To share knowledge/ enthusiasm	62
To make languages fun	23
To respond to language/cultural apathy in England	22
To rectify perceived bad state of MFL teaching	6
To achieve reward and challenge	3

Categories derived from AQ, Question 6

4.4: Student teachers' expectations of their teacher education. Initial models of learning-to-teach

Calderhead (1991:533) suggests that student teachers embark on their teacher education with a wide range of expectations of the process of learning-to-teach, including being told how to do it, learning 'on the job', and seeing the process as entirely unproblematic, also noted by Joram and Gabriele (1998:180). Student teachers have been found to feel 'it will come with experience' and to value school practice, but they are not clear exactly what the process is (Calderhead, 1988:52-3). This has been found also to apply specifically to language teachers (Brown, 1990:87).

Pennington (1990, 1999), describes some conceptualisations of learning-to-teach as a mystical

experience, which is difficult for beginning teachers to explain. One of the basic challenges, then, facing teacher education may be persuading some student teachers that there is much more to be learned in becoming a teacher; they need perhaps to learn how to learn. Korthagen (1988) describes students who expect to be told how to teach as having *external* orientation, but that it is often assumed that beginning teachers will learn through *internal* orientation.

There is certainly evidence in this study of the beginning teachers expecting to be told 'how to do it' or to be provided with failsafe recipes, and this is true throughout the period investigated, but it is also the case that others see it as a process where *they* will be the instigators of their professional growth, albeit with the help of other people (Table V). In this way, they display again the widely differing perspectives in their experience. In contrast to the research reviewed by Lanier and Little (1986:543), in which prospective teachers expected 'simple access, easy work, minimal academic value and occupational discontinuation', the avowed beliefs of the students in this current study certainly resemble more those beginners cited by Lanier and Little (*ibid.*) from *other* professions, who felt they had much to learn. This, of course, could stem at least partially from the variations in time and location between the studies. At this stage in their development, a tentative, initial model emerges (or, more accurately, a *range* of initial models) in this study of how student teachers think they will learn-to-teach. Some student teachers detail their recipes of good language teaching and learning: these images and beliefs appear to be very strongly embedded. Their concepts of the learning-to-teach process change in some ways during the course of the programme, but the initial conceptions are crucial.

Table V: Processes which beginning teachers believe will help them become good language teachers

	Number of citations (n=134)
Observation of teachers	72
Linguistic knowledge/subject knowledge	64
Specific methodology (e.g. grammar)/theory	58
Observation/knowledge of pupils	54
Practising teaching	52
Group discussion/talking to others	35
Feedback/advice	31
Class management/discipline	24
Reflection	21
Resources/aids/materials	19
Lesson planning	18
Develop oneself (non-specific)	17
Getting ideas	16
Reading	15
Applying/trying things out	15
Preparation, organisation	14
Information (e.g. legal duties, assessment framework)	6
Learning from mistakes	6
Creativity/Imagination	5
Seminars/lectures	4
Helping teachers	4
Getting to know school and context.	2

Categories derived from responses to AQ, question 7 (question included from 1998-9) and presented in rank order

Wideen et al (1998:143) suggest that teaching itself is seen as the simple and rather mechanical transfer of information. It is certainly accepted that conceptions of teaching affect the teaching methods employed (Freeman and Richards, 1993). The high ranking for 'observation' of teachers (Table V) indicates perhaps a somewhat simplistic conceptualisation of learning-to-teach as imitation – but many respondents who cite 'observation' explain this in more detail and relate it to distilling what they observe to their own needs and preferences.

A large number of student teachers in this study mention *methodology* training as something they are very much looking forward to (Table V), although this is mostly very general with few specifics provided, and means either *theory* or *practice* to different respondents: theory and learning about approaches is seen by 40% as playing a part in the process. Mostly, any mention of *theory* is left non-specific. It is certainly the case that they assume the course will provide them somehow with

subject specific methodology, and in some cases that methodological recipes exist. When respondents outline their burgeoning theory of language teaching and learning, the descriptions are mostly lacking in practical elements and tend towards all-encompassing statements of intent.

“To find out about teaching methodology.” (App/96-7)

“Discovering the most successful methods of language learning and teaching.” (App/01-02)

This student teacher encapsulates a general response:

“Observe different skills and techniques used by teachers and kids’ attitude during lessons; assist teachers in their daily work; teach under supervision using my own ideas and apply what I learn in the course; learn from mistakes I make; listen to those who know better.” (App/98-9)

Course content expectations focus in a number of replies on a *developmental process* they expect to experience, with the end-product being ‘self-as-real-teacher’. The course will be the catalyst or the input towards this goal, or even something almost magical, which will ‘turn them into’ a teacher, picking up a theme which continues throughout the year. Occasionally, student teachers expect the course to ‘finish off’ a process already partially commenced, where they are ‘on their way’ to being a ‘teacher’.

“Plenty of work and observing/building up some confidence to stand in front of the class/apply to yourself all the things you have observed about other people so that you turn into a TEACHER!?! BIG STEP TOWARDS MATURITY.” (App/95-6)

Some are already thinking about the same time next year, when they will be a ‘real’ teacher. This indicates a theme of *future-wishing*, a theme which again continues throughout the year.

“I’m really looking forward to starting the course although it is going to be hard, I can’t wait to be able to say ‘I am a teacher!’” (App/97-8)

Where course content is mentioned, it is frequently associated with ‘ups and downs’ or ‘highs and lows’, thus echoing the apparently contradictory feelings expressed at this stage and indicating an awareness perhaps of some of the realities of the process, albeit in a fairly indistinct form.

☛ I’m not saying everyone will get really depressed, but there will be lows and it’s going to be really hard work. We’re doing really well. (V1/96-7)

"A mixture of positive and negative things. It will probably be a tough year but I am sure we shall get satisfaction in the end." (App/98-9)

There are indications that the beginning teachers anticipate 'hands-on' experiences to make the major contribution in their learning-to-teach, and many expect there to be a great deal to learn, often expressed as a 'steep learning curve'.

"The opportunity to be in the classroom gaining hands on experience of teachers. The fact that I will be on the 'other side of the fence' in the learning process, yet still learning and acquiring new skills myself in an academic context." (App/99-00)

"I think this year will be hectic but - hopefully - fruitful. I expect this course will give me a synthetic and professional insight of what teaching - and learning - mean. I am aware that I will have to adapt to a new environment (new schools, new educational system, new criteria of judgements; different teaching methods, different ways of thinking, different culture)." (App/96-7)

Some certainly anticipate something exciting and different, as expressed in this metaphor:

"Eager to start the course and follow the routine of it, and to learn. I just feel like a child waiting to play with a new toy." (App/01-02)

The strong desire (see Table VI) to begin 'hands-on' teaching is a theme that reoccurs in the data throughout the whole year, and indicates a strong feeling that it is *teaching* itself that will be a decisive factor in learning-to-teach, thus other research (Haggarty, 1995b:92; Joram and Gabriele, 1998:179) where pre-service teachers see the classroom as the arena in which their *real* development takes place. Actually *teaching* pupils is clearly the activity most student teachers are looking forward to and within this, many student teachers showed a clear desire to help pupils learn more effectively.

"Standing in front of a class who, through my teaching, thoroughly understand and appreciate an aspect of language learning. Giving pupils the chance to use their own intellect and skills to answer questions." (App/00-01)

One of the main processes whereby student teachers (54%) feel they will learn-to-teach at this point is via observing teachers in action. In a way, this continues the process they have embarked upon as language learners, and they wish to emulate successful teaching. But again, there is no clear process expressed for how they will transfer what they observe to their practice, beyond an acknowledgement by some that they will 'try things out'. Also important here are observational

days spent in secondary age range schools. This is for some of them the way they think they will learn-to-teach best.

"I have visited 4 schools in my home town, including a primary school, to observe how schools and teaching methods within them differ and also how they are similar." (App/97-8)

Linguistic knowledge begins to play a crucial role for them when thinking now about the process of learning-to-teach – they know they will have to look at their SK. This becomes a constituent part of their methodological landscape. Their lack of linguistic pre-course *preparation* is important here, however, it appears they anticipate the course will provide this for them too: language work is the third largest category in Table VI.

Table VI: Aspects student teachers are looking forward to

Category	Total n=235
Teaching and working with pupils: helping them learn (includes lesson preparation)	165
Practical work in school: visits, observations, meeting teachers etc.	125
Working on/continuing with TL (includes work on FL1, FL2 and in Language Centre)	74
Learning about general methodology/teaching (where no mention of MFL)	66
Peer support/contact	58
Caring for pupils pastorally	50
Studying/personal research (e.g. language acquisition, educational theory)	45
Personal development (confidence, being challenged etc.)	40
Learning about MFL methodology/teaching	37
Receiving feedback on my teaching	36
Core/professional studies (where sessions specifically mentioned)	13
IT	11
Being qualified	7

Categories derived from AQ, question 7

4.5: Student teachers' initial methodological landscape

Since student teachers' experiences as learners appear to be pivotal in their images of (good) teaching and therefore their own practice, it is certainly interesting to investigate these opinions at the start of the course. The majority of the Religious Education student teachers studied by Sikes and Everington (2000:18) had very negative feelings towards the teaching of their subject during their secondary school education. They expressed a strong desire to alter the situation, i.e. a

reaction *against* their experience. Virta's study (2000:3-4) reveals similar reactions amongst history teachers. In this latter case, it was found that good teachers were classified according to their *personal* characteristics (and poor organisation was overlooked), whereas bad teachers were criticised on the basis of their poor *teaching* skills. Laws (1999:5) found that prospective science teachers generally conceptualised the business of teaching as making it enjoyable and Virta (2000: 4) found the majority of the history student teachers wanted to awaken student enthusiasm and were mainly idealistic at first with high expectations at the start of their course, confirming the results of a study by Rust (1994).

In languages, some student teachers may have images of a teacher with a more traditional approach to FLT which may influence attempts to adopt a more communicative approach (Roberts, 1998:67). Johnson (1994:445) found ESL pre-service teachers began with images of themselves-as-teachers where they would use interesting, authentic materials that would be meaningful and motivating for the learners and lead to L2 acquisition. Although Woods (1996) focused on experienced teachers of ESL, issues such as grammar and CLT as well as error correction and authenticity were still methodological aspects with which they were wrestling.

Student teachers in this study emphasise their desire to be enthusiastic and encouraging as a teacher of MFL, with over 50% of the responses stating this specifically (Table VII). This forms the main thread of the data from the AQ: love of languages and a desire to share their enthusiasm. Understandably and as found in previous research (for example, Furlong and Maynard, 1995), there is a high level of idealism about their future teaching expressed at this stage, where some of the idealism revolves around turning negative experiences around:

"First, I will try to be or do the opposite of what caused my failure in learning languages. For example, I will not be ironical (*sic*) about what the pupils can't achieve in the FL even though it appears easy for me (consider that all the pupils have a different ability to FL) and I will not make them learn lists of vocabulary or verbs by heart that they can't use after because they don't know how to use them. I will try to be clear in my explanations as much as possible and above all make the pupils be at their ease with me so that they can feel free to ask me about they did not understand. Thinking about the reasons of my success, I will try to bring interest into the FL by bringing interest into the country the language is spoken into. Tell them about the French culture, the

people, the habits, through authentic documents, try to make the pupils meet the native speakers, in other words showing them that a FL is useful and important and give them the opportunity to use it and be proud of their achievements." (App/96-7)

Table VII: student teachers' own language learning experiences and the significance thereof

Factors relating to the TL and culture	Occurrences (n=200)
Cultural aspects/country	41
Trips, exchanges, visits. Holidays, abroad, France, Germany, Spain etc.	19
FLAs/native speaker contact	14
Teacher as native speaker	4
Resources/materials etc.	
Interesting/inspiring/challenging materials/resources (or opposite)	24
Authentic resources/videos/songs/magazine (use thereof) (or opposite)	17
Book, text, course	12
Factors relating to lesson conduct/structure	
Variety/different	30
Activity/pace in lessons	18
Homework	7
Factors relating to MFL methodology	
Grammar (positive and negative)	39
Humour/fun/games/puzzles/competition	39
Link to real life/context/relevant	36
TL/use of language	36
Speaking/pair work/ talking/interaction/accent/pronunciation/discuss/oral	32
Communication	30
Assessment/correcting from/by teachers/tests/targets/goals/ marking/ progress/exams	29
Vocabulary	12
Writing	9
Listening	7
Learn by heart, chant, rote, memorising, drill	7
Questions/answers	5
Reading	5
Practice, rehearsal	3
Translation	1
Copying	1
Affective factors related to pupil experience	
Enjoyment of languages per se	28
Self-confidence (or opposite)	22
Atmosphere, ambience, relaxed, environment	15
Success, achievement	7
Why, reason, need, necessary, sense	7
Personal involvement	2
Characteristics pertaining to the teacher	
Hope/try/want/believe	90
Differentiation/catering for pupils' differences	71
Praise/encouragement/interest/motivation/empathy/patience from teacher (or opposite)	66
Personality/enthusiasm of teacher (or opposite)	40
Teachers being organised/planned/structured/prepared (or opposite)	20
Subject knowledge/competence of teacher (or opposite)	20
Explanations/clarity of teacher (or opposite)	10
Strictness/discipline/fairness of teacher (or opposite)	7
Hard work/dedication of the teacher (or opposite)	2

Categories derived from responses to AQ, question, 3 (question included formally from 1996-7)

When asked to think back to their own experience of learning (Table VII), almost all respondents in this study interpret this as relating to *foreign language* learning, despite this not appearing explicitly in the question. They see themselves clearly as beginning *MFL* teachers; their subject, as has been apparent throughout this chapter, is central to their motivation and is at the forefront of their thinking. In their analysis of their own experiences, a picture is revealed of the methodological preferences and prejudices of the student teachers as they are about to begin their course. This picture is given more detail when the respondents outlined what the significance of their experiences will be on the imminent process of 'learning-to-teach'. At this stage, student teachers' opinions on *MFL* methodology either tend to be expressed in a very certain, convinced manner or are vague and optimistic in tone with no specifics mentioned. In the latter case, adjectives implying quality are often used, with no indication of what that would mean in practice. Some refer to their apprenticeship (Lortie, 1975) in the classroom as language learner. The model of methodology appears generally not to be connected with prior *teaching* experience as to how specific they are in this: they seem to be basing it primarily on their own *language learning* experience. Many of the student teachers see themselves as 'every pupil'. This is also an element found in previous research (for example Furlong and Maynard, 1995) and links with Lortie's apprenticeship of observation. Grossman and Richert (1988) describe this phenomenon as generalising from an 'n' of one i.e. from their own experience as learner. Lortie (1975:62) stresses that what learners learn about teaching when at school is 'intuitive and imitative rather than explicit and analytical; individual personalities rather than pedagogical principles'³.

"As someone who has learned a foreign language I feel I understand the difficulties involved and the barriers that need to be overcome." (App/01-2)

Some, however, do debate methodology at this stage:

"When on my year abroad from university I taught a little English, so have some experience in a classroom. Extensive chats to different teachers when observing helped me learn there is no one method of teaching and I should choose a method that suits me." (App/01-2)

³ Lortie was basing this, however, on mentions of influence arising from interviews with *practising* rather than *beginning* teachers.

The data in this study indicates a number of elements of student teachers' methodological landscape pre-eminent from the start: such as the importance of culture and the overwhelming love of subject. It is, as has been explored in this chapter, passion for the subject that dominates comments at this early stage in all areas. This carries through to some extent to a methodological assumption; there is an impression that the student teachers' passion for the subject will be transferred to the pupils in an automatic manner. *How* this will take place is less clear. There is certainly a trend for some of them to give emphasis to methods that worked for them and transfer this effect to a 'truth' about teaching and learning (cf. Haggarty, 1995b:85 and Joram and Gabriele, 1998:179). These student teachers are to a great extent over-generalising their own experience:

"I consider my success to be due to the charismatic teachers I was fortunate enough to be assigned to – their methods, ideas and materials have remained a part of my education since leaving school and I have no doubt that they – or at least some of them – will find their way into my teaching. This is not a bad thing, as these methods obviously work, and I am sure they will enhance my own individual styles. The enjoyment I gained learning the languages (especially German) still remain and I believe that this will be the key to any successes I achieve as a teacher of languages – I enjoy them so much that this will surely have an effect on my teaching, hopefully making my lessons as fun, interesting and successful as those of the teachers who taught me."
(App/96-7)

Some comments point towards developing ideas of MFL methodology, although they do not contain many specifics and for some, their competence in the language is not only a prerequisite but a virtual guarantee of effective teaching.

"I hope that the next year will be very interesting and fulfilling giving me the opportunity to understand how to transmit my knowledge to others without being just a parrot but a human being so that the pupils learn through enjoyment." (App/96-7)

4.5.1: Communicative language teaching: a partial interpretation

The methodological 'recipe' student teachers have distilled from their experiences as a learner (see also Carter, 2000) and some, mainly very limited, experience of teaching a language, resembles to some extent the component elements of CLT. For example, many responses emphasise their need for seeing a valid reason for learning something, a link with 'real life', a purpose (see Table VII). They stress the use of the TL (even when, and in some cases especially, when they have not experienced this effectively themselves). Indeed, if the student teachers'

emerging theories on successful MFL teaching and learning were realised at this stage, the results could perhaps be seen as very satisfying for a CLT enthusiast. What is clear is that the student teachers have at this point a very highly developed but primarily instinctive *understanding* of MFL teaching and learning, stemming from a learner's perspective or some partial teaching experience, or, in some cases, some theoretical input. Rovegno (1992:75) and Tamir (1988) categorise this aspect as knowing 'that' as opposed to knowing 'how'. Goodman (1988) found that whilst the student teachers in his study held images of teaching at the start of the course, they did not form a well-defended theory of teaching. Brown (1990:89) explains the difference between theories held at the beginning and those which develop throughout training as a process of replacing a vague, *general* belief in the efficacy of CLT (for example) by a *specific* belief in, for example, engaging learners' minds in an activity. Similarly, Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1986:240) see one of the major challenges for teacher education as helping beginning teachers move from their common-sense view of teaching to one which is more professional. It is apparent from the responses of student teachers in this study that considerable shifts in understandings will have to take place and 'gaps' filled for the methodology to be functional, despite their apparently thought-out frameworks. Nevertheless, the methodology outlined by some students is very detailed:

"What can lead to failure: being told that what matters in the learning process is first and foremost to develop a strong grammatical knowledge; try to build an abundant vocabulary through the learning of a long list of words yet removed from their own context; be discouraged to talk until grammatical rules are thoroughly mastered. What can lead to success: be encouraged to speak freely without thinking too much about grammar – practice makes perfect; be encouraged to learn the language through what interests you most – i.e. music, film, sports ..." (App/98-9)

"Positive: French exchange – I derived real pleasure in being able to communicate in a foreign language in 'real' situations; use of role play in class/authentic materials; studying the language in the context of current affairs. Negative: Classes where teacher's attitude to students made speaking the language an embarrassing experience; undertaking language work which seemed to have no relation to real communication (especially translations); unvaried, repetitive lessons." (App/98-9)

Discrete methodological elements are mentioned throughout the responses (such as the four language skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking, translation, vocabulary learning – see

Table VII) but in 50% of the responses an element of speaking is found: these student teachers clearly want to speak and use the TL (noted also by Spezzini and Oxford, 1998:72).

The areas of marked controversy in the MFL teaching community are also revealed here as aspects where student teachers find it difficult to be definite in their views. A few student teachers venture an opinion on the use of English versus the TL, and a few even comment on the use of English in the teaching and learning of grammar, but these methodological areas, which develop into ones of great uncertainty in the course itself, remain to a great extent unexplored at this stage. Some respondents convey a sense of apprehension for the 'method' they believe they will have to adopt. Responses in this category display elements of the (widespread) erroneous view of CLT:

"I see the need for GCSE 'communicative' approach, but wonder how far drills and grammar work can be incorporated into lessons without getting too heavy. We stuck to a text book and I 'saw' languages all the time - seeing a 1997 school worried me re lack of books available. I am also doubtful if language can be taught all in 'target language' - I dislike heavy translation method, but surely a great deal more explanation is needed at start to 'get behind' meaning of set phrases which feature in GCSE letters/role play. I don't see that this can be done in any other format except English. So I suppose my education is a big influence there." (App/97-8)

"I will clearly have to adapt to new way of teaching language and wide ability range of students. I accept that modern methods have wider appeal and therefore probably more success (in numbers of students becoming competent in a foreign language) but will need convincing that they can use the language well to communicate anything other than the GCSE syllabus." (App/98-9)

This is linked with an almost apologetic acknowledgement of their view of traditional methods, indicating what they *presume* will be the slant of the course:

"They [*prior experiences*] will make me want to include some 'traditional' methods in my teaching style." (App/00-01)

Grammar is discussed at length by many respondents, against a background of feeling they have to 'sneak' it in, that it is against the methodological 'rules', a finding also in Almarza's study (1996:64). Many explain that grammar may be perceived as boring, and that they will have to counter this:

"Try to make grammar as 'light' and enjoyable as possible." (App/98-9)

"I think I will be reluctant to abandon teaching grammar as I think it is important to know how the language is structured." (App/95-6)

Respondents tend to discuss grammar from one of two contrasting perspectives. Either the student teacher (almost always a native speaker of English) perceives a lack of formal grammar teaching as detrimental to the current state of his or her SK, linguistic accuracy and understanding, or the student teacher (typically a French native speaker) feels the thorough grounding in grammar (in French as well as English) delayed the development of oral competence in the FL. Like Davies (1996:9), Block (2001:296) comments on native speaker PGCE student teachers' critical comments on the teaching of grammar in England. He views grammar in their case as a metaphor for rigour in education in general. He comments further (ibid.:301) that this traces back to their having studied English as a formal system in France, Germany or Spain, as well as extensive work on their own language's system from primary school. Davies (1996:10) found that the communicative approach was completely new for the French native speakers in her study. In either case this background is likely to be significant in the future development of their attitude towards the role of grammar in FLT. Additionally, many respondents reveal their enjoyment and fascination with grammar; this inevitably colours the development of their methodological landscape. Others found the teaching of grammar the worst aspect of their language learning, as these two contrasting quotations illustrate:

"I most enjoyed using 'real' language, and being able to use language creatively and spontaneously. I found too much repetition tedious and demotivating and had no motivation at all for grammar exercises - it was a long time before I grasped the concept of methodical and logical use of grammar - I thought you just guessed!" (App/01-2)

"In secondary school I enjoyed most learning verbs and verb endings because I have a reasonably good memory." (App/98-9)

Some student teachers' responses reveal a very detailed knowledge of a particular *method* (as opposed to *approaches*: Klippel, 2000) of MFL teaching. These student teachers have often taken part in TEFL or FLE programmes, where they have subsequently taught their native language abroad. The responses reveal frequent careful consideration of these methods, but also recognition that they may have to revise their views.

“First year of English: text book and slides, records at home. Pop songs – i.e. Smiths song lyrics. Spanish, German and Italian – text book, grammar rules. Russian, TEFL (FLE) – method verbo-tonale – no reading nor writing before 70 hours of teaching – use of slides, objects, gestures ... anything visual. Great emphasis on intonation, rhythm, repeating after the teacher what we vaguely heard. Not allowed to take any notes. Method consists of considering the learner as a deaf person – to teach a language you have to train the ear to get used to unusual sounds. We often repeated things we were not too sure of the meaning but meaning was not the priority. Things started to make sense after x-repetitions. However, what I learnt then I can still remember more than what I learnt during 2 years of German or three years of Italian! Auditive memory is more lasting! (App/96-7)

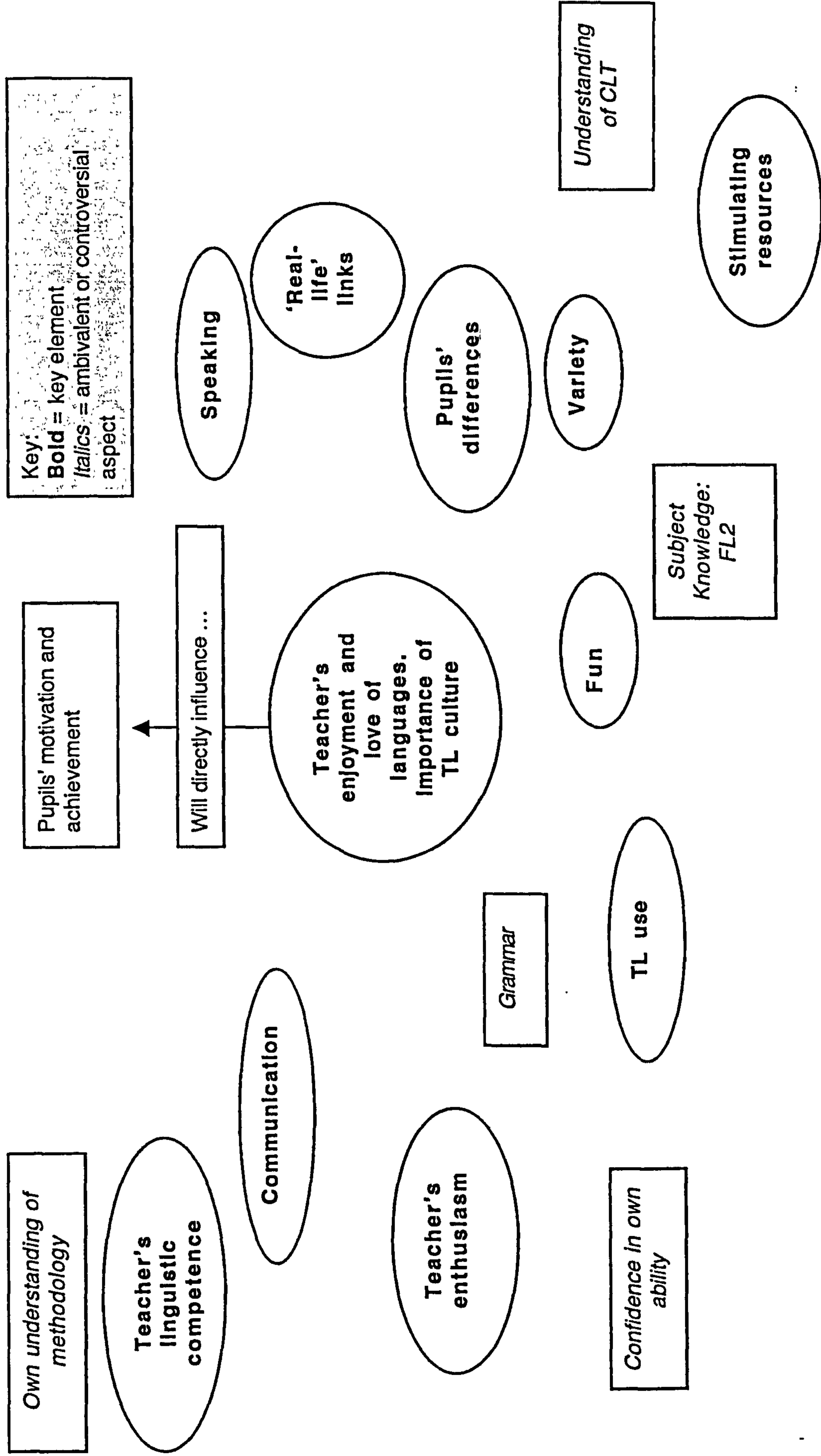
However, many responses reveal the tentative nature of student teachers' understandings of any theory or approach. Many use their responses to conduct a solo debate about the processes they have experienced.

“GCSE French: my teacher emphasised learning of vocabulary rather than grammar (communicative approach? However, lots of memorisation.). Encouraged us to go on exchange. A level – more grammar-based (French). GCSE memories of German role plays, but can't remember more. Had a problem with listening at GCSE. Perhaps teacher didn't talk often enough in French. How did she get us to use vocabulary learnt? i.e. passive-active? We used them in written work. We were a strong class, so maybe vocabulary learning was what worked well with us. I loved learning lists of vocabulary. Disliked listening as bad at it (A level).” (App/00-01)

The student teachers begin to make sense of their own experiences as a learner and their recent initial observations of teaching and learning MFL in secondary schools in England. They are thereby having to accommodate some factors which at this point do not 'fit' their current methodological landscape.

“We had a text book that we could take home. We did grammar of the FL right from the start. We had tests very regularly to check our learning. Spelling and grammar mistakes were not accepted (in England, in FL lessons, sometimes if a word is understandable but with spelling mistakes, it doesn't matter!). Use of flashcards or role plays but not as many activities as in English FL lessons.” (App/97-8)

Figure (xiv): Student teachers' Initial methodological landscape



Other elements which emerge later as landmarks in the methodological landscape are, however, already perceived as important here, such as the need for variety (30 mentions) as well as the need for a range of resources and the need to take risks. Elements which are part of the *alien territory* of the 'final' methodological landscape are also clearly discarded at this point, for example the rejection of correcting every error (see Figure xiv) and the acceptance that communication is as important as linguistic accuracy.

"Pupils must be able to experiment and try things out in a new language. Of course, if a mistake is made, it must be corrected, but I believe it is more important to be confident." (App/00-01)

"The emphasis always needs to be on communication NOT so much on getting sentences totally perfect and the class environment should encourage people to speak – I would also hope not to intimidate the class by making them too self-conscious when they speak." (App/97-8)

Perhaps the most significant finding to emerge from these responses is that student teachers make a considerable number mentions of *pupils' learning* in their notions of methodology (see Table VII and 4.6).

"I have a good knowledge of my subject which I want to share and I relate well to the pupils. I understand their difficulties and help them to surpass them. I can make French easy and fun to learn." (App/00-01)

A number of student teachers are convinced solely that they wish to ensure their pupils' experience of learning languages is enjoyable (28 mentions). Many are convinced they want their pupils to communicate (30) but again, there is a general lack of specifics or detail in these responses, however laudable the aims:

"I will aim to teach in such a way that I keep the pupils interested in the language and maintain their willingness to learn from me, using a variety of (practical) tasks and ideas in which they can participate. I will endeavour to do this because I know that this type of teaching encouraged me at school/Uni." (App/99-00)

4.6: Self, task and impact concerns at the start of the course

This analysis⁴ uses the categories of 'self', 'task' and 'impact' as defined below (derived from Capel, 2001:248; originally from Fuller and Bown, 1975): **Self** concerns (survival, control, being liked, understanding expectations, being observed and evaluated) **Task** concerns (routines, day to day tasks, time pressures, lack of resources) **Impact** concerns (concern for and about the learning of pupils, social/emotional needs of pupils etc.). Most student teachers' responses fit into more than one category and information pertinent to this analysis is also given in response to other items on the questionnaire. The three categories used by Capel were certainly appropriate, but additional categories of Information Technology (IT) and Subject Knowledge (SK) were deemed to be necessary in order to be able to classify each response adequately (Table VIII); it proved difficult to decide in which of these original categories these additional elements should belong. They are indeed *self*, but also *task*, and also, arguably, *impact*. It could be claimed that IT and SK are both constituents of overarching subject knowledge; here subject knowledge signifies *linguistic competence* and *confidence*. SK of course has strong elements of *self*, for example, being assessed or letting oneself down in front of pupils or colleagues.

The emphasis placed by respondents at this early stage on meeting the different needs of pupils exemplified in the questionnaire as a whole is striking. Many of the student teachers' *impact concerns* emerge in answer to the question about why they think they will be a good MFL teacher, where *pupils* figure largely, unlike in the specific question on worries. Many display a recognition that they cannot expect pupils to feel the same about languages as they did, despite the overwhelming evidence of their own passion for the subject, and some are at pains to illustrate their knowledge of the variations in pupils' abilities and aptitudes. If this is then linked with student teachers' acknowledgement that pupils' progress and achievement will be crucial to their perception of effectiveness, then this degree of *impact* concerns at this point is certainly impressive.

⁴ Analysis derived primarily from AQ, question 9

“You never forget what you learned as a pupil and how you felt in certain situations. You also know what did and didn’t work for your friends (NOT ALWAYS the same for you). I know I will have to be dynamic, enthusiastic, creative, imaginative and appreciate and accept the 30 different personalities/tolerance/interest levels of a class.” (App/99-00)

“I will make a big effort to make the content of my lessons worthwhile and interesting, so that the children really do *learn* something, and it’s not just an exercise in passing time.” (App/01-2)

Impact concerns were, however, in most cases implied, rather than explicit, for example, in the following quotation, where ‘interesting’ and ‘enjoy’ are not expanded upon:

“Being able to teach interesting lessons that the students enjoy.” (App/95-6)

When expressing *concerns*, however, impact issues never achieve more than 21% in any cohort and the percentage is usually much lower than this. In addition, the allocation of comments to ‘impact’ is not clear cut. For *self* and *task* the comments belong indubitably in the particular category: for *impact* this is less obvious: it is not always stated explicitly by student teachers what exactly they mean by, for example, ‘*successful teaching*’. Although some comments on *impact* had to be inferred, some student teachers even in response to this question at the very beginning of their course showed clear interest in pupils’ learning and progress and are aware that this will be challenging. It is clear that ‘self’ and ‘task’ concerns form the main focus for the student teachers at this point when expressing their worries (Table VIII). It could be suggested that in an open question such as this, where they are directly asked about their worries, *impact* concerns are less likely to occur. Perhaps when asked the open question, the impact concerns do not immediately become evident, but they are certainly mentioned in other contexts, for example, characteristics of a good teacher. This would suggest the student teachers are concerned with impact issues, but when asked *directly* about what concerns they have, other issues are paramount.

Some, however, placed concerns about pupils’ learning at the forefront of their response, and impact concerns are often expressed in terms of differentiation. This continues throughout the year:

“Ensuring I can plan a lesson at the correct level of difficulty for pupils without patronising them or confusing them.” (App/02-3)

A number of responses include direct or indirect reference to *impact*, they are certainly aware of the *reason* for teaching, i.e. pupils' learning.

“Extremely hard work, but in the end worth it if I can make a difference to the pupils both academically and in their personal/social development.” (App/02-3)

Self issues are clearly the uppermost *worries* (Table VIII). They retain top ranking and a high percentage (between 82% and 91%) over all 8 cohorts. This would correspond with Roberts' (1998:68) speculation that language student teachers will experience similar concerns to those of other subjects and found in much of the literature on pre-service teachers (for example, Joram and Gabriele, 1998:180). Whilst some 'self' concerns involve assessment issues, many refer to initial discipline worries:

“Discipline - i.e. reaching the right level of discipline, since too much could lead to fear - thus hindering the teaching of a language. The first few lessons - what will it be like standing in front of a class of 30 children?!” (App/95-6)

Task issues are ranked second for all cohorts, although the percentage fluctuates between 32% and 82%. Task issues include financial concerns, the routine of preparing lessons and workload.

Subject Knowledge issues fluctuate quite dramatically in percentage terms, but nevertheless represent a substantial body of concern in each cohort reflecting other data from the AQ. *IT* issues are never stated by more than 15% of respondents and are usually not stated as explicit worries. Interestingly, by 2002-3, they are not cited at all.

Table VIII: Self, task and impact concerns at the start of the course

Year (n)	1995/6 (25)	1996/7 (34)	1997/8 (38)	1998/9 (33)	1999/00 (20)	2000/01 (30)	2001/02 (33)	2002/03 (22)	Total (235)
Self	23(92%)	31(91%)	34(89%)	27(82%)	17(85%)	27(90%)	29(88%)	19(86%)	207(88%)
Task	10(40%)	25(74%)	31(82%)	23(70%)	12(60%)	23(77%)	26(79%)	11(50%)	161(69%)
Impact	6(24%)	7(21%)	6(16%)	5(15%)	1(5%)	3(10%)	4(12%)	1(5%)	33(14%)
IT	1(4%)	2(6%)	3(8%)	4(12%)	3(15%)	4(13%)	5(15%)	0	22(9%)
Subject Knowledge	4(16%)	9(26%)	10(26%)	6(18%)	5(25%)	12(40%)	9(27%)	4(18%)	59(25%)

Data derived from AQ, question 9

4.7: Conclusion

The beginning student teachers experience mixed emotions at the start of the learning-to-teach process. The uncertainty expressed at this stage extends into a general haziness about methodology and the process they are about to undergo, as well as only modest optimism about their own ability, linguistically as well as pedagogically. However, this tentative mood is contradicted strongly by the very clear passion for languages which emerges as one driving force in their desire and motivation to teach. This is coupled with a clear wish for pupils to experience success due to their teaching, thus resulting in a subject and pupil partnership as a foundation for their PGCE. The methodological concepts they have constructed show elements of which they are already convinced, as well as aspects where they appear ambivalent or uncertain. The next chapter examines which issues continue to preoccupy the student teachers during the course, how these issues develop, and which new themes emerge in the light of their experiences.

