

THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE JAPANESE LANGUAGE PROGRAM  
AT MACQUARIE PRIMARY SCHOOL: AN EVALUATION

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## ABSTRACT

The need for an increase in the learning of foreign languages in primary schools in Australia was noted by the Senate Standing Committee on Education and the Arts (Report on a National Language Policy, 1984, Recommendation 78, p230). The introduction of the Japanese language program at Macquarie Primary School, ACT, in 1984, was a response to this need, combined with the expressed wish of the local community. Within this program it was decided that an unpublished curriculum developed and used in the ACT by a native speaker of Japanese, would be trialled.

The purpose of this study, within a Master of Education degree, was to evaluate Book 1 of this curriculum, and the process by which it was implemented at the school, during the first year of operation of the program. The framework around which the evaluation was organised was Sanders and Cunningham's (1973) Structure for Formative Evaluation in Product Development.

The evaluation sought to answer five questions which focussed on the validity, appropriateness and consistency of the broad goals of the program, and the extent of achievement of those goals by the students; the effect of the implementation of the program on school organisation; unexpected outcomes of the program; and revisions and modifications which were necessary to the program as the curriculum was trialled. A number of data gathering techniques was used to obtain the information required to answer these questions.

The results of this study suggest that the curriculum being trialled was based on an eclectic approach to the teaching of a foreign language (Prator, 1980; Bell, 1981), selecting from various theories and methodologies, components deemed appropriate for primary age students in their first year of Japanese.

The study also provided evidence that, after one year's participation in the Japanese program all children were, to an extent, achieving both broad goals of the program. There was some evidence however, that achievement of the goals was mediated by several learner characteristics, the most influential of these falling into the broad category of 'attitude'. It was discovered also, that the introduction of such a program into an already crowded school curriculum affected aspects of organisation within the school, and that all the outcomes of the program were not necessarily planned, or expected. Finally, certain changes, both organisational and to the curriculum, were made and implemented during the 'formative interim evaluation' stage.

The conclusions of this thesis are offered at two levels: conclusions concerning the evaluation process itself, and those arising from the teaching of Japanese to primary age students.

## CHAPTER 1

## FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

1. The Need for Foreign Language Study in Australian Primary Schools.

The learning of languages at primary school level should be substantially increased to give more children the opportunity to maintain their home languages or to acquire other languages.

(Report on a National Language Policy, 1984. Recommendation 78, p230).

This recommendation was one of twenty concerning the teaching of languages other than English in Australia, listed in the Senate Standing Committee on Education and the Arts (SSCEA) report 'A National Language Policy' (1984). The recommendations set down guidelines for teacher training and professional development, development of resources, and funding of language programs across primary, secondary and tertiary levels.

The need for foreign language study had become evident in the 1970s (A National Language Policy, 1984), when the concept of Australia as a multi-cultural society began to be actively promoted and to be reflected in school curricula. In 1978 the report of the Review of Post-arrival Programs and Services for Migrants (The Galbally Report) had stated:

Our schools and school systems should be encouraged to develop more rapidly various initiatives aimed at improving the understanding of the different histories, cultures, languages and attitudes of those who make up our society.

(Migrant Services and Programs, 1978:106).

During this period the foreign languages taught, both in the wider community and in schools, began to be more representative of the languages spoken by community groups.

### 1.1 Multicultural Programs and Language Teaching

By the 1980s in accord with government policies, the Commonwealth Schools Commission was administering funds for the development of multicultural programs in schools throughout Australia. In the Australian Capital Territory, the Multicultural Education Advisory Committee (MEAC) had been established to administer government funds.

This committee recognised that

education systems throughout the world... are now giving a new priority to teaching languages in their schools at all levels [and that] the major benefit [of language learning] is undoubtedly the insight to be gained into another culture and way of life, and hence the realisation that Australians also embody many different cultures

(MEAC - pamphlet : [198\_]).

#### 1.1.2 Languages of International Significance

In May 1982, while recognising the importance of programs relating to multiculturalism, the Department of Education and Youth Affairs (DEYA) stressed that other aspects of language policy, such as the language needs of trade, international relations and defence, should also be considered (Report on a National Language Policy, 1984). A similar point was also made by the Commonwealth Schools Commission (1985).



### 1.1.3 Asian Languages

The Asian Studies Association, in its submission to the SSCEA stressed that, because of Australia's close relations with Asian countries,

It is important... that the emphasis given to "ethnic" - mainly European - languages... should not obscure or pre-empt the need for the promotion of Asian languages  
(Report on a National Language Policy, 1984:159).

### 1.1.4 Choice of Language

In response to these various concerns the SSCEA suggested that, for the present, languages included on a priority list might be

two or three languages of ethnic groups within the Australian community...; Japanese, Indonesian and Chinese, as Asian languages of major importance to Australia; French, German, Spanish, Arabic and perhaps Russian, as major world languages and two or three Aboriginal languages...  
(Report on a National Language Policy, 1984:162).

## 1.2 The Optimum Age for Foreign Language Study

With regard to the optimum age for foreign language learning, the SSCEA concluded that there was

general agreement that an early start offers some advantages [and that] the weight of informed opinion appears to favour a substantial commitment to the teaching of languages at the pre and primary school levels  
(Report on a National Language Policy, 1984:140).

The introduction of a foreign language to young children is also encouraged by the ACT Schools Authority, which

accepts that there is educational and cultural value in giving all children the opportunity to learn a language, in addition to English or the mother tongue, from the early primary years

(ACT Schools Authority, 1980:1).

Further discussion on the issue of the optimum age for second language learning may be found in sections 2.6.1 and 2.6.2.

### 1.3 The Japanese Program at Macquarie Primary School

Against the background outlined in the previous sections, it was suggested to the Macquarie Primary School Board early in 1983 that consideration be given to the introduction of a foreign language into the curriculum of the school. The following reasons were proposed for the selection of Japanese as the language of study:

- (i) No particular 'community' language was strongly represented by the children attending Macquarie Primary School at that time.
- (ii) It was believed that the study of another cultural group, including its language, might contribute to the development of a more harmonious society through increased understanding.
- (iii) Japanese was taught at the secondary and tertiary level elsewhere in the ACT, so there were opportunities for further study.
- (iv) Japan was an important trading partner, and of geographic and economic significance, to Australia.
- (v) A variety of support materials was available from, for example, the Embassy of Japan, the Japan Foundation, the National Library and the Australia-Japan Society.

- (vi) There was a small but significant Japanese population in the ACT, from which resource personnel may be able to be drawn.
- (vii) A qualified teacher was already on the staff at the school.

### 1.3.1 Formulation of Goals

Prior to the search for a suitable curriculum, the long term goals for the foreign language program were formulated. This process involved extensive reading in the literature of foreign language pedagogy, considering the needs and capabilities of primary school children in the age range 7 - 12 years, and relating the various goals of foreign language study to the overall philosophy and goals of the school. After consultation with other staff and the School Board, it was decided that the long term goals of the Japanese program should be:

1. To provide the children with the skills which will enable them to communicate orally, and to some degree in writing, with others speakers of Japanese.

The skills required are

- a) an increasing ability to understand spoken Japanese;
  - b) an increasing ability to speak Japanese;
  - c) to a lesser extent, an increasing ability to read and write Japanese;
2. To foster in the children an understanding of the Japanese way of life.

(Macquarie Primary School Japanese Program: Goals. Jan 1984)

### 1.3.2 Choice of Curriculum

An extensive search of the literature (see section 2.4.5) failed to locate evidence of any Japanese curricula designed for use at primary level.\*<sup>1</sup> It was also considered that none of the materials currently in use at secondary level was suitable for use with primary age students who would be at a different stage of conceptual development. Unpublished materials, suitable for use at primary level, had been developed, however, and were in use at the Association for Modern Education (AME) School, ACT. After examination of the materials and discussion with the author, it was considered that the materials may suit the long term goals which had been formulated. The author gave permission for her curriculum<sup>\*2</sup> to be trialled at Macquarie Primary School, and in February 1984 the teaching of Japanese began at the school.

### 1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the Japanese language program at Macquarie Primary School. The study specifically focussed on the implementation period (the first year of operation) of the program. In particular, answers to the following questions were sought:

\*<sup>1</sup> Since this search took place, however, two such curricula have been published (see section 2.4.5)

\*<sup>2</sup> Terms are defined in section 1.7.

1. Are the goals of the program valid, consistent, and appropriate?
2. How successful is the program in achieving its stated goals?
3. How is school organisation affected by implementation of the program?
4. Does use of the program result in any unexpected outcomes?  
and
5. What revisions or modifications are necessary to the program?