Chapter 5. Student teachers' perceived experience: from starting the course to newly-qualified teacher

By three methods we may learn wisdom: First, by reflection which is noblest; second by imitation, which is the easiest; and third, by experience, which is the bitterest. Confucius

5.1: Introduction

This chapter focuses on changes and developments in student teachers' beliefs and attitudes, feelings and needs over the course of their year and proposes that whilst some patterns amongst the groups in general are clear, student teachers' development is at the same time individual and influenced strongly by their prior beliefs¹. This analysis offers a unique overview of MFL student perceptions throughout a PGCE programme, thanks to the number and timing of snapshots involved in the study. The analysis draws on data from student teachers' perceptions of their concerns and confidence at each point, (Tables IX-XV), from the three sentence completion items in the snapshot questionnaires S1-S10 (Tables² XVI-XVIII) and is amplified by data from the video discussions. Thus the qualitative and quantitative data are synthesised and both contribute to the conclusions, each amplifying and affirming the other. Data from both HEIs is considered.

Themes and perceptions informing their conceptualisations of the learning-to-teach process are explored, consisting of elements on which student teachers draw throughout their training, expanding on their pre-existing beliefs. Overall tendencies towards greater professional understanding and increased confidence are identified and patterns and some idiosyncrasies are presented.

¹ The focus is on general issues, rather than MFL-specific

² Tables XVI-XVIII present the data in rank order on *overall* totals. When viewed however at the various points throughout the year, clear trends emerge for some factors.

The increases in confidence levels in professional knowledge and understanding contradict the opinion sometimes expressed in the research (for example, Lanier and Little, 1986:543) that ITE has little perceived value³. An overview of beginning teachers' development is presented, depicting characteristics apparent at the completion of each snapshot. This is not, however, intended to provide a version of a stage model; it is rather a synthesis of experiences (Arthur et al, 1997:78) to illustrate tendencies demonstrated by student teachers at various points in order to give a flavour of the experience.

5.2: Course structure factors and locus of change

Aspects of growth are attributable to a range of elements in beginning teachers' experience over the course, and whilst some areas receive greater focus, for example, when in school, it is by no means the case that the development is of necessity locus-dependent. As Ruddock (1991:329) argues, student teachers need to be helped to *learn* from the variety of contexts they encounter. The crucial nature of school experience in the learning-to-teach process is emphasised in the literature (Guyton and McIntyre, 1990; Velez-Rendon, 2000; McNamara et al, 2002:873; Doyle and Carter, 2003:135) and researchers have found the teaching placement is the locus for professional growth in the areas of class management and understanding of pupils (Grossman and Richert, 1988) and viewed as a distinctive opportunity for learning-to-teach (Feiman-Nemser, 1983:154-5; Johnston, 1992:131). In this study, the most perceived growth occurs *during* teaching, but the HEI-based periods are seen as valuable and necessary.

Any empirical findings, and the development and progress of the beginning teachers, of course, are at least to some extent contingent on a programme's structure. Haggarty (1995b:100), for example, found students were unlikely to address an item until they felt it was significant to them. Context and timing are therefore unsurprisingly very important in this study. The pattern emerging from the data is to some extent dependent on student teachers' perspectives as they are affected

³ However, the subsequent *decrease* in confidence as NQTs is disappointing. Since, however, they are in some ways starting afresh at this point (October of their first post), the trend of their training year could be repeated in the new situation. This aspect is certainly worthy of further investigation, similar to work carried out by Brown (2001). See also 5.5.10

by whether they are on teaching placement or not, or that it is towards the end of the course. The factors highlighted by them at each stage relate to the timing of periods spent in HEI and in school, as well as the amount of teaching experience gained or anticipated. Although the trends over the year displayed by the student teachers at OUDES (more University-based in term 1 and school-based in term 2 than Warwick) followed the pattern *order* and *content* of those at Warwick, elements were timed slightly differently according to the position of teaching placements in the structure⁴.

It is certainly not possible to generalise where student teachers feel they learn best. Some feel their teaching cannot possibly be influenced when they are not actually *teaching*, therefore teaching *is* the process of learning-to-teach. Some do not even feel capable of answering the sentence completion regarding factors influencing their teaching. Some student teachers clearly see the process as one where they will learn through doing the job: others stress the crucial nature of a period of reflection.

"As if the only way to learn is in the classroom. Coming back to University is a bit of an anti-climax." (S4(W)96-7)

5.3: Whole course trends

5.3.1: Confidence, concerns and enjoyment

Like Lacey's study (1977:78), the beginning teachers in this study certainly display individual extremes of sentiment, but there are additionally a number of distinct whole cohort tendencies that can be identified. Confidence growth is an illustration of this. Confidence items were divided into three broad categories (Figure xv).

⁴ Although the OUDES course of the early 1990s differed substantially from other ITE programmes, by the period under scrutiny here, the courses and emphases were more comparable

Figure (xv): Confidence areas

<p>The items in Tables IX-XII were grouped as follows:</p> <p><i>i) personal feelings</i></p> <p>My patience My determination My enthusiasm My sense of humour</p>	<p><i>ii) personal skills</i></p> <p>My time management My linguistic ability</p> <p><i>iii) professional skills and understanding</i></p> <p>My presentation skills My planning My lesson ideas</p>	<p>My knowledge and understanding of language teaching My teaching ability My understanding of pupils My success in the classroom My professional relationships</p>
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In all three areas, the group average confidence levels increase from the beginning to the end of the course (S1-S9), and some concerns, for example, the use of ICT, diminish (Tables XIV-XV). Confidence in *personal feelings* generally increase only slightly from S1-S9. *Personal skills*, however, increase significantly, as do almost all the *professional skills and understanding* items. The two items in this category which do not increase by 0.5 or more nevertheless rise substantially. For many items, the increase in confidence is gradual over the year. For some, for example, *determination* or *enthusiasm* (especially for females) an early dip is followed by a steady increase.

This same pattern applies for every item except one⁵ for each sub group: females, males and native speakers (Tables X-XII). Males do not perceive as great an increase in confidence in a number of items as the population as a whole, but male confidence levels are higher at the start, confirming previous research (Brookhart and Freeman, 1992:48; Brember et al, 2002). The increases in the cross-check confidence means for native speakers are substantial and the rise in native speaker confidence (Table X) is slightly greater regarding *understanding of pupils*.

Undoubtedly since the majority of each cohort is female, the pattern for females mirrors almost exactly that of the whole population. For females, confidence in *time management* and *planning*

⁵ Male *enthusiasm* remains virtually constant between S1 and S9

increases substantially at the start of both placements. Their *knowledge and understanding of language teaching* increases during university time greatly in the first term and subsequently in the second term and during second placement. The *understanding of pupils experiences* significant increases *during* placements.

In the cross check confidence levels (Table XIII), there are meaningful increases in all areas, but less so in *linguistic* confidence. Native speakers' linguistic confidence in their L1 understandably does not increase as greatly as that of the whole cohort throughout the year⁶. Linguistically, on both relevant items, the decrease between S9 and S10 is negligible, but for many other items it is substantial; the beginning teachers apparently feel their linguistic confidence is in their control while other factors are less so. Dips in confidence in all aspects appear for the whole population when the student teachers begin work as NQTs (although this again varies slightly for males⁷).

⁶ It is of course important that native speakers look carefully at their L1

⁷ Caution must however be expressed with regard to the relatively low number of males in the study, where, overall, females outnumber males 4:1

Table IX: Confidence levels: Whole Population

	Mean score (1=not at all confident, 4=very confident)/Standard deviation														Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10
	S1 n=133	S2 n=127	S3 n=106	S4 n=119	S5 n=120	S6 n=119	S7 n=100	S8 n=98	S9 n=124	S10 n=77						
My patience	3.14/0.70	3.14/0.65	3.20/0.62	3.29/0.59	3.30/0.62	3.37/0.62	3.29/0.57	3.44/0.56	3.44/0.60	3.31/0.67	+0.3	-0.13				
My determination	3.39/0.58	3.31/0.60	3.34/0.69	3.26/0.72	3.32/0.65	3.39/0.67	3.41/0.62	3.49/0.61	3.53/0.58	3.34/0.64	+0.14	-0.19				
My time management	2.45/0.76	2.41/0.69	2.71/0.71	2.85/0.70	2.97/0.61	3.08/0.62	2.99/0.67	3.34/0.69	3.33/0.63	3.08/0.71	+0.88	-0.27				
My linguistic ability	2.98/0.73	3.10/0.73	3.29/0.70	3.29/0.60	3.33/0.64	3.35/0.62	3.41/0.59	3.48/0.61	3.50/0.59	3.47/0.58	+0.52	-0.03				
My presentation skills	2.71/0.62	2.78/0.55	2.92/0.55	3.03/0.54	3.06/0.56	3.22/0.58	3.17/0.49	3.38/0.59	3.45/0.59	3.17/0.59	+0.74	-0.28				
My planning	2.66/0.67	2.77/0.57	2.97/0.53	3.03/0.57	3.03/0.59	3.21/0.57	3.21/0.50	3.49/0.54	3.52/0.55	3.17/0.61	+0.86	-0.35				
My lesson ideas	2.63/0.66	2.80/0.59	2.79/0.60	2.88/0.63	2.96/0.57	3.08/0.62	3.17/0.49	3.34/0.57	3.35/0.58	3.10/0.53	+0.72	-0.25				
My knowledge and understanding of language teaching	2.69/0.64	2.94/0.39	2.96/0.55	2.99/0.50	3.03/0.50	3.27/0.50	3.26/0.49	3.47/0.50	3.46/0.55	3.28/0.64	+0.77	-0.18				
My enthusiasm	3.36/0.59	3.30/0.54	3.31/0.64	3.30/0.73	3.28/0.65	3.36/0.59	3.17/0.74	3.42/0.62	3.48/0.62	3.27/0.77	+0.12	-0.21				
My teaching ability	2.71/0.52	2.77/0.55	2.90/0.55	2.96/0.51	2.94/0.60	3.12/0.49	3.11/0.49	3.34/0.56	3.33/0.55	3.10/0.55	+0.62	-0.23				
My understanding of pupils	2.78/0.58	2.79/0.56	2.81/0.59	2.94/0.57	3.03/0.51	3.06/0.56	3.05/0.61	3.23/0.55	3.27/0.56	3.08/0.58	+0.49	-0.19				
My sense of humour	3.04/0.62	2.98/0.60	3.11/0.61	3.18/0.58	3.16/0.58	3.26/0.64	3.17/0.65	3.38/0.57	3.40/0.58	3.26/0.62	+0.36	-0.14				
My success in the classroom	2.48/0.57	2.56/0.59	2.82/0.55	2.87/0.53	2.90/0.49	2.97/0.46	2.96/0.55	3.19/0.46	3.21/0.56	3.04/0.52	+0.73	-0.17				
My professional relationships	2.89/0.54	2.98/0.63	3.17/0.55	3.16/0.58	3.28/0.57	3.32/0.62	3.39/0.60	3.51/0.56	3.60/0.55	3.56/0.60	+0.71	-0.04				

For tables IX-XII data derived from responses to Question 2 on SQ. All figures are presented to two decimal places.

Any increase of 0.5 or over is seen as a meaningful increase in confidence and is shaded.

Table X: Confidence levels: Native Speakers

	Mean score (1=not at all confident, 4=very confident)/Standard deviation										Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10
	S1 n=40	S2 n=38	S3 n=32	S4 n=33	S5 n=37	S6 n=33	S7 n=29	S8 n=31	S9 n=34	S10 n=19		
My patience	3.25/0.74	3.16/0.64	3.19/0.59	3.36/0.65	3.43/0.60	3.33/0.60	3.28/0.59	3.45/0.57	3.53/0.51	3.32/0.75	+0.28	-0.21
My determination	3.35/0.58	3.32/0.57	3.38/0.49	3.36/0.65	3.49/0.61	3.36/0.65	3.45/0.57	3.52/0.63	3.65/0.60	3.37/0.68	+0.3	-0.28
My time management	2.10/0.59	2.16/0.64	2.52/0.63	3.06/0.66	2.89/0.61	2.94/0.56	2.76/0.79	3.19/0.75	3.32/0.59	3.16/0.60	+1.22	-0.16
My linguistic ability	3.43/0.68	3.55/0.60	3.66/0.60	3.76/0.44	3.59/0.55	3.67/0.48	3.66/0.48	3.74/0.58	3.85/0.36	3.84/0.50	+0.42	-0.01
My presentation skills	2.65/0.66	2.74/0.55	3.00/0.57	3.24/0.56	3.05/0.57	3.30/0.53	3.24/0.51	3.39/0.72	3.62/0.49	3.26/0.45	+0.97	-0.34
My planning	2.53/0.60	2.71/0.57	3.00/0.51	3.21/0.55	3.03/0.64	3.12/0.48	3.21/0.50	3.55/0.57	3.62/0.49	3.32/0.58	+1.12	-0.3
My lesson ideas	2.68/0.66	2.78/0.53	2.97/0.47	3.09/0.58	3.03/0.37	3.16/0.45	3.21/0.41	3.35/0.55	3.47/0.51	3.32/0.58	+0.79	-0.15
My knowledge and understanding of language teaching	2.95/0.60	2.92/0.43	3.13/0.61	3.18/0.53	3.14/0.54	3.36/0.55	3.29/0.46	3.45/0.51	3.65/0.49	3.32/0.82	+0.7	-0.33
My enthusiasm	3.45/0.55	3.27/0.51	3.47/0.57	3.55/0.67	3.38/0.59	3.45/0.51	3.21/0.82	3.32/0.65	3.53/0.56	3.37/0.96	+0.08	-0.16
My teaching ability	2.83/0.55	2.89/0.65	3.06/0.50	3.09/0.52	3.11/0.66	3.27/0.52	3.24/0.51	3.35/0.61	3.59/0.50	3.26/0.65	+0.66	-0.33
My understanding of pupils	2.88/0.61	2.84/0.59	2.84/0.51	3.12/0.60	3.08/0.49	3.15/0.62	3.14/0.52	3.23/0.62	3.41/0.56	3.11/0.76	+0.53	-0.3
My sense of humour	2.88/0.65	2.68/0.57	3.00/0.62	3.18/0.73	2.94/0.63	3.15/0.80	3.14/0.74	3.19/0.65	3.32/0.64	3.37/0.68	+0.42	-0.05
My success in the classroom	2.54/0.64	2.49/0.56	2.97/0.60	3.03/0.53	2.95/0.47	3.03/0.39	2.97/0.50	3.19/0.48	3.29/0.58	3.05/0.52	+0.75	-0.24
My professional relationships	2.87/0.57	3.00/0.71	3.06/0.62	3.18/0.73	3.22/0.58	3.18/0.64	3.34/0.67	3.42/0.62	3.58/0.66	3.47/0.77	+0.69	-0.09

Table XI: Confidence levels: Males

	Mean score (1=not at all confident, 4=very confident)/Standard deviation														Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10
	S1 n=24	S2 n=27	S3 n=21	S4 n=21	S5 n=23	S6 n=21	S7 n=18	S8 n=18	S9 n=27	S10 n=15						
My patience	3.00/0.88	3.07/0.68	3.00/0.77	3.24/0.77	3.22/0.67	3.29/0.85	3.17/0.71	3.44/0.51	3.30/0.78	3.20/0.68	+0.3	-0.1				
My determination	3.38/0.65	3.22/0.64	3.10/0.70	3.10/0.94	3.26/0.62	3.19/0.51	3.28/0.67	3.33/0.59	3.41/0.64	3.27/0.46	+0.03	-0.14				
My time management	2.33/0.76	2.15/0.66	2.55/0.69	2.81/0.75	2.87/0.55	3.19/0.51	2.67/0.69	3.11/0.76	3.22/0.58	2.93/0.59	+0.89	-0.29				
My linguistic ability	3.00/0.78	3.11/0.70	3.43/0.68	3.33/0.58	3.48/0.58	3.48/0.51	3.50/0.51	3.39/0.50	3.59/0.50	3.53/0.52	+0.59	-0.06				
My presentation skills	2.79/0.59	2.78/0.58	2.61/0.40	3.00/0.71	3.04/0.47	3.24/0.62	3.22/0.55	3.22/0.73	3.37/0.56	3.20/0.68	+0.58	-0.17				
My planning	2.78/0.60	2.70/0.54	2.71/0.56	2.81/0.60	3.00/0.52	3.19/0.51	3.12/0.49	3.33/0.59	3.30/0.47	3.00/0.65	+0.52	-0.3				
My lesson ideas	2.54/0.78	2.77/0.65	2.71/0.72	3.00/0.63	2.81/0.51	3.04/0.67	3.11/0.47	3.17/0.62	3.26/0.59	3.13/0.52	+0.72	-0.13				
My knowledge and understanding of language teaching	2.58/0.58	2.93/0.38	2.95/0.59	3.00/0.45	3.00/0.44	3.29/0.48	3.39/0.50	3.44/0.51	3.35/0.56	3.36/0.63	+0.77	+0.01				
My enthusiasm	3.38/0.65	3.30/0.54	3.24/0.7	3.29/0.96	3.30/0.63	3.52/0.60	3.11/0.90	3.39/0.61	3.37/0.74	3.13/0.64	-0.01	-0.24				
My teaching ability	2.79/0.51	2.74/0.56	2.90/0.44	2.86/0.57	2.91/0.42	3.23/0.54	3.23/0.56	3.44/0.51	3.22/0.58	3.13/0.52	+0.43	-0.09				
My understanding of pupils	2.83/0.64	2.65/0.46	2.71/0.56	3.00/0.45	3.09/0.42	3.04/0.50	3.44/0.51	3.17/0.51	3.19/0.62	2.87/0.74	+0.36	-0.32				
My sense of humour	3.17/0.56	2.93/0.55	3.05/0.50	3.33/0.66	3.35/0.65	3.48/0.51	3.28/0.57	3.39/0.50	3.37/0.63	3.27/0.59	+0.2	-0.1				
My success in the classroom	2.78/0.52	2.69/0.47	2.90/0.54	2.90/0.54	3.00/0.43	3.00/0.45	3.00/0.49	3.28/0.46	3.11/0.51	2.93/0.26	+0.32	-0.16				
My professional relationships	2.96/0.47	3.00/0.63	3.05/0.38	3.14/0.65	3.30/0.70	3.38/0.60	3.22/0.73	3.28/0.67	3.48/0.51	3.60/0.63	+0.52	+0.12				

Table XII: Confidence levels: Females

	Mean score (1=not at all confident, 4=very confident)/Standard deviation										Change S1-S9	Change S1-S10
	S1 n=109	S2 n=100	S3 n=85	S4 n=98	S5 n=97	S6 n=98	S7 n=82	S8 n=80	S9 n=101	S10 n=82		
My patience	3.17/0.66	3.16/0.65	3.25/0.58	3.31/0.55	3.32/0.60	3.39/0.57	3.32/0.54	3.44/0.57	3.48/0.54	3.34/0.68	+0.31	-0.14
My determination	3.39/0.56	3.33/0.59	3.40/0.68	3.30/0.66	3.33/0.66	3.43/0.69	3.44/0.61	3.53/0.62	3.54/0.57	3.35/0.68	+0.15	-0.19
My time management	2.48/0.76	2.48/0.69	2.75/0.71	2.88/0.69	2.99/0.62	3.06/0.64	3.06/0.65	3.39/0.67	3.37/0.64	3.10/0.74	+0.89	00.27
My linguistic ability	2.97/0.73	3.10/0.75	3.26/0.71	3.29/0.61	3.29/0.64	3.33/0.64	3.39/0.60	3.51/0.64	3.49/0.61	3.45/0.59	+0.52	-0.04
My presentation skills	2.69/0.63	2.78/0.54	2.95/0.58	3.03/0.51	3.06/0.58	3.21/0.58	3.16/0.48	3.42/0.55	3.46/0.59	3.16/0.58	+0.76	-0.3
My planning	2.64/0.68	2.79/0.57	3.04/0.50	3.08/0.55	3.04/0.61	3.21/0.58	3.23/0.50	3.53/0.53	3.56/0.56	3.15/0.60	+0.92	-0.41
My lesson Ideas	2.65/0.63	2.80/0.57	2.81/0.57	2.86/0.63	2.97/0.59	3.08/0.61	3.18/0.50	3.38/0.56	3.37/0.58	3.10/0.53	+0.72	-0.27
My knowledge and understanding of language teaching	2.71/0.66	2.94/0.40	2.96/0.54	2.99/0.51	3.04/0.52	3.27/0.51	3.23/0.48	3.48/0.50	3.49/0.54	3.26/0.65	+0.78	-0.23
My enthusiasm	3.36/0.59	3.31/0.55	3.33/0.62	3.31/0.68	3.28/0.66	3.33/0.59	3.18/0.70	3.43/0.63	3.50/0.58	3.31/0.80	+0.14	-0.19
My teaching ability	2.69/0.52	2.78/0.56	2.90/0.57	2.98/0.50	2.95/0.64	3.09/0.48	3.09/0.48	3.31/0.58	3.35/0.54	3.10/0.58	+0.66	-0.25
My understanding of pupils	2.77/0.57	2.77/0.59	2.84/0.59	2.93/0.60	3.01/0.53	3.06/0.57	2.96/0.60	3.25/0.58	3.29/0.54	3.13/0.53	+0.52	-0.16
My sense of humour	3.01/0.63	2.99/0.61	3.13/0.63	3.15/0.56	3.11/0.56	3.21/0.66	3.15/0.67	3.38/0.58	3.42/0.59	3.26/0.63	+0.41	-0.18
My success in the classroom	2.42/0.57	2.53/0.61	2.80/0.56	2.87/0.53	2.88/0.51	2.97/0.47	2.95/0.56	3.16/0.46	3.32/0.56	3.06/0.57	+0.9	-0.26
My professional relationships	2.88/0.56	2.98/0.64	3.20/0.57	3.16/0.57	3.28/0.54	3.31/0.63	3.43/0.57	3.58/0.52	3.63/0.56	3.55/0.59	+0.75	-0.08

Table XIII: Cross check overview: confidence levels throughout the course

Whole Population	S1 n=133	S2 n=127	S3 n=106	S4 n=119	S5 n=120	S6 n=119	S7 n=100	S8 n=98	S9 n=124	S10 n=77	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10
Linguistically (main FL)	2.31/0.64	2.37/0.61	2.56/0.6	2.48/0.59	2.55/0.56	2.60/0.62	2.64/0.52	2.73/0.47	2.73/0.47	2.64/0.51	+0.42	-0.09
Knowledge of how the course works	2.25/0.53	2.54/0.53	2.58/0.51	2.64/0.52	2.74/0.46	2.74/0.46	2.85/0.39	2.90/0.30	2.85/0.38	N/a	+0.6	N/a
Knowing what is expected of you	2.20/0.56	2.38/0.56	2.53/0.57	2.58/0.54	2.68/0.49	2.64/0.55	2.77/0.45	2.83/0.41	2.85/0.38	2.58/0.55	+0.65	-0.27
Knowing what a school is like	2.20/0.53	2.30/0.51	2.46/0.55	2.49/0.58	2.53/0.53	2.68/0.52	2.77/0.43	2.85/0.39	2.82/0.42	2.49/0.60	+0.62	-0.33

Native speakers	S1 n=40	S2 n=38	S3 n=32	S4 n=33	S5 n=37	S6 n=33	S7 n=29	S8 n=31	S9 n=34	S10 n=19	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10
Linguistically (main FL)	2.70/0.46	2.76/0.43	2.91/0.30	2.91/0.30	2.78/0.42	2.67/0.60	2.86/0.35	3.00/0.00	2.97/0.17	2.84/0.37	+0.27	-0.13
Knowledge of how the course works	2.13/0.47	2.37/0.54	2.56/0.50	2.61/0.56	2.65/0.48	2.76/0.44	2.90/0.31	2.97/0.18	2.88/0.33	N/a	+0.75	N/a
Knowing what is expected of you	2.10/0.55	2.39/0.59	2.53/0.57	2.58/0.61	2.57/0.50	2.61/0.50	2.76/0.44	2.87/0.34	2.91/0.29	2.53/0.61	+0.81	-0.38
Knowing what a school is like	2.01/0.47	2.29/0.46	2.38/0.55	2.45/0.56	2.39/0.60	2.64/0.65	2.83/0.38	2.84/0.37	2.76/0.50	2.42/0.77	+0.75	-0.34

Males	S1 n=24	S2 n=27	S3 n=22	S4 n=21	S5 n=23	S6 n=20	S7 n=18	S8 n=18	S9 n=27	S10 n=15	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10
Linguistically (main FL)	2.46/0.66	2.56/0.51	2.68/0.47	2.57/0.51	2.61/0.50	2.70/0.47	2.67/0.49	2.83/0.38	2.74/0.45	2.73/0.46	+0.28	-0.01
Knowledge of how the course works	2.13/0.45	2.41/0.50	2.41/0.60	2.38/0.59	2.52/0.59	2.65/0.59	2.67/0.49	2.83/0.38	2.67/0.48	N/a	+0.54	N/a
Knowing what is expected of you	2.17/0.64	2.22/0.51	2.45/0.60	2.43/0.60	2.48/0.59	2.45/0.69	2.61/0.50	2.72/0.57	2.74/0.45	2.47/0.64	+0.57	-0.27
Knowing what a school is like	2.29/0.55	2.26/0.60	2.55/0.60	2.29/0.72	2.52/0.51	2.65/0.75	2.67/0.49	2.72/0.57	2.70/0.47	2.53/0.64	+0.41	-0.17

Females	S1 n=109	S2 n=100	S3 n=85	S4 n=98	S5 n=97	S6 n=82	S7 n=80	S8 n=101	S9 n=62	S10 n=15	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10
Linguistically (main FL)	2.28/0.64	2.32/0.63	2.53/0.63	2.46/0.61	2.54/0.58	2.59/0.63	2.63/0.53	2.71/0.48	2.73/0.47	2.61/0.52	+0.45	-0.12
Knowledge of how the course works	2.28/0.54	2.57/0.54	2.63/0.49	2.69/0.48	2.79/0.41	2.76/0.43	2.89/0.35	2.91/0.28	2.89/0.34	N/a	+0.61	N/a
Knowing what is expected of you	2.21/0.55	2.42/0.57	2.55/0.57	2.61/0.53	2.72/0.45	2.68/0.51	2.80/0.43	2.85/0.36	2.88/0.35	2.58/0.53	+0.67	-0.3
Knowing what a school is like	2.17/0.52	2.31/0.49	2.44/0.54	2.53/0.54	2.54/0.54	2.68/0.47	2.79/0.41	2.88/0.33	2.85/0.41	2.50/0.59	+0.68	-0.35

Mean score (1=not very confident, 3=very confident)/Standard deviation. Data derived from responses to Question 6 on SQ. All figures are presented to two decimal places. Any increase of 0.4 or over is seen as a meaningful increase in confidence and is shaded.

There is a distinct growth towards decisiveness over the year following on from the hesitation and modesty expressed about their teaching potential in Chapter 4. Opinions move from mixed, hedged responses where student teachers are initially at pains to describe the multitude of often contradictory feelings they experience, towards *clearly delineated* (and often briefly expressed) opinions, whether positive or negative, and with no provisos later in the course and when working as NQTs.

"A bit apprehensive about how I will cope when faced with a class, and a bit worried about coping with the workload, but also excited about actually starting to teach." (S1(W)96-7)

"Happy to be in a great school with a superb department and mentor."
(S7(W)96-7)

"Stressed." (S7(W)96-7)

Initial responses additionally exploit qualifiers such as '*quite*', '*a bit*', '*sometimes*'; students are not wholly convinced of their opinions or feelings, or are concerned about committing them to paper. Homogeneity of view towards the non-committed centre for some aspects is transformed into conviction on sometimes widely differing viewpoints. As student teachers grow in experience, responses become more sharply defined, where respondents are committed almost completely to an idea or an opinion. This trend is echoed in their growth towards assertiveness and confidence in evaluating their own teaching performance. Responses move from 'self-doubts' (Kyriacou and Stephens, 1999:19), '*Will I be ...?*' to the far more assertive '*I must be ...*' or '*I am ...*' and can be linked with the concern to test themselves.

"Worried about teaching (will I be up to expectations?) but calm and confident during planning week." (S2(W)96-7)

"Confident as I am better organised and I really know what I must do."
(S7(W)97-8)

The increased average number of words in each utterance on the video discussions also reflects greater confidence or autonomy as well of course the greater familiarisation with each other and the context (from an average of 33 per utterance for V1/97-8 to 74 in V6/97-8). Similarly, when working as NQTs, far fewer topics emerge in the sentence completion data (see Tables XVI-

XVIII); beginning teachers become more focused in their opinions and preoccupations. Standard deviation figures generally decrease over S1-S9, indicating less widely dispersed views, but as NQTs in S10, they tend to grow again, indicating greater extremes of opinion, reflecting the either/or position of the students at this point. This is true also of factors causing concern or enjoyment: in S10, there is greater agreement on the items selected.

The number of student teachers declaring they are happy is high throughout, peaking at the end of the course (Table XVI), but with a low during the second period at the HEI, indicating some deflation, perhaps. Initially, this feeling of happiness and enjoyment is accompanied by doubt and apprehension, but later this feeling is unqualified.

There are some very understandable trends over time, such as the growth in mentions of jobs, the peaks in expressions of concern about assignments, and the diminishing importance of pre-course teaching experience as the year progresses (Table XVIII). Claxton (1985:98) comments that development rate depends on the extent to which beginning teachers can tolerate feeling anxious and unsure, and in this study nervousness and worry decrease steadily (see Table XVI); initial enthusiasm and excitement also fade quite quickly.

☞ I find thinking back to what I did on my first placement - I got butterflies in my tummy before most of my classes, and the bell would go and I'd think 'come on, come on', and this time actually that was a big difference, and I got used to just going to classes and it was just fine. (V6/96-7)

☞ I was petrified the first week - I didn't think I could do it at all, then I realised I'd got through the first week and hadn't been told to leave, and I could actually cope, it was such a boost to me. (V3/97-8)

Predictable peaks for relief, for example, occur at the end of the course, and the strong desire to 'get teaching', so apparent in early data, appears to have been satisfied after the start of the second school placement. Idealism expressed in the student teachers' pre-existing beliefs diminishes to some extent as the year progresses, but an element of idealism remains throughout; albeit tempered with realism.

Table XIV: Aspects causing concern⁸

	S1 n=133	S2 n=127	S3 n=106	S4 n=119	S5 n=120	S6 n =119	S7 n=100	S8 n=98	S9 n=124	S10 n=77	Total n=1123
Administration/record keeping	39(29%)	50(39%)	38(36%)	64(54%)	61(51%)	68(57%)	52(52%)	57(58%)	63(51%)	56(73%)	548(49%)
Using IT	55(41%)	39(31%)	33(31%)	40(34%)	37(31%)	33(28%)	26(26%)	23(23%)	27(22%)	29(38%)	342(30%)
Other (please specify)	28(21%)	25(20%)	28(26%)	45(38%)	44(37%)	30(25%)	31(31%)	32(32%)	48(39%)	30(39%)	341(30%)
Being in control	54(41%)	39(31%)	35(33%)	30(25%)	25(21%)	29(24%)	32(32%)	21(21%)	18(15%)	16(21%)	299(27%)
Preparing lessons	51(38%)	53(42%)	34(32%)	11(9%)	29(24%)	30(25%)	20(20%)	14(14%)	17(14%)	15(19%)	274(24%)
Developing my teaching abilities	30(23%)	23(18%)	18(17%)	31(26%)	17(14%)	17(14%)	15(15%)	11(11%)	8(6%)	6(8%)	176(16%)
Developing ideas and materials	20(15%)	19(15%)	22(21%)	18(15%)	18(15%)	16(13%)	7(7%)	9(9%)	8(6%)	14(18%)	151(13%)
Using the Language Centre	9(7%)	18(14%)	26(25%)	23(19%)	17(14%)	18(15%)	10(10%)	11(11%)	16(13%)	N/a	148(13%)
Being the teacher	32(24%)	31(24%)	13(12%)	7(6%)	11(9%)	12(10%)	11(11%)	8(8%)	16(13%)	3(4%)	144(13%)
Receiving constructive criticism	11(8%)	10(8%)	11(10%)	13(11%)	11(9%)	17(14%)	13(13%)	19(19%)	12(10%)	5(6%)	122(11%)
Using my languages	28(21%)	11(9%)	13(12%)	14(12%)	11(9%)	7(6%)	12(12%)	3(3%)	6(5%)	2(3%)	107(10%)
Being in school(s)	12(9%)	8(6%)	7(7%)	11(9%)	21(18%)	11(9%)	6(6%)	5(5%)	6(5%)	2(3%)	89(8%)
Observing others teach	2(1%)	12(9%)	3(3%)	4(3%)	9(8%)	12(10%)	11(11%)	12(12%)	8(7%)	10(13%)	83(7%)
Contact with pupils	5(4%)	12(9%)	6(6%)	3(2%)	8(7%)	7(6%)	11(11%)	9(9%)	8(7%)	9(12%)	78(7%)
The variety of experience	2(1%)	1(1%)	7(7%)	7(6%)	6(5%)	8(7%)	3(3%)	7(7%)	6(5%)	5(6%)	52(5%)
Learning new things	6(5%)	3(2%)	2(2%)	5(4%)	1(1%)	1(1%)	3(3%)	3(3%)	6(5%)	6(8%)	36(3%)
Contact with others	1(1%)	1(1%)	3(3%)	3(2%)	2(2%)	4(3%)	5(5%)	3(3%)	4(3%)	1(1%)	27(2%)
Gaining and sharing ideas	1(1%)	2(1%)	3(3%)	0	1(1%)	1(1%)	2(2%)	5(5%)	4(3%)	1(1%)	20(2%)

Data derived from collated responses to Question 4 of SQ. Not all respondents cited three concerns.

For Tables XVI and XVII, percentages are of the number of responses: respondents could cite three factors, therefore the percentages total a maximum 300%.

⁸ Tables XIV and XV are reproduced in full to illustrate the change in rank order when an item is cited as a concern or enjoyment factor.

Table XV: Aspects enjoyed

	S1 n=133	S2 n=127	S3 n=106	S4 n=119	S5 n=120	S6 n=119	S7 n=100	S8 n = 98	S9 n=124	S10 n=77	Total n=1123
Developing ideas and materials	30(23%)	56(44%)	41(39%)	47(39%)	45(38%)	46 (39%)	45 (45%)	38(38%)	30(24%)	12(15%)	390(35%)
Developing my teaching abilities	38(29%)	28(22%)	51(48%)	39(33%)	29(24%)	33(28%)	45(45%)	38(38%)	21(17%)	25(32%)	347(31%)
Contact with pupils	22(17%)	32(25%)	43(41%)	23(19%)	25(21%)	40(34%)	41(41%)	36(36%)	31(25%)	54(70%)	347(31%)
Being in school(s)	45(34%)	51(40%)	36(34%)	23(19%)	40(33%)	46(39%)	31(31%)	26(26%)	22(18%)	19(25%)	339(30%)
Gaining and sharing ideas	61(46%)	44(35%)	20(19%)	49(41%)	49(41%)	27(23%)	22(22%)	15(15%)	32(26%)	18(23%)	337(30%)
Contact with others	56(42%)	28(22%)	22(21%)	35(29%)	35(29%)	31(26%)	21(21%)	18(18%)	44(35%)	23(30%)	313(28%)
Learning new things	52(39%)	34(27%)	16(15%)	25(21%)	27(23%)	22(18%)	12(12%)	10(10%)	19(15%)	14(18%)	231 (21%)
The variety of experience	33(25%)	32(25%)	17(16%)	27(23%)	15(13%)	27(23%)	19(19%)	13(13%)	29(23%)	18(23%)	230(20%)
Using my languages	21(16%)	24(19%)	14(13%)	28(24%)	24(20%)	26(22%)	11(11%)	22(22%)	19(15%)	13(17%)	202(18%)
Being the teacher	1(1%)	5(4%)	19(18%)	16(13%)	6(5%)	11(9%)	21(21%)	29(29%)	20(16%)	17(22%)	145(13%)
Observing others teach	11(8%)	3(2%)	5(5%)	2(2%)	15(13%)	8(7%)	3(3%)	1(1%)	6(5%)	2(3%)	56(5%)
Receiving constructive criticism	2(2%)	8(6%)	17(16%)	18(15%)	6(5%)	7(6%)	8(8%)	14(14%)	4(3%)	2(3%)	86(8%)
Other (please specify)	1(1%)	0	3(3%)	5(4%)	8(7%)	3(3%)	4(4%)	6(6%)	43(35%)	4(5%)	77(7%)
Using IT	5(4%)	8(6%)	4(4%)	6(5%)	15(13%)	12(10%)	6(6%)	6(6%)	8(6%)	5(6%)	75(7%)
Being in control	0	2(1%)	4(4%)	5(4%)	3(3%)	4(3%)	3(3%)	12(12%)	17(14%)	15(19%)	65(6%)
Using the Language Centre	6(5%)	7(6%)	0	11(9%)	12(10%)	11(9%)	1(1%)	2(2%)	1(1%)	N/a	51(5%)
Preparing lessons	3(2%)	6(5%)	7(7%)	0	4(3%)	3(3%)	7(7%)	8(8%)	5(4%)	2(3%)	45(4%)
Administration/record keeping	1(1%)	0	1(1%)	1(1%)	0	0	0	0	1(1%)	0	4(1%)

Data derived from collated responses to Question 3 of SQ. Not all respondents cited three factors.