#### 1.4.1 The Search for an Evaluation Model

To the extent that it is more effective to make any changes to a program while it is in progress rather than at the conclusion of an introductory period, it was decided that the evaluation of the Japanese curriculum should be of a 'formative' rather than 'summative' type. Using a formative evaluation model it should be possible to assess the materials as they were introduced to one group of children, and make appropriate changes or modifications before introduction to other groups.

The model which seemed to be most appropriate, and which could be modified for use in this evaluation, was Sanders and Cunningham's (1973).

### 1.5 Educational Significance of the Study

#### 1.5.1 The Evaluation of Language Programs

A study of the literature indicated that several different approaches had been taken to the evaluation of bilingual education programs

undertaken most often in the United States and Canada (see section 2.7.3). The programs differed markedly, however, from the foreign language program identified in this study. In addition the evaluations were frequently of the 'summative' rather than 'formative' type selected for this study.

It is hoped, therefore, that this study will be of significance both to institutions, and individuals, with an interest in the formative evaluation of such programs.

In the ACT there have been no full-scale evaluations of primary school foreign language programs. On the other hand, small-scale summative type evaluations have taken place. In these, parents of children involved in the programs answered a number of evaluative questions (ACT Schools Authority, 1980).

This evaluation may, therefore, be of interest to the Evaluation and Research Section of the ACT Schools Authority. It could be used as a model for other evaluations.

#### 1.5.2 Japanese Language Curricula for Use in the Primary School

Other primary schools in Australia, in which Japanese is taught, are each using their own materials, most frequently adapted from existing secondary curricula, or compiled by the teacher (see section 2.4.5). The results of an evaluation of an existing curriculum could, therefore, be of interest to other teachers of Japanese in primary schools.

## 1.6 Social Significance of the Study

One of the broad goals of the Japanese program at Macquarie Primary School was to foster in the children an understanding of the Japanese way of life. This study sought to ascertain the extent to which this goal was being achieved, and to reveal also unexpected outcomes of the program. In addition, results might suggest that, after participation in the program, the children's appreciation of Japanese culture was enhanced, and that their sensitivity to other cultures was also heightened.

## 1.7 Notes on Terminology used in the Study

The following terms and their special use in this thesis are presented for clarification: the term curriculum\* is used to refer to the set of unpublished materials to be trialled at Macquarie Primary School; program is used in a wider sense to refer not only to the curriculum, or materials themselves, but also to include the actual process of presentation of the materials; in this context Sanders and Cunningham's (1973) term product is similarly used to refer to the whole program rather than the curriculum alone.

\* In the literature this term is used interchangeably with the term syllabus.

The terms goals, aims, and objectives are often used interchangeably in the literature. For the purposes of this study, except where they are used in quotations, the terms are seen to be hierarchical: the term goals is taken to be the broad term at the top of the hierarchy and is used to refer to general expectations for the program; aims is taken to refer to the more specific expectations anticipated after use of Book 1 of the curriculum; objectives is used to refer to the more specific results anticipated from each lesson.

In this study a set of goals for the program was established by the teacher before the program commenced, with the expectation that these would be reviewed and, possibly, revised; both the aims and the objectives were established directly from examination of the materials to be trialled.

All Japanese ( script ) used in the study is Romanised using the Hepburn System.



## CHAPTER 2

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE  
THEORETICAL BASE OF THE STUDY

## 2. Introduction

In order to establish the theoretical framework within which the evaluation took place, this chapter commences with a discussion of the aspects of language underpinning theories of language acquisition. This will be followed by an outline of the teaching methodologies evolved from those theories, which have influenced second language teaching since the 1900s.

Following the outline of teaching methodologies, discussion will focus on issues related to foreign language syllabus design. Then, because in the literature, emphasis is placed both on the goals of foreign language programs and on the procedures for establishing those goals, a section is devoted to discussion of this issue. Subsequently, since this evaluation attempts to assess the success of the curriculum, and the broader program, of achieving its stated goals, the chapter deals with characteristics of individual learners as factors which may influence achievement of goals.

The remainder of the chapter is concerned with issues raised by evaluation methodology. An outline of the approach to evaluation adopted for this study is followed by a description of the framework adapted for evaluation of the program under discussion. Techniques for obtaining information for evaluation purposes are briefly referred to,

and the issues raised by use of several, specific, data-gathering instruments are discussed in the final sections.

## 2.1 Towards an Approach to Language Teaching

The framework for this section is derived from Bell (1981) who suggested that one's approach to language teaching is

an orientation to the problem of language learning which derives from an amalgam of linguistic and psychological insights into the nature of language and the nature of the learning process (p 75).