5.3.2: Time and workload

18.2.87

I spent loads of time today marking third year exam papers from yesterday and also a whole pile of second year books. I didn't even have time to prepare any lessons for tomorrow properly - I had to do that this evening.

Workload and exhaustion are factors frequently identified as major concerns for student teachers (Marti and Huberman, 1993:204; Grenfell, 1998:82; Kyriacou and Stephens, 1999:19). In the present study, tiredness peaks at the start of each placement, and again as an NQT. Although a continuous requirement for many, more time is needed according to student teachers particularly when they have recently started the course and when they are back in the HEI at the start of the second term. At the start of the course, many feel understandably overwhelmed with new ideas, documentation and experiences and the lack of time that subsequently permeates the year.

(feeling) "Inundated with data that I have no time to process. The language used, the activities performed, the varied places visited ... all these elements challenge my mental landmarks." (S1(W)96-7)

(would like) "Another day in the week, fewer books in the library that I want to read, a large gin and tonic, to be able to see myself this time next year." (S1(W)96-7)

During school placements, tiredness is a significant factor for them.

☛ I was so tired - I remember really just working at midnight, thinking my God, I have to finish this lesson plan and you know your eyes closing and you can't do anything and falling asleep on the train, getting to [town] and not being able to wake up, you not realising that the train's getting there, it was awful. (V3/96-7)

☛ Especially if you're in a classroom and some people are playing up and you think I should stop them but I just haven't got the energy, 'cos I have another three lessons to teach and I have to walk up to the staffroom now and I might fall asleep on the way. (V6/97-8)

Lack of time is also frequently cited as a *qualifier* when expressing any concerns (Table XIV), for example, using the Language Centre or developing materials. The student teachers want to explain or justify their allocating a particular activity as a concern and this is particularly true when working as NQTs. Unlike most items, which are a cause of concern for some and enjoyment for others, *administration and record keeping* is overwhelmingly a major concern (49% of comments)

throughout the course contributing to the workload stress and increases throughout the year. This factor is, of course, virtually never cited as a factor for enjoyment.

"There are so many useless bits of paper to fill in all the time! Record keeping is not easy when some kids never bring their exercise books or keep on losing them." (S8(W)97-8)

5.3.3: Future-wishing and magical fantasies

Future-wishing is the term selected to indicate the expression of a feeling of 'fast forward', waiting for the next event to happen, whilst still involved in current experiences. It is as if student teachers wish to be catapulted forward in time, and they concentrate on what lies ahead rather than the here and now. Even at an early stage, and continuing the theme identified from the AQ, 12% of student teachers already indulge in future-wishing accompanied often by the desire for something magical, or a fantasy to be realised. This continues throughout the year including when working as NQTs. When the desired situation is not in the present, they feel 'in limbo'.

"To be in June 1997, feeling confident and eager to start my first full-time position." (S1(W)96-7)

"To be two or three weeks ahead and have taught some successful lessons." (S6(W)98-9)

Future-gazing and expressions of fantasies, together mentioned in around a quarter of responses, often revolve around a desire for reassurance in their own ability as a teacher, either from others or themselves, especially initially. Both are expressed throughout the year.

"A crystal ball so that I can see into the future and hopefully be able to reassure myself that I will eventually become a good teacher of modern languages." (S1(W)97-8)

"Somebody to tell me that one day I'll be a good teacher." (S1(Ox)98-9)

Sometimes a fantasy is exactly that, however:

"An interview, to hear back from schools and to go to Hawaii." (S6(W)96-7)

Future-wishing in this context is an ambivalent concept. On the one hand, student teachers wish for more time – their absolute priority - to prepare more thoroughly, to reflect more effectively, yet

on the other, they desire time to race by, to reach their desired end-point or even beyond. They want to teach, but they want to have it over:

"More time to get everything done. To know what I'm going to be like with my classes. I'd like to be half way through my TP and knowing that things are going OK!" (S6(W)96-7)

Student teachers' continued need to *know* everything, to have all information at their fingertips immediately, could partly elucidate the expressions of future and magic wishing, leading to their looking for a 'magic recipe' and simultaneously feeling swamped with information they both desire and resent. The 'solution' to the need for detailed and specific information is often expressed in magical terms, where the desired result resembles a security blanket (similar to Brown and McIntyre's 'recipes', 1993:113) that will ensure effectiveness in the classroom. These are frequently solutions to provide the beginning teachers with more time:

"A magic wand to enable me to prepare all lessons/do them to the best of my ability." (S7(W)96-7)

"A file of ready made resources to fall at my feet." (S9(W)98-9)

This need for detailed and specific help and information is paramount during placements when student teachers require concrete, tangible items and advice to help them plan and prepare:

"Time with my mentor to discuss the exact page, unit etc. I will start teaching." (S3(W)97-8)

☛ If I had a scheme I'd feel more secure about it, 'cos I started thinking about how many lessons I had to plan and that might make me feel better if I know my starting point and my end point, I could plan it out I'd feel I had it as a totality - there won't be some surprise waiting round the corner, it was like a known quantity, as a total package. (V2/96-7)

The desire for exact, relevant information to aid security and confidence is very strong in this study and corresponds to some novice/expert research (Berliner, 1987:68; Carter et al, 1987:149), where expert teachers are far less dependent on finding *everything* out about the class. This is perceived as a potential immediate solution to all beginning teachers' problems, but simultaneously shows their developing professional awareness.

"I don't yet know all my classes and this lack of knowledge means I'm not sure how I will pitch the work." (S6(W)96-7)

Much of the student teachers' need for information is linked to their growing obsession with and dependence on planning (Kyriacou and Lin, 1994; Kyriacou and Stephens, 1999:23), stemming to some extent from their lack of past experiences on which to draw during a lesson (Burn et al, 2000:261). This planning is often very detailed and time-consuming (Borko et al, 1992:62) and is consistently a source of stress, although emphases change as the year progresses.

☞ I think that might become easier - at the moment, it's tempting to spend weeks on one lesson plan! (V2/96-7)

☞ I've just had my timetable and it looks an awful mass of lessons and because the lessons are shorter you have to have 30 periods instead of whatever I had at first, 7 schemes of work instead of 3, I feel like, how do I do it, because I know I spend every day of the week sitting up to 10 or 11, planning, and teacher's books and pupils' books (V5/97-8)

"Pupils' reactions to activities. The need to *time* things carefully and stage development of lessons/objectives extremely carefully. Some of my plans have been ambitious." (S3(W)97-8)

(would like) "A good night's sleep without having lesson plans running through my mind all night!!" (S3(W)98-9)

☞ That was one of the questions I was asking NQTs in the school where I am at the moment, does the planning get quicker and they said things like, look at how you mark, and get into ad libbing some bits, so don't go into as much depth on your plans (V5/97-8)

☞ So things like write 'flashcards' instead of ask an open question, ask a closed question, which is what I was doing at the beginning - but now I just write 'flashcards' 'cos I know what I'm going to do with them, without having to write it down, so you cut corners like that. (V5/97-8)

Planning is closely linked with time and the lack of it; qualifiers from concern choice 'preparing lessons' revolve around the lack of time available. A possible explanation may be related to Tochon and Munby's (1993:206) findings, where novices are concerned with diachrony or anticipation of events, and experts with synchrony, relating to events as they happen. Table IX shows confidence in planning throughout the year as one of the items increasing most (+0.86) and for native speakers this increase is even more marked (+1.12). Planning also has the largest

whole population decrease between S9 and S10, i.e. when they start work as NQTs, when they are probably under time pressure once more, and confronted by new situations and pupils

There is an element throughout of student teachers regarding materials and resources as something to make their teaching ability tangible, with an implication that if they have the resources, everything will be satisfactory. This applies too to plans, and touches on some of the magical desires assumed to offer a degree of security, where resources are regarded almost as the methodology. The student teachers often feel the need to create these resources, and even to spend a great deal of money on them, as if by doing this they are demonstrating their teaching ability. A few student teachers regard even ensuring resources available as a process for learning-to-teach, found also in other work (Lacey, 1977:80; Olson and Osborne, 1991:341). Other student teachers, however, appear to be more text book dependent, and select learning objectives and even future teaching posts 'by the book'. On occasion, this is tinged with demoralisation:

"The school textbooks. I just want to get through the day." (S3(W)98-9)

Where student teachers are confident about their career choice, future-wishing is less a speedy revelation of suitability for teaching and more a desire to be really *real*, to be fully qualified with their own classes:

"Very happy because I've got a job but at the same time ... time seems to have stopped – I can't wait to have my own students." (S7(W)98-9)

"As if I am on the home strait (*sic*) – relieved that I have a job – looking forward to being a 'real' teacher." (S7(W)98-9)

They wish themselves into the role of a 'real' teacher. The wish for fantasy and magic could be seen as an attempt to avoid the need for a true personal developmental process and by implication the accompanying work and just have (or be) the finished product. The fantasy element contrasts with and indeed contradicts the desire for reality also expressed by student teachers, the need for something tangible. The student teachers in this study are not, however, defining learning-to-teach as something magical per se (cf. Pennington, 1999:100), but desire a magical process to get 'there', wherever 'there' is. The magical formula tends at an early stage to

relate to somewhat naïve class management solutions, and develop into pleas for solutions to the workload of an NQT. The exhaustion and stress experienced at many points in the course could be a significant source of fantasy and future-wishing.

☛ Do you have any recipes to stop Year 7 French talking to their neighbours all the time? (V3/97-8)

"Someone to give me heaps of ideas for lessons and a sure-fire way of ensuring good classroom management." (S3(W)96-7)

"For someone to do all my backlog of work for me, to become an expert overnight on Truffaut and French cinema." (S10(W)96-7)

5.3.4: Self, task and impact concerns

Pupils and impact concerns continue to be perceived as very influential on student teachers' teaching throughout this study (unlike those in the study by Skamp and Mueller, 2001:343), and attention is focussed on them even near the beginning of the course (see Chapter 4 and confirming research by Burn et al, 2000:273). There is a clear shift towards these issues as the year progresses (see Table XVIII), seen also by Haggarty (1995b:79). In the final group discussion (V6, 96-97) it is clear that although the beginning teachers may retain survival or discipline concerns, their ability to analyse situations, to comment on context and their concern for pupils' learning is much more sophisticated, much richer. As NQTs, 56% of respondents cite pupils and their needs as influential on their teaching, easily the largest category in S10. A further change as the year progresses is in the use of terminology and more confident use of educational labels, jargon and discourse (Beyerbach, 1988:339; Macrory, 1999:20).

Pupils' needs are paramount for some when describing factors influencing their teaching, many of which are related not to behavioural issues but to wider aspects of teaching and learning.

"Students' needs, working out where they are coming from and planning accordingly." (S5(Ox)97-8)

☛ What I think is you have a lesson plan, you hold a lesson and then you worry, because you know how the lesson went and you know actually what pupils reacted to and then you worry how can I get this kid to get where I want this kid to get, and what do I do with these people who are so clever and so quick, and that's when to worry, not beforehand (V2/97-8)

Student teachers cite pupils' ability and interest levels as influential on their teaching, and *differentiation* appears to be a pedagogical priority, and becomes more focused as the year progresses.

and extension doesn't always mean more, I've made the mistake of extension having extra things, more to do when they finish, and that's not necessarily right, they feel they're being rewarded with extra work effectively, which is not particularly motivating, extra should perhaps mean more intensive work in more depth (*general agreement*) and I just don't think I was doing that, you know, in my mind extra was just having more things, when they said 'I'm finished', right here you are, here's another, and I think that's not necessarily stretching them, just giving them more practice of the same. (V6/96-7)

"Gauging pupils' level of understanding and pitching teaching at appropriate levels so as to consolidate and extend." (S10(W)98-9)

There is substantial evidence therefore of a growing concern with pupils' learning, assessment and progression, *not* primarily their behaviour, as found by Kyriacou and Stephens (1999:23). Initially, assessment concerns revolve around complying with legislative requirements, but later are focused more clearly on evaluating pupils' progress; qualifiers added by a number of respondents specify *assessment* as a contributory factor to workload problems.

5.3.5: Professional decision-making

After their opting to *train* as a teacher, it is during placement, i.e. 'real' teaching, that career decisions appear to be reached or at least debated regarding student teachers' suitability for teaching. Chambers and Roper (2000:41) cite the possible mismatch between expectations and reality as a cause for some student teachers to withdraw from courses and this is corroborated in the current study.

"Extremely fed up, tired and pretty sure that I am not particularly good at teaching, nor is it a career that I want to pursue." (S5(Ox)97-8)

Research has found that the course is more demanding and exhausting than anticipated (Carré, 1993:191), and indeed Chambers and Roper (2000:30) found that workload, stress, low morale and general unhappiness were reasons for withdrawing from the course. Teaching placement is certainly a difficult period for some, and a catalyst to an analysis of their fundamental motivation.

Workload and de-motivation are frequently cited as significant factors in decisions. Dips in morale appear to stem primarily from a feeling of being overloaded with work. For some, they accept this as 'part of the job'; for others, this becomes a concern re long-term sustainability. The overwhelming majority of comments such as these stem from responses completed *during* teaching placement.

"Still quite negative. I worry about my motivation and determination to carry on with the endless work without any social release. During the day at school it is so intense, I don't feel like myself, by 8pm I'm ready for bed because the day has been so tiring. I'm not sure that I could do that long term." (S6(W)96-7)

"The fact that I know I definitely want to be a teacher so I just have to accept that it is hard and that I have to be more organised." (S6(Ox)97-8)

"Very ambivalent about pursuing a career in teaching. I have the linguistic ability, and I love working with young people, and I have been told that I have a good grasp of the theory of teaching. However, I question whether I have the stamina and flexibility to cope, and whether I can, in the short term, curb my perfectionist approach." (S7(W)96-7)

It is when fully involved in their main placement that student teachers appear to reach a decision, whether positive or negative, long or short term, about teaching as a career. Their original decision appears to be vindicated or contradicted and while this may or may not be conveyed publicly, it is certainly something they reflect on carefully. They analyse their own capabilities and these negative feelings play a big role in decision-making about teaching, albeit they still intend to qualify and have the potential to do so. Perhaps it is *commitment* to teaching (Bullough et al, 1991:92) which is the crucial factor. Once working as NQTs, many of the more serious concerns cited are to do with discipline, and play a significant role in their decision-making.

Pivotal in these decisions appears to be reassurance about their teaching ability, the fundamental question of 'can I really teach?'. Where they have *not* received such confirmation, this can be decisive for them.

"Completely inadequate without any motivation or aims." (S5(W)96-7)

Even when they have been successful, reassurance is still required about their teaching ability and some appear to want someone else to take the decision for them.

"For someone to convince me that teaching is for me and that I can do it."
(S9(W)96-7)

"To say yes you are doing a good job even if you've got a lot to learn or no
you're not cut out for this." (S3(W)97-8)

Table XVI: Sentence completion: At the moment I am feeling ...

	S1 n=133	S2 n=127	S3 n=107	S4 n=120	S5 n=120	S6 n=119	S7 n=110	S8 n=98	S9 n=124	S10 n=78	Total n=1136
Happy/enjoying self	26(20%)	27(21%)	36(34%)	45(38%)	19(16%)	20(17%)	25(23%)	42(43%)	66(53%)	40(51%)	346(30%)
Tired	16(12%)	15(12%)	41(38%)	8(7%)	16(13%)	13(11%)	28(25%)	18(18%)	15(12%)	36(46%)	206(18%)
Apprehensive/nervous	55(41%)	41(32%)	9(8%)	16(13%)	25(21%)	23(19%)	6(5%)	3(3%)	11(9%)	2(3%)	191(17%)
Depressed/fed up/annoyed	3(2%)	18(14%)	15(14%)	15(13%)	27(23%)	12(10%)	25(23%)	16(16%)	11(9%)	16(21%)	158(14%)
Stressed/worried	27(20%)	26(20%)	14(13%)	9(8%)	20(17%)	18(15%)	9(8%)	10(10%)	7(6%)	6(8%)	146(13%)
Confident	11(8%)	15(12%)	20(19%)	22(18%)	6(5%)	17(14%)	19(17%)	14(14%)	10(8%)	0	134(12%)
Looking forward/eager	18(14%)	22(17%)	5(5%)	13(11%)	15(13%)	24(20%)	9(8%)	9(9%)	11(9%)	2(3%)	128(11%)
Enthusiastic/motivated	31(23%)	7(5%)	8(7%)	13(11%)	7(6%)	8(7%)	7(6%)	3(3%)	1(1%)	7(9%)	92(8%)
Afraid/uncertain/confused	18(14%)	12(9%)	3(3%)	11(9%)	9(8%)	12(10%)	5(5%)	4(4%)	3(2%)	5(6%)	82(7%)
Overwhelmed	21(16%)	11(9%)	2(2%)	8(7%)	9(8%)	8(7%)	12(11%)	2(2%)	1(1%)	4(5%)	78(7%)
Excited	18(14%)	15(12%)	2(2%)	4(3%)	9(8%)	8(7%)	3(3%)	4(4%)	9(7%)	0	72(6%)
Relieved ⁹	1(1%)	1(1%)	2(2%)	8(7%)	2(2%)	2(2%)	2(2%)	10(10%)	31(25%)	0	59(5%)
Time pressured	11(8%)	11(9%)	5(5%)	5(4%)	7(6%)	2(2%)	8(7%)	2(2%)	0	0	51(4%)
Unsure of role	4(3%)	1(1%)	1(1%)	1(1%)	1(1%)	2(2%)	0	1(1%)	0	0	11(1%)
Disorganised	3(2%)	1(1%)	0	2(2%)	1(1%)	0	1(1%)	0	0	0	8(1%)
Reflective	0	0	0	5(4%)	1(1%)	0	0	0	0	0	6(1%)

Data derived from sentence completion responses to part 1 of Question 7 on SQ.

For Tables XVI-XVIII, students' responses could contribute to more than one category, hence percentages can total over 100%. Percentages rounded up to nearest whole number

⁹ The very high level of relief at passing the course in the 1997-8 cohort coincides with greater emphasis on Standards for QTS

Table XVII: Sentence completion: What I would really like at the moment is/are

	S1 n=133	S2 n=127	S3 n=107	S4 n=120	S5 n=120	S6 n=119	S7 n=110	S8 n=98	S9 n=124	S10 n=78	Total n=1136
More time	37(28%)	35(28%)	19(18%)	35(29%)	17(14%)	12(10%)	15(14%)	5(5%)	5(4%)	24(31%)	204(18%)
Break	6(5%)	14(11%)	28(26%)	8(7%)	13(11%)	22(18%)	20(18%)	22(22%)	40(32%)	16(21%)	189(17%)
Fantasy	20(15%)	10(8%)	15(14%)	14(12%)	16(13%)	12(10%)	15(15%)	13(13%)	5(4%)	14(18%)	134(12%)
Job	1(1%)	1(1%)	2(2%)	11(9%)	14(12%)	16(13%)	26(24%)	23(23%)	22(18%)	5(6%)	121 11%
Future	16(12%)	10(8%)	7(7%)	7(6%)	6(5%)	21(18%)	11(10%)	13(13%)	7(6%)	10(13%)	108(10%)
'Get teaching'	21(16%)	25(20%)	2(2%)	23(19%)	17(14%)	9(8%)	0	3(3%)	2(2%)	0	102(9%)
Relaxation	7(5%)	12(9%)	17(16%)	7(6%)	7(6%)	7(6%)	5(5%)	9(9%)	12(10%)	6(8%)	89(8%)
Assignments finished	5(4%)	11(9%)	2(2%)	19(16%)	20(17%)	11(9%)	8(7%)	4(4%)	0	0	80(7%)
To be more focused	19(14%)	9(7%)	9(8%)	5(4%)	9(8%)	8(7%)	2(2%)	4(4%)	4(3%)	8(10%)	77(7%)
Advice/support	13(10%)	8(6%)	10(9%)	6(5%)	8(7%)	5(4%)	2(2%)	6(6%)	3(2%)	8(10%)	69(6%)
Subject Knowledge Improvement	17(13%)	9(7%)	6(6%)	9(8%)	11(9%)	2(2%)	1(1%)	1(1%)	3(2%)	1(1%)	60(5%)
See things clearly	16(12%)	9(7%)	3(3%)	8(7%)	8(7%)	4(3%)	2(2%)	3(3%)	0	3(4%)	56(5%)
Feedback/criticism	1(1%)	9(7%)	13(12%)	4(3%)	4(3%)	8(7%)	4(4%)	2(2%)	0	5(6%)	50(4%)
Pupil learning	7(5%)	3(2%)	8(7%)	7(6%)	7(6%)	5(4%)	5(5%)	1(1%)	0	7(9%)	50(4%)
School information	7(5%)	5(4%)	4(4%)	12(10%)	8(7%)	2(2%)	0	0	4(3%)	0	42(3%)
Money	3(2%)	3(2%)	1(1%)	2(2%)	7(6%)	2(2%)	1(1%)	3(3%)	12(10%)	4(5%)	38(3%)
Lesson ideas	3(2%)	3(2%)	7(7%)	2(2%)	7(6%)	6(5%)	4(4%)	1(1%)	0	4(5%)	37(3%)
Fears alleviated	7(5%)	8(6%)	3(3%)	6(5%)	1(1%)	7(6%)	2(2%)	0	2(2%)	1(1%)	37(3%)
ICT	6(5%)	7(6%)	2(2%)	6(5%)	4(3%)	3(3%)	0	0	1(1%)	3(4%)	32(3%)
Progress	2(2%)	0	5(5%)	5(4%)	4(3%)	4(3%)	5(5%)	3(3%)	0	4(5%)	32(3%)
Specific information	1(1%)	9(7%)	3(3%)	0	10(8%)	3(3%)	0	0	4(3%)	1(1%)	31(3%)
Confidence	11(8%)	5(4%)	3(3%)	4(3%)	3(3%)	2(2%)	0	0	0	0	28(2%)
To be a 'real' teacher	1(1%)	4(3%)	1(1%)	4(3%)	3(3%)	2(2%)	1(1%)	2(3%)	3(2%)	2(3%)	23(2%)
Role models	5(4%)	2(2%)	2(2%)	2(3%)	0	3(3%)	4(4%)	1(1%)	0	2(3%)	21(2%)
Personal issues resolved	4(3%)	1(1%)	1(1%)	1(1%)	2(2%)	2(2%)	1(1%)	2(3%)	4(3%)	2(3%)	20(2%)
Independence	2(2%)	3(2%)	1(1%)	0	2(2%)	1(1%)	3(3%)	2(3%)	3(2%)	0	17(1%)

Data derived from sentence completion responses to part 2 of Question 7 on SQ.

Table XVIII: Sentence completion: The factors most influencing my teaching now are ...

	S1 n=133	S2 n=127	S3 n=107	S4 n=120	S5 n=120	S6 n=119	S7 n=110	S8 n=98	S9 n=124	S10 n=78	Total n=1136
Mentor/other teachers	5(4%)	47(37%)	31(29%)	32(27%)	22(18%)	36(30%)	46(42%)	28(29%)	11(9%)	29(37%)	287(25%)
Pupils and their needs	17(13%)	23(18%)	38(36%)	14(12%)	22(18%)	24(20%)	34(31%)	30(31%)	18(15%)	44(56%)	264(23%)
Feedback/advice	11(8%)	16(13%)	32(30%)	24(20%)	11(9%)	7(6%)	31(28%)	26(27%)	8(6%)	10(13%)	176(15%)
Methodological ideas	23(17%)	18(14%)	20(19%)	17(14%)	19(16%)	16(13%)	16(15%)	15(15%)	9(7%)	23(29%)	176(15%)
Discussing/sharing ideas	23(17%)	25(20%)	12(11%)	24(20%)	20(17%)	15(13%)	6(5%)	6(6%)	14(11%)	8(10%)	153(13%)
School environment	15(11%)	32(25%)	9(8%)	13(11%)	20(17%)	20(17%)	8(7%)	10(10%)	18(15%)	6(8%)	151(13%)
Reflection	24(18%)	15(12%)	12(11%)	23(19%)	17(14%)	14(12%)	6(5%)	8(8%)	5(4%)	6(8%)	130(11%)
University MFL sessions	34(26%)	32(25%)	7(7%)	18(15%)	19(16%)	12(10%)	1(1%)	2(2%)	1(1%)	0	126(11%)
Self-organisation	17(13%)	23(18%)	15(14%)	9(8%)	11(9%)	13(11%)	8(7%)	6(6%)	7(6%)	8(10%)	117(10%)
Class management	3(2%)	9(7%)	22(21%)	6(5%)	11(9%)	13(11%)	1(1%)	0	1(1%)	3(4%)	100(9%)
Observing teachers in school	28(21%)	29(23%)	7(7%)	8(7%)	11(9%)	12(10%)	5(5%)	11(11%)	14(11%)	4(5%)	96(8%)
On-course teaching experience	5(4%)	2(2%)	2(2%)	26(22%)	13(11%)	14(12%)	6(5%)	6(6%)	11(9%)	11(14%)	77(7%)
Resources/ frameworks	4(3%)	14(11%)	5(5%)	8(7%)	8(7%)	4(3%)	6(5%)	6(6%)	14(11%)	6(8%)	77(7%)
Self-confidence/ enthusiasm	8(6%)	2(2%)	3(3%)	9(8%)	6(5%)	7(6%)	14(13%)	8(8%)	5(4%)	4(5%)	75(7%)
Role models	22(17%)	11(9%)	4(4%)	6(5%)	6(5%)	7(6%)	4(4%)	6(6%)	8(6%)	5(6%)	66(6%)
Self-confidence/ subject knowledge	11(8%)	2(2%)	14(13%)	11(9%)	4(3%)	2(2%)	5(5%)	4(4%)	8(6%)	5(6%)	66(6%)
Languages/subject knowledge	13(10%)	16(13%)	4(4%)	12(10%)	7(6%)	5(4%)	0	2(2%)	5(4%)	2(3%)	66(6%)
Theory	5(4%)	6(5%)	11(10%)	8(7%)	3(3%)	4(3%)	7(7%)	3(3%)	6(5%)	10(13%)	63(6%)
Time	10(8%)	9(7%)	7(7%)	11(9%)	5(4%)	4(3%)	5(5%)	2(2%)	4(3%)	1(1%)	58(5%)
Peers	4(3%)	2(2%)	2(2%)	8(7%)	9(8%)	7(6%)	3(3%)	8(8%)	7(6%)	7(9%)	57(5%)
Own desire/ determination	3(2%)	6(5%)	8(7%)	7(6%)	5(4%)	4(3%)	5(5%)	10(10%)	3(2%)	5(6%)	56(5%)
Own Ideas	3(2%)	10(8%)	5(5%)	5(4%)	4(3%)	5(4%)	2(2%)	3(3%)	3(2%)	1(1%)	41(4%)
Putting theory into practice	9(7%)	4(3%)	1(1%)	10(8%)	5(4%)	7(6%)	2(2%)	1(1%)	1(1%)	0	40(4%)
Reading	12(9%)	6(5%)	6(6%)	3(3%)	5(4%)	2(2%)	1(1%)	2(2%)	1(1%)	1(1%)	39(3%)
Pre-course experience	1(1%)	1(1%)	4(4%)	4(4%)	3(3%)	5(4%)	4(4%)	7(7%)	7(6%)	2(3%)	38(3%)
Future	7(5%)	2(2%)	3(3%)	2(2%)	3(3%)	4(3%)	3(3%)	2(2%)	2(2%)	9(12%)	37(3%)
Support	2(2%)	0	3(3%)	2(2%)	4(3%)	5(4%)	3(3%)	10(10%)	4(3%)	3(4%)	36(3%)
Learning from mistakes	3(2%)	1(1%)	3(3%)	9(8%)	6(5%)	3(3%)	3(3%)	2(2%)	5(4%)	0	35(3%)
Assessment issues (passing the course)	10(8%)	5(4%)	3(3%)	6(5%)	4(3%)	1(1%)	1(1%)	1(1%)	1(1%)	0	32(3%)
University core sessions	1(1%)	0	7(7%)	3(3%)	2(2%)	2(2%)	5(5%)	3(3%)	3(2%)	1(1%)	27(3%)
Being observed	0	1(1%)	0	3(3%)	2(2%)	4(3%)	4(4%)	4(4%)	8(6%)	0	26(2%)
'Job issues											

Data derived from sentence completion responses to part 3 of Question 7 on SQ.

5.4: Student teachers' conceptualisation of learning-to-teach

It is evident from the data collected at the start of the course, presented in Chapter 4, that the beginning teachers certainly acknowledge their need for professional development and that they hold a number of images and models, occasionally contradictory, to represent the process. The number and range of categories required to look at their perceptions of what is influencing their teaching is also immediately apparent from Table XVIII. Beginning teachers in this study work with a range of models to explain their learning-to-teach process; they also refer to more than one model simultaneously when citing factors influencing their teaching. *Observing* teachers, the prime source of perceived development on application (Table V), implies an essentially craft model of learning-to-teach, involving potential imitation; if student teachers observe in order to reflect, however, then this would appear to go beyond imitation. *Learning theory and putting it into practice* implies an applied science model, and reflective practice in turn would combine all of these. There are perceived deficits in all these models and learning-to-teach means a variety of processes to individual beginning teachers at different points in their development. During their course, the immediate *contextual* factors influencing their teaching often achieve primacy:

"The kids, the weather, the previous subject taught to them, the time of day/day of the week, the ability of the class, fights in the previous breaktime, whether the majority of the class is prepared (pens/books....), who is absent (!!!), delays/overruns from the previous lesson, the presence of a support teacher, who is on SMT duty, what was on TV last night." (S3(W)96-7)

The student teachers' varying interpretations of their learning-to-teach and how they perceive this is happening demonstrates that all the elements discussed in this section overlap and are favoured by students at different points; many student teachers grow to acknowledge that the learning-to-teach process cannot be encapsulated in a clear-cut model. None of these 'types' is therefore exclusive: most student teachers refer to many of these elements throughout their responses.

Whatever process they recognise, there is a strong element of their acknowledgement of the *need to learn*. How they feel they will undergo this process differs.

☞ Well, I, in Spain, you know, the teacher training you have is not like this at all, I mean in my University, there was no teaching practice at all (*general disbelief*), it's basically theory, you just have to read a lot of books and that's it, I just think, if I had done that, I wouldn't be prepared for it at all, I would be as the first day of the teaching practice, so I think that's really basic. (V4/96-7)

☞ I agree completely - I had no, I mean I knew, what the qualities were you perhaps needed to teach, but I had absolutely no idea *how* to teach languages, in that way, I mean, the whole course has just been an eye opener (V4/96-7)

Observation of other teachers is one method frequently cited as important, as well as being observed in turn which peaks near the beginning and then disappears, moving on to relying more on their own experience (Table XVIII). In order to gain from school experience, according to Lanier and Little (1986:551), student teachers must be adequately prepared to learn from it, i.e. to know what to look for and work at and this is essential preparation for any observation phase. Qualifiers from concern ticklist on 'observing others teach' indicate that for some student teachers, it is a matter of regret that they do not have sufficient opportunity for this during their teaching placement (i.e. when it is fully underway). They feel this is a good way to learn. This is also true of student teachers working as qualified teachers. Other student teachers fail to see any benefit in observation – they wish to be 'doing it' rather than watching.

Observation remains important, then, near the beginning of the course but the most influence over the whole year stems from other teachers; a factor barely evident in the applicant data but which increases dramatically from S2 onwards. Crucial throughout is the influence of peers, where a form of synergy contributing positively to the learning-to-teach process appears to be created, confirming research by Haggarty (1995b:96) and Kyriacou and Stephens (1999:28). The video groups generally showed a great deal of mutual support and agreement during the sessions and openly appreciated the opportunity to talk together. The influence of peers is both one of mutual understanding and collaborating reflection.

"The ideas gained and shared during MFL sessions. I often think back and compare other people's experiences with my own; I ask myself would I do the same exercise differently now to incorporate different ideas." (S4(W)96-7)

5.4.1: Becoming a 'real' teacher; teaching as a 'real' activity

☛ One class I was tracking. 'Miss, do you want to be a teacher when you grow up?' I didn't know whether to say I am grown up or I am a teacher!
(V2/96-7)

Being regarded as a 'real' teacher is a frequent theme in the literature (Furlong, 1996; Kyriacou and Stephens, 1999:22) and is referred to, amongst other terms, as a process of 'self-as-teacher' Bullough (1997:26), 'me-as-teacher' (Furlong and Maynard, 1995) or 'rites of passage' (McNamara et al, 2002:870). It is often a source of internal conflict, where they wish to be teachers but also themselves (Grenfell, 1998:110). This involves adopting a role (Marti and Huberman, 1993:196) and there is a conflict of roles as they try to be a 'real' teacher. Lacey (1977:78) points to the tendency of student teachers at the end of the course to be people who are to an extent identified by the status conferred by the course. Seen already in the AQ, student teachers often express teaching in terms of something 'actual' or 'real' and seem to equate real teaching as the place they will really learn-to-teach, although they are not quite sure of their place in it:

"Strange – TP is like being in a real situation which is nevertheless completely artificial." (S3(W)98-9)

This desire for real teaching is encapsulated in the strong desire of student teachers initially in this study to start teaching and try it out. The mixed metaphor below expresses a general feeling:

"To get my teeth into some hands on teaching, whatever, just to get some invaluable experience under my belt. I want to participate, contribute and feel a sense of achievement - good preferably, bad undoubtedly but turn them around to be better prepared the next time." (S2(W)96-7)

Adopting the role is very difficult for some, and interestingly, a few feel more 'real' at University than in school. The role-playing is an activity which leaves them requiring reassurance and experiencing doubt as to the effectiveness of their 'acting'. Adopting an alternative character can take its toll, and is seen by some as something grown-up and mature, which they perceive as difficult to achieve.

"I find it very hard being the teacher, conforming to this idea that teachers know everything, when I still feel like I need to be taught myself." (S4(W)96-7)

"With regard to professional relationships, I find it very hard to relate to them as I feel too young and patronised, but when I'm in the classroom I'm supposed to be in control, the older one. I'm finding it hard to pinpoint exactly what role I have in the profession and how to just further extend my personality and slightly adapt it, instead of feeling like I do at the moment like I'm having to completely change it." (S5(W)96-7)

☞ One of the classes I was observing, the teacher had to go and settle another class. I was petrified about just handing out some papers! I'm like breathing out. 'Can you speak French too, Miss?' (V2/96-7)

What it means to be a *real* teacher is often encapsulated in apparently trivial routine to do with discipline and rules.

☞ At the beginning, it was the school policy for the kids not to wear their coats inside the corridors, inside the classrooms, and they always tried it on, at the end of every lesson, they'd put their coats on and I was so scared at the beginning to say to Year 10 'Take your coats off' whereas at the end it didn't affect me anymore, it was just like thick skin or auto pilot (V3/97-8)

Where student teachers feel they have made progress, they frequently mention they are 'ready': their self-assessment is sufficiently positive, and they confer the status on themselves.

"Amazed that I've nearly finished the course and that I can almost call myself a teacher." (S8(W)97-8)

When they feel they have achieved the status of 'real' teacher, the use of the possessive pronoun 'my' about their pupils becomes more frequently used. They want to be the 'real' teacher, to exert some degree of autonomy, and there is also a shift towards seeing *themselves* as the teacher, the vision they had at the beginning is nearing reality, and they assume a teaching identity. For some, however, 'being the teacher' is still something not quite tangible, a role they are assuming, but the role is embraced and seen as at least attainable. They notice signs of adopting the persona:

☞ I think my friends realised it when I was saying something and they'd interrupt me and I'd go (*hard stare*) (*laughter*) and I thought, 'whoah!' Also, the way you walk gets different, I don't know if you've noticed that, but (*laughter*) it's much more confident. (V3/97-8)

Real teaching is also seen as somewhat distinct from the HEI, and some students emphasise the perceived impossibility of the theory; *realism* is a term commonly used.