### 2.1.1. Three Main Aspects of Language

An examination of the literature in the fields of psychology, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics revealed many attempts to define the nature of language. These, according to Corder, were 'all in their way valid, but none of them is complete or comprehensive' (1973: 21). Corder himself did not attempt to define language, but, rather, suggested three approaches to it which seem to reflect a psychological, sociological and linguistic view in keeping with this paper.

### 2.1.2 The Psycholinguistic Approach

Corder's first approach was

concerned with describing and explaining language as a matter of human behaviour... behaviour which has as its principal function that of communication (1973: 22).

Corder stated that the principal concern of this approach was

with explaining how we acquire language and its relation to general human cognitive systems, and with the psychological mechanisms underlying the comprehension and production of speech (1973: 22).

To the extent that it considers the processes involved in the acquisition of language, this approach could be termed 'psycholinguistic'.

### 2.1.3 The Sociolinguistic Approach

In the second approach suggested by Corder (1973), language is seen as a social, rather than as an individual, phenomenon. Language could be regarded as a 'social event' which 'can be fully described only if we know all about the people who are involved in it' (1973: 25).

Brooks agreed with Corder's interpretation of language as both an individual and social phenomenon when he stated:

In one sense, language is always individual behaviour... Yet the very nature of language requires that the individual behaviour patterns conform almost exactly with those of everyone else in the speech community (1964: 12).

### 2.1.4 The Linguistic Approach

Corder's third approach to language was purely linguistic. He noted that

the linguistic study of language sets up its own theoretical apparatus, has its own methods of working and ways of regarding and selecting its data (1973: 26).

Anisfield (1966) pointed out that attributing 'specificity to the lexicon and generality to grammar' (p 108), is only a relative comparison, since obviously there are grammatical exceptions, which, like vocabulary items, have to be learned one by one. Similarly,

there are 'broad irregularities and restrictions... in word formation' (p 108). Anisfield stated that in order to understand the nature of language, we must therefore consider grammatical rules.

A similar, linguistic, view of language was also offered by Halliday, who stated:

A complete description of language would include an account of all possible phonological sequences and also a set of rules by which we can predict all the possible sentences in that language (1975: 3).

### Summary

The three approaches outlined in the preceding section represent differing views of the nature of language which will necessarily influence a view of the language learning process. These influences are discussed in the following sections.

## 2.2 Theories of Language Learning

Until recently the study of language as an individual phenomenon has been part of general psychology, the study of language as a social phenomenon has been part of sociology, while the study of language as a system, ie. linguistics, has been largely independent of other disciplines. The 'hybrid' disciplines of psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics are the result of

increasing awareness amongst some psychologists, sociologists and linguists that each has something to say about language which is significant to the others (Corder, 1973: 82).

### 2.2.1 Language Acquisition v. Language Learning

The literature indicates that there is a distinction between 'acquisition' and 'learning'. Corder said of language acquisition that it 'takes place in the infant and the young child at a time when he is acquiring many other skills' (1973: 107). Language learning, on the other hand, is learning a second language, which 'normally starts at a later stage when language performance has already become established' (1973: 167).

Terrell (1977) extended the view offered by Corder when she stated:

Learning is the conscious process of studying and intellectually understanding the grammar of L2. Acquisition, on the other hand, refers to the unconscious absorption of general principles of grammar through real experiences of communication using L2 (1977: 327).

While Corder, Terrell and other researchers have made a distinction between learning and acquisition, Chun (1980: 287) indicated that it is acceptable to use them interchangeably. In this paper the term

'learning' will be applied to the acquisition of language by both first (L1) and second (L2) language learners.

### 2.2.2 Language Learning Theory

Corder noted that

At the present time we lack any clear and soundly-based pictures of the learning process... Our teaching procedures are founded... upon general psychological theories of learning, and what extrapolations may be speculatively made from theories of language performance and language acquisition, and from the little experimental laboratory-scale experiments with second language learning (1973: 109).

The 'psychological theories of learning' to which Corder was referring will now be considered.

### 2.2.3 Influences from Psychology on Theories of Language Learning

Early theories of first language acquisition were derived from general learning theory.

#### (i) Behaviourist theory

According to Chastain (1976) the interpretation of learning which had prevailed until the 1950s was the mentalistic view of the mind as the centre of learning. This was then challenged by the behaviourists.