"Ideas/materials picked up at the Uni/reality of what is REALLY possible at my school/the pupils/what their teachers do there at the moment." (S2(W)96-7)

This realism can verge on the dogmatic:

"Variety of resources and approaches and working on individual approach to groups of pupils, since whole class teaching is impossible with some groups." (S8(W)98-9)

Closely related to being a 'real' teacher is the perceived intangibility of teaching as an activity, perceived as ephemeral, slipping through your fingers as soon as you stop 'practising', and is related at least in part to *where* they think they learn-to-teach, and the relative importance of what they perceive as theory and practice. The impression is gained that it is something almost magical, which will float away unless they keep tight hold, if they are not doing it in school every day. When based in the HEI, for example, some are concerned they will 'lose it'.

"Concerned that by the time I get into school I won't be able to 'do it' again!" (S4(W)96-7)

☞ Last week I had half term and I feel so far removed from the school and when I went in I just felt a sort of shock, so much to pack in in those two days, wanting to see the teachers, some of the classes I've not even seen yet. (V2/97-8)

Primarily, then, student teachers are eager to begin 'for real'. This is often linked with some apprehension, but nevertheless, they long to start and test themselves out, confirming previous research by Kyriacou and Stephens (1999:25), and continuing a theme identified in the AQ. After HEI input and post-placement reflection, student teachers become even keener to get teaching again, and much of this appears to be a question of testing out their assumptions about teaching and their own ability. They want to know for sure that their teaching skills are good, a need linked also with future-wishing.

5.4.2: Playing a role: discipline and class management

5.3.87

Mr. (teacher's name) was there too and at one point he shut them up for me. It really makes me feel stupid when other teachers have to do that. With the first years I spent 10 minutes telling them off! It's funny, 'cos you've got to act in a bad mood really.

Whilst control and management concerns are certainly a concern for the student teachers under investigation here, it is by no means their major worry (unlike for Berliner, 1986 and Haggarty, 1995b:42). Discipline issues are clearly influential on the learning-to-teach process (Table XVIII) yet there is virtually no mention of discipline concerns in the pre-course and initial on-course data, indicative of Weinstein's *unrealistic optimism* (1988:32):

✍ So far I'm probably living in a fool's Paradise because I haven't seen any problems in a school, discipline, so I'm sure I'll come down to earth with a big bump on Monday [...]. It's just a question of me getting across the message – my biggest hope really is to have pupils who are really happy and enjoying my classes and learning as opposed to thinking I've got to control them all the time, tell them to be quiet etc. – it doesn't really enter my mind at the moment. (V1/96-7)

At the start of the course, where concerns about discipline are expressed at all, the element is one amongst many, but class management issues amongst the beginning teachers grow in perceived importance throughout the year, with a peak at the start of each school placement and when working as NQTs, coinciding therefore perhaps with Veenman's (1984) *reality shock*. Discipline matters primarily involve *self* concerns, a preoccupation corresponding with Furlong's 'survival' stage (1996). If this type of concern remains paramount, then there is less likelihood of effective teaching and professional growth. They are certainly aware of the need to assert themselves.

✍ If you're nervous facing a class your gestures would tend to be slightly more inhibited anyway whereas in actual fact if you want the class to do something you've got to be fairly unambiguous (*demonstrates loudly and with clear gesture*) ermm, 'Levez-vous' whereas in actual fact you tend to just go (*demonstrates timidly*) 'Levez-vous' and then they don't, you know, if you want them to do it you've got to be almost over the top with your gestures. (V1/96-7)

Class management is, however, seen as being crucial for successful implementation of methodology: viewed by some student teachers as only effective if control is achieved. The notion that particular approaches may conversely *contribute* to effective class management is, however, less frequently encountered. Indeed, discipline and concerns about pupils remain uppermost in the minds of some throughout, and can become a perceived or actual barrier to effective teaching:

“Using methods which control the classes, rather than using more creative ideas.” (S10(W)97-8)

Discipline is seen also as something *outside* them, a behaviour mode they may have to adopt, where they would play the role of the disciplinarian. They cannot envisage themselves becoming like certain teachers they have observed.

“Very nervous about my first lessons and first contacts with the pupils - about giving the impression of somebody who is in control and being able to handle problems of discipline.” (S2(W)96-7)

☞ It's getting a balance though - you don't really want a class where they think they can't open their mouths. I'm not a shouter and some of the teachers at school really did shout at them - I prefer to be able to say things quite calmly and sometimes that works but sometimes it just didn't and I felt what can I do here, you wonder 'What can I do?' (V3/96-7)

Some see the solution in observation, but imply they do not have the exact role models they require, and generally, observing with a view to imitation is not seen as the answer, as there is a distinct feeling that they can never emulate experienced staff. Some experienced staff appear to imply it is an inexplicable process, where teaching is 'magic', almost non-transferable.

☞ My mentor was like that, he could have them laughing and then the next second they could be quiet. It was amazing. And I used to ask him 'How did you do it?' and I was told it's a question of practice. (V6/96-7)

☞ My mentor, she took a load of the 3rd sets, she would send, these are Year 10 lads, to stand in the corner of the room, and she said it had a wonderful effect on them - embarrassed 'cos it's like primary school - but with that class I'd need 31 naughty corners! (*laughter*) - putting them in a room with lots of alcoves. (V3/96-7)

For role models to be effective, they need to be seen as achievable and to fit in with student teachers' beliefs; seeing successful versions of themselves is perceived as very valuable.

☛ There was a class of very low ability year 11 pupils, who were quite abusive to the teacher, but I learnt a lot from watching her because she was never fazed, she really demonstrated to me the principle of going in there and starting every lesson afresh and always giving them a second chance, and she never raised her voice, but she did manage to teach them, she was extremely patient, and that gave me a little bit of hope that there was room for me and my style. (V3/97-8)

On teaching placement student teachers experience what they have wanted for a long time and feel the effects of intensive work and of being confronted by real pupils. Class management issues become part of their reality, confirming other research (Kagan, 1992:145; Haggarty, 1995b:77; Kyriacou and Stephens, 1999:20; Lawes, 2002:9). They modify their ideals to some extent (Calderhead and Robson, 1991 and Furlong and Maynard, 1995) and they begin to realise there are certain procedures which can contribute to a positive ambience.

☛ I didn't know they had two exercise books and I'd say 'Right, get your books out' and they'd say, 'Which one?', they don't do it like that, 'What's the title, what's the date?', you'll probably always write the date, underline the title, which you had to consciously think about before, I just did it towards the end (*general agreement*) (V3/97-8)

The role of (pseudo-)disciplinarian is one some cannot believe they have achieved even when they have:

☛ It's hard but the funny thing was, just as they were going out of the door in this last lesson, this girl said to me, 'Well, thanks, miss, you know it's been really nice and you can control us much better than [name], and I said 'You're joking aren't you?' 'No miss, you can'. (V6/96-7)

Some feel the tension between the enthusiasm they want to engender and the control they wish to exert.

☛ But it's trying to get that balance between, I mean I've always been wanting, you know to have an atmosphere, 'cos I've seen classes where they are well-behaved but they all don't like French, and will admit they don't enjoy French, and you think well you know, this isn't the objective, this isn't the, and trying to get that balance of creating an atmosphere that's open and enthusiastic, but yet then not perceiving it as a weakness and taking

advantage of it, and it's like this balance the whole time and you can take it just too far to the extreme and be really strict and they'll be well-behaved and they all give up as soon as they possibly can. (V6/96-7)

There is also a growing realisation that MFL may be in a particular situation regarding pupil motivation.

"More effective ways to motivate 'difficult' pupils who really see no point in learning a language." (S3(W)96-7)

During the second, longer, placement, discipline issues understandably preoccupy many student teachers and become more frequently linked more directly to pupils' learning rather than seen in isolation. They are a major element of some responses, and descriptions of them become more detailed and specific. Occasions where they feel out of control in a class have a lasting influence on their perceptions of themselves as teachers and are vivid portrayals of their feelings of helplessness:

☛ I remember going home that night thinking 'Oh God, that's a horrible feeling, it's not happened before, I just felt the class ebbing away, out of my control, and it really struck me when that happened for the first time. (V3/96-7)

☛ I had a nightmare lesson - it was year 8 mixed ability, 30 kids, and 10 on report, terrible, but they wouldn't listen to me, and in the end, this was just before break, so I said 'As soon as the bell goes you're having a detention' and they started playing up and being completely noisy and I started panicking so and it got worse and worse and I thought, you know, shall I leave? But I can't leave them on their own, but then I regretted not having left really, because I burst into tears there, I really, you can't imagine (*sings*) 'la la la, clap hands', they were all singing that song, imagine, and I couldn't do anything to shut them up, it was terrible. I just felt awful, you know, and that made me think, 'Well, if this is happening now, what about next year', I'll never forget that. (V6/96-7)

They do not have the pedagogical and methodological repertoire to fall back on, and where discipline issues dominate, they feel demoralised.

"Down! I am having problems administering discipline, thus I am hardly doing any teaching. I want to be a teacher, not a lion tamer! I am finding it really difficult to adapt to the constant background chatter. I frequently expect silence but rarely get it and I'm not sure what to do to enforce it. I've given out lots of lines, detentions but nothing seems to make any difference. I am sure

that with time I'll develop my own strategies for discipline, but until then I must prepare myself for a series of trial and error lessons. Eventually I'll stumble on the correct one!" (S7(W)96-7)

Reassurance, sought throughout the year, is essential in this area.

☞ I think the fear factor was there with my bottom set year 10 at the beginning, I really used to dread it every time and I was quite relieved when another experienced teacher in the department said 'Oh, I still feel that sometimes' and I thought, you know, just feeling more relaxed and more able to adapt if something doesn't go to plan and actually listening to the kids, I think at the beginning I was just eyes at the back of the classroom, thinking, 'got to get through this lesson', and not really, you know, watching the dynamics, now you're just able to pick up much more. (V6/97-8)

5.4.3: Creativity, conformity or a balanced approach?

Some student teachers' models of learning-to-teach involve being creative and experimental, a desire which increases as the course progresses. A dichotomy emerges between being creative or conformist, where a continuum from being instructed, to adapting, to being autonomous can be detected. Some begin to feel they can be adventurous, and take risks with their teaching.

"Trying loads of strategies and activity-types to see what works best for me and classes, finding my strengths/weaknesses in teaching children."
(S5(W)96-7)

But there are worries about employing creative ideas, involving primarily conservatism, planning and class management.

"Making sure everything is as organised as possible and that I am clear about what I am meant to be doing. As long as this is clear, I can then be creative and innovative and produce some good lessons! (In theory!)" (S1(W)96-7)

"The atmosphere in each class. A vicious circle – with groups that work well, I feel inspired to try more creative work and feel more relaxed and probably appear more confident. With those that don't, I feel that I am employing methods of crowd control and not teaching at all." (S10(W)97-8)

One aspect of conformity is where the influence is perceived as what one is 'supposed to do', or even what one is *instructed* to do (by either HEI or school staff).

"Classroom management techniques, doing what we've been instructed to do by the classroom teachers." (S3(Ox)97-8)

Adaptation and balance provide a more autonomous alternative.

"Balancing the different styles and approaches I find in the teachers at school, making my own decisions about how I want to be in the classroom – discipline, expectations, format of lessons etc." (S3(Ox)98-9)

"Watching other (good and not so good) teachers at work and wondering how I can adapt their approaches to suit my style." (S1(W)97-8)

☞ I think what we see taught here, as [name] said, is just some guidelines, you are not obliged to respect them, but they just want us to know about certain things (V1/97-8)

Adaptation can verge on the eclectic, however.

☞ I just think that in this course, pick bits out which suit you, put them together on one picture you can use and all the other stuff you say 'well, that's for somebody else' (V1/97-8)

The learning-to-teach process is also affected by how student teachers define good teaching. For some it is clearly dependent on other people's definitions, i.e. how they will be judged. The more autonomous conceptualisation involves reflection and, for example, learning from their mistakes. Grenfell (1998:146) found that student teachers became more critical of their course as the year progressed and felt more prepared to suggest alternative approaches. In this mode, they become more self-reliant, and can grow fairly autonomous, a finding echoed in McNamara et al (2002:871):

"My own ability to evaluate my teaching and so be able to adapt my teaching appropriately." (S8(Ox)98-9)

There are also student teachers who know what they want to happen, but show no indication of how it will happen. If they want it strongly enough, it will happen, akin to the magical process alluded to previously, and also evident in the pre-course data. This persists until late in the course. Gleaning tips, on occasion very prosaic ones, is also seen as a pseudo-method for learning-to-teach, although it is usually simultaneously bound up in other processes. The collection of tips can, however, expand to the development of a pedagogical repertoire and can also incorporate a degree of reflection as they resemble self-evaluation and target-setting exercises. These distilled tips are at first again resonant of the magical recipes sought; they read

like 'spells' for success, and give the impression that once this small battle has been won, or the box ticked, then all is resolved.

"Concentrating on setting learning objectives as it is the subject of my self-evaluation report." (S7(Ox)97-8)

"Re-reading my subject session notes, compiling a synoptic recipe for successful delivery and activities." (S2(Ox)97-8)

"Things learnt at Warwick 1) need to vary activities (enjoyment promotes learning) 2) need to plan and be organised for every lesson 3) try to use the OHP." (S2(W)96-7)

A process of imitation appears to stem sometimes from an element of socialisation, where the term 'fit in' is often adopted in responses. The influence exerted by the school staff is strong and not necessarily positive. This influence spans the course and at its extreme, becomes coerced methodology. There are a few student teachers who want to fit with what is expected, not necessarily what works. The goal has been designed by someone else, not themselves, not the learners' needs. They appear directable.

"For each lesson I am trying to teach in the way that teacher expects so that they are happy and do not give me too much negative criticism." (S4(Ox)97-8)

For some, there may be echoes of Grenfell's findings (1998:134) where there is a tension between public acquiescence and private reflection, in order to fulfil course requirements. Dart and Drake (1993:186) argue that 'fitting in' was a mentor's rule of thumb method of determining a student teacher's suitability for Qualified Teacher Status (QTS).

The overall trend, however, is one of balance, and touches on beginning teachers' images of the relationship between theory and practice, which are highly influential on the learning process (Russell, 1988:15). Theory is strongest at the start in the influences cited (Table XVIII) and then fades. Some beginning teachers in this study are very disparaging of theory, viewing it as

unconnected with 'real' teaching (found also by Kyriacou and Stephens, 1999:25), while others only consider it important *after* some teaching¹⁰.

☞ I'm just so aware of the time and the lack of it and any session I find that goes on to 'academic' type stuff I just think 'stop!' - we've got to concentrate on the practical ... (V1/97-8)

"Quite low in morale. I want to teach and am disillusioned with all the theory. I have found it quite difficult to adapt back to being passive after teaching actively during last placement." (S5(W)96-7)

☞ It's like two completely different sides, isn't it, the school work and the academic work. (V2/97-8)

Theory is generally, however, valued, and the need for it acknowledged. The beginning teachers often appreciate theory more when they can directly see the relevance.

☞ In some ways I'm more nervous than I was, because I know more what I don't know. Because at first you think what's the big deal - but now I only know this bit and there's all this bit. (V2/96-7)

☞ I think it's great to see [tutors] write something on the OHT and then you go off into a school and you see someone do it and you think that's language presentation, then they're going to practise it then they're going to manipulate it and I think that's great. I disagree about not having to do the theory because I feel we need something behind us. Otherwise anyone could teach, wishy washy, 'oh that's a word, learn that'. (V1/97-8)

There comes a point where they then perceive a strong *need* to put the theory to the test themselves. Many researchers assert that learning *to* teach as opposed to learning *about* teaching begins only fully when engaged in teaching itself (Furlong and Maynard, 1995:175; Sato and Kleinsasser; 1999:510) and it is common for research to emphasise student teachers' desire to 'learn by doing' (Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann, 1987:258). For example, Haggarty (1995b:94) found the beginning maths teachers she investigated did not rate observation highly at the beginning of the year, but were more appreciative *after* they had done some teaching themselves.

¹⁰ MFL-specific approaches are considered further in Chapter 6, i.e. *subject* methodology. Here, 'theory' is looked at more generically, albeit from MFL student teachers' perspectives.

5.4.4: Reflection, the mentor and feedback

The all-consuming nature of being on placement needs to be reflected upon in order to learn, which enables a process of reassessment, of constructivism to take place. This reflective process is in contrast to the magical development expected to happen in situ; learning from experience, when student teachers *reflect* on successes and failures, is more than learning by doing, or following an apprenticeship model. Occurrences of reflection decrease as the course progresses (Table XVIII), but this does not of course indicate it is not happening.

"My need to sharpen up my methods I have been experimenting with and the rationale behind them. Grasping all the ideas and theory we are being given in the hope I can put it all into practice this time round. I can see an awful lot now about where I went wrong - e.g. grammar teaching, using communicative activities and progression. I think it all ties in, and if one thing is done properly, a lot of others follow more easily - I just hope in practice I can make it happen!! (S4(W)96-7)

Whilst it is generally acknowledged that reflection in its critical form is infrequently encountered amongst beginning teachers (Gore and Zeichner, 1991; Barnes, 1998), there is certainly evidence of a reflection process in this study. Time in the HEI is seen as an opportunity to reflect. Some feel the need to reflect in order to develop their teaching from a theoretical perspective. For this to occur, they perceive *time* as crucial:

☛ You haven't got time to internalise your lesson, you've got to go in to your lesson to teach and you haven't learnt from your mistakes, it needs to sink in (V2/97-8)

In order to reflect successfully, feedback and constructive criticism is necessary. This is a fine balance, and one essential and recurring element is reassurance. Although mentor feedback is crucial, for some it is *pupil* reaction that assumes more importance. Teachers and mentors understandably play a huge role in the development of student teachers and this is underlined in the data informing this study (Table XVIII). Collaboration with mentors is seen as crucial to professional and methodological growth (Johnston, 1994:80; Velez-Rendon, 2000; Gwyn-Paquette and Tochon, 2002:219)

"At the end of the teaching practice, MORE positive feedback as well as constructive criticism. Teachers tend to dwell on the negative aspects of my

lessons (which is understandable, but can be depressing at the end of a hard week)." (S3(W)96-7)

Some influence the process by providing role models for observation, others in the power they exert and edicts they give out. They perform a dual, and dually complex, function: that of assessor and that of supporter. Adopting a methodological approach distinctly at odds with that of the school-based teacher can therefore be 'dangerous', or at least perceived to be so.

☞ I think that teachers who observed you I think judged you on *their* style of teaching, the way they would teach and that might not be your style of teaching, I think they should accept your style of teaching, and I mean, and judge according to that and not how they *think* it should be, which is their style of teaching. (V3/97-8)

The mentor understandably takes on a more important role in teaching influence as the student teachers spend more time in school. Their feedback (and that of other teachers) is highly influential, but not always positively. Some express their concern in terms of what observation reveals to them of the methodological dissonance, a theme explored in the next chapter.

5.5: A flavour of student teacher experience

The following summaries encapsulate the trend in responses and describe the overall student experience at each snapshot¹¹. Some subheadings are taken directly from student teachers' words. To some extent they match Furlong and Maynard's (1995) stages of recognising the difficulties, hitting the plateau and moving on, but they also illustrate the inadequacy of any stage model in the light of the wide-ranging experiences of individuals and the effects of each context and personal factors.

5.5.1: On the edge of something 'real' (S1)

☞ So how do we all feel after two weeks? I feel as though this is my new life and it's just happened and my old life doesn't exist anymore! (V1/97-8)

At the beginning of their training, student teachers ask themselves the question 'When does teaching start?', but simultaneously look already to the future when they will be qualified and are

¹¹ For the timing of data collection points, refer to Figure vi (Chapter 3)

keen and idealistic in their enthusiasm to get going. There is a tangible anticipatory feel to the responses – an anticipation that fills the student teachers with both panic and excitement.

Although they are waiting for 'it' to happen, they are not quite sure what 'it' will be:

"As if I'm in the calm before the storm. At the moment it's all reading and finding things out – pretty soon I'll have to get up and start doing it!" (S1(W)98-9)

Beginning 'for real' at this point consists essentially of 'getting in to school': very few comments relate to *teaching per se*, but the desire to be immersed in the school environment is paramount. A substantial level of nervousness (41%) is of course apparent, stemming primarily from SK concerns or worries about course assignments; concerns therefore from an academic perspective rather than one of class management.

5.5.2: Frustration builds (S2)

When more contact with schools has taken place mixed emotions still hold sway. As student teachers conduct observations of more experienced teachers they assess the positive and negative aspects of what they see, and many try to 'fit in'. The desire to teach is very strong at this point; the student teachers are extremely keen to find out for themselves, although they remain 'outside', waiting to 'start'. This eagerness is coloured with apprehension however, and worries about potential discipline concerns become more apparent as the placement draws nearer:

☛ I think I'm worried because it's something I've never done before I've never taught in my life, and it's like being told to go and do a presentation on, I don't know, to 45 million businessmen, the thought would terrify me, and the thought of going into class and saying 'Right, today we're going to learn whatever' (V2/97-8)

However, there is a small number of student teachers who are still more concerned about academic matters, course work and linguistic competence than getting in to school.

5.5.3: Beginnings of reality (S3)

10.10.86

My first lesson! It went pretty well actually - at least the kids learnt something at the end - but it took a lot of energy. I enjoyed it though.

Unsurprisingly, at this point where student teachers are on school placement, there is a growing tendency to mention feeling tired (38%). The majority of responses still contain a mixture of positive and negative feelings although very few are decisively negative. There are many instances of 'but', 'however' and 'although'. The most common mixture of responses consists of being tired but enjoying being in the classroom and there is a growth in the number of respondents who comment on their increasing confidence in this regard.

"Really excited about teaching. Tired by the evening but really enthusiastic. I work until I'm just too tired to do another thing - and I love it!" (S3(W)97-8)

Despite a differing course structure, the responses from both HEIs again show marked similarities. At this stage the mentor becomes very influential and more discipline concerns begin to emerge, echoing findings by Kyriacou and Stephens (1999:18). Student teachers, teaching at least partially, feel the repercussions of this reality they so keenly desired. Methodologically, many respondents are excited about trying things out but reality has bitten and their image of themselves as teachers is suffering in some cases.

"A little disappointed that I'm not God's gift to the teaching establishment! Humbled. It's not as easy as it looks." (S3(W)97-8)

Some student teachers appear to use the sentence completion as a chance to lay out their thoughts and to reassert an action plan of sorts:

*"I must clamp down on silly misbehaviour and tighten activities changeover."
(S3(W)98-9)*

5.5.4: Reassessing in the light of experience (S4)

Back in the HEI after a short school placement most respondents still express a mixture of feelings. Many are ambivalent about the fact they are now out of school, echoing their perception of 'learning by doing'. Many appear very aware of what they have learned and what still needs to

be achieved ('reflection' reaches a 19% peak), and many express how pleased they are with their progress so far. This period appears to be vital for confidence levels. The first TP has for many of them provided a belief in their own ability, a growth in confidence. Student teachers' progress has a clear impact on their feelings at the start of this phase, as is apparent in these two contrasting quotations.

"Not very confident about my teaching abilities." (S4(W)97-8)

"Good about myself and my teaching ability." (S4(W)97-8)

There is also a feeling that things are beginning to fall in to place personally, methodologically and pedagogically:

"Positive. This is a good time to reflect on my first teaching placement, organise my files, concentrate on weaker areas as highlighted in report and do more background reading which will now make more sense having been in a school." (S4(W)97-8)

'Language teaching' is becoming more of a logical 'whole' now, rather than snippets of ideas/methodology that I tried to stick together on my placement." (S4(W)96-7)

Given the course structure, assignments assume importance again and the discussions on video at this point reveal concern with whole school issues (gifted learners, SEN, pastoral care etc.). They now feel they have space to talk things over, think and look at their individual needs. Looking back on their teaching experiences, student teachers know more precisely what they need next time, including more frequent mentions of class management, SK and IT.

☛ I think at the next school I've got to kind of formalise the scale of sanctions - have it worked out in advance and then not - 'How will I deal with this here?' You know, from shouting out in the class to moving out of the seat, so that you're consistent as well - every time somebody gets out of their seat you do it, every time somebody swears you do a certain thing. (V3/96-7)

Indeed, many wish they could re-do their first placement, to get it right next time and many express a feeling of growing realism. Yet despite having felt so tired while experiencing teaching for themselves, back in an HEI environment, student teachers are very keen to 'get out there' again, even though now they know the reality.

How they have been and will be assessed is crucial for some (8%), confirming research by Capel (1998a and 1998b) and Kyriacou and Stephens (1999:18).

"The comments and feedback on my student placement profile and my own evaluation of my lessons." (S4(W)97-8)

5.5.5: Building up momentum to 'doing it again' (S5)

As student teachers approach their main teaching placement, identified by Smith (1998) as a crucial point in student teachers' development, there is understandably consistent mention of teachers in school. Many still express a mixture of feelings, and the search for jobs dominates, as well as assignments (17%); indeed, most comments relating to stress are linked with academic work.

Occasionally, some student teachers indicate their preference for remaining at University, but generally student teachers appear to be more frustrated than ever. Responses at this stage indicate a renewed desire to resume teaching again, but some fear they have lost the ability to do it. There is an unmistakable energy about these responses.

"That I am building up momentum to being in school, the teacher, the mediator, the facilitator and my role, how I want to conduct myself both professionally and personally. I feel very motivated." (S5(W)96-7)

The new placement school looms large, and many worries are to do with apprehension about the environment and personnel awaiting them.

5.5.6: 'Still a large hurdle' (S6)

At this point immediately before beginning their main TP, which dominates responses, student teachers are concerned with specifics which may impact on their experience and which indicate a clearer understanding of school needs than previously:

"Worried that I am not adequately prepared for my second Block Placement because I have no timetable and therefore do not know which classes I will be taking over." (S6(W)96-7)

They still experience a strong desire to be 'in there' properly again, but tempered with a need to tie up perceived loose ends from the academic element of the course. Overall, the responses paint a much more negative picture than before, and far fewer are counter-balanced with positive comments, as was the case in previous snapshots; change is becoming apparent. However, this is also the case with positive comments: respondents appear to be diverging and becoming more certain about their feelings. By this stage, the 'teaching self' begins to come to the fore. Student teachers become more assured of their own opinions on teaching and learning issues. Many feel they need more time, but simultaneously wish it away. Some experience a 'culmination' process and indeed their comments reveal they are seeing the bigger picture more:

"Observing each class, planning sequences of lessons and liaising with other language teachers to discuss ideas." (S6(W)98-9)

5.5.7: Positive or negative: decision-making time (S7)

Occasionally, some student teachers feel completely content with their progress, their ability and the course as a whole, but this is rare. During this main TP, responses become ever more starkly categorised into positive or negative feelings.

"Tired! I feel I'm not doing anything 100% conscientiously - lack of time."
(S7(W)96-7)

"As though things are going quite well and that the school is very supportive."
(S7(W)96-7)

Where a mixture of feelings is expressed, this is generally not negative tempered with positive, but negative seen in the light of the respondent's determination to overcome it:

"Better than last week – (I was thinking about dropping out again ...). I'm feeling more enthusiastic although not confident enough, but I'll get there in the end ..." (S7(W)96-7)

This snapshot reveals student teachers reaching important decisions and those without jobs tend to see obtaining a post as a priority (this reaches a peak of 24%).

"Very underconfident - I've realised I'm just not particularly good at teaching and have decided to look for other jobs." (S7(Ox)97-8)

"I feel more confident and in control and I know I'm gonna be a teacher ... hopefully not an awful one!" (S7(Ox)97-8)

Impact concerns are high (31%) and they can see progress in their pupils' learning:

**"The fact that I can teach a topic from start to finish and can see the results."
(S7(W)96-7)**

Discipline is also important, but is often seen more clearly than hitherto and there is, as found in the AQ, still a desire to pass on enthusiasm for languages:

**"Wanting to leave those I've taught feeling keen to continue languages."
(S7(Ox)97-8)**

5.5.8: Completely shattered, but nearly 'real' (S8)

The attention of those student teachers with posts lined up for September is largely diverted by that goal. There are at this stage very frequent mentions of what will be necessary to prepare for their role as NQT in September and these comments are often very specific.

"I feel it is the right job for me. I feel there are infinite ways to constantly improve my teaching and I am looking forward to having a long term position in a school. To develop (investigate, improve) my subject knowledge, my lesson planning, my relationships, my personal skills, the way I conduct my lessons, and motivate pupils to carry on to a higher level. I feel my PGCE course is only just starting." (S8(W)96-7)

Comments again tend to be strongly positive or negative and very few express mixed feelings.

Where student teachers experience more negative feelings, these are often overwhelming. The teaching placement is by now taking its toll and a major theme at this point is excessive tiredness and the imminent half term holiday is seen by many as an oasis (22% 'need a break'). Many begin to be more assertive in the expression of their progress and abilities ('happiness' is mentioned by 43%).

"Happier at long last with my assertiveness in managing a classroom. I feel the mould is beginning to set now, I feel settled and accepted by most of my students. I am enjoying it once again, and I actually left school smiling yesterday." (S8(W)96-7)

Interestingly, some student teachers inadvertently reveal their progress in their teaching ability, illustrating their developing self-evaluation, whilst criticising their lack of skills:

"I am starting to know my classes better, but still very 'naïve' during lessons. Naïve in the sense of noticing who pays attention, who has SEN, who does what etc. Need to be more aware of others." (S8(W)96-7)

The desires expressed on application are still extant, driving their motivation, and some of them feel more confident about their own critical judgements in experimenting methodologically, an indication that they are not content with passing but wish to move on. Some student teachers develop a more professional outlook, revealing factors that become more apparent in their responses to S10 as NQTs. Their concerns are for example about completing tasks with pupils.

5.5.9: Reaching the finishing line (S9)

Student teachers at the end of the course express on many occasions their overview of what has happened and how they have developed; it is a natural time to look back and reflect:

"Strangely mature - as if I've aged about 10 years since I was last at University. Also, excited about September." (S9(W)96-7)

"That I've come a long way since September in terms of teaching experience and what I've learnt." (S9(W)96-7)

Happiness (53%), relief (25%) and pride are also common elements. Understandably, there is a degree of euphoria that they have reached the final part of the course and been successful.

Quite a few comments relate to a feeling that it has been very difficult and that they have achieved something momentous; there is freely expressed delight in having finished the course successfully. Relief is indicated by the much shorter answers given by many respondents; there is almost a feeling of a lack of any need to express themselves in the same way as previously, or maybe a lack of any energy to do so. They feel at this point that they have achieved one goal at least. They can start to think about jobs, holidays, and many begin a process of looking back and looking forward. There is a 'spring clean' focus to many responses. The new school understandably exerts a strong influence but for those who have yet to obtain a teaching post, this stands out as a major concern. For those who have not yet secured a job, this is paramount (18%), and those who have, still desire concrete information. It is also an emotional time for many of them:

"A whole spectrum of emotions, ranging from ecstatic relief and excitement to trepidation. 'Oh my God 25 hours of lesson per week! How much?!' I feel very enriched having met so many smashing people. I feel very sorry for having to leave so much that I really like behind but looking forward to the future." (S9(W)96-7)

A major theme from the AQ still remains strong: the desire to engender enthusiasm for MFL. This remains an avowed aim of many student teachers throughout and conforms findings by Rust (1994:216) that student teaching experiences do not appear to dull some pre-service teachers' idealism. Indeed some comments at this stage could be taken directly for applicant data. It could be argued that this indicates lack of change or development, but this could also highlight continued commitment against a more informed background.

"To be a good teacher, to make languages interesting and enjoyable for pupils, to be able to convey my enthusiasm." (S9(W)97-8)

5.5.10: Real reality: life as an NQT (S10)

The general dip in confidence levels and increased negativity in the S10 data merits fuller description than other snapshots. It is as if the beginning teachers are starting again. Research (Cains and Brown, 1998) has found that many student teachers' concerns *do* continue into their first year of teaching; this data indicates that the problems intensify. This final snapshot, completed towards the end of the first half term as an NQT, reveals widely divergent experiences: the gradual development from mixed responses to certainty reaches its culmination. Respondents are mostly either happy but tired, or desperate and feeling unsupported.

"A million times better than I ever did on the PGCE course – I'm thoroughly enjoying teaching and feel it's very much the right job for me." (S10(Ox)97-8)

"Desperate. I decided a week after taking the job that I'd made the wrong decision and have been trying to grit it out ever since - now working my notice, although it is not all completely black." (S10(W)96-7)

NQTs range in their responses from the enthusiastic, still keen to grow and reflect:

"Mentally evaluating my own lessons and learning from the many mistakes I make each week!! Also support from colleagues in the department."
(S10(Ox)97-8)

To those who appear to be already ground down:

"What is next in the book." (S10(Ox)97-8)

Administration increases in importance as a concern (reaching 73%) and discipline (23%) and relationships with pupils (56%) unsurprisingly form the mainstay of comments. There is far more focus on pupils, their learning and what they as teachers can do about this.

"Have all my pupils quiet... I still need to improve my authority with some classes. I would like to be able to 'organise' myself to record homework and mark books regularly. Teaching at a higher level ... something a bit more theoretical to balance teaching at KS3." (S10(W)98-9)

Respondents are often very specific in their concerns; the challenges are new, but, mainly, defined. Some wish for specific extra methodological help, targeted on a particular issue, and some clearly do not feel that they are being treated as full professionals, where fundamental resources (or, more appropriately, lack of them) play a great part.

"An OHP – a good one for myself. Find a way of teaching my Yr 11 – they are very demotivated with low self-esteem, poor morale and concentration span." (S10(W)97-8)

Classroom management concerns often refer to specific pupils or groups in particular, and professional requirements the NQTs feel hazy about are also a focus. These include writing reports, administering GCSE coursework, acting as a form tutor and producing predicted grades. Examination requirements and Ofsted for example are to the fore, and 'professional' elements comprise a major part of the S10 data.

"KS4 trying to get the grades/coursework. KS3 getting through the scheme of work/course book without rushing the kids too much." (S10(W)96-7)

"My weekly and daily meetings with my mentor, head of department and the NQTs twilight sessions. I can get ideas and share mine with them. My teaching is also influenced by all the deadlines that have to be kept (exams, reports etc.) and very often I might not teach a lesson how I would like to do it. Instead, I have to make sure my pupils learn what they need for their results." (S10(W)98-9)

Financial reward for their efforts is appreciated, and finally gets a mention. Most experience some satisfaction in their teaching role, albeit with some provisos and day to day realities of teaching play a major part in their feelings of tiredness and overload.

"Getting half term grades filled in all the right boxes in all the right places in all the right grids in all the right folders in all the right colours. All by Tuesday 4pm (despite it being Thursday and I have Upper Sixth parents' evening tonight and am on a GCSE INSET course on Tuesday!!)." (S10(W)96-7)

5.6: Conclusion

It is clear from the factors presented in this chapter that the student teachers experience definite development and change during the year. They become more certain in their opinions, be they positive or negative. The chapter has also demonstrated the diversity of student experience within this period, and factors perceived positively by some students are negative for others. Crucial in their development is the opportunity to be in a 'real' teaching environment; one where they can learn and test themselves. With the development of partnership between schools and HEIs, contact with pupils and teaching is already much more consistent throughout their programmes, but it is certainly worth considering how the tangibility of teaching can be maintained, perhaps using a range of approaches, in periods of more prolonged HEI-based work. From the perspective of the research questions at the foundation of the study, it is apparent that while some shifts and changes can be identified, consistent *phases* or *stages* are not identifiable. Beginning teachers' confidence levels, however, increase consistently during the course, but undergo a decrease when working as qualified teachers. Themes and priorities previously identified in the literature are also apparent in this study, including discipline issues, adapting to the role of teacher and teaching as a 'real' activity. However, the data also illuminates two aspects less frequently observed, those of future-wishing and magical fantasies.

These more generic developments now provide the background for an analysis of the specific MFL issues emerging from the data. The next chapter investigates subject knowledge in MFL and the development of the methodological landscape, thus focussing through the subject lens.

Chapter 6: Subject knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and an emerging methodological landscape

'We internalise beliefs about language throughout our lives and language teachers' beliefs about language are also influenced by the theoretical claims they have been exposed to.' (Woods, 1996:186)

6.1: Introduction. Learning-to-teach MFL

This chapter explores how student teachers' views on language and language teaching develop, and investigates their SK competence, confidence and understandings. The debate around what most influences student teachers' developing methodological perspective includes how far any methodology can be imposed, and whether the adoption of a recommended approach requires certain conditions to be successful (Johnson, 1994). It is clear that pre-existing beliefs and preconceptions formed via years of learning and experience play a major role (cf. Barnes, 1992:17; Woods, 1996:189), as explored in Chapter 4. These may cause student teachers, particularly those encountering difficulties in their teaching placements, to undergo a 'methodological shift' (Bullough et al, 1991:56; Klapper, 2001:19), where new pedagogical approaches give way to the method the beginning teacher experienced as learner (frequently, but not always, a less 'communicative' approach). It may result in their judging the appropriateness of certain methodological approaches in the light of their own language learning experiences (Johnson, 1994:445). One attempt at countering this is to enable beginning teachers to confront and analyse their own language learning experiences, although any 'alternative' approaches must then be sufficiently presented and justified, and student teachers must be able to observe and then experience first hand *effective* learning using this methodology. It is crucial therefore that beginning teachers have positive encounters with successful role models employing the 'new' methodological approaches (Johnson, 1994:451), or pre-existing beliefs may dominate and new input superseded.

As in Grenfell's research (1998:59), student teachers in this study gained their teaching experience in a wide range of schools and departments. Some research indicates that experience during teaching placements exerts a greater influence on student teachers than the

university-based subject method course (Dunne and Dunne, 1993; Halbach, 2000:141; Velez-Rendon, 2000). Smith (2001:69), however, found students varied substantially in their perceptions of this, and others (Macrory and Stone, 1997) have found, for example, that there is more *discussion* at University regarding methodology. Grossman and Richert (1988:56) in addition found University work was perceived as having most impact on the understanding of the subject from a different perspective. Indeed, Drake and Dart (1994:109) found that school mentors expected the trainees to be immersed in a subject culture, and did not have the time, as they defined it, to 'philosophise' with them.

As confirmed in this study, research has shown that student teachers are concerned with subject matter from the start of their training, *as well as* classroom survival (Wilson et al, 1987:112; Grossman, 1992:173). Competence and confidence with subject knowledge (SK), in this case the TL itself, are also influential on methodological approach (Borko et al, 1988:74; Powell, 1992:234), and where SK is perceived by the beginning teacher as less than secure, this can have an adverse effect on the development of an effective methodology. This SK forms the foundation for their developing pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), and the chapter analyses how this is interpreted methodologically in MFL including potential conceptual growth and methodological conflicts. The data for this analysis includes the snapshot questionnaires, group discussions and pre- and post-course views on pen portraits of MFL teachers.

6.2: Views on language and language teaching

Data collated via snapshot questionnaires exploring student teachers' views is presented in Tables XIX-XXII for the whole population and three sub-groups. These items are similar to those on the applicant questionnaire (AQ), but are accompanied by a rating scale (see Appendices 1 and 2). The statements represent some fundamental motivations and beliefs about FLT, and demonstrate student teachers' ongoing commitment to their chosen career. There is remarkable stability in the views expressed, found also amongst English teachers in Hong Kong (Richards, 1998:67) indeed, for many items the change from S1 – S10 is negligible. The value of the *frequent* snapshots is important here, as other trends within the period can be identified. Interesting patterns emerge from this analysis (although caution must be expressed about the

relatively low numbers of male and native speaker respondents, particularly for S10). Student teachers' increased confidence in a range of areas (Chapter 4) and their changes in perceptions of MFL methodology are underpinned, then, by *stability* in their fundamental motivations and beliefs about language teaching and learning. Consistency in attitude towards the vast majority of these items over the course of the PGCE programme (S1-S9) is apparent, indicating maintenance of the strong agreement expressed at the entry point to the course. Except for males, only one item changes from S1 – S9 by over 0.5: *teaching languages is challenging but rewarding*. A problem of the phrasing of the item of course emerges here: is it the 'challenging' or the 'rewarding' element which is seen less favourably? From the comments, it would appear the general feeling is that the *challenge* is sometimes too great, although the *rewards* are still to be found. For these groups of students, there is a large decrease in agreement at S8 and S9, recouped by S10, contrasting with the general *decrease* in confidence expressed as NQTs. For males, however, this statement too remains consistent at all times. As with perceptions of confidence (Chapter 5, Tables IX-XIII), S10 generally results in more negativity, expressed here by greater disagreement with the statements at that point, although the change for these items is very small. A more meaningful increase occurs, however, for native speakers with the item *I feel teaching lets me put something back*, which could correspond with their increasing familiarisation with pastoral practices and assumptions in English schools.

Table XIX: Views on language and language teaching: whole population

For Tables XIX-XXII, data derived from responses to item 1 on SQ. Changes of over 0.5 are shaded.

	Mean score (1 = disagree strongly, 5 = strongly)/Standard deviation										Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10
	S1 n=133	S2 n=127	S3 n=107	S4 n=117	S5 n=118	S6 n=118	S7 n=100	S8 n=98	S9 n=124	S10 n=77		
I want others to enjoy languages as much as I do	4.33(0.72)	4.49(0.68)	4.46(0.69)	4.48(0.62)	4.50(0.67)	4.58(0.63)	4.49(0.62)	4.55(0.62)	4.48(0.63)	4.45(0.69)	+0.15	-0.03
This country needs people to learn languages	4.32(0.75)	4.29(0.72)	4.25(0.77)	4.38(0.75)	4.42(0.68)	4.41(0.72)	4.40(0.68)	4.49(0.72)	4.56(0.65)	4.43(0.8)	+0.24	-0.13
Teaching enables me to pass on my knowledge to others	4.42(0.65)	4.43(0.57)	4.44(0.69)	4.39(0.64)	4.41(0.66)	4.47(0.62)	4.49(0.66)	4.49(0.64)	4.45(0.64)	4.44(0.71)	+0.03	-0.01
It is important for pupils to appreciate other cultures	4.65(0.51)	4.58(0.55)	4.56(0.60)	4.62(0.60)	4.70(0.51)	4.63(0.58)	4.67(0.51)	4.70(0.53)	4.70(0.54)	4.71(0.56)	+0.05	+0.01
I can use my language(s) in teaching	4.60(0.57)	4.54(0.59)	4.50(0.71)	4.52(0.66)	4.52(0.66)	4.61(0.56)	4.49(0.67)	4.54(0.73)	4.57(0.65)	4.56(0.61)	-0.03	-0.01
Languages are exciting to teach as they involve real communication	4.51(0.62)	4.46(0.60)	4.33(0.76)	4.34(0.74)	4.36(0.70)	4.46(0.63)	4.32(0.72)	4.30(0.85)	4.43(0.69)	4.13(0.80)	-0.07	-0.3
I want to be able to inspire pupils to learn languages	4.65(0.54)	4.55(0.57)	4.53(0.69)	4.58(0.60)	4.50(0.66)	4.52(0.64)	4.51(0.61)	4.54(0.64)	4.56(0.61)	4.60(0.56)	-0.09	+0.04
Teaching enables me to use my abilities (for example, to be creative)	4.31(0.61)	4.21(0.70)	4.31(0.82)	4.36(0.70)	4.33(0.71)	4.44(0.68)	4.41(0.70)	4.35(0.86)	4.53(0.66)	4.35(0.72)	+0.23	-0.18
Teaching languages is challenging but rewarding	4.56(0.58)	4.42(0.64)	4.47(0.70)	4.49(0.69)	4.41(0.72)	4.49(0.66)	4.40(0.79)	3.42(0.62)	3.48(0.62)	4.38(0.76)	-1.08	+0.9
I feel at home in an educational environment	4.12(0.84)	4.14(0.80)	4.21(0.87)	4.16(0.89)	4.19(0.86)	4.24(0.85)	4.25(0.83)	4.42(0.83)	4.31(0.92)	4.30(0.89)	+0.19	-0.01
I feel teaching is the right job for me	4.25(0.72)	4.13(0.68)	4.14(0.89)	4.18(0.84)	4.21(0.81)	4.19(0.82)	4.31(0.78)	4.37(0.85)	4.32(0.86)	4.14(0.91)	+0.07	-0.18
I feel teaching lets me 'put something back'	3.96(0.87)	3.94(0.83)	3.90(0.86)	4.03(0.84)	3.95(0.84)	4.05(0.90)	4.10(0.87)	4.10(0.95)	4.16(0.86)	4.12(0.88)	+0.2	-0.04
Teaching is enjoyable	4.17(0.70)	4.19(0.610)	4.18(0.76)	4.23(0.72)	4.19(0.72)	4.30(0.68)	4.23(0.79)	4.36(0.76)	4.36(0.74)	4.21(0.73)	+0.19	-0.15

Table XX: Views on language and language teaching: native speakers

	Mean score (1 = disagree strongly, 5 = strongly)/Standard deviation										Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10
	S1 n=40	S2 n=38	S3 n=32	S4 n=33	S5 n=37	S6 n=33	S7 n=29	S8 n=31	S9 n=34	S10 n=19		
I want others to enjoy languages as much as I do	4.53(0.68)	4.66(0.67)	4.66(0.55)	4.48(0.62)	4.54(0.73)	4.67(0.60)	4.72(0.53)	4.61(0.62)	4.65(0.65)	4.53(0.61)	+0.12	-0.12
This country needs people to learn languages	4.15(0.80)	4.18(0.77)	4.19(0.86)	4.39(0.79)	4.35(0.8)2	4.30(0.88)	4.31(0.76)	4.48(0.72)	4.53(0.79)	4.32(1.11)	+0.38	-0.21
Teaching enables me to pass on my knowledge to others	4.41(0.76)	4.31(0.58)	4.28(0.92)	4.26(0.79)	4.21(0.74)	4.33(0.69)	4.41(0.75)	4.36(0.68)	4.53(0.66)	4.45(0.89)	+0.12	-0.08
It is important for pupils to appreciate other cultures	4.73(0.45)	4.71(0.46)	4.75(0.44)	4.61(0.70)	4.73(0.56)	4.70(0.53)	4.86(0.35)	4.68(0.60)	4.68(0.73)	4.68(0.75)	-0.05	=
I can use my language(s) in teaching	4.54(0.67)	4.54(0.60)	4.42(0.75)	4.56(0.70)	4.53(0.65)	4.56(0.56)	4.50(0.73)	4.47(0.72)	4.46(0.82)	4.47(0.61)	-0.07	+0.01
Languages are exciting to teach as they involve real communication	4.65(0.62)	4.55(0.65)	4.56(0.67)	4.30(0.88)	4.49(0.69)	4.48(0.57)	4.55(0.63)	4.32(0.75)	4.53(0.66)	4.00(1.05)	-0.08	-0.53
I want to be able to inspire pupils to learn languages	4.75(0.49)	4.58(0.55)	4.58(0.62)	4.61(0.56)	4.57(0.69)	4.58(0.66)	4.52(0.63)	4.50(0.71)	4.65(0.69)	4.42(0.61)	-0.1	-0.23
Teaching enables me to use my abilities (for example, to be creative)	4.23(0.70)	4.08(0.75)	4.41(0.67)	4.30(0.85)	4.49(0.69)	4.39(0.70)	4.55(0.57)	4.39(0.72)	4.50(0.75)	4.21(0.79)	+0.27	-0.29
Teaching languages is challenging but rewarding	4.53(0.60)	4.42(0.68)	4.66(0.55)	4.52(0.67)	4.49(0.69)	4.55(0.71)	4.48(0.74)	3.32(0.65)	3.53(0.56)	4.32(0.95)	-1.0	+0.79
I feel at home in an educational environment	4.15(0.80)	4.18(0.73)	4.22(0.79)	4.27(0.76)	4.39(0.64)	4.36(0.70)	4.34(0.61)	4.48(0.68)	4.35(0.98)	4.42(0.69)	+0.2	+0.07
I feel teaching is the right job for me	4.43(0.59)	4.29(0.65)	4.44(0.76)	4.33(0.89)	4.43(0.69)	4.45(0.79)	4.48(0.57)	4.45(0.15)	4.47(0.79)	4.26(0.93)	+0.04	-0.21
I feel teaching lets me 'put something back'	3.82(0.90)	3.94(0.89)	3.93(0.96)	4.00(1.03)	3.92(1.02)	4.06(1.00)	4.00(0.89)	4.10(1.12)	4.25(0.92)	4.06(0.87)	+0.43	-0.19
Teaching is enjoyable	4.33(0.58)	4.34(0.58)	4.16(0.72)	4.24(0.71)	4.32(0.67)	4.45(0.56)	4.28(0.59)	4.42(0.67)	4.44(0.66)	4.37(0.68)	+0.04	-0.07

Table XXI: Views on language and language teaching: males

	Mean score (1 = disagree strongly, 5 = strongly)/Standard deviation										Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10
	S1 n=24	S2 n=27	S3 n=22	S4 n=21	S5 n=23	S6 n=21	S7 n=18	S8 n=18	S9 n=27	S10 n=15		
I want others to enjoy languages as much as I do	4.33(0.70)	4.37(0.69)	4.55(0.67)	4.48(0.68)	4.52(0.59)	4.67(0.58)	4.72(0.57)	4.67(0.77)	4.52(0.64)	4.67(0.49)	+0.19	+0.15
This country needs people to learn languages	4.38(0.71)	4.29(0.78)	4.41(0.73)	4.57(0.60)	4.48(0.67)	4.52(0.60)	4.60(0.70)	4.50(0.92)	4.59(0.64)	4.60(0.63)	+0.21	+0.01
Teaching enables me to pass on my knowledge to others	4.54(0.51)	4.52(0.58)	4.59(0.59)	4.62(0.59)	4.61(0.50)	4.67(0.48)	4.72(0.57)	4.67(0.59)	4.59(0.64)	4.67(0.62)	+0.05	+0.08
It is important for pupils to appreciate other cultures	4.58(0.50)	4.59(0.50)	4.55(0.60)	4.62(0.50)	4.73(0.46)	4.62(0.59)	4.72(0.46)	4.72(0.46)	4.67(0.48)	5.00(0.00)	+0.09	+0.33
I can use my language(s) in teaching	4.58(0.58)	4.52(0.58)	4.36(0.66)	4.62(0.59)	4.52(0.67)	4.81(0.40)	4.50(0.86)	4.39(0.92)	4.59(0.80)	4.73(0.46)	+0.01	+0.14
Languages are exciting to teach as they involve real communication	4.29(0.75)	4.33(0.68)	4.18(0.80)	4.38(0.80)	4.52(0.67)	4.76(0.44)	4.50(0.86)	4.56(0.92)	4.26(0.81)	4.13(1.13)	+0.03	-0.13
I want to be able to inspire pupils to learn languages	4.50(0.59)	4.44(0.58)	4.50(0.74)	4.71(0.56)	4.61(0.58)	4.76(0.44)	4.50(0.79)	4.50(0.86)	4.52(0.64)	5.00(0.00)	+0.02	+0.48
Teaching enables me to use my abilities (for example, to be creative)	4.33(0.56)	4.19(0.79)	4.27(0.77)	4.48(0.68)	4.48(0.51)	4.71(0.46)	4.29(0.70)	4.44(0.86)	4.56(0.58)	4.67(0.62)	+0.23	+0.11
Teaching languages is challenging but rewarding	4.33(0.76)	4.11(0.70)	4.45(0.74)	4.52(0.68)	4.52(0.59)	4.57(0.60)	4.33(1.08)	4.33(1.03)	4.30(0.91)	4.23(0.88)	-0.03	-0.07
I feel at home in an educational environment	4.00(0.78)	3.81(0.88)	3.91(0.92)	4.05(1.02)	4.04(0.82)	4.05(0.74)	4.22(1.00)	4.39(0.85)	4.11(1.09)	4.53(0.74)	+0.11	+0.42
I feel teaching is the right job for me	4.25(0.68)	4.07(0.62)	3.95(0.95)	4.14(0.91)	4.00(0.85)	4.29(0.78)	4.47(0.87)	4.35(0.99)	4.11(1.05)	4.13(0.92)	-0.14	+0.02
I feel teaching lets me 'put something back'	3.95(0.58)	4.04(0.76)	4.04(0.79)	4.33(0.73)	4.17(0.65)	4.33(0.66)	4.17(0.99)	4.11(1.18)	4.22(0.85)	4.40(0.74)	+0.27	+0.18
Teaching is enjoyable	4.08(0.65)	4.11(0.70)	4.09(0.81)	4.29(0.72)	4.17(0.72)	4.24(0.77)	4.29(0.92)	4.44(0.86)	4.30(0.87)	4.23(0.88)	+0.22	-0.07

Table XXII: Views on language and language teaching: females

	Mean score (1 = disagree strongly, 5 = strongly)/Standard deviation										Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10
	S1 n=109	S2 n=100	S3 n=85	S4 n=96	S5 n=95	S6 n=97	S7 n=87	S8 n=80	S9 n=101	S10 n=62		
I want others to enjoy languages as much as I do	4.46(0.73)	4.52(0.69)	4.44(0.70)	4.48(0.62)	4.49(0.70)	4.57(0.64)	4.44(0.63)	4.53(0.59)	4.48(0.63)	4.40(0.73)	+0.02	-0.08
This country needs people to learn languages	4.30(0.76)	4.29(0.71)	4.21(0.79)	4.34(0.77)	4.40(0.69)	4.39(0.75)	4.35(0.67)	4.49(0.67)	4.55(0.66)	4.39(0.84)	+0.25	-0.16
Teaching enables me to pass on my knowledge to others	4.43(0.60)	4.43(0.55)	4.45(0.66)	4.39(0.62)	4.44(0.63)	4.49(0.60)	4.49(0.67)	4.47(0.68)	4.49(0.63)	4.43(0.72)	+0.06	-0.06
It is important for pupils to appreciate other cultures	4.66(0.51)	4.58(0.57)	4.56(0.61)	4.62(0.62)	4.69(0.53)	4.63(0.58)	4.66(0.53)	4.69(0.54)	4.70(0.56)	4.65(0.60)	+0.04	-0.05
I can use my language(s) in teaching	4.61(0.58)	4.55(0.59)	4.53(0.73)	4.50(0.68)	4.52(0.66)	4.57(0.59)	4.49(0.63)	4.58(0.69)	4.58(0.60)	4.52(0.65)	-0.03	-0.06
Languages are exciting to teach as they involve real communication	4.56(0.58)	4.49(0.58)	4.36(0.75)	4.34(0.73)	4.32(0.72)	4.40(0.65)	4.28(0.69)	4.24(0.84)	4.46(0.66)	4.13(0.71)	-0.1	-0.33
I want to be able to inspire pupils to learn languages	4.68(0.52)	4.58(0.57)	4.54(0.68)	4.55(0.61)	4.47(0.68)	4.47(0.66)	4.51(0.57)	4.55(0.59)	4.57(0.61)	4.50(0.59)	-0.09	-0.07
Teaching enables me to use my abilities (for example, to be creative)	4.30(0.63)	4.22(0.68)	4.32(0.83)	4.34(0.70)	4.29(0.75)	4.38(0.71)	4.41(0.70)	4.33(0.87)	4.51(0.67)	4.27(0.73)	+0.21	-0.24
Teaching languages is challenging but rewarding	4.61(0.52)	4.50(0.59)	4.47(0.70)	4.48(0.69)	4.38(0.74)	4.47(0.68)	4.41(0.72)	3.43(0.63)	3.50(0.58)	4.40(0.73)	-1.11	+0.9
I feel at home in an educational environment	4.15(0.86)	4.23(0.76)	4.29(0.84)	4.18(0.83)	4.26(0.79)	4.30(0.83)	4.28(0.76)	4.38(0.82)	4.39(0.79)	4.15(0.90)	+0.24	-0.24
I feel teaching is the right job for me	4.25(0.74)	4.14 (0.70)	4.19(0.88)	4.18(0.83)	4.26(0.79)	4.30(0.83)	4.28(0.76)	4.38(0.82)	4.39(0.79)	4.15(0.92)	+0.14	-0.24
I feel teaching lets me 'put something back'	3.96(0.92)	3.91(0.85)	3.87(0.88)	3.97(0.85)	3.90(0.88)	3.99(0.95)	4.05(0.85)	4.06(0.90)	4.14(0.86)	4.05(0.90)	+0.18	-0.09
Teaching is enjoyable	4.19(0.71)	4.21(0.59)	4.20(0.75)	4.21(0.72)	4.20(0.72)	4.32(0.67)	4.22(0.77)	4.34(0.75)	4.38(0.71)	4.19(0.70)	+0.19	-0.19

6.3: Subject knowledge in MFL

There was increased emphasis on SK in ITE in the 1990s, probably as a result of the influence of Shulman's work on PCK. Some would maintain that *subject knowledge* alone is necessary for effective teaching (Starkey, 2001:28), yet as Floden et al (1996:228) lucidly argue, this is insufficient. Both SK and knowledge of teaching, i.e. pedagogic knowledge, are necessary to learn-to-teach. The SK is the 'what' of language teaching; the methodological landscape the 'how' but the difficulties lie in defining, in the context of MFL, the constituent elements of PCK and their inter-relationship, or indeed the nature of SK itself where knowledge and process are so closely interwoven. For an MFL context, Pachler and Field (1997:27) list proficiency *in* and knowledge *of* the TL, awareness of TL cultures and knowledge of language learning and acquisition theories in their definition of SK for teaching. *Content* knowledge in FLT has been seen as the knowledge of TL systems, TL competence and analytic knowledge (Roberts, 1998:103). It is the knowledge that a student teacher 'can talk fluently and confidently in the main language' which is listed by Jones (1997) as the first indication of a student teacher's 'readiness' to teach. Uncertain or incomplete knowledge of the TL will, for example, hinder the sound planning of teaching and learning objectives; the pre-service teacher will find transforming the language in order to teach it successfully very difficult.

It is generally agreed, then, that MFL teaching requires extensive and careful use of the TL in order for the teacher to act as linguistic model and inspiration for the pupils, as well as the pedagogical competence to make full use of this linguistic ability. Student teachers (including native speakers) must maintain their linguistic competence, understand the language as 'subject matter' and develop a methodological repertoire in order to develop their teaching to their potential. SK for MFL teachers is far more than personal competence in the TL. Cultural knowledge is also required (Brown, 1997) and to be able to teach MFL effectively entails being able to see the TL and the language learning process from the learner's viewpoint. The language otherwise remains opaque, inaccessible and unstructured for the learner. This concept corresponds with that of Shulman (1987), where the ability to *rework* subject matter and

therefore to teach it effectively, is crucial. The teacher needs to reconstitute the language for the learner and the context.

In MFL, everything uttered in the classroom is part of 'the subject': from instructions for activities to establishing relationships with individual pupils. Aspects of the language, grammatical structures perhaps or lexical patterns, can be taught using a variety of methods. A pre-service teacher must develop the PCK to be able to match method to objectives appropriately (Barnes, 2002). PCK does not therefore equal disciplinary subject matter. Sufficient language competence as a prerequisite for training to teach *cannot* be assumed from graduate status (see Meara, 1994a and 1994b; Barnes and Murray, 2000; Ife, 2000; Phillips, 2001).

6.3.1: Subject knowledge competence and confidence

"I *think* I am reasonable linguistically, but I need a yardstick against which to measure my ability. I need assurance that I am 'good enough' – it is 8 years since I finished my degree." (S1(W)96-7)

Grenfell (1998:114) states that 'The process of training to teach modern languages engages all trainees in confronting their own linguistic competencies'. In this study, student teachers identify the need to work on their SK as crucial in their learning-to-teach process (Chapter 4, Table V). MFL may present subject-specific challenges, many of which involve the (expected) use of TL in the classroom; Grenfell (1998:124) asserts that rusty language skills can undermine classroom confidence. A number of researchers argue that trying to communicate in the TL may exacerbate the usual class management concerns of beginning teachers (Woodward, 1991:52; Wringe, 1994:12; Grenfell, 1998:162) and Gwyn-Paquette and Tochon (2002:205) highlight that teaching in a FL classroom presents different levels of difficulty depending on whether the teacher is a native speaker or not. King (2003) also points out that the perceived insistence on TL use in the classroom places considerable pressure on teacher confidence, competence and energy¹. MFL is both *skills* and *content* based (Fitzpatrick and Davies, 2003). This may to some

¹ There are some conflicting views on this, however. Macaro (1997:80) found that language competence was an *unimportant* factor in recourse to L1 in teaching situations, while Franklin, (1990) found that 83% of teachers rated TL confidence as an important factor in this.

extent explain the fear expressed by student teachers in this study of *losing* their skills and the need to refresh them. In MFL, beginning teachers are creating relationships with pupils and often peers and tutors *through* the subject they will be teaching. This is potentially exciting for enthusiasts, but can also expose any lack of competence and can make them vulnerable. In other subjects, the lack of SK or accompanying 'rustiness' may not be as immediately apparent. Levels of linguistic competence (Pachler et al, 1999:16) may be inconsistent at the start of the course, and indeed Spezzini and Oxford (1998), in a North American context, found MFL student teachers' *perceived* language proficiency was greater than their *actual* language proficiency. The students in the present study, in contrast, *underestimate* their proficiency at least initially (Chapter 4) and realise as the course progresses what they actually need when the teaching context becomes clearer.

Student teachers' FL1 (and their FL2 where appropriate) is the *content* of their teaching. The language forms the basis of their teaching and therefore the pupils' learning. They need to investigate this SK, from the point of view of their *linguistic ability* (in FL1 and FL2), their ability to *analyse (and fill) the gaps* in their knowledge, and their ability to make their competence in the language *'teachable' and 'learnable'*. Interestingly, Brumfit (2001:83), discussing recruitment difficulties for teachers of MFL, emphasises the competence of only the *spoken* element of the language; to a large degree, the findings of the current study would highlight greater or at least equal necessity for all areas of language, including knowledge and application of grammar. Coleman and Parker (2001:139) show that less linguistic progress occurs when undergraduates spend their year abroad at a *University* as opposed to a work placement or language assistantship and that some aspects improve more than others, for example fluency generally gains more than grammatical competence. As found elsewhere, (Horwitz, 1996; John, 1996:98; Macrory, 1996; Horsfall, 1997b), student teachers in this study *were* concerned about their language competence, particularly for FL2², and many acknowledge the need for refreshment. Some student teachers in this study highlight that it is not the whole spectrum of their linguistic competence, rather their use of it pedagogically, whilst others are concerned about their own

² See also Table VIII Chapter 4

linguistic accuracy. Table XXXII, however, indicates their indecision with regard to the need for teachers' TL to be completely accurate.

Linguistic confidence levels (Chapter 5, Tables IX-XIII) grow steadily throughout the course for the whole population and all sub-groups. Languages as a concern (Chapter 5, Table XIV) decrease over the year and consistently remain a source of enjoyment (Chapter 5, Table XV). Throughout, SK mentions are often linked with nerves about *using* the language in a teaching context. Nerves continue over the whole course, and this is often expressed as being 'scared', 'worried', and includes both using the language in school and in University language classes. It is clear that attitudes towards MFL as a subject can have an effect on *learners'* attitudes towards it; lack of SK is fundamental in relation to the impact on pupils' learning. These nerves are not solely SK concerns however, they are frequently SK linked with pedagogy and include both FL1 and FL2.

"Apprehensive - particularly about standing in front of a class and speaking German." (S2(W)96-7)

Initially, student teachers are vague about SK gaps, but specific worries increase quickly after more familiarity with the language of the classroom. Linguistic accuracy becomes very important, even for native speakers, and any feelings of inadequacy are strong.

☛ I was totally scared at having to mark some little descriptions. How do I mark this? I was quite nervous - I was beginning to doubt myself - they're all saying this so it must be right. (V2/96-7)

Student teachers often appear worried about losing their linguistic ability; a parallel with the fear of losing teaching skills. They want to keep hold of the language, yet feel overwhelmed with the other information and experiences they must absorb. Despite this, following on from their avowed passion for languages expressed in their AQ, they are nevertheless excited about working with languages.

Each teacher, tutor and mentor for MFL will have gaps in their linguistic competence (including native speakers) and each can point to perceived 'deficiencies' in pre-service teachers'

competence which are more serious than others³. It is, however, clear that this user competence must be maintained and refreshed throughout one's career (Smith 1995; Moys, 1996). Concerns include vocabulary gaps, 'haziness' with regard to grammar and occasionally a fear of having to use TL as the normal means of communication in the classroom.

☞ German's my first language but I still get mixed up with endings and things - I'm really scared they're going to pick up on me and my faults and how do you deal with it? (V2/96-7)

It is only when they are on course that student teachers begin to identify linguistic 'gaps' in any concrete sense; i.e. when they begin to adjust to the real demands of planning, teaching and assessment. Language assumes a new role in their minds: as a teacher, they must now understand the language *exactly*. It is no longer 'good enough' to select familiar language or to have a 'hunch' with regard to a language pattern. Working on the language is, however, perceived as only one of a number of pressing issues.

"Under pressure because I've got to find a job, finish the core assignment, write Year 8 reports, prepare Year 10 for exams in 2 weeks time, I need to lose weight, improve my French etc." (S7(W)97-8)

6.3.2: FL2 competence and confidence

A student teacher's FL2 will probably be weaker than their first, in terms of not only fluency and range, but also cultural competence, even in the case of student teachers with two languages to degree level. Most additional comments on linguistic confidence, nervousness or concerns in this study are related to student teachers' *second* teaching language, particularly at the start of the year before beginning teachers have substantial experience of linguistic levels in school. In the Warwick course, these nerves tend to reappear as language classes start in the second term when language competence will be exposed in a different environment in front of their peers. Nervousness also becomes apparent again when student teachers learn whether or not they will be teaching their FL2 in the second placement.

³ For a fuller discussion of this theme, including how student teachers attempt to 'fill the gaps', a process they are all encouraged to undertake at interview, see Barnes and Murray (2000)

☞ Well, they're supposed to be joint, but it's longer since I spoke in French at any length and I've never lived there. This is my insecurity about myself.
(V1/97-8)

They may have worries about their FL1, but in FL2 these worries intensify, and are perceived to have repercussions on all aspects of their teaching, including planning and class management. Such concerns are of course linked with the perceived expectation to use TL predominantly in the classroom, and their feelings of 'linguistic exposure'.

☞ I still feel - and this is nothing against you or [name] (*indicates French native speaker*) - I feel slightly intimidated because I feel my French is so awful, I'm scared to speak in front of you, although I mean to and I really want to (V1, 97-8)

☞ I think it's hard if that's your second language which I imagine French is for you. I had two French classes and two German classes and I don't think it was a coincidence that the two French classes, on the whole, the classroom management was fairly easy, the two German classes I was on a loser from the start and I had to have a little piece of paper with all the classroom instructions written on it in German 'Geht heraus', 'Packt ein', I just didn't know where to start with any of those things and I was so much feeling like a fraud in the classroom that it was bound to fail. (V3/97-8)

- Lack of linguistic confidence is conversely perceived on occasion as *helpful* to the development of PCK; actually teaching the FL2 can help with PCK, particularly regarding viewing the subject from a learner perspective.

☞ I think it's been good actually teaching the second language because I was more able to put myself in the position of the kids because I don't always realise you know what will be hard for them, things obvious for me but not always for them, but in Spanish, I know in advance what difficulties they may have, I was more ready to explain it carefully, I could foresee the problems.
(V6/96-7)

6.3.3: Subject knowledge gaps and the need for improvement

2.12.86 I met [name] to discuss the lesson we're doing on Thursday. We were having a few problems with the superlative and had to go and look it up in a grammar book!

Whereas Grenfell (1998:37) describes the PGCE course as *separate* from the subject itself, the cohorts in this study all had subject input in the form of language improvement components⁴. These can raise linguistic proficiency (Johnson, 1990:269) and also provide models of teaching behaviour (Berry, 1990). SK for teaching cannot be assumed. Language classes to address these issues are provided in some ITE courses (Barnes, 2002) and it is partly through these classes that PCK, ways of structuring, presenting and sequencing the TL, for example, is developed. Student teachers can explore issues such as *input modification* (Macaro, 1997:92-3), where TL used in the classroom can be practised and modified as necessary to bring about learning. The language that beginning teachers know as a user informs and permeates the TL they develop as pedagogical construct, and their experience of teaching and learning influences and permeates their ability as TL user. SK and language requirements are a major theme for beginning teachers in this study when required for the immediate classroom situation.

"I am especially worried about my ability to teach in the target language for the whole lesson, without making some stupid mistakes." (S1(W)97-8)

Mackay (2000:5) found students cited far more *general* linguistic issues than specifics, and in this study too it is not at all clear exactly how student teachers plan to 'brush up' or 'polish' their languages. Reading and grammar work tend to be the main methods mentioned (Table III, Chapter 4), but the awareness of the need to improve is unequivocal. Student teachers feel reasonably prepared linguistically⁵ (and the tendency is upwards) but there is a small number who are very worried, and the great majority express linguistic worries and doubts at times throughout the course (see also Barnes and Murray, 2000). Beginning teachers' linguistic concerns range from predictable gaps in vocabulary and idiom to areas which could be

⁴ For details of these components in the Warwick programme, see Barnes (1996) and Barnes (2002)

⁵ Only 10% feel very prepared and 48% perceive working on their language as a process which will help them learn-to-teach.

described as more fundamental, given the level of qualifications student teachers have obtained. They include both gaps of grammatical *terminology* and of grammatical *knowledge*, areas provoking more concern than lexical items which are seen as non-threatening to their linguistic competence:

✎ I got thrown off a bit - I couldn't remember 'garden shed' in French, I just couldn't remember (*general laughter*) - general house and garden vocabulary. I think it's pavillon, (*turns to native speaker*), is it pavillon? And I just admitted I didn't know and I just thought, I had two options really, I could say a word that potentially was right and then thought it's not really fair on them, you know, it's not really fair for them to have me pretend and give them the wrong word, so I just bit the bullet and looked it up to be absolutely sure. (V6/96-7)

"When I observed a lesson the teacher pointed out that there were only 13 verbs that take être as an auxiliary. I had been told about it but this was a good reminder as I had forgotten about it." (S2(W)98-9)

"The fact that 'des garçons', when replaced by a pronoun becomes 'en' and not 'les' – I learned this when in [tutor's] French class last Thursday morning. It's so long since I'd done it, that I'd completely forgotten about it." (S5(W)98-9)

Some gaps, such as the above, are areas where only reminders or a check in the dictionary are required. Others, whilst superficially trivial, constitute genuinely new linguistic knowledge:

"German spelling reform – [school] teaches new spellings and this made me very uncertain of my written German. Die Wörter/die Worte – which to use on a worksheet (e.g. wordsearch)." (S4(W)98-9)

"I learned that 'Personen' is written with one 'n' and not 2 as I have been writing for the last ... 15 years!!! I learned that preparing an OHT for a restaurant conversation." (S8(W)98-9)

6.3.4: Native speakers and subject knowledge in MFL

Unlike the native speaker teachers of English in the study by Árvai and Medgyes (2000), native speakers of French, German and Spanish in this study are very keen on languages, professionally committed to teaching and generally have excellent grammatical and English knowledge. They embody both advantages and disadvantages with regard to SK, and demonstrate their awareness of this duality in their responses. Definite advantages, include, for

example, the ability to use the language spontaneously and in diverse communicative situations (Arva and Medgyes, 2000:360). Disadvantages include the fact they are working in their FL2 in a professional environment and must consciously modify their L1 (Woodward, 1991:57).

"Because I am a native speaker I must be aware of my language. When you're a teacher you have to feel like a pupil before you're going to deliver the lesson, to adapt your activities to them." (S2(Ox)98-9)

The status of 'native speaker' is sometimes interpreted as leading directly to excellent and complete SK. This is clearly not the case, given the definitions of SK and PCK outlined above, and given the obvious tendency for native speakers too to make linguistic errors.

☛ I was teaching the alphabet and suddenly felt my brain go blank. That feeling of being in front of the class and all of them looking at you. I knew I was going to miss something (*general laughter*) - I missed 'ch' - nowadays it's supposed not to be in the alphabet, it's not a letter, but it's good for children to know it's there, so I didn't say it, and afterwards they were telling me 'You're Spanish and you missed out a letter!' (V2/96-7)

Native speakers' background has also been found to influence their methodological views.

Block (2002:19), for example, found native speaker student teachers employed a discourse of resistance to CLT, and were particularly disparaging of its approach to teaching grammar, leading on occasion to methodological conflict with school staff (Block, 2001:302). Whitehead and Taylor (2000:373), in contrast, found that 28% of the native speakers they studied cited a *preference* for teaching methodology in the UK as a reason for considering a PGCE in England although some were also apprehensive about the communicative approach.

Assumed cultural advantages have also been found to be in reality a problem for some native speakers, where they, for example, experience racist comments from pupils (Macaro and Mutton, 2002:32). The German foreign national native speakers in both Taylor and Whitehead (2002) and Block (2001) encountered negative and anti-German attitudes amongst school pupils and their role as positive cultural alternative was difficult. Similar concerns are expressed by a few student teachers in this study.