#### Classical Conditioning

Anisfield described the 'classical conditioning' theory of learning as follows:

Classical conditioning procedures endeavour to establish reliable links between environmental events (stimuli) and activities of the organism (responses) in such a way that a particular activity will come under the control of a particular stimulus (1966: 112).

#### 'Associationist' Theory

For the 'associationists' meaning was established by an association between object and word, which would only occur as the result of repeated 'pairing'. Linguistic symbols were 'originally learned in a context where they are repeatedly paired with their appropriate referents' (Lambert, 1963: 52). In addition, external contextual stimuli, such as surroundings, would become attached to a particular response.

#### Operant Conditioning

Lambert cited Skinner as 'the best known modern exponent of a contrasting form of learning known as instrumental (operant) conditioning' (1963: 54). Although Skinner's ideas were considerably influenced by the work of such experimenters as Thorndike and Watson, Skinner is regarded in the literature as having had the greatest influence on language teaching methodology based on the behaviourist approach.

In this approach

External forces select stimuli and reinforce responses until desired behaviour is conditioned to occur. Learning is the result of external factors operating on and shaping the organism's behaviour (Chastain, 1976: 106).

In stimulus-response (S-R) psychology, therefore, learning takes place as the result of reinforcement of behaviour occurring as the response to specific stimuli; there is no

difference between learning a language and any other kind of learning.

In summary, the behaviourists based their hypotheses on what Lambert called 'observable behavioral responses [related to] such observable environmental events as reinforcements' (1963: 55). With such an approach, learning could only be viewed as a mechanistic process.

(ii) The Nativist and Cognitivist View

It is possible that imitation and reinforcement do play a part in language learning. Behaviourist theories, however, partly because of their failure to take into account any internal mentalistic processes, were challenged as inadequate by advocates of both nativist and cognitivist theories of learning.

Although both nativists and cognitivists were in agreement that first language learning is an internal process that is both creative and rule-governed, that it follows a definite pattern, and that children are born with certain abilities to learn language, they disagreed over what these abilities are.

Nativists referred to the 'innate' component as a 'Language Acquisition Device' (LAD). Chastain (1976) summarised their observations as follows:

1. Only humans have the physiological and psychological means to participate in sustained speech.
2. Given a typical environment, all children learn language...



3. The sequence in which grammatical structures are acquired seems to be practically the same for all people, and the beginning of language usage and the minimal achievement in language skills seems to be relatively unaffected by cultural or linguistic variations.
4. Certain characteristics of phonology, semantics, and syntax appear to be universal (1976: 58-59).

Chastain (1976) pointed out that, according to the cognitivists,

children are born with the ability to learn... children's cognitive capacities make it possible for them to acquire many types of knowledge and skills (1976: 59).

They are not, however, born 'with a mental mechanism specifically designed for language learning per se' (1976: 59). Butler

(1974: 1122) quoted Slobin in support of this argument:

It seems to me that the child is born not with a set of linguistic categories but with some sort of process mechanism - a set of procedures and inference rules... that he uses to process linguistic data (1966: 87-88).

Butler summarised the cognitive approach thus:

language acquisition is seen as a process in which certain abilities develop, closely related to thinking or mental abilities. These include cognitive ability to deal with the world, short term and long term memory as well as the ability to process information (1974: 1122).

If nativist or cognitive models of first language learning are accepted, several implications become pertinent to second language teaching:

1. Fundamental to both theories is the idea that language usage is based on the acquisitions of rules.
2. A second fundamental is that, since language learning and usage are creative, opportunities should be given for learners to actively 'create' language.
3. First language learners focus on meaning rather than syntax. In order for second language learners to become

competent in natural communication situations, they must practise in meaningful learning situations.

The extent of the influence of the various psychological theories of learning discussed in section 2.2.3, on second language teaching methodology, will be outlined<sup>in</sup> section 2.3.

#### 2.2.4 Influences from Linguistics and Psycholinguistics on Theories of Language Learning.

Theories of learning from the discipline of psychology are approximately paralleled by those from the fields of linguistics and, later, psycholinguistics, in their efforts to describe language. To quote Sacks (1964):

The contributions of linguists are... notable not so much for their uniqueness as for their constituting an orderly and systematic procedure toward significant conclusions about the nature of language and the ways of teaching a language (p7).

##### (i) The Traditional View

Until the twentieth century great importance had been attached to the written form of language, because 'literacy was the significant indication of the educated mind' (Wilkins, 1974: 5). In keeping with this view, the method used to study language had been 'to examine extant manuscripts in order to detect changes in vocabulary and form' (Chastain, 1976: 106).