☛ In my form group there was this one boy, and he knew that about 50 years ago Germans used to greet each other by raising their right hand

about 45 degrees and stretching it out and saying 'hail', he thought, - so that's what he did, now I had read the staff policy on that. So I knew that you had to come down hard on that kind of behaviour which I did and unfortunately the boy started crying and the form tutor walked in and said 'why is that boy crying?' I explained to her that he was racially abusive and I knew that it wasn't his fault, he had just read it somewhere, but that I had had to explain to him exactly what he was doing and she said to me, 'you being German you should have got used to it long ago' (V6/97-8)

6.4: MFL as a classroom subject and PCK

One difference between subject experts and subject teachers lies in the fact that the latter need not only to know their subject but also be able to present it in ways which will help pupils learn (Carré, 1993a:19; Cochran et al, 1993:263). As Berliner (1987:77) reminds us, the myth persists that anyone who has subject matter knowledge can teach; or, indeed, in the case of MFL, that native speaker competence ensures effective teaching. This difference is seen by many as the ability to transform, adapt, translate, represent or present content knowledge according to the needs of the learners in order to meet pedagogical goals (Wilson et al, 1987; Calderhead 1988:57-8; Wood, 1988:118; Börger and Tillema, 1993:186; Furlong and Maynard, 1995:131; John, 1996:102; Allebone and Davies, 2000:63). Subject matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge are combined; personal knowledge is not enough - teachers also need to find ways to transform and represent that knowledge to make it 'accessible'. Shulman (1986) expands on PCK as, for example, knowing the most regularly taught topics, ways of making things comprehensible, and what makes specific topics easy or difficult. Beginning teachers therefore need to combine their knowledge of the subject with the knowledge of pedagogy and pupils. It is clear that understanding and predicting learners' misconceptions may be particularly challenging for native speakers.

Furlong and Maynard (1995:158) discovered primary beginning teachers looked at SK through the lens of how children learn; given secondary teachers' love of the *subject* itself, this may not be as obvious. Cooper (2000) found that beginning teachers focus on their *immediate* PCK needs, i.e. how to teach and the teaching context, rather than the nature of the language or how it is learnt. This is connected to some extent with the need for 'survival' in the classroom. Since Shulman referred to subject matter knowledge as the missing paradigm (Shulman, 1986; Wilson

et al, 1997:108), there has been substantial discussion of what this means exactly in teaching and for different subjects. McDiarmid et al (1989) argued that developing PCK is subject-dependent but as McNamara (1991:122) points out, there are very few studies of PCK in subjects other than Maths and Science, and primary is frequently the main focus. MFL as a school subject differs from the language itself; indeed any content taken into a classroom inevitably endows it with social and pedagogical meanings beyond itself (Doyle and Carter, 2003:137). The subject matter must be organised for teaching and teachers need to *select* and use their professional knowledge to leave out what is peripheral at a certain stage, for example.

The transition from knowing 'that' to knowing 'how' can be difficult (Rovegno, 1992:69).

Freeman (2002:6) argues that PCK applied to language becomes a possibly unworkable concept. This stems from both the medium and the message being the *language*. Roberts (1998:105) defines PCK for languages as including awareness of aspects of the TL learners may find problematic, a stock of examples and activities through which an awareness of systems can be communicated, and a sense of the order in which to present aspects of the TL. Grenfell (1998:123) emphasises that linguistic competence does not exist as an individual, isolated feature of training, but that it needs to be understood in terms of other contextual aspects.

Student teachers need therefore to think carefully about exactly what processes learners must go through to learn a language and how can they make it more manageable for them. It is already clear that when they start the course, student teachers are aware of the need to 'do something' with their language competence and they are in strong agreement with the need to look at it differently (Table XIX). Marti and Huberman (1993:199) report that in retrospect a difficulty at the beginning of careers was *adapting* their knowledge base to secondary school pupils. In this study, SK is perceived as one influence on their teaching (Chapter 5, Table XVIII), particularly at the start of the first teaching placement.

6.4.1: Identification of PCK features

As a prerequisite to transforming language into 'teachable' and 'learnable' elements, it is necessary for student teachers to be aware of what they need to learn or relearn and any gaps they need to fill, and to look at the language from a learner perspective. Data collected from the 1998-9 snapshots included an item requesting students to identify examples of linguistic features they had understood better by teaching or observing. Interestingly, it was interpreted *methodologically* rather than *linguistically* by some. Most student teachers did not provide any response but those responses given are very interesting. Some reveal SK gaps one perhaps would not have expected (see 6.3.4). Many others reveal PCK ideas for presenting or explaining language to make it more accessible, and others contribute to the developing methodological landscape.

Further elements emerge from the discussion groups, and from other items in the SQ as well as specific linguistic concerns cited in pre-course data. Shulman (1987) describes how PCK may be acquired for example through the 'wisdom of practice', i.e. through actually teaching and there is frequent acknowledgement in this study of the cliché that one learns best whilst teaching.

☞ Yes, I think it's the first time ever I actually know all my German adjective endings - I can actually say a sentence if I think about it first and get them all right - I've never been able to do that! (*laughs*) (V6/96-7)

In their methodological landscape, the need to look at language differently is a clear landmark, but this is inadequate alone to develop PCK. The student teachers may not identify the process as one of PCK, but this burgeoning aspect of their learning-to-teach process is clearly evident from their responses, where they indicate an awareness of the need to represent and transform.

"I have worked on the tense endings in Spanish. I made a lesson plan draft for the indicative mood. I am still working on it, specially thinking about a more attractive way of presenting them." (S2(W)98-9)

"Inversion of the subject and verb in German after words like *gestern*, *heute*, *letzte Woche*. I watched my mentor teach it to a group last week using gestures to show the inversion, and going through lots of examples." (S2(Ox)98-9)

When they encounter what they perceive as an excellent representation, for example to illustrate a grammatical structure, they are delighted. In some ways, on one level this is reminiscent of the 'quick-fix' class management recipes they seek, but at another is indicative of a developing ability to *create* their own representations and acknowledge the need. Many of these examples are indeed 'recipes' in experienced teachers' repertoires. Presenting them as a list of recommendations, however, would not guarantee students could employ them effectively. They need to see *why* these representations work from a pupil perspective; to discover and make choices. Neither SK nor PCK are finite; they are continually revised and elaborated.

"The être verbs (perfect tense) – brilliant exposition, with a castle and a maison d'être – people talking, dying, leaving, entering all over the castle and house." (S6(W)98-9)

"The perfect tense. 3 P's – 1) person 2) part of avoir/être 3) past participle. Make it like a sum – need 3 parts to form past tense. Also asked them to look at English lang. and form some opinions – e.g. I watched/I played/I listened – pupils noticed that we add –ed to verb to form past tense in English. I then asked them why we don't say I buyed/I seed/I maked – pupils acknowledge there are some irregular verbs that they take for granted. This introduced them to regular and irregular verbs in the past tense." (S10(W)98-9)

6.5: MFL methodological development

The student teachers in this study have distinct views about languages and their teaching and learning, even if they do not express these views as fully thought-out theories or philosophies (as outlined in Chapter 4). Many researchers describe the need for ITE to acknowledge and interact with the personal (Bartels, 1999:46; Pennington, 1999:99) and subject-specific (Barnes, 1992:23) nature of the learning-to-teach process. Student teachers' prior images may contrast sharply with the realities of teaching (Johnson, 1994:450) and the teachers they work with can be very influential on their development methodological concepts (Nettle, 1998). This is crucial in the student teachers' development of their methodological landscapes based on themselves, their own contexts and the teachers and learners they encounter; other teachers are regarded as pivotal (Table XVIII). Initially, beginning teachers in this study are already considering

methodological ideas; they are not 'clean slates', their prior assumptions and experiences are important.

There is, however, an early realisation that without training they would have used what was familiar. Much of the methodological input of the University-based work is perceived as revelatory in nature, and often in contrast with their own language learning experiences. Some 'revelations' are answers to worries or prejudices they may have held initially, such as the possibility of maximum TL use in the classroom. These learning experiences are described often as an 'eye opener' and help develop their understanding of the pupil perspective. They refer to the memorable nature of these experiences and occasionally are explicit in their intention to add the implication to their personal teaching methodology. It is significant that the student teachers bestow such value on these experiences; their need for effective examples of the suggested methodological approaches is clear.

☞ About the communicative approach, you would have taught the only way that you know, the way you were taught, and I'd have gone in there 'je suis, tu es, il est' and wondering 'why aren't you joining in, why aren't you doing it?' (V4/96-7)

☞ I think one of the best things I've learnt over the last couple of weeks is like what it's like to start learning a language when you've got no idea about that language 'cos up till now I've always been one of the better ones at French in my class – I can't remember what it's like not to know how to speak French whereas suddenly I've been taught Gaelic verbs, you remember? And think 'God, I can't even *hear* what they're saying ...' (V1/96-7)

When observing (the method seen initially as fundamental to their learning-to-teach) they are understandably very aware of others' teaching, whether that is in school or at university. They are particularly 'tuned-in' to issues they are worried about, for example the use of the TL.

☞ [...] I thought more early, young, beginner, basic people that your use of the target language would be quite restricted but actually doing that which was a completely new language to any of us, what you can actually convey exclusively in the target language without having to go back to English. (V1/96-7)

After this revelatory encounter with new methodological ideas, the student teachers then experience a number of concerns about their implementation in the classroom. These revolve mainly around the practicalities of school life, the perception of MFL as difficult and the subsequent lack of motivation amongst pupils. A key methodological concern of student teachers throughout is motivation, or, as they more often refer to it, how to ensure pupils *enjoy* MFL (resonant of the primary science teachers studied by Skamp and Mueller, 2001:338). This correlates with student teachers' intense desire to bring enjoyment into language lessons, apparent from the very beginning of the course. Change in this element in the current study is in the form of a shift from an initial desire to make lessons enjoyable from a standpoint of believing that will automatically *promote* learning, to an expression of frustration at the thwarted attempts to bring enjoyment and motivation into the classroom.

"Trying to have clear, structured objectives, keeping the lessons enjoyable and attempting to identify and administer to pupils' individual needs (I sense a lot of diverse attitudes to language learning and am trying to work out how to deal with this). Also, monitoring *how much* is learnt." (S3(W)96-7)

As they develop their methodological ideas, there is a trend towards a desire to take a holistic approach, corresponding with the general learning-to-teach processes cited in Chapter 5. There is a distinct feeling amongst some that they need to wrestle with methodological concepts which conflict with their own beliefs.

6.5.1: Views on MFL teacher pen portraits

As one part of pre- and post-course questionnaires completed by four cohorts of students, three pen portraits of MFL teachers (see Appendix 1) with varying approaches to teaching and learning MFL were presented. The purpose of this item⁶ was to investigate the students' methodological aspirations at the start of the course and on qualification: which of these MFL teachers' practice resembled most the methodology they wanted to develop? The portraits include aspects of MFL teaching embodied in the traditional grammar-translation approach and of the communicative approach, and implied varying beliefs about language itself. None of the

⁶ Adapted from Carrés study of primary trainee science teachers (1993a:32)

descriptions is wholly logical or coherent, mirroring some of the teachers' views student teachers may encounter, and thereby intended to provoke more thought, reaction and comment. Two of the main methodological issues in MFL teaching and learning are involved in these descriptions, namely use of TL and attitude towards grammar. Carré's (1993a) findings showed a tendency for students, already fairly negative towards a teacher-centred approach, to become even more negative as the course progressed. With the MFL students under scrutiny here, the change involved, in contrast, a more *positive* inclination towards the rule-based, more traditional teacher-centred approach, found also by Bramald et al (1995:26). The respondents appear to move from an optimistic, one might almost say idealistic, very communicative stance, towards a more prescriptive viewpoint, but with a clear acknowledgement of the need for balance.

There is remarkable consistency in student teachers' preferences; teacher A remains the most popular and B the least for the whole population and all sub-groups. The range grows at the end of the course, as does the standard deviation correspondingly, echoing the divergence of opinions generally. Although invited to do so, not all students made comments on the portraits, and many comments combine views on all three teachers. On qualification, students appear much more inclined to look at a *combination* approach, regardless of the raw scores allocated to each portrait. Issues have become less black and white, contrasting with their opinions generally, but illustrating that as NQTs, they appear to have a much clearer sense of their own teaching identity, with more balance, and much more complexity of methodological necessities. Comments on specific teachers and their styles are less frequent in S10 than at the start of the course; the opinions tend to be built around 'but' and 'however'.

Even initially, dominant themes include the tension between TL and English, and explicit or implicit grammar.

"I find this last exercise to be difficult as I agree with some aspects of each. I believe the target language should be used as much as possible but that grammar is important and as such should be explained in English." (App/99-00)

"I would try to use the target language as much as possible but I think there is a place for English in the foreign language classroom, especially if it reduces anxiety and alienation." (App/00-01)

Teacher A, who remains the preferred option, despite slight decreases in all cohorts, embodies much of the communicative approach, as understood by many teachers and apparently eschews any teaching of grammar. This approach leans towards an attempt to 'acquire' language 'naturally'. Teacher A is perceived by student teachers in this study as positive in a mixed ability environment and they comment that developing pupils' independence is important. Use of TL is viewed more negatively at the end of the course here as well as generally (see Table XXIX). There is also, however, criticism of the 'discovery only' approach, and a strong feeling that mistakes need to be corrected.

"Discover and explore – yes, but you can't make it up, can you? The joy of languages is not confined to day to day requests for bus tickets etc."
(App/00-01)

Teacher B is focussed on the grammar-translation model, albeit unacknowledged. This teacher's prime methodological beliefs about MFL teaching and learning revolve around grammar and language appears almost devoid of human contact. Teacher B increases in popularity from the start of the course to the end with all groups. The emphasis on grammar is perceived by student teachers with qualified caution; they acknowledge the necessity of teaching grammar, but argue against this rigid approach. Many reject the last sentence whilst endorsing the remainder.

"Good grammar is important (particularly in German!). However, if grammar dominates, language risks losing its expressiveness. Balance is needed between all learning areas." (App/98-9)

Some, however, are convinced of the merits of a grammatical approach, and in doing so elect to use powerful adjectives such as 'fundamental', illustrating their deep feelings clearly.

"Fundamental learning of grammar is essential. It is important to have fun, to learn peripheral topics, e.g. culture, and to enjoy the language, but all this is useless without a good solid knowledge of the grammatical points." (App/98-9)

Teacher C is relatively vague about the actual methods preferred, although on the crucial issue of TL use, English is exploited. There are certainly strong 'human' aspects to this teacher's approach, and an attempt at a socio-constructivist stance. Perceptions of Teacher C, although demonstrating some fluctuation, show no consistent change. Teacher C is predictably perceived in this study as somewhat vague, and the ideals expressed as difficult to achieve. Student teachers generally acknowledge, however, the benefits of working with pupils' existing knowledge.

Whilst some student teachers find it difficult to comment on each teacher at the beginning, and consistently indicate their need to learn more about methodology, the overall pattern is one of selecting elements from *each* description to create their aspiration, with this trend increasing on qualification.

"Language is about communication and being understood which can be done in a fun way. It can be discouraging to be overly critical of every little error *but* there is also a place for accuracy. It is also about broadening your horizons and those of your pupils. A combination of the above statements is a good approach and it is up to the teacher to make an informed decision as to how much of each is applied based on the age, culture, interest and ability of his/her pupils." (App/99-00)

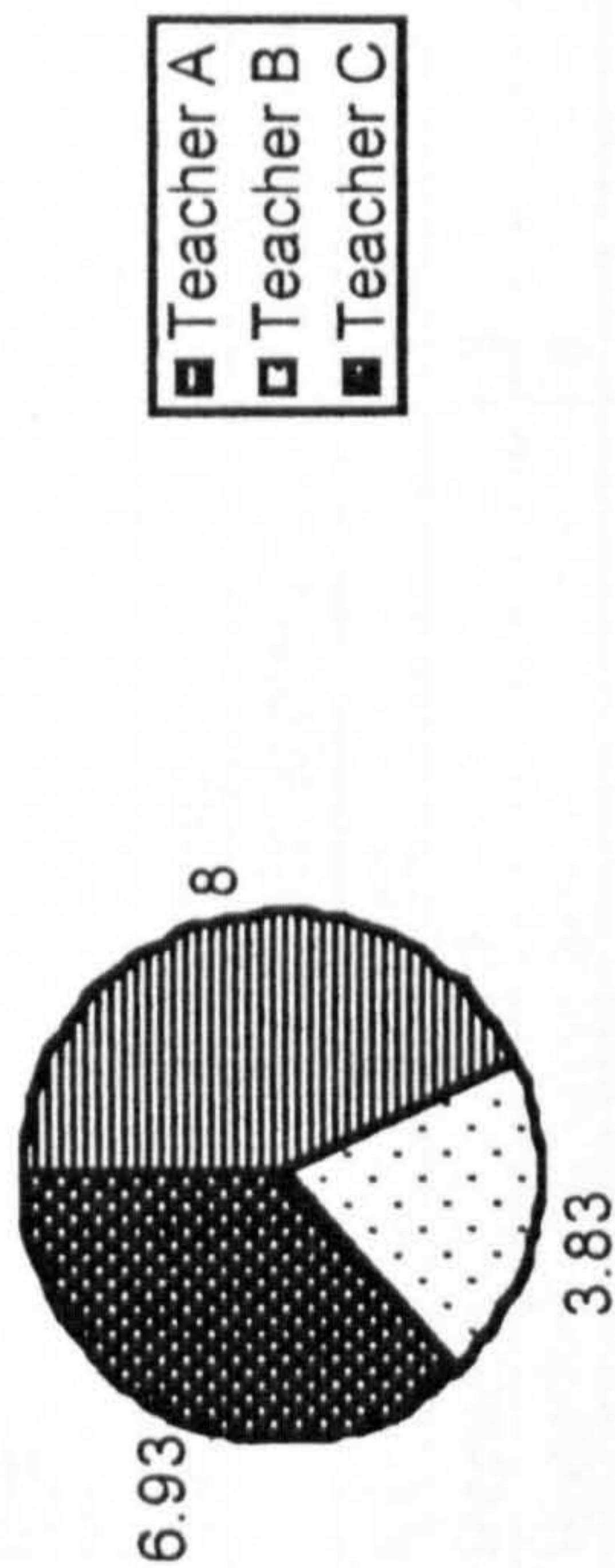
Most comments include phrases such as 'happy medium' or 'combination', 'balance'. Despite this, at the end of the course, however, comments are more assertive in their opinions, drawing on recent experiences, for example, and displaying greater awareness that there is no simple recipe.

"I agree that English should be used when explaining grammar, but I don't think group and pair work is a waste of time. TL should be used when it is appropriate, e.g. I had a set 3 year 10 Spanish class and it would have been impossible for me to have taught in the TL all the time as they would have been off task and rioting." (App/99-00)

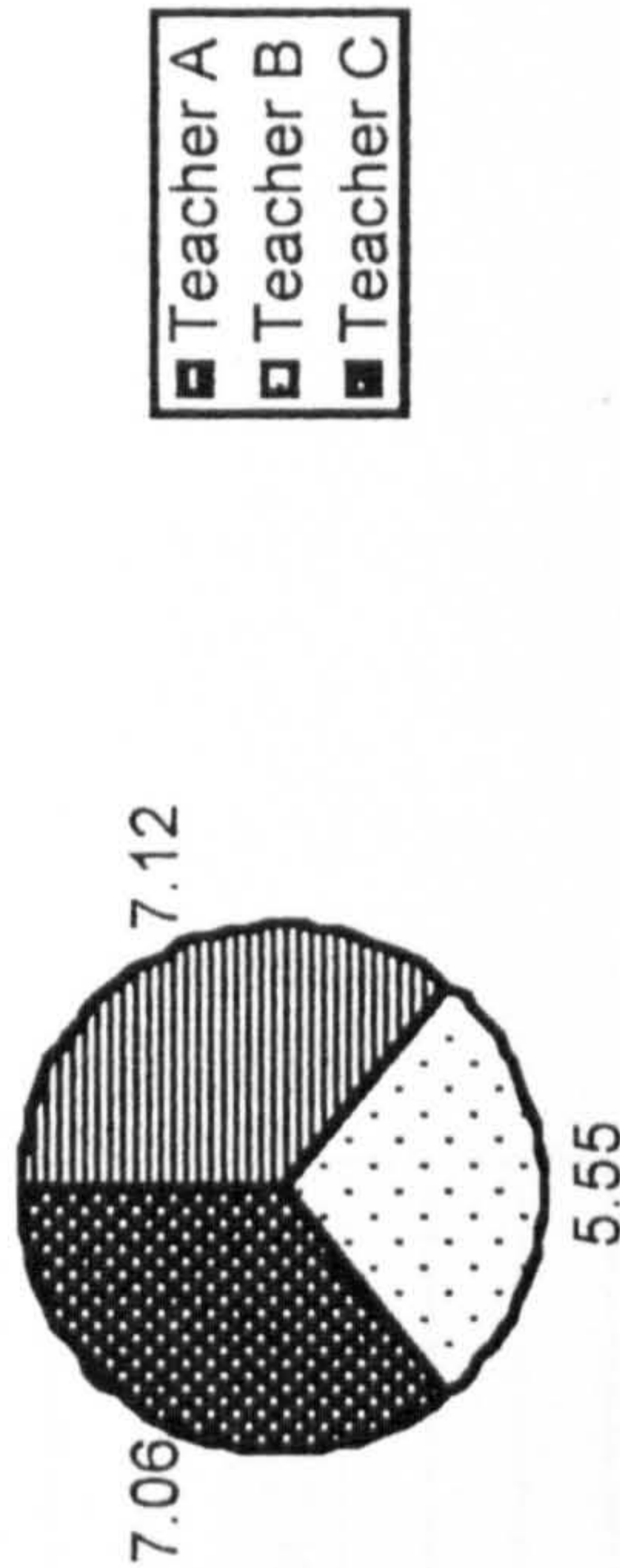
"If I could take some parts of each statement and put them together, I would probably make the teacher I'd like to be. Even some of the statements of Teacher B make sense to me (rules/structures/patterns) but it all depends to which group of learners this is applied to." (Qual/98-99)

Table XXIII: Overall views on teacher portraits (teachers A, B and C)

Initial views on Teachers A, B and C



Final views on Teachers A, B and C



Whole Population	Mean score(Standard deviation)								
	A n=109	B n=109	C n=108						
	8.00(1.61)	3.83(1.92)	6.93(1.71)						
Native Speakers	Mean score(Standard deviation)								
	A n=26	B n=26	C n=26						
	7.96(1.78)	3.73(1.93)	7.12(1.90)						
Males	Mean score(Standard deviation)								
	A n=20	B n=20	C n=20						
	8.05(1.64)	3.90(1.83)	7.20(1.36)						
Females	Mean score(Standard deviation)								
	A n=89	B n=89	C n=89						
	7.99(1.61)	3.81(1.95)	6.86(1.78)						
Whole Population	A(end) n=85			B(end) n=85			C(end) n=85		
	7.12(1.64)			5.55(2.16)			7.06(1.79)		
Native Speakers	A(end) n=20			B(end) n=20			C(end) n=20		
	7.40(1.90)			5.50(2.50)			7.15(2.48)		
Males	A(end) n=16			B(end) n=16			C(end) n=16		
	7.19(1.42)			6.63(2.63)			7.19(1.52)		
Females	A(end) n=69			B(end) n=69			C(end) n=69		
	7.10(1.70)			5.30(1.97)			7.03(1.85)		

Table XXIV: Statistics on teacher portraits

	Teacher A n=109	Teacher B n=109	Teacher C n=108	
Beginning of course	Mean	3.83	6.93	
	Median	4	7	
	Mode	4	7	
	SD	1.92	1.71	
	Range (min/max)	7(3/10)	7(3/10)	
	Teacher A n=85	Teacher B n=85	Teacher C n=85	
End of course	Mean	7.12	5.55	7.06
	Median	7	6	7
	Mode	8	6	7
	SD	1.64	2.16	1.79
	Range (min/max)	7(3/10)	9(1/10)	9(1/10)

Data derived from responses to teacher pen portraits in AQ and at the end of the course. Each portrait was awarded 'points' between 1 and 10. Figures presented to two decimal places.

6.6: Student teachers' overall methodological landscape

We are now in a position to collate the elements contributing to what I have called the student teachers' methodological landscape. The landscape is informed by data S1–S10/98-9 cohort rating scale items, sentence completions from the three focus cohorts and video discussions from two groups, as well as the portrait analysis. Expanding on the metaphor, some methodological elements resemble listed buildings, which will never be dismantled, some are landmarks, some are distant objects on the horizon, some are intrusive carbuncles which they wish they could avoid, and others are hidden in the back streets. The items are presented in Table XXV with their overall mean score for the whole population over the period investigated. Despite differences between the two HEIs, many similarities are apparent, echoing other research (Skamp and Mueller, 2001).

6.6.1: Rationale for landscape classification and a view of the landscape

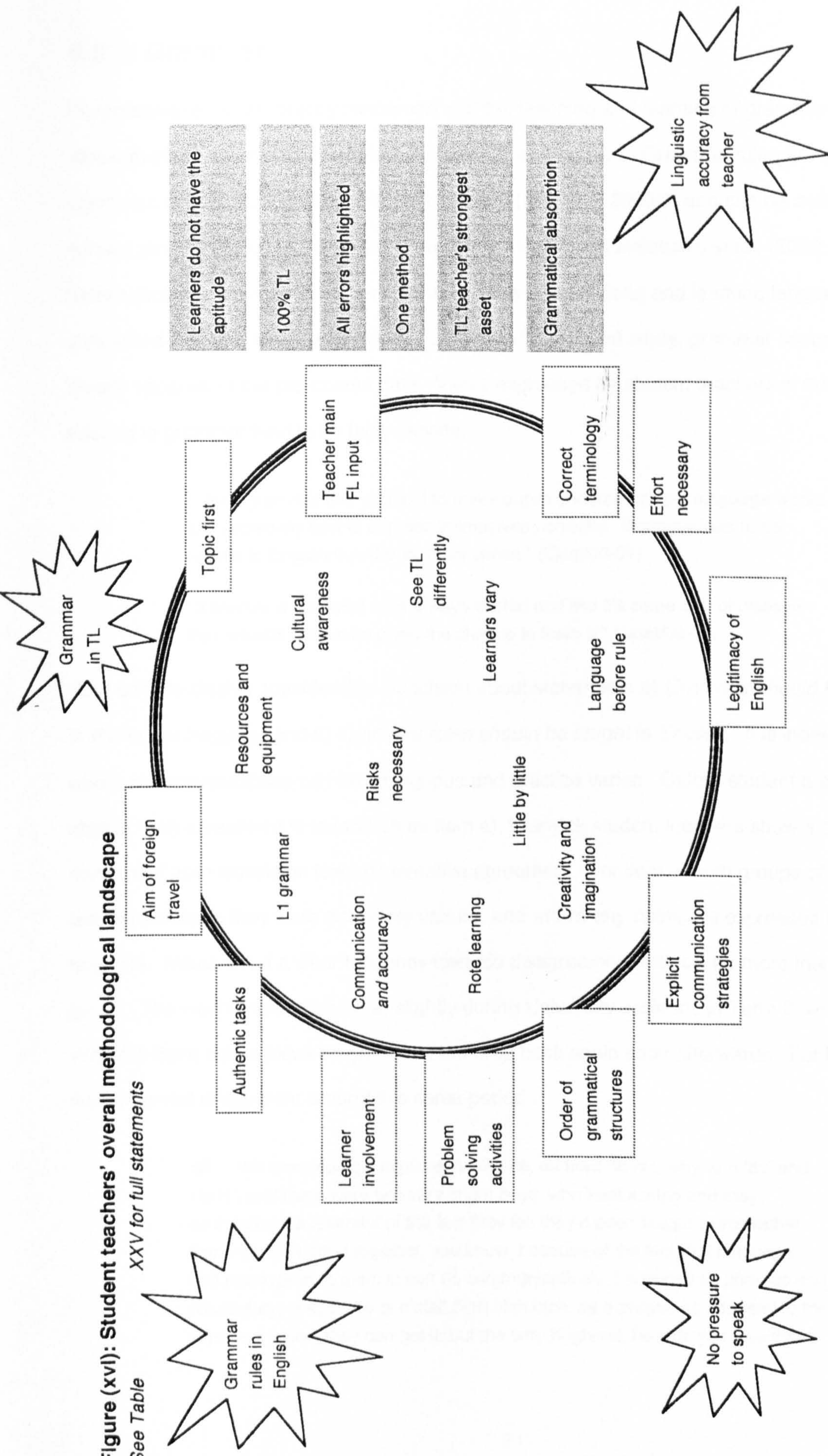
Although not presented as such in the questionnaires, the statements were grouped thematically to be analysed, according to issues within the MFL teaching and learning community. Responses were collated and percentages calculated for respondents for the cohorts from both institutions. Group responses were then tracked over the 10 questionnaires and changes or otherwise noted, as well as comparison of the responses of the two groups. Both trends over time and average mean score contribute to the analysis. When taking account of the overall mean, the information in Table XXV emerges. In all cases, where there is change over 0.5, the item is shaded (Tables XXVI-XXXIV). *Trends*, however, are also taken into account in the final landscape, illustrated in Figure (xvi), derived from the data as a whole. This landscape represents a synthesis, therefore, of the analysis throughout the study.

Table XXV: Methodological statements. Rank order by overall mean.

Statement	Overall mean
To learn a language, you must be able to take risks and make mistakes	4.66
Learners vary in the way they learn a language	4.58
MFL teachers must have access to a wide variety of resources and equipment	4.51
MFL lessons should build up the language little by little	4.49
There is a role in learning MFL for creativity and imagination	4.49
I need to look at language differently in order to teach it	4.40
Learners should be exposed to language before being presented with a rule	4.26
Successful communication is as important as grammatical accuracy	4.09
Problem solving activities should be used in language learning	4.07
Authentic tasks are the best method of learning languages	4.00
When planning a MFL lesson, you firstly need to concentrate on the topic area	3.98
Communication strategies should be taught explicitly	3.93
Cultural awareness is as important as linguistic competence	3.91
MFL learners should have a good grasp of grammar in their own language	3.89
There is a role for rote learning in MFL	3.85
MFL lessons should equip a learner with the language needed for foreign travel	3.84
Learning a language is a matter of effort	3.82
Learners should feel under no pressure to speak in front of the class in a MFL lesson	3.82
There is a logical order of grammatical structures which should be taught	3.57
Learners learn best when they are involved in choosing the topic and materials	3.41
Grammar rules should be taught in English	3.41
English is a legitimate means of communication in a modern languages classroom	3.30
The teacher is the main FL input for the learner	3.27
Pupils should use correct grammatical terminology	3.25
A MFL teacher should never make linguistic mistakes in the classroom	3.13
A language teacher's strongest asset is fluency in the target language	2.82
Grammar should be dealt with in the target language	2.68
Some learners just don't have the aptitude to learn a foreign language	2.67
100% target language should be used in the classroom	2.58
Learners will absorb grammatical rules without explicit explanation	2.26
All errors should be pointed out to learners	2.22
It is best to have one particular method for teaching a language and stick to it	2.17

Figure (xvi): Student teachers' overall methodological landscape

See Table XXV for full statements



Landmarks (items accepted fully and consistently; more positive if anything towards the end) contained within the circle.

Outskirts (items generally accepted more positively than negatively) at the edge.

Ambivalence (items where no trend is apparent, considerable uncertainty and range of opinion) in stars

Allen territory (items almost entirely rejected or disagreed with, and often receiving a more negative response towards the end) in grey boxes

6.6.2: Grammar

Seven statements are directly concerned with the teaching and learning of grammar (Table XXVI) although other statements in different themes are also related. Grammar rules are often very significant in MFL student teachers' past learning (Macrory, 2000:3) and can be a very emotive subject amongst language teachers (Pomphrey, 1997:2). In Halbach's study (2000:141), the most noticeable changes in student teachers' views on teaching and learning languages were concerned with the role of grammar in FLT and in the present study, grammar concerns are clearly apparent in the pre-course data. Views expressed by student teachers in this study relating to grammar tend to be fairly definite.

"I think grammar is a vital tool to make pupils understand how language works and especially how to express themselves correctly. Grammar has to be related to English in order to make sense." (Qual/00-01)

"Grammar = essential - it is always skirted and like it's some sort of disease - they should at least be given the chance to learn it." (Qual/00-01)

Both cohorts display considerable indecision about statements a) *Grammar should be dealt with in the target language* and b) *Grammar rules should be taught in English*. It is indeed an area where recommendations can be ambiguous and practice varies. Oxford student teachers move slightly from agreement to indecision on item a); Warwick student teachers show a slight movement from indecision towards tentative agreement. For item b, both groups of student teachers indicate they were extremely unsure, and where any *opinion* is expressed it was negative. Males show a clear tendency towards disagreement with b), far more than any other group. The mean scores rise for a) slightly during University sessions in Term 2, when in Warwick there was a focus on grammar, but drop back again soon afterwards. For b), more disagreement is apparent around this same period.

☛ We were doing this piece, à côté de, au bord du lac, why with 'du' and 'de la', and there were two very bright boys, who kept asking and they sounded quite resentful of the fact they felt they'd been taught *words* rather than how they fitted together, you know, because of the fact that language had been given to them in sort of, communicatively, I suppose as phrases and vocabulary, je suis allé or c'était blah blah blah, as a phrase as opposed to the imperfect tense, they can get it, but the very brightest, how do you give them

an ability to grasp, you know, the structure of the language. I don't think schools are geared up to catering for mixed ability, and I don't feel, I think that's one of my weaknesses, enormously difficult, I admit it. (V6/96-7)

☒ I thoroughly enjoyed teaching grammar, and I found that children actually like learning grammar, if you don't make it the whole lesson, if you just make it like a snippet of the lesson, in context of what they're doing, they actually enjoy it, they benefit from it. (V3/97-8)

Table XXVI: Grammar

Whole Population	S1 n=43	S2 n=38	S3 n=33	S4 n=36	S5 n=35	S6 n=35	S7 n=28	S8 n=27	S9 n=39	S10 n=19	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
a) Grammar should be dealt with in the target language	2.81(0.66)	2.76(0.68)	2.61(0.50)	2.64(0.49)	2.80(0.58)	2.82(0.76)	2.68(0.67)	2.59(0.57)	2.64(0.49)	2.47(0.84)	-0.17	-0.17	2.68
b) Grammar rules should be taught in English	3.53(0.85)	3.34(0.75)	3.48(0.76)	3.36(0.68)	3.29(0.62)	3.31(0.72)	3.50(0.79)	3.33(0.73)	3.41(0.75)	3.58(0.77)	-0.13	+0.17	3.41

Native Speakers:	S1 n=13	S2 n=11	S3 n=10	S4 n=9	S5 n=11	S6 n=9	S7 n=9	S8 n=9	S9 n=11	S10 n=4	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
a	2.77(0.60)	2.55(0.82)	2.70(0.48)	2.56(0.53)	2.91(0.70)	3.33(1.00)	2.67(0.71)	2.67(0.71)	2.64(0.50)	2.50(0.58)	-0.13	-0.27	2.73
b	3.69(1.03)	3.73(0.65)	3.70(0.82)	3.78(0.67)	3.27(0.65)	3.44(0.73)	3.56(1.13)	3.56(0.73)	3.82(0.75)	4.00(0.82)	+0.13	+0.31	3.66

Males:	S1 n=24	S2 n=27	S3 n=22	S4 n=21	S5 n=23	S6 n=21	S7 n=18	S8 n=18	S9 n=27	S10 n=15	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
a	2.63(0.52)	2.75(0.71)	2.71(0.48)	2.67(0.52)	3.00(0.82)	3.17(0.98)	3.20(0.45)	2.80(0.84)	2.73(0.47)	2.67(0.58)	+0.10	-0.06	2.83
b	4.13(0.83)	3.63(0.52)	3.43(0.53)	3.17(0.41)	3.00(0.58)	3.17(0.41)	3.20(0.84)	3.20(0.84)	3.45(0.52)	3.00(1.00)	-0.68	-0.45	3.34

Females:	S1 n=109	S2 n=100	S3 n=85	S4 n=96	S5 n=95	S6 n=97	S7 n=87	S8 n=80	S9 n=101	S10 n=62	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
a	2.86(0.69)	2.78(0.68)	2.58(0.50)	2.63(0.49)	2.75(0.52)	2.75(0.70)	2.57(0.64)	2.55(0.51)	2.62(0.49)	2.44(0.89)	-0.24	-0.18	2.65
b	3.40(0.81)	3.23(0.78)	3.50(0.81)	3.40(0.72)	3.36(0.62)	3.34(0.77)	3.57(0.79)	3.36(0.73)	3.41(0.80)	3.69(0.70)	+0.01	+0.29	3.43

Mean and Standard Deviation to two decimal places. 1 = disagree strongly. 5 = agree strongly. Changes of more than 0.5 are shaded

Table XXVII: Grammar rules

Whole Population	S1 n=43	S2 n=38	S3 n=33	S4 n=36	S5 n=35	S6 n=35	S7 n=28	S8 n=27	S9 n=39	S10 n=19	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
c) Learners should be exposed to language before being presented with a rule	4.23(0.69)	4.42(0.60)	4.09(0.63)	4.23(0.77)	4.23(0.60)	4.26(0.61)	4.36(0.62)	4.30(0.61)	4.31(0.69)	4.21(0.63)	+0.08	-0.10	4.26
d) Learners will absorb grammatical rules without explicit explanation	2.05(0.97)	2.42(0.79)	2.17(0.87)	2.12(0.88)	2.14(0.77)	2.40(0.95)	2.46(0.79)	2.33(0.78)	2.23(0.78)	2.26(1.15)	+0.18	+0.03	2.26
Native Speakers:													
c	4.31(0.63)	4.45(0.52)	4.20(0.79)	4.67(0.50)	4.36(0.67)	4.44(0.53)	4.67(0.50)	4.67(0.50)	4.55(0.69)	5.00(0.00)	+0.24	+0.69	4.53
d	2.00(1.22)	2.45(1.04)	2.25(0.89)	1.88(0.64)	2.27(0.90)	2.67(1.22)	2.56(0.73)	2.33(0.71)	2.09(0.70)	2.25(1.26)	+0.09	+0.16	2.28
Males:													
c	3.88(0.63)	4.50(0.53)	4.29(0.76)	4.17(0.75)	4.43(0.53)	4.33(0.52)	4.60(0.89)	4.40(0.55)	4.36(0.50)	4.33(0.58)	+0.48	-0.03	4.33
d	2.00(1.53)	2.75(0.89)	2.29(1.38)	2.67(1.37)	2.00(0.82)	2.00(0.89)	2.60(0.55)	2.20(0.45)	2.09(0.70)	3.00(2.00)	+0.09	+0.91	2.36
Females:													
c	4.34(0.64)	4.40(0.62)	4.04(0.60)	4.24(0.79)	4.18(0.61)	4.24(0.64)	4.30(0.56)	4.27(0.63)	4.31(0.74)	4.19(0.66)	-0.03	-0.12	4.25
d	2.06(0.85)	2.33(0.76)	2.13(0.69)	2.00(0.72)	2.18(0.77)	2.48(0.85)	2.43(0.84)	2.36(0.85)	2.31(0.78)	2.12(0.96)	+0.25	-0.19	2.24

Mean and Standard Deviation to two decimal places. 1 = disagree strongly. 5 = agree strongly. Changes of more than 0.5 are shaded

Miller (2002:149) states that students cannot learn a grammatical structure unless they are exposed to multiple examples of it and the MFL subject sessions at Warwick stressed item c) *Learners should be exposed to language before being presented with a rule*, and emphasised that a) should be applied where possible. Considerable agreement is shown by both cohorts with statement c) (Table XXVII). Student teachers respond more positively throughout the year, with no response stating disagreement and very small numbers indicating indecision. This statement is clearly a landmark on the student teachers' methodological landscape. The mean scores, developing this agreement, remain very consistent for the whole population, with a considerable move towards agreement in the case of native speakers.⁷ For d) *Learners will absorb grammatical rules without explicit explanation*, student teachers of both institutions are generally very much in disagreement, but with some indecision. The tendency towards disagreement increases as the year progresses but the standard deviation of responses grows, resulting in slightly more positive mean scores. Item e) *There is a logical order of grammatical structures which should be taught* embodies principles of the grammar-translation method, a method overwhelmingly rejected in the last two decades in favour of the communicative approach. Yet both groups express a substantial degree of agreement with this statement, albeit with a similar degree of indecision, and mean scores remain very consistent throughout the year. Numbers actively *disagreeing* with this item are few. Neither subject course emphasised this element; indeed, although both courses highlight the importance of structure and grammatical knowledge, this is within the context of true CLT. This response results perhaps from student teachers' prior beliefs and experience.

⁷ Although, as with males, the low numbers of respondents mean results must be treated cautiously.

Table XXVIII: grammatical order

Whole population:	S1 n=43	S2 n=38	S3 n=33	S4 n=36	S5 n=35	S6 n=35	S7 n=28	S8 n=27	S9 n=39	S10 n=19	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
e) There is a logical order of grammatical structures which should be taught	3.44(0.85)	3.53(0.86)	3.53(0.67)	3.56(0.81)	3.77(0.73)	3.68(1.07)	3.64(0.78)	3.59(0.93)	3.59(0.85)	3.37(1.07)	+0.15	-0.22	3.57

Native Speakers:	S1 n=13	S2 n=11	S3 n=10	S4 n=9	S5 n=11	S6 n=9	S7 n=9	S8 n=9	S9 n=11	S10 n=4	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
e	3.92(0.64)	4.00(0.77)	3.80(0.63)	4.00(0.87)	4.00(0.63)	4.11(1.05)	3.89(0.78)	3.67(1.00)	3.91(0.83)	3.50(1.73)	-0.01	-0.41	3.88

Males:	S1 n= 24	S2 n=27	S3 n=22	S4 n=21	S5 n=23	S6 n=21	S7 n=18	S8 n=18	S9 n=27	S10n =15	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
e	3.25(0.89)	3.75(0.89)	3.71(0.76)	3.50(0.84)	4.14(0.69)	3.50(1.38)	3.40(0.55)	3.80(0.84)	3.82(0.98)	3.00(1.00)	+0.57	-0.82	3.59

Females:	S1 n=109	S2 n=100	S3 n=85	S4 n=96	S5 n=95	S6 n=97	S7 n=87	S8 n=80	S9 n=101	S10 n=62	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
e	3.49(0.85)	3.47(0.86)	3.48(0.65)	3.57(0.82)	3.68(0.72)	3.71(1.01)	3.70(0.82)	3.55(0.96)	3.50(0.76)	3.44(1.09)	+0.01	-0.06	3.56

Mean and Standard Deviation to two decimal places. 1 = disagree strongly. 5 = agree strongly.

Table XXIX: Terminology and L1 grammar

Whole population:	S1 n=43	S2 n=38	S3 n=33	S4 n=36	S5 n=35	S6 n=35	S7 n=28	S8 n=27	S9 n=39	S10 n=19	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
f) Pupils should use correct grammatical terminology	3.24(0.80)	3.18(0.77)	3.07(0.83)	3.51(0.89)	3.31(0.83)	3.23(1.00)	3.43(0.92)	3.30(1.03)	3.15(0.90)	3.11(0.99)	-0.09	-0.04	3.25
g) MFL learners should have a good grasp of grammar in their own language	3.67(0.99)	3.76(0.75)	3.76(0.94)	3.75(0.84)	4.11(0.76)	3.97(0.79)	3.96(0.84)	4.15(0.82)	3.97(0.99)	3.79(0.92)	+0.30	-0.18	3.89

Native Speakers:	S1 n=13	S2 n=11	S3 n=10	S4 n=9	S5 n=11	S6 n=9	S7 n=9	S8 n=9	S9 n=11	S10 n=4	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
f	3.46(0.97)	3.27(0.65)	3.25(0.89)	3.56(1.01)	3.55(0.69)	3.44(0.88)	3.22(0.97)	3.67(1.12)	3.27(0.65)	3.00(0.82)	-0.19	0.027	3.37
g	3.77(1.17)	4.00(0.78)	4.30(0.82)	3.89(0.78)	4.09(0.70)	4.33(0.71)	4.22(0.44)	4.67(0.50)	4.38(0.67)	3.75(0.96)	+0.59	-0.61	4.14

Males:	S1 n=24	S2 n=27	S3 n=22	S4 n=21	S5 n=23	S6 n=21	S7 n=18	S8 n=18	S9 n=27	S10 n=15	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
f	3.28(1.11)	3.38(0.74)	3.43(0.98)	3.67(1.37)	3.43(0.98)	3.33(1.21)	3.80(0.84)	3.40(1.14)	3.55(0.82)	3.33(2.08)	+0.27	-0.22	3.46
g	3.88(0.64)	4.38(0.52)	4.71(0.49)	4.67(0.52)	4.29(1.25)	5.00(0.00)	4.40(0.55)	4.40(0.55)	4.36(0.67)	4.33(0.58)	+0.48	-0.03	4.44

Females:	S1 n=109	S2 n=100	S3 n=85	S4 n=96	S5 n=95	S6 n=97	S7 n=87	S8 n=80	S9 n=101	S10 n=62	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
f	3.25(0.74)	3.13(0.78)	2.96(0.77)	3.48(0.78)	3.29(0.94)	3.21(0.98)	3.35(0.93)	3.27(1.03)	3.08(0.88)	3.06(0.77)	-0.19	-	3.21
g	3.63(1.06)	3.73(0.78)	3.69(0.97)	3.70(0.88)	4.07(0.81)	3.93(0.80)	3.91(0.90)	4.09(0.87)	3.84(1.02)	3.69(0.95)	+0.21	-0.15	3.83

Mean and Standard Deviation to two decimal places. 1 = disagree strongly. 5 = agree strongly.

Teachers in the study by Sato and Kleinsasser (1999:505) acknowledged that learners' responses did not have to be linguistically accurate, but felt it would be much easier to teach L2 if L1 teachers taught grammar 'the way they should'; grammar was much more central to their actual teaching than they claimed. The last items (f, *Pupils should use correct grammatical terminology* and g, *MFL learners should have a good grasp of grammar in their own language*) in this theme are linked. At this time (1998-1999), pupils in KS3 had not been exposed to the literacy strategy in primary schools and although the English curriculum was changing towards inclusion of more explicit grammatical knowledge, evidence of this was yet to be seen in secondary schools. Both groups of student teachers show a range of responses to item f), more in agreement than not, but also with a lot of indecision, reinforced by the mean scores consistently around 3.00⁸. No overall tendency emerges from either cohort. This is another area where there is a lack of methodological clarity. For item g) there is much more evidence of agreement with the statement and with each other. With some indecision, both groups are generally very clear in their agreement with this statement mostly peaking during the second HEI term. If this is then seen alongside item a), this would appear logical: if grammar is dealt with in English, then pupils will need English terminology for grammatical terms. Yet the use of English at all goes against the accepted methodological norm.

6.6.3: Target language/English

Use of TL and grammar through the TL form two of the dichotomies listed by Grenfell (1998:140 and 141). Two statements (h, *100% target language should be used in the classroom* and i, *English is a legitimate means of communication in a modern languages classroom*) are directly concerned with the use or otherwise of the TL, although statements in other themes were also linked strongly (e.g. a and b). Target language use in the classroom has provoked a great deal of controversy in recent years and varies in individual teachers' definitions of what it involves (Roberts, 1998:108). The Warwick course emphasises *optimal* use of TL (see Macaro, 2001a). The use of the term '100%' in this statement is therefore aimed at ascertaining student teachers'

⁸ Males and native speakers are generally more in agreement

spontaneous response. It can be seen immediately from Table XXIX that opinions on TL change more than most other methodological issues in this study.

"TL is important but I think its importance can be overstated. At post 16 and in bright, motivated classes it is a good idea and reaps considerable benefit. However, in larger, weaker and less motivated groups I find that using English as support is more useful." (Qual/99-00)

FL2 influences attitudes towards TL use.

☞ But worst of all, the teacher they had before was the Head of Department and she was 100% target language! (*laughter*) and this boy came up to me and saying 'Darf ich bitte ..' and I knew he wanted to go to the toilet but I couldn't even finish his sentence for him even, you know that was embarrassing (*general agreement*) so I just said 'yes, go'. (V3/97-8)

☞ but my class had all the numbers in German around so at least they were listening just once, they might not have understood it straightaway but I didn't speak English which was the one thing I wanted to avoid, which was my objective reached. (V3/97-8)

☞ I found with the target language I was very self-conscious because it was a number of years since I'd spoken either language and going in to the classroom and suddenly speaking French was for me something so bizarre, I just wasn't used to it at all, but the teacher I was taking over from mostly didn't use target language, so I had that advantage, whatever I said was better than English, open your books, what's your name, let me take the register, whatever, was better. (V3/97-8)

Student teachers in both institutions disagree in general with statement h), *100% target language should be used in the classroom*, although there is some fluctuation and indecision, as well as a number of responses throughout the year in agreement (although not strongly). It is an area where student teachers and practitioners in the wider MFL community are certainly not fully convinced. The mean scores indicate consistent disagreement overall and males' mean scores indicate a considerable growth in disagreement, particularly from S9-S10.

Item i) *English is a legitimate means of communication in a modern languages classroom*, however, results in a general agreement from both groups. The Warwick student teachers show a definite tendency towards greater agreement as the year progresses; those of Oxford display more fluctuation. The mean scores of the whole population and all sub-groups show substantial movement towards agreement. TL is also a theme apparent in other data and is regarded

ambivalently in their methodological landscape. It is also the area most frequently cited as one of methodological dissonance.

☞ In my school they used a lot of target language, but certain teachers used more than others, and when you took over their class and they didn't understand what you were saying in Spanish, it made you want to use more English, and then when you were being observed, you got picked up because you were using more English, but their normal class teacher used it too, because if I said ¿Que significa? Which was 'what does that mean?' they'd be asking 'What does that mean?' (*laughter*) and I'd think like 'You're year 8, don't you know that?' It was like the onus was on you, you should be teaching them all these things which they should have learnt already and in your little six weeks' practice, we were supposed to be doing all of that. (V3/97-8)

"Anxious about teaching my second language and about the fact that none of the MFL teachers in my school use TL." (S2(W)97-8)

☞ I'm worried about how to apply things I've been learning - e.g. TL in school lessons. It doesn't seem to be used much. I've seen that in classes the TL is not there at all, you know, the teachers claim they can't teach in TL, because they wouldn't understand because the level is so low they're going to say 'Oh forget it'. I wonder, can I go in and use TL? I think it's very difficult. Obviously I have to try it, I should put it into practice but I don't know how. (V2/96-7)

A qualifier on the concern list for 'using my languages', linking the use of TL with discipline matters, echoing the provisos made by student teachers in Chapter 5, where discipline issues act as a barrier to incorporating methodological ideas.

Table XXX: Target language/English

Whole population:	S1 n=43	S2 n=38	S3 n=33	S4 n=36	S5 n=35	S6 n=35	S7 n=28	S8 n=27	S9 n=39	S10 n=19	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
h) 100% target language should be used in the classroom	2.67(0.87)	2.56(0.80)	2.48(0.83)	2.50(0.88)	2.66(0.68)	2.63(0.81)	2.82(0.86)	2.74(0.84)	2.54(0.85)	2.16(1.21)	-0.13	-0.38	2.58
i) English is a legitimate means of communication in a modern languages classroom	2.74(0.95)	3.03(0.79)	3.18(0.85)	3.19(0.92)	3.23(0.97)	3.40(0.98)	3.50(1.07)	3.48(1.05)	3.46(0.97)	3.79(0.79)	+0.72	+0.68	3.06
Native Speakers:	S1 n=13	S2 n=11	S3 n=10	S4 n=9	S5 n=11	S6 n=9	S7 n=9	S8 n=9	S9 n=11	S10 n=4	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
h	3.08(0.76)	3.09(0.83)	2.70(0.82)	2.78(0.97)	3.00(0.77)	3.00(0.71)	3.33(1.00)	3.33(1.00)	2.82(0.87)	3.50(1.73)	-0.26	+0.68	3.06
i)	2.31(0.75)	2.82(0.98)	2.90(0.74)	2.78(1.09)	2.91(0.94)	3.22(0.83)	3.44(1.33)	3.33(1.12)	3.00(1.00)	4.00(0.82)	+0.69	+1.00	3.37
Males:	S1 n=24	S2 n=27	S3 n=22	S4 n=21	S5 n=23	S6 n=21	S7 n=18	S8 n=18	S9 n=27	S10 n=15	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
h	2.75(0.71)	2.62(0.74)	2.29(0.48)	2.33(1.03)	2.57(0.98)	2.50(1.05)	3.00(0.71)	3.00(0.71)	2.36(0.92)	1.33(0.58)	-0.39	-1.03	2.48
i)	2.38(0.52)	2.75(0.71)	2.71(0.76)	3.17(1.17)	2.86(1.21)	2.67(1.21)	3.00(1.58)	3.00(1.22)	3.00(0.89)	3.33(0.58)	+0.62	+0.33	2.89
Females:	S1 n=109	S2 n=100	S3 n=85	S4 n=96	S5 n=95	S6 n=97	S7 n=87	S8 n=80	S9 n=101	S10 n=62	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
h	2.66(0.81)	2.53(0.82)	2.54(0.90)	2.53(0.86)	2.68(0.61)	2.66(0.77)	2.78(0.90)	2.68(0.99)	2.56(0.84)	2.31(1.25)	-0.10	-0.25	2.59
i	2.83(1.01)	3.10(0.80)	3.31(0.84)	3.20(0.89)	3.32(0.90)	3.55(0.87)	3.61(0.94)	3.58(1.00)	3.58(0.95)	3.88(0.81)	+0.76	+0.29	3.40

Mean and Standard Deviation to two decimal places. 1 = disagree strongly. 5 = agree strongly. Changes of more than 0.5 are shaded

6.6.4: Teachers' subject knowledge

When student teachers start the course, their SK is perceived as crucial in their potential teaching performance. Four statements (j, *A language teacher's strongest asset is fluency in the target language*, k, *A MFL teacher should never make linguistic mistakes in the classroom*, l, *The teacher is the main FL input for the learner*, m, *I need to look at language differently in order to teach it*) are directly concerned with teachers' SK and their use of the TL (as opposed to the *methodological* specifics in 6.6.3). Responses to item j) are very varied, as the standard deviation shows despite the fairly consistent means. Males and particularly native speakers are far more positive about this, however, but native speakers' agreement decreases substantially over the year. Both Oxford and Warwick student teachers tend towards disagreement, although this is not clear-cut, and relatively small numbers of student teachers agree with the statement throughout. Neither group appears able to decide on item k); responses are spread fairly evenly throughout the scale of response and the means clearly indicate indecision. Native speakers are, once more, more positive.

"The fear of getting something completely wrong and therefore checking and rechecking." (S1(W)97-8)

For item l), both cohorts show a slight tendency towards more agreement as the course progresses, although there remains some disagreement. Native speakers' and males' views again on this item differ in that they agree far more strongly with the statement as the year progresses.

Item m), however, finds general, strong agreement from both HEIs, which increases substantially throughout the course. The means for the whole population and all sub-groups are very similar, with males in particular growing in agreement. Essentially, this item is considering the transformation of SK (here, the TL) into something 'teachable' and 'learnable': the first step in PCK.

Table XXXI: Teachers' subject knowledge

Whole population:	S1 n=43	S2 n=38	S3 n=33	S4 n=36	S5 n=35	S6 n=35	S7 n=28	S8 n=27	S9 n=39	S10 n=19	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
j) A language teacher's strongest asset is fluency in the target language	2.78(1.01)	2.89(1.03)	2.79(0.86)	2.83(1.04)	2.91(1.04)	3.03(1.15)	2.93(1.05)	2.89(1.19)	2.69(0.95)	2.47(1.31)	-0.09	-0.22	2.82
k) A MFL teacher should never make linguistic mistakes in the classroom	3.05(1.05)	2.87(0.93)	3.07(0.87)	3.17(1.10)	3.46(0.89)	3.00(1.11)	3.32(1.02)	3.22(1.12)	3.13(1.13)	3.00(1.20)	+0.08	-0.13	3.13
l) The teacher is the main FL input for the learner	3.01(0.99)	3.05(1.04)	3.40(0.97)	3.23(0.94)	3.17(1.07)	3.57(0.95)	3.32(1.02)	3.33(1.04)	3.31(1.08)	3.26(1.05)	+0.30	-0.05	3.27
m) I need to look at language differently in order to teach it	4.28(0.73)	4.16(0.66)	4.52(0.57)	4.42(0.60)	4.37(0.60)	4.40(0.55)	4.46(0.69)	4.48(0.64)	4.49(0.60)	4.42(0.61)	+0.21	-0.07	4.40
Native Speakers:	S1 n=13	S2 n=11	S3 n=10	S4 n=9	S5 n=11	S6 n=9	S7 n=9	S8 n=9	S9 n=11	S10 n=4	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
j	3.62(0.77)	3.64(0.92)	3.13(1.13)	3.22(1.09)	3.36(1.03)	3.56(1.01)	3.44(1.01)	3.44(1.24)	3.36(1.03)	2.75(1.50)	-0.26	-0.61	3.35
k	3.23(1.17)	2.82(0.87)	2.75(0.89)	3.44(1.13)	3.82(0.75)	3.33(1.00)	3.89(1.05)	3.44(1.13)	3.64(1.03)	3.00(1.41)	+0.41	-0.64	3.34
l	2.77(0.93)	2.73(1.01)	3.25(1.04)	3.33(1.00)	2.91(1.04)	3.89(0.78)	3.33(1.12)	3.33(1.12)	3.18(1.08)	3.75(1.26)	+0.41	+0.57	3.25
m	4.23(0.73)	4.09(0.83)	4.40(0.52)	4.67(0.50)	4.36(0.50)	4.44(0.53)	4.56(0.53)	4.67(0.50)	4.55(0.52)	4.50(0.58)	+0.32	-0.05	4.45
Males:	S1 n=24	S2 n=27	S3 n=22	S4 n=21	S5 n=23	S6 n=21	S7 n=18	S8 n=18	S9 n=27	S10 n=15	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
j	3.43(1.40)	3.15(1.00)	2.86(1.21)	3.33(1.37)	3.43(1.27)	3.67(1.63)	2.60(1.52)	2.60(1.52)	2.64(1.03)	3.67(2.31)	-0.69	+1.03	3.14
k	3.00(1.00)	2.63(0.92)	2.86(0.90)	3.17(1.47)	3.57(1.13)	2.50(1.52)	3.40(1.52)	3.40(1.52)	2.91(1.30)	2.67(2.08)	-0.09	-0.24	3.01
l	2.43(0.53)	2.13(0.99)	3.14(1.35)	3.17(0.99)	3.57(1.27)	3.83(1.17)	3.14(1.00)	3.40(1.14)	3.64(1.03)	3.67(0.58)	+1.21	+0.03	3.21
m	4.13(0.83)	4.25(0.71)	4.57(0.53)	4.50(0.55)	4.43(0.53)	4.50(0.55)	4.80(0.45)	4.60(0.55)	4.18(0.98)	4.67(0.58)	+0.05	+0.49	4.46
Females:	S1 n=108	S2 n=100	S3 n=85	S4 n=96	S5 n=95	S6 n=97	S7 n=67	S8 n=80	S9 n=101	S10 n=62	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
j	2.65(0.88)	2.87(0.90)	2.77(0.75)	2.72(0.96)	2.79(0.96)	2.90(1.01)	3.00(0.95)	2.95(1.13)	2.72(0.89)	2.25(1.00)	+0.07	-0.47	2.76
k	3.06(1.07)	2.93(0.94)	3.13(0.87)	3.17(1.04)	3.43(0.84)	3.10(1.01)	3.30(0.93)	3.18(1.05)	3.19(1.03)	3.06(1.06)	+0.13	-0.13	3.16
l	3.24(1.02)	3.30(0.92)	3.48(0.85)	3.24(0.95)	3.07(1.02)	3.52(0.91)	3.39(0.94)	3.32(1.04)	3.22(1.07)	3.19(1.08)	-0.02	-0.03	3.30
m	4.31(0.72)	4.13(0.68)	4.50(0.58)	4.40(0.62)	4.36(0.62)	4.38(0.56)	4.39(0.72)	4.45(0.67)	4.44(0.62)	4.38(0.62)	+0.13	-0.06	4.37

Mean and Standard Deviation to two decimal places. 1 = disagree strongly. 5 = agree strongly. Changes of more than 0.5 are shaded

6.6.5: Linguistic accuracy

Grenfell (1998:56) found student teachers had established positions on issues such as fluency and accuracy from the start of the programme. Three statements (n, *Successful communication is as important as grammatical accuracy*, o, *Cultural awareness is as important as linguistic competence* and p, *All errors should be pointed out to learners*) are directly concerned with the relative importance of linguistic accuracy as a goal in language learning. Both cohorts are in general agreement with item n) (despite the grammatical tendencies displayed in 6.6.2). The change towards agreement amongst males is particularly worthy of mention. Culture is a mainstay of their methodological landscape, yet is hardly mentioned as a factor when describing influences on their teaching (Table XVIII, Chapter 5). They become more in agreement throughout the year, particularly for males. For item o), both groups show considerable fluctuation of response, but with general agreement. For the Warwick student teachers, this becomes very strong agreement towards the end of the course and for native speakers, the mean scores are slightly higher. Gay and Jones (2002:144) found the MFL student teachers they investigated saw language and culture as inextricably linked. The integration of culture into their teaching remains important, but the implications of this range from concerns about how to make the culture tangible in the classroom to their own feelings of inadequacy regarding cultural knowledge.

Responses are initially in general disagreement with item p) for both HEIs, and become much more so towards the end. This item is perhaps another element which can be considered part of their methodological landscape, albeit one which is rejected, particularly by males and native speakers, both of whom disagree with this statement increasingly over the course.

Table XXII: Importance of linguistic accuracy

Whole population:	S1 n=43	S2 n=38	S3 n=33	S4 n=36	S5 n=35	S6 n=35	S7 n=28	S8 n=27	S9 n=39	S10 n=19	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
n) Successful communication is as important as grammatical accuracy	4.12(0.88)	3.97(0.94)	3.97(0.98)	3.97(0.88)	3.94(0.94)	4.35(0.81)	4.11(0.73)	4.22(0.70)	4.08(0.96)	4.16(0.96)	-0.04	+0.08	4.09
o) Cultural awareness is as important as linguistic competence	3.95(0.82)	3.87(0.88)	3.67(0.92)	3.86(0.87)	3.77(0.84)	3.94(0.87)	3.93(0.86)	3.89(0.80)	3.92(0.74)	4.26(0.56)	-0.03	+0.34	3.91
p) All errors should be pointed out to learners	2.44(1.03)	2.11(0.86)	2.10(0.84)	1.97(0.79)	2.23(0.79)	2.37(0.91)	2.29(0.66)	2.26(0.86)	2.38(0.94)	2.05(0.85)	-0.06	-0.33	2.22

Native Speakers:	S1 n=13	S2 n=11	S3 n=10	S4 n=9	S5 n=11	S6 n=9	S7 n=9	S8 n=9	S9 n=11	S10 n=4	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
n	3.62(1.19)	4.00(1.00)	4.00(0.94)	4.00(1.32)	4.00(0.77)	4.25(1.16)	4.00(1.00)	4.22(0.67)	3.91(0.84)	3.50(1.73)	+0.29	-0.41	3.95
o	4.15(0.80)	4.09(0.83)	4.20(0.79)	4.33(0.71)	4.00(0.77)	4.22(0.67)	4.22(0.83)	4.33(0.50)	4.18(0.75)	4.25(0.50)	+0.03	+0.07	4.2
p	2.62(1.04)	2.00(0.63)	2.25(0.71)	2.22(0.67)	2.45(0.69)	2.67(0.71)	2.22(0.44)	2.56(0.88)	2.64(0.67)	2.00(0.00)	+0.02	-0.64	2.36

Males:	S1 n=24	S2 n=27	S3 n=22	S4 n=21	S5 n=23	S6 n=21	S7 n=18	S8 n=18	S9 n=27	S10 n=15	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
n	3.89(0.64)	4.38(0.52)	4.71(0.49)	4.67(0.52)	4.29(1.25)	5.00(0.00)	4.40(0.55)	4.40(0.55)	4.36(0.92)	4.67(0.58)	+0.47	+0.31	4.48
o	4.38(0.74)	4.38(0.74)	4.14(0.90)	4.33(0.82)	3.71(0.76)	3.83(1.17)	4.00(0.71)	4.00(0.00)	3.91(0.83)	4.33(0.58)	-0.47	+0.42	4.10
p	2.43(1.27)	2.25(0.46)	2.28(0.85)	2.17(0.98)	2.43(0.53)	1.83(0.75)	2.20(0.45)	2.40(0.88)	2.82(1.17)	1.33(0.58)	+0.39	-1.49	2.22

Females:	S1 n=109	S2 n=100	S3 n=85	S4 n=86	S5 n=85	S6 n=87	S7 n=87	S8 n=80	S9 n=101	S10 n=62	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
n	4.17(0.86)	3.87(1.00)	3.77(0.99)	3.83(0.87)	3.86(0.85)	4.21(0.83)	4.04(0.77)	4.18(0.73)	3.93(0.98)	4.06(1.00)	-0.24	+0.13	3.99
o	3.66(0.81)	3.73(0.87)	3.54(0.80)	3.77(0.86)	3.78(0.88)	3.97(0.82)	3.91(0.90)	3.86(0.89)	3.97(0.69)	4.25(0.58)	+0.11	+0.28	3.87
p	2.44(0.89)	2.07(0.94)	2.04(0.92)	1.93(0.75)	2.25(0.84)	2.48(0.91)	2.30(0.70)	2.22(0.87)	2.41(0.95)	2.19(0.83)	-0.03	-0.22	2.23

Mean and Standard Deviation to two decimal places. 1 = disagree strongly. 5 = agree strongly. Changes of more than 0.5 are shaded

6.6.6: The language learning process

A group of seven statements (q-x) are concerned with student teachers' views of the language learning process and how learners learn. Item q) *MFL lessons should build up the language little by little* resulted in complete and very consistent agreement from both groups throughout; males at the end are entirely in agreement. Despite not being mentioned in their pre-course undirected responses, this item could be seen as the mainstay of their methodological landscape. In contrast, item r) *It is best to have one particular method for teaching a language and stick to it* is received almost wholly negatively by each HEI, thus providing another element of the landscape, albeit again a rejection. Native speakers in particular grow to disagree with this item, yet males become less negative and finish with considerable confusion and range of opinion. Item s) *Communication strategies should be taught explicitly* receives a generally positive response from both groups with some indecision, with native speakers and particularly males becoming more in agreement. Item t) *Learners learn best when they are involved in choosing the topic and materials*, where learners are viewed as real participants in the learning process, finds general agreement from both groups of student teachers, although again there is some indecision.

The next four statements reveal student teachers' attitudes towards the learner. Both cohorts generally disagree with item u) *Some learners just don't have the aptitude to learn a foreign language*, although there is also indecision on the part of a number of respondents. The means show a tendency for greater agreement with this statement during the second teaching placement, when student teachers have a distinct focus in groups of pupils. When effort is considered, item v) *Learning a language is a matter of effort*, both groups agree that it is essential for language learning, and agreement increases over the year, although Warwick student teachers display more indecision than Oxford student teachers. For items w) *To learn a language, you must be able to take risks and make mistakes* and x) *Learners vary in the way they learn a language*, there is wholehearted agreement from both cohorts (found also by Sato and Klainsasser, 1999:505). Another two elements of the methodological landscape are established, evident also from the consistently high mean scores, particularly for males, and provide further exemplification of student teachers' generally strong concern for *impact* issues.

Table XXXIII: The language learning process

Whole population:	S1 n=43	S2 n=38	S3 n=33	S4 n=38	S5 n=35	S6 n=35	S7 n=28	S8 n=27	S9 n=39	S10 n=19	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
q) MFL lessons should build up the language little by little	4.38(0.49)	4.51(0.56)	4.38(0.55)	4.49(0.51)	4.35(0.50)	4.50(0.51)	4.48(0.58)	4.82(0.57)	4.53(0.56)	4.68(0.48)	+0.15	+0.15	4.49
r) It is best to have one particular method for teaching a language and stick to it	2.05(0.84)	2.13(0.81)	2.40(1.00)	2.20(0.90)	2.26(0.90)	2.21(1.07)	2.33(0.92)	2.12(0.95)	2.00(0.80)	1.95(0.91)	-0.05	-0.05	2.17
s) Communication strategies should be taught explicitly	3.74(0.86)	3.79(0.84)	3.79(0.86)	4.09(0.77)	4.06(0.78)	4.00(0.78)	4.00(0.78)	4.07(0.87)	4.00(0.84)	3.74(1.05)	+0.29	-0.29	3.93
t) Learners learn best when they are involved in choosing the topic and materials	3.17(0.83)	3.34(0.75)	3.27(0.72)	3.49(0.81)	3.57(0.81)	3.6(0.81)	3.54(0.99)	3.52(0.80)	3.56(0.91)	3.05(0.91)	+0.39	-0.51	3.41
u) Some learners just don't have the aptitude to learn a foreign language	2.44(0.96)	2.37(0.82)	2.91(0.98)	2.47(0.91)	2.57(0.81)	2.69(1.11)	2.89(0.79)	2.96(1.09)	2.79(1.22)	2.66(1.16)	+0.35	-0.11	2.67
v) Learning a language is a matter of effort	3.67(0.72)	3.82(0.83)	3.70(0.73)	3.67(0.99)	3.86(0.88)	3.80(0.99)	3.71(0.85)	3.96(0.94)	3.95(0.94)	4.05(0.97)	+0.28	+0.10	3.82
w) To learn a language, you must be able to take risks and make mistakes	4.63(0.54)	4.61(0.50)	4.67(0.48)	4.58(0.56)	4.60(0.55)	4.60(0.55)	4.61(0.50)	4.78(0.51)	4.72(0.46)	4.74(0.45)	+0.09	+0.02	4.66
x) Learners vary in the way they learn a language	4.53(0.59)	4.63(0.49)	4.45(0.51)	4.56(0.50)	4.51(0.56)	4.51(0.56)	4.57(0.50)	4.81(0.40)	4.64(0.49)	4.58(0.51)	+0.11	-0.06	4.58
Native Speakers:	S1 n=13	S2 n=11	S3 n=10	S4 n=9	S5 n=11	S6 n=9	S7 n=9	S8 n=9	S9 n=11	S10 n=4	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
q	4.31(0.48)	4.36(0.67)	4.40(0.52)	4.44(0.53)	4.27(0.47)	4.56(0.53)	4.67(0.50)	4.89(0.33)	4.64(0.50)	4.75(0.50)	+0.33	+0.11	4.53
r	2.46(0.78)	2.55(1.21)	3.00(1.51)	2.44(1.01)	2.82(1.17)	2.67(1.32)	2.89(1.05)	2.56(1.13)	2.27(1.01)	1.50(0.58)	-0.19	-0.77	2.52
s	3.92(0.90)	3.91(0.94)	4.00(1.07)	4.22(0.83)	4.50(0.53)	4.50(0.76)	4.33(1.12)	4.56(1.01)	4.36(1.03)	4.25(0.96)	+0.44	-0.11	4.23
t	3.67(0.89)	3.64(0.50)	3.60(0.70)	4.00(0.87)	4.00(1.00)	4.11(0.83)	4.00(1.12)	4.00(0.87)	4.00(1.00)	3.25(0.96)	+0.33	-0.75	3.83
u	2.54(1.20)	2.18(0.75)	2.90(1.10)	2.33(0.87)	2.36(0.67)	2.67(1.12)	3.22(0.83)	3.33(1.22)	2.73(1.27)	2.75(1.50)	+0.19	+0.02	2.70
v	3.92(0.51)	3.91(0.70)	4.00(0.47)	4.00(0.71)	4.00(0.89)	4.33(0.87)	4.00(0.87)	4.22(0.83)	4.27(0.60)	4.50(1.00)	+0.35	+0.33	4.12
w	4.77(0.44)	4.55(0.52)	4.50(0.53)	4.67(0.50)	4.73(0.47)	4.67(0.50)	4.67(0.50)	4.89(0.33)	4.82(0.40)	4.75(0.50)	+0.05	-0.07	4.70
x	4.46(0.66)	4.73(0.47)	4.40(0.52)	4.56(0.53)	4.55(0.52)	4.56(0.53)	4.78(0.44)	4.78(0.44)	4.82(0.40)	5.00(0.00)	+0.38	+0.18	4.86

Males	S1 n=24	S2 n=27	S3 n=22	S4 n=21	S5 n=23	S6 n=21	S7 n=18	S8 n=18	S9 n=27	S10 n=15	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
q	4.38(0.52)	4.50(0.76)	4.71(0.49)	4.50(0.55)	4.57(0.53)	4.50(0.55)	5.00(0.00)	4.80(0.45)	4.36(0.67)	5.00(0.00)	-0.02	+0.74	4.63
r	2.29(1.11)	2.13(1.36)	2.50(1.52)	3.00(1.26)	2.14(1.07)	2.17(1.33)	2.60(1.14)	2.20(1.10)	2.27(1.19)	3.00(1.73)	-0.02	+0.73	2.43
s	3.50(1.05)	4.00(0.93)	4.00(1.15)	4.67(0.52)	4.43(0.79)	4.17(0.75)	4.00(1.22)	3.80(1.30)	4.18(0.96)	4.33(0.58)	+0.68	+0.15	4.11
t	3.43(0.79)	3.38(0.74)	3.29(0.76)	3.83(0.98)	3.29(0.49)	3.67(0.52)	3.80(0.84)	3.80(0.84)	3.81(0.75)	3.33(1.15)	+0.38	-0.48	3.56
u	3.00(1.31)	2.50(0.76)	3.57(0.98)	2.33(1.21)	2.57(0.98)	2.67(1.37)	3.20(0.84)	3.40(1.14)	3.73(1.19)	3.00(2.00)	+0.73	-0.73	3.00
v	3.75(0.89)	4.00(0.76)	3.43(0.98)	3.17(1.60)	3.86(0.90)	3.67(1.21)	3.40(0.89)	3.40(1.14)	4.09(0.94)	4.00(1.73)	+0.34	-0.09	3.68
w	5.00(0.00)	4.88(0.35)	4.86(0.38)	4.67(0.52)	4.71(0.49)	4.83(0.41)	4.80(0.45)	4.80(0.45)	4.64(0.50)	5.00(0.00)	-0.36	+0.36	4.82
x	4.38(0.74)	4.75(0.46)	4.57(0.55)	4.50(0.55)	4.57(0.79)	4.67(0.82)	4.80(0.45)	4.80(0.45)	4.55(0.52)	5.00(0.00)	+0.17	+0.45	4.66

Females	S1 n=109	S2 n=100	S3 n=85	S4 n=96	S5 n=95	S6 n=97	S7 n=87	S8 n=80	S9 n=101	S10 n=62	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
q	4.37(0.49)	4.50(0.51)	4.27(0.53)	4.47(0.51)	4.29(0.60)	4.52(0.51)	4.39(0.58)	4.59(0.59)	4.53(0.57)	4.63(0.50)	+0.18	+0.10	4.46
r	2.00(0.78)	2.13(0.63)	2.35(0.88)	2.03(0.73)	2.30(0.87)	2.21(1.03)	2.27(0.88)	2.10(0.94)	1.97(0.69)	1.75(0.58)	-0.03	-0.18	2.11
s	3.78(0.83)	3.73(0.83)	3.73(0.77)	3.98(0.76)	3.98(0.76)	3.98(0.79)	4.00(0.69)	4.14(0.77)	4.00(0.76)	3.63(1.09)	+0.22	-0.37	3.87
t	3.12(0.84)	3.33(0.76)	3.27(0.72)	3.41(0.78)	3.64(0.87)	3.59(0.87)	3.48(1.04)	3.45(0.80)	3.44(0.91)	3.00(0.89)	+0.32	-0.44	3.37
u	2.31(0.83)	2.33(0.84)	2.73(0.92)	2.50(0.86)	2.57(0.79)	2.69(1.07)	2.83(0.78)	2.86(1.08)	2.66(1.15)	2.63(1.02)	+0.35	-0.03	2.61
v	3.65(0.69)	3.77(0.86)	3.77(0.65)	3.77(0.82)	3.86(0.89)	3.83(0.97)	3.78(0.85)	4.09(0.87)	3.94(0.91)	4.06(0.85)	+0.29	+0.12	3.85
w	4.56(0.56)	4.53(0.51)	4.61(0.50)	4.55(0.57)	4.57(0.57)	4.55(0.57)	4.57(0.51)	4.78(0.53)	4.69(0.47)	4.69(0.48)	+0.13	=	4.61
x	4.57(0.56)	4.60(0.50)	4.42(0.50)	4.57(0.50)	4.50(0.51)	4.48(0.51)	4.52(0.51)	4.82(0.39)	4.63(0.49)	4.50(0.52)	+0.06	-0.13	4.56

Mean and Standard Deviation to two decimal places. 1 = disagree strongly. 5 = agree strongly. Changes of more than 0.5 are shaded

6.6.7: MFL lessons and activities

The last theme (eight items, y-ff) considers what might make up language lessons and the process of creating the learning experiences. Seven items are included in this theme. Items y) *When planning a MFL lesson, you firstly need to concentrate on the topic area* and z) *MFL teachers must have access to a wide variety of resources and equipment* are concerned with planning and resourcing MFL lessons. Item y) finds general agreement in both groups of student teachers, although there is also a strong element of indecision. Unsurprisingly, item z) results in very strong agreement throughout from both groups and relates perhaps to their occasional view of resources as methodology.

Items aa) and bb) are viewed positively by both groups of student teachers, although some Warwick student teachers display indecision with aa) *Problem solving activities should be used in language learning*. Native speakers' and males' agreement grows considerably with this item. Item bb) *Authentic tasks are the best method of learning languages* is agreed with consistently, as indicated by the mean scores.

The purpose of MFL lessons is explored in item cc) *MFL lessons should equip a learner with the language needed for foreign travel*, and both groups are generally in agreement with the statement, although S10 scores indicate a sudden element of disagreement. It could be suggested that other priorities may have come to the fore. Both groups show strong agreement with dd) *There is a role in learning MFL for creativity and imagination*, thus perhaps showing clear awareness of the need for variety within lessons. Elements emerging from the sentence completion appear to confirm that a part of the methodological landscape is to include variety. This conjecture receives more evidence perhaps when item ee), *There is a role for rote learning in MFL*, is considered, an element contrasting with item dd), yet which also finds strong and increasing agreement in each HEI. The final item, ff) *Learners should feel under no pressure to speak in front of the class in a MFL lesson*, relates to spoken TL in class. Student teachers at both institutions respond across the range, with a great deal of indecision.

Table XXXIV: MFL lessons and activities

Whole population:	S1 n=43	S2 n=38	S3 n=33	S4 n=36	S5 n=35	S6 n=35	S7 n=28	S8 n=27	S9 n=39	S10 n=19	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
y) When planning a MFL lesson, you firstly need to concentrate on the topic area	3.52(0.80)	3.71(0.84)	3.79(0.78)	3.59(0.99)	3.74(0.92)	3.86(0.94)	3.64(0.99)	3.78(0.85)	3.76(0.79)	3.79(1.08)	+0.24	+0.03	3.72
z) MFL teachers must have access to a wide variety of resources and equipment	4.50(0.60)	4.34(0.71)	4.47(0.68)	4.54(0.66)	4.54(0.56)	4.54(0.56)	4.64(0.49)	4.56(0.64)	4.46(0.55)	4.47(0.77)	-0.04	+0.01	4.51
aa) Problem solving activities should be used in language learning	3.75(0.67)	3.99(0.69)	3.87(0.82)	4.06(0.73)	4.00(0.64)	4.15(0.66)	4.25(0.64)	4.52(0.51)	4.08(0.74)	4.16(0.90)	+0.33	+0.08	4.07
bb) Authentic tasks are the best method of learning languages	4.03(0.74)	3.88(0.65)	3.80(0.71)	3.91(0.74)	3.94(0.76)	4.17(0.71)	4.07(0.81)	4.15(0.86)	4.00(0.92)	4.00(0.88)	-0.03	=	4.00
cc) MFL lessons should equip a learner with the language needed for foreign travel	4.07(0.61)	4.05(0.52)	3.83(0.79)	4.03(0.66)	4.00(0.49)	3.98(0.79)	3.93(0.47)	4.04(0.59)	4.00(0.65)	2.47(1.31)	-0.07	-1.53	3.84
dd) There is a role in learning MFL for creativity and imagination	4.34(0.69)	4.41(0.60)	4.33(0.61)	4.66(0.48)	4.46(0.51)	4.48(0.51)	4.50(0.51)	4.67(0.48)	4.54(0.51)	4.53(0.61)	+0.20	-0.01	4.49
ee) There is a role for rote learning in MFL	3.56(0.55)	3.62(0.78)	3.83(0.53)	3.70(0.53)	3.85(0.67)	3.88(0.77)	3.89(0.75)	4.08(0.63)	3.97(0.72)	4.10(0.54)	+0.39	+0.13	3.85
ff) Learners should feel under no pressure to speak in front of the class in a MFL lesson	3.56(1.15)	3.84(0.82)	3.60(1.07)	4.03(0.66)	4.09(0.82)	3.97(0.79)	3.64(1.03)	3.78(1.12)	3.79(1.17)	3.89(1.20)	+0.23	+0.10	3.82

Native Speakers:	S1 n=13	S2 n=11	S3 n=10	S4 n=9	S5 n=11	S6 n=9	S7 n=9	S8 n=9	S9 n=11	S10 n=4	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
y	3.67(0.89)	4.00(0.63)	3.90(1.20)	3.88(0.99)	4.18(0.60)	4.22(0.83)	4.22(0.67)	4.00(0.50)	4.00(0.77)	3.75(0.50)	+0.33	-0.25	3.98
z	4.54(0.78)	4.45(0.52)	4.63(0.52)	4.89(0.33)	4.73(0.47)	4.78(0.44)	4.89(0.33)	4.78(0.44)	4.82(0.40)	4.50(0.58)	+0.28	-0.32	4.70
aa	3.69(0.75)	4.00(0.89)	3.63(1.06)	4.11(0.78)	4.18(0.60)	4.44(0.73)	4.67(0.50)	4.78(0.44)	4.27(0.79)	4.50(0.58)	+0.58	+0.23	4.23
bb	4.64(0.50)	4.36(0.50)	4.50(0.53)	4.56(0.53)	4.36(0.67)	4.67(0.50)	4.67(0.50)	4.56(0.73)	4.36(0.81)	4.75(0.50)	-0.28	+0.39	4.53
cc	4.00(0.71)	4.00(0.63)	4.00(0.58)	4.00(0.50)	4.20(0.42)	4.11(0.60)	4.11(0.60)	4.33(0.50)	4.09(0.83)	2.75(1.50)	+0.09	-1.34	3.96
dd	4.54(0.66)	4.40(0.52)	4.38(0.74)	4.78(0.44)	4.55(0.52)	4.67(0.50)	4.67(0.50)	4.78(0.44)	4.55(0.52)	4.75(0.50)	+0.01	+0.20	4.61
ee	3.55(0.52)	3.40(1.17)	3.89(0.33)	3.44(0.53)	4.10(0.57)	4.22(0.83)	3.78(1.20)	4.44(0.53)	4.18(0.60)	4.25(0.50)	+0.63	+0.07	3.93
ff	4.50(0.67)	4.36(0.50)	4.50(0.76)	4.00(0.50)	4.45(0.93)	4.11(0.60)	4.33(0.87)	4.67(0.71)	4.73(0.47)	4.75(0.50)	+0.23	+0.02	4.44

Males:	S1 n=24	S2 n=27	S3 n=22	S4 n=21	S5 n=23	S6 n=21	S7 n=18	S8 n=18	S9 n=27	S10 n=15	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
y	3.71(0.95)	4.37(0.52)	3.86(0.68)	4.17(0.75)	4.14(0.69)	4.50(0.55)	4.00(0.71)	4.00(0.70)	4.00(0.77)	5.00(0.00)	+0.29	+1.00	4.18
z	5.00(0.00)	4.75(0.46)	4.71(0.49)	4.83(0.41)	4.71(0.49)	4.83(0.41)	4.60(0.55)	4.60(0.55)	4.45(0.69)	5.00(0.00)	-0.55	+0.45	4.75
aa	4.14(0.69)	4.13(0.83)	4.14(0.90)	4.67(0.52)	4.29(0.49)	4.50(0.55)	4.40(0.55)	4.40(0.55)	4.45(0.69)	5.00(0.00)	+0.31	+0.45	4.41
bb	4.33(0.82)	4.38(0.52)	4.14(0.38)	4.33(0.52)	4.00(0.82)	4.67(0.52)	4.40(0.55)	4.20(0.45)	4.09(0.54)	4.33(0.58)	-0.21	+0.24	4.29
cc	4.00(0.58)	4.00(0.76)	4.14(0.69)	4.17(0.75)	4.14(0.38)	4.33(0.52)	4.00(0.00)	4.20(0.45)	4.00(0.77)	4.00(1.00)	=	=	4.10
dd	4.71(0.48)	4.63(0.52)	4.33(0.82)	4.83(0.41)	4.57(0.53)	4.67(0.52)	4.60(0.55)	4.40(0.55)	4.54(0.52)	5.00(0.00)	-0.17	+0.46	4.63
ee	3.33(0.52)	3.00(1.07)	3.71(0.48)	3.33(0.52)	3.67(0.82)	3.67(0.82)	3.40(1.34)	4.20(0.45)	4.09(0.54)	4.00(1.00)	+0.76	-0.09	3.64
ff	4.17(1.17)	4.25(0.71)	3.57(1.40)	4.67(0.52)	4.43(0.53)	4.50(0.55)	4.60(0.55)	4.40(0.55)	4.27(0.79)	5.00(0.00)	+0.01	+0.73	4.39

Females:	S1 n=109	S2 n=100	S3 n=85	S4 n=96	S5 n=95	S6 n=97	S7 n=87	S8 n=80	S9 n=101	S10 n=62	Change S1-S9	Change S9-S10	Overall mean
y	3.49(0.78)	3.53(0.82)	3.77(0.82)	3.46(1.00)	3.64(0.95)	3.72(0.96)	3.57(1.04)	3.73(0.88)	3.65(0.80)	3.57(1.03)	+0.16	-0.08	3.61
z	4.42(0.67)	4.23(0.73)	4.39(0.72)	4.48(0.69)	4.50(0.58)	4.48(0.57)	4.65(0.49)	4.55(0.67)	4.44(0.56)	4.38(0.81)	+0.02	-0.06	4.45
aa	3.67(0.65)	3.83(0.65)	3.78(0.80)	3.93(0.70)	3.93(0.66)	4.07(0.66)	4.22(0.67)	4.55(0.51)	3.94(0.72)	4.00(0.89)	+0.27	+0.06	4.00
bb	3.97(0.73)	3.77(0.63)	3.70(0.76)	3.83(0.76)	3.93(0.77)	4.07(0.70)	4.00(0.65)	4.14(0.94)	3.97(0.87)	3.94(0.93)	=	-0.03	3.93
cc	4.09(0.82)	4.07(0.45)	3.74(0.81)	4.00(0.65)	3.96(0.52)	3.90(0.82)	3.91(0.51)	4.00(0.62)	3.94(0.62)	2.25(1.00)	-0.15	-1.69	3.79
dd	4.26(0.71)	4.34(0.61)	4.35(0.57)	4.62(0.49)	4.43(0.50)	4.45(0.51)	4.48(0.51)	4.73(0.46)	4.50(0.51)	4.44(0.63)	+0.24	-0.06	4.46
ee	3.63(0.55)	3.61(0.57)	3.87(0.55)	3.78(0.51)	3.89(0.64)	3.93(0.77)	4.00(0.53)	4.05(0.67)	3.94(0.73)	4.07(0.46)	+0.31	+0.13	3.90
ff	3.47(1.13)	3.73(0.83)	3.61(0.99)	4.00(0.65)	4.00(0.86)	3.90(0.82)	3.43(0.99)	3.64(1.18)	3.59(1.19)	3.69(1.20)	+0.12	+0.10	3.71

Mean and Standard Deviation to two decimal places. 1 = disagree strongly. 5 = agree strongly. 5 = agree strongly. Changes of more than 0.5 are shaded

6.7: Methodological conflict

Student teachers encounter a variety of influences and perspectives in their training, some of which lead to mixed methodological messages (Grenfell, 1998:123; Joram and Gabriele, 1998:187). Findings in the literature also point to the potential of methodological conflict between beginning teachers from different cultural backgrounds and the HEI (Freeman, 2002:10). These influences are crucial in considering any change in beliefs and attitudes, which may in some part be due to subjective norms represented by tutors or teachers (Kennedy and Kennedy, 1996:355). Student teachers could adopt an approach to fit that of their supervisors, albeit against their own beliefs, and where they attempt to divert from the accepted school-based model, difficulties and conflicts are encountered (Gwyn-Paquette and Tochon, 2002).

☛ I've got this feeling you've got to be perfect. All this theory's been thrown at us. We've got to implement all this. Actually when you see some teachers performing they don't do any of these things. (V2/96-7)

"Learning how not to teach from observations! A bit concerned about how I can do my own thing without offending current teacher(s)." (S2(W)98-9)

"My HoD's teaching philosophy (essentially very pragmatic/generally in favour of NC and communicative methodology/sceptical of the value of teaching in the TL as much as I would like to sometimes!)." (S10(W)96-7)

☛ It's difficult as you feel you go against the mentor. I've talked to my mentor but she's said 'Try if you want, but it's not going to work'. They don't do many games because otherwise they're all over the place, I feel if I say I want to try it anyway, I may go against her. (V2/96-7)

As seen in this chapter, grammar and TL are sources of methodological debate, confusion and discussion throughout training and beyond. They are the methodological areas where most 'conflict', albeit subdued, is to be found between the various participants in the MFL ITE context. Where school, HEI and an individual student teacher disagree or even come into conflict about methodological approach, this can be very damaging to the process of learning to teach. Many instances of this from the data in the present study are prefaced by expressions such as 'muddled', 'bemused' or 'down'. Mixed (especially entrenched) messages appear to be dangerous for developing teachers' conceptual growth and confidence.

The sources of conflict include:

- a dearth of positive methodological role models (or perception thereof);
- a tension between the student teacher's methodological landscape and that of the school or HEI or both;
- a feeling of frustration when confronted with teachers' reluctance to try particular methodological approaches or allow the student teacher to do so.

Even at an early stage, some responses indicate concerns about potential methodological conflict:

"A bit apprehensive and very unsure about my school. I don't feel as though I will get a lot of support from my school mentor, as he and the others have very different ways of teaching to those we have been shown and would like to use. I worry that they will think I am naive and idealistic, as they are rather apathetic and 'you can try it but it'll never work'." (S1(W)97-8)

In this context, there is a clear pattern of recognition of the benefits of the HEI course.

☞ And also you can assess whether your original idea is going to be any good or not. I think it's going to be really interesting for when you get into your school. You're going to have a load of conflicting views of 'Don't teach like this' 'You should teach like this' (V1/97-8)

☞ if you hadn't done [the course], you'd go into school and you'd be so easily influenced by the teachers (*general agreement*) and at least now we've got some conviction, 'cos we've had things presented to us that are good or we presume are good, so you can somehow do what you do and believe in it whereas, to have been a graduate and to have started teaching I think you'd have been kind of led into more old-fashioned ways, about 'don't try that'. (V4/96-7)

Later on in the year this perception develops into an acknowledgement of the undesired effect on the student teacher's own teaching:

"In some lessons I feel the need to try and teach the way *that they teach*." (S7(W)97-8)

For some, this conflict has led to an apparently opportunist approach, where the course has not resulted in any feeling of a widely applicable approach or methodology, but an approach which has to be altered depending on each context:

"Need to reconsider approach, methodology etc. in order to fit in with new school." (S9(W)97-8)

In some cases, the need to please school and university-based staff is quite demoralising:

"For each lesson I am trying to teach in the way that teacher expects so that they are happy and do not give me too much negative criticism." (S4(Ox)97-8)

The conflicts do not end when they are qualified teachers. Working as NQTs, some feel methodologically alone; and for some, it is a difficult struggle already to teach the way they would like (identified also by Crookes, 1997:68).

"A bit alienated from 'modern teaching methods' now I'm no longer at Warwick and concerned that my methods may slip." (S10(W)96-7)

"Desperate attempts to continue using the techniques taught on the PGCE course, whilst lowering all standards - time restraints. Trying to work out what others in dept. are teaching and 'borrowing' ideas /resources." (S10(W)96-7)

6.8: Conclusion

Dominant themes in beginning teachers' SK development include the refreshment of both FL1 and FL2, and more specifically familiarisation with the TL as classroom construct. Confidence in both FL1 and FL2 grows over the year. It is also clear from the discussion in this chapter that there is definite change in perceptions of methodology through the programme. This change, however, occurs not in their basic beliefs and attitudes towards language and FLT, which remain almost entirely stable, but in their perceptions of specific MFL methodology.

It would appear that debate and input on those areas regarded with indecision in the landscape should be confronted and problematised from the start. Although no doubt a truism to readers of this study, it is clear from the data that student teachers need the opportunity to put methodological ideas and suppositions into practice in a supportive, constructive environment. One of the student teachers' methodological landmarks is the need to take risks to learn languages. It is undoubtedly also the case for learning-to-teach languages.

☛ You don't want to mess up their classes, but you're also there to try out things for yourself. Because you'll always be wondering will games work? And you almost like get embedded 'games don't work'. (V2/96-7)

Chapter 7: Conclusions and implications

☛ it is strange though, the course, because depending on who you've met along the way, it's moulded you hasn't it, people have had different experiences, I'd hate to think what would have happened if I hadn't had a good mentor (V6/97-8)

At the start of their ITE, the student teachers in this study are passionate about foreign languages. As NQTs, this passion remains undimmed; at no point is there any evidence of enthusiasm for their *languages* diminishing. Their love of the subject has, however, generally been supplemented during the intervening months by increased confidence in their linguistic ability for teaching and an understanding of themselves as teachers of MFL. Passion as a prime focus evolves into concern with their own linguistic accuracy and understanding, although the passion is retained. Stability of attitudes towards the language, their motivations and some fundamental areas of language teaching is clear. However, change and growth in their perceptions of their methodological landscape are also manifested. The overall landscape emerges from a tentative, less specific version held on entry to the course, based primarily on their own experiences as language learners. Beginning teachers' enthusiasm for languages has developed from a wish to make languages 'fun' to a desire in the overall landscape to help pupils learn, an aspect apparent from the start but which is refined and which grows in its emphasis; characteristic of the process of learning-to-teach. The most controversial points in both their initial and developing methodological landscapes are those equally debated in the wider MFL community, namely the teaching of grammar and the use of TL. An incipient, tentative and partial understanding of CLT becomes more informed and specific as the year progresses, but nevertheless remains hazy and insecure in some areas. Substantial changes in attitudes and beliefs arise during and after student teachers have themselves experienced classroom MFL teaching, but are not confined to their teaching placements. Methodological understandings also develop during HEI-based work, where they often take the form of contradictions of their pre-course beliefs or experiences.

Guyton and McIntyre (1990:522) refer to the 'triad' involved in beginning teacher development: the student teacher, the co-operating teacher and the college supervisor. Wideen et al (1998)

extend this, and stress that ideally, support for the development of personal teaching and learning theories should stem from peers, school-based teachers, university tutors: they should also be represented in an integrated way through school experience and academic assignments. It is evident from this study that whilst all these influences play a vital role in the formation of pedagogical understandings and methodological landscapes of MFL student teachers, further factors are also significant. These include, of course, the effects of prior experiences and beliefs. Although some overall trends and patterns are detectable, the student teachers in this study respond to their course in very different ways as a result of both *pre-course* and *on-course* experiences, role models and contexts; generally identifiable stages or phases cannot be isolated. They learn and develop both in their HEI and during teaching placement and draw on the influences of a range of people as well as their own store of experiences. For some students, the on-course effects are not always as positive or constructive an experience as the beginning teachers would wish. Negative aspects stem from perceptions of work overload and exhaustion, as well as feelings of inadequacy in the fulfilment of their role as MFL teacher. Methodological conflict can also act as a strain. The primacy of 'real' teaching in their perceptions is evident, although with an acknowledgement of the necessity of an accompanying theoretical framework.

During the course, student teachers' confidence grows in all areas, including pedagogical issues and linguistic competence. Evidence in the data, however, shows clear changes occurring between the end of the ITE course and the time by which student teachers have assumed their posts as NQTs. Then, the realisation of the true nature of the demands of teaching dawns. The current findings make it plain that even these highly talented and committed linguists still experience panic, stress and worry beyond their ITE course, even in those areas where it is perhaps commonly assumed they 'should' be confident, such as their TL competence. Since this work began in 1996, the ecology of ITE has altered substantially, for example with increased emphasis on more diverse routes into teaching such as flexible courses and graduate and registered teacher programmes. The beginning teachers in the current study benefited from (and valued) their structured programme. It would be interesting in the light of this to investigate the experiences of beginning teachers following alternative ITE routes.

Implications

Methodologically, the research approaches adopted in this study have been successful in addressing the original aim, to uncover the experience of becoming an MFL teacher from a wide perspective. This study has, quite unusually for studies of teacher development, looked at a large data set and has deployed both quantitative and qualitative methodologies, thus extending and complementing the field in a distinctive way. Quantitative techniques of both collection and analysis have been combined with qualitative, very open, narrative responses on both the surveys and the discussions on video, enabling a rich and broad analysis. In contrast to studies focussing on small groups or individual beginning teachers, the methods employed in this study enabled group trends over time to be identified and allowed some sub-group comparisons to be made, specifically for gender and native speaker status. Such an approach, however, cannot represent the detailed richness and complexity of an individual's developing methodological understandings, nor can it probe the reasons for the particular development in attitudes in any depth. This study, however, on its comparatively large-scale, has added significantly to what is known about the subject-specific developing experiences and attitudes of MFL beginning teachers as they learn-to-teach.

Although a number of general trends can be identified, there is no evidence in this study for discrete or sequential stages of development. It has, however, clearly demonstrated both stability *and* change in MFL beginning teachers' perceived experience and beliefs they express, within the scope of the research design and the instruments selected. There will inevitably be further changes (or more evidence of stability in attitude) which have not been detected by the work presented here. This research has, however, pointed towards those areas worthy of further study and has, I believe, contributed substantially to an understudied area. It has provided useful material on which to base future research, targeted perhaps solely on the development and understanding of specific methodological aspects. It is important now, for example, to look carefully at detailed *understandings* of CLT, rather than the *indications* of this emerging from this study. Fundamental to the methodological landscape emerging from this study is the necessity now to investigate *why* student teachers (and the MFL community more widely) appear to find

CLT vague and problematic. It is also apparent that the debate around the definition and realisation of subject knowledge in MFL merits considerable study. Understanding exactly what composes subject knowledge in this distinctive and multi-dimensional subject would certainly make a valuable contribution to the arenas of ITE and MFL methodology. Within this is the role of subject knowledge in teachers' FL2: an aspect gaining in importance in the light of changes in the MFL curriculum. The distinct growth of more negative perceptions evident in some of the data from respondents as NQTs also merits further research; longer-term (and subject-specific) tracking of new teachers' subsequent progress would be very valuable. It is also clear that as this study has investigated beginning teachers' *perceptions* of the learning-to-teach experience and their avowed opinions on methodology, and not the *realisation* of those beliefs in their practice, this is certainly an area worthy of further investigation.

There are some practical implications for professional practice from this study. Those responsible for planning ITE courses need to ensure that the workload and organisation of student teachers is manageable. As is acknowledged by all involved in ITE, care must be taken of the 'idealism' and enthusiasm of the beginning teachers of MFL. They are eager to succeed, but are simultaneously vulnerable, as indicated, for example by their 'future-wishing'. Their search for recipes as short-cut (and perhaps short-term) solutions to their developmental difficulties could also be more explicitly addressed perhaps. For the longer term retention of student teachers, it is also crucial that careful tutoring and mentoring is available during placement, when decisions appear to be most frequently reached. This applies equally to continued methodological support in their posts as newly qualified teachers; a period when, by their own admission, student teachers in this study feel they 'lapse' from the apparently solid framework built up during ITE. This approach depends at least to some extent on an increased understanding of MFL methodology in the wider MFL teaching and learning community.

Areas of confusion on the beginning teachers' methodological landscape could perhaps be problematised during ITE, with both mentors and student teachers. Some areas, TL and grammar, could form a thread throughout, exploring and potentially justifying what is good practice. Where there is methodological ambivalence, these areas too could perhaps be

prioritised. Other areas, which are more easily accommodated, can be given less time. It may also be the case that these aspects of methodology are still insufficiently understood by the MFL community of practice.

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Appendix 1: Example of Applicant Questionnaire

**MODERN LANGUAGES
PGCE 2002-3 COURSE**

UNIVERSITY OF WARWICK

As you know, you have applied for and been accepted on the course at the University of Warwick to take a PGCE in Modern Languages, starting in September.

I would appreciate it if you could take some time to fill in this questionnaire on your expectations about the course. This exercise is to help you reflect on the decision you have made and also to provide information and research data to shape the course and its content.

- 1) What made you apply to the University of Warwick to take your PGCE?
(Please tick as many as apply)

Friends have recommended the course

It's a University with an excellent reputation

I needed somewhere local to study

The prospectus described the type of course I wanted

I liked the fact the Language Centre was involved

I came to a taster day and was impressed

Other(s) (please describe)

- 2) Could you briefly outline why you want to teach languages. Please tick as many as apply, and add any comments you wish.

I want others to enjoy languages as much as I do

This country needs people to learn languages

I want to pass on my knowledge to others

It is important for pupils to appreciate other cultures

I want a job where I can use my language(s)

Languages are exciting to teach as they involve real communication

I want to be able to inspire pupils to learn languages

Teaching languages will enable me to use my abilities (for example to be creative)

Teaching languages will be challenging but rewarding

I feel at home in an educational environment

I already have experience in teaching and feel it is the right job for me

Other (please describe)

3) State which languages you have studied or acquired in your life so far. (Include languages started and abandoned, languages in which you are fluent, languages that you are currently learning etc.).

4) Think back to the process of teaching and/or learning you underwent (formal and informal contexts). Try to identify the most significant influences on your success or failure; for example what you enjoyed or disliked during the learning process.

5) Briefly describe what you consider will be the significance of these learning experiences on you as a teacher of language(s).

- 6) Why do you think you will be a good foreign language teacher? Please describe briefly.
- 7) What sort of processes do you think will help you learn to be a good foreign language teacher?
- 8) Which aspects are you most looking forward to in the course? (Please mention 3 at most).
- 9) Which aspects are you most worried about? (Please mention 3 at most).
- 10) Which group(s) of people do you expect to rely on most next year with regard to your teaching? (Please put in order with the numbers 1-5, with 1 being the people/person you will most rely on.)
- Your fellow students
 - Your University tutors (subject)
 - Your University tutors (core)
 - Your School Subject Mentor
 - Your School Professional Mentor

What expectations do you have of these people?

11) How well prepared do you think you are for next year in the following areas:

Very prepared reasonably not very

Linguistically
(main FL)

Knowledge of how
the course works

Knowing what is
expected of you

Knowing what a
school is like

Comments:

12) Are you going to do or have you done anything specific to help you prepare for the course?

If so, could you please describe this briefly.

13) Please complete the following sentences:

At the moment I am feeling

I think next year will be

14) Please read the following three descriptions of foreign language teachers. When you have read them, award each one a mark from 1 to 10, according to the extent it describes your *intention* as an MFL teacher; i.e. the teacher you intend to become.

- 10 marks = you intend to be like this most of the time to
- 1 mark = you never intend to be like this.

Adapted from Carré, 1993:32

Teacher A:

MFL is all about communication and learning through using the language. Pupils should 'discover' the language through real tasks and develop the skills to work independently. I refrain from talking 'about' language to them as I would rather they used language to communicate, however many so-called mistakes they make. I think as much of the target language as possible should be used in the classroom. Pupils learn best when they are actively involved, but the teacher needs to direct this.

Marks /10

Teacher B:

Learning languages involves coming to grips with rules, structures and patterns which need to be clear and understandable to users. Pupils can then create language from these rules. I think using correct grammatical terminology is vital. Without a secure knowledge of the rules, real learning cannot take place. I believe English should be used when explaining these rules, to ensure everyone understands. Quite a lot of time is wasted in language lessons when pupils are involved in group and pair work.

Marks /10

Teacher C:

Languages should be taught and learnt by using what pupils already know about language in general and by working together in pairs and groups to explore the new language. The target language should be seen as a means of increasing pupils' own communication skills and broadening their cultural and social experiences.

Marks /10

Comments:

Thank you very much for your time. I look forward to seeing you again in September!

Please return to:

Ann Barnes, Lecturer in Foreign Languages (Teacher Education)
Institute of Education, University of Warwick
Coventry, CV4 7AL

or, bring the questionnaire with you for the introductory session. Thank you!

Appendix 2: Example of Snapshot Questionnaire

Your progress on the PGCE (MFL) course

1998-9

1. How do you react to the following statements at this stage in the course?

Please put a tick for each sentence according to the following:

Agree strongly 1	Agree 2	Neither agree nor disagree 3	Disagree 4	Disagree strongly 5
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	1	2	3	4	5
I want others to enjoy languages as much as I do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
This country needs people to learn languages	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teaching enables me to pass on my knowledge to others	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is important for pupils to appreciate other cultures	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I can use my language(s) in teaching	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Languages are exciting to teach as they involve real communication	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I want to be able to inspire pupils to learn languages	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teaching enables me to use my abilities (for example to be creative)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teaching languages is challenging but rewarding	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel at home in an educational environment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel teaching is the right job for me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel teaching lets me 'put something back'	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teaching is enjoyable	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Agree strongly 1	Agree 2	Neither agree nor disagree 3	Disagree 4	Disagree strongly 5
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	1	2	3	4	5
I need to look at language differently in order to teach it	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cultural awareness is as important as linguistic competence	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When planning a MFL lesson, you firstly need to concentrate on the topic area	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Grammar rules should be taught in English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Learners learn best when they are involved in choosing the topic and materials	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Grammar should be dealt with in the target language	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Some learners just don't have the aptitude to learn a foreign language	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
MFL lessons should build up the language little by little	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Learners should be exposed to language before being presented with a rule	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Learners vary in the way they learn a language	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
100% target language should be used in the classroom	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Learning a language is a matter of effort	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
English is a legitimate means of communication in a modern languages classroom	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Agree strongly	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Disagree strongly
1	2	3	4	5

	1	2	3	4	5
There is a logical order of grammatical structures which should be taught	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
There is a role for rote learning in MFL	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
MFL learners should have a good grasp of grammar in their own language	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Successful communication is as important as grammatical accuracy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To learn a language, you must be able to take risks and make mistakes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Communication strategies should be taught explicitly	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
All errors should be pointed out to learners	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The teacher is the main FL input for the learner	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
MFL teachers must have access to a wide variety of resources and equipment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Problem solving activities should be used in language learning	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
There is a role in learning MFL for creativity and imagination	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Learners should feel under no pressure to speak in front of the class in a MFL lesson	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Agree strongly 1	Agree 2	Neither agree nor disagree 3	Disagree 4	Disagree strongly 5
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	1	2	3	4	5
MFL lessons should equip a learner with the language needed for foreign travel	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A language teacher's strongest asset is fluency in the target language	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pupils should use correct grammatical terminology	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Authentic tasks are the best method of learning languages	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is best to have one particular method for teaching a language and stick to it	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Learners will absorb grammatical rules without explicit explanation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A MFL teacher should never make linguistic mistakes in the classroom	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. How confident do you feel about your abilities according to the following list at this stage in the course? (Please put a tick for each)

	Very confident	Confident	Not very	Not at all confident
My patience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My determination	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My time management	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My linguistic ability	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My presentation skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My planning	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My lesson ideas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My knowledge and understanding of language teaching	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My enthusiasm	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My teaching ability	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My understanding of pupils	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My sense of humour	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My success in the classroom	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My professional relationships	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. Which 3 aspects of the course are you enjoying most at this stage in the course? (Please tick only 3)

- Using the Language Centre
- Being in school(s)
- Contact with others
- Developing ideas and materials
- Developing my teaching abilities
- Contact with pupils
- Learning new things
- Using my languages
- Observing others teach
- Gaining and sharing ideas
- Receiving constructive criticism
- Using IT
- Being in control
- The variety of experience
- Preparing lessons
- Administration/record keeping
- Being the teacher
- Other(s) (please specify)

4. Which 3 aspects are causing you most concern at this stage in the course?
(Please tick only 3)

- Using the Language Centre
- Being in school
- Contact with others
- Developing ideas and materials
- Developing my teaching abilities
- Contact with pupils
- Learning new things
- Using my languages
- Observing others teach
- Gaining and sharing ideas
- Receiving constructive criticism
- Using IT
- Being in control
- The variety of experience
- Preparing lessons
- Administration/record keeping
- Being the teacher
- Other(s) (please specify)

5. Which group(s) of people do you feel you are relying on most at this stage in the course with regard to your teaching? (Please put in order with the numbers 1-5, with 1 being the people/person you are most relying on.)

- a Your fellow students
- b Your University tutors (subject)
- c Your University tutors (core)
- d Your School Subject Mentor
- e Your School Professional Mentor

6. How confident do you feel at this stage in the course in the following areas:

	Very confident	reasonably	not very
Linguistically (main FL)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Knowledge of how the course works	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Knowing what is expected of you	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Knowing what a school is like	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Comments:

7. Please complete the following sentences:

At the moment I am feeling

What I would really like at the moment is/are

The factors most influencing my teaching now are

8 Please list any language item/grammatical structure/rule which you have learnt or understood better as a result of your teaching or lessons you have observed. Try to explain if possible how this came about and what you felt about it.

Thank you very much for your time