This approach to language, coupled with the prevailing psychological view of the mind as the centre of learning, resulted in the development of the Grammar-Translation method of language teaching.

(ii) The Descriptive Linguists

During the 1930-40s an approach emerged from the field work of linguists with American Indians, and from the influence of behaviouristic interpretations of learning (Wilkins, 1974). The descriptive, or structural, linguists considered that each language is unique and must be learned within the context of its own system (Rivers, 1981). Traditionally, the written form had assumed primary importance, but with the development of descriptive linguistics 'speech [was seen as] the primary manifestation of language and writing [was seen to be] both secondary to it and dependent on it (Wilkins, 1974: 7).

Chastain (1976) listed implications for language teaching which arose from the theories of the descriptive linguists combined with the behaviourist view of language learning. These may be summarised as follows:

1. Since oral language is of prime importance, sound and oral patterns should be learned first.
2. Vocabulary and grammar should be taught in context.
3. Repetition and practice are essential.
4. The rules of one language cannot be used to learn another.
5. The language learner should learn by analogy rather than by studying rules.
6. Habits should be developed to overcome interference from the native language.

## (iii) The Transformational Grammarians

In the same way that the behaviourist approach in psychology had been contradicted by the nativists and cognitivists, so the descriptive linguistics of Bloomfield and Fries were challenged by the generative-transformational linguistics of Chomsky.

In the early 1960s, psychologists studying such areas as perception, thought processes, information processing, and the acquisition of concepts, needed a new theory of language on which to base their research. Initially, the work of Harris, Chomsky and Halle provided such a theory (Rivers, 1981). These linguists believed that it was impossible to separate language from mental processes; only by considering these as integrally related could an understanding of the total language process be achieved.

In 'Cartesian Linguistics' Chomsky had stated:

man has unique abilities that cannot be accounted for on purely mechanistic grounds... The essential difference between man and animal is exhibited most clearly by human language, in particular, by man's ability to form new statements which express new thoughts and which are appropriate to new situations (Spolsky, 1980: 33).

It was this ability to form new statements appropriate to new situations that was central to T-G theory. This ability came from an 'intuitive knowledge of the complex system of rules of... language' (Rivers, 1981: 73) and became known as 'competence'. The appropriateness of statements to new

situations, on the other hand, was referred to as 'performance'.

The system of rules which a native-speaker is not aware of, but intuitively uses, enables him to generate a variety of new, yet grammatical utterances. T-G linguists have analysed these utterances in an attempt to understand how it is that a speaker is able to do this. It is the deep structures beneath the surface structures which, according to T-G linguists, generate utterances, and such deep structure may be equated with meaning (Rivers, 1981).

Disagreement over whether meaning resides in syntactical structure, as the T-G linguists suggest; or in semantics, led to the establishment of a small group of linguists who adopted the generative-semantic approach. These linguists maintained 'that meaning resides in the semantic elements of language and is expressed in syntactical and phonological components.' (Chastain, 1976: 138). An alternative approach was also provided by Fillmore, who suggested 'that the study of case is a more productive approach to comprehending the basic relationships in deep structure than the more typical subject-verb organization'. (Chastain, 1976: 137).

Several implications for language teaching and learning arose from the theories of T-G linguists:

1. L2 learners will use a process similar to that used by L1 learners in acquiring a language: they will make and test

hypotheses based on their innate knowledge of grammar, but will need to be taught the exceptions.

2. The rule system of the target system, once internalised, should be practised by generating new utterances, not by repetition.
3. Care must be taken in selecting items for practice, so that there is similarity at the deep structure level.

#### 2.2.5 Influences from Sociolinguistics on Theories of Language Learning

During the 1960s and 70s various writers, including Hymes, Labov and Fishman, shifted the emphasis from grammatical analysis of language towards the social and cultural factors which affect its use (Malcolm, 1977).

##### i) Competence and Performance

Chomsky had made the distinction between 'what the speaker of a language knows implicitly (what we may call his competence) and what he does (his performance)' (Corder, 1973: 90). However, he saw the role of the linguist as being to 'discover the rules underlying this performance' rather than studying the people themselves in action (Corder, 1973: 90).

Hymes (1971) proposed that the study of language should advance on a broader front than that suggested by Chomsky because, in his view,

generative grammar extends only a little way into the realm of the use of language. To grasp the intuitions and data pertinent to underlying competence for use requires a sociocultural standpoint (1972: 281).

Hymes suggested that competence should be taken 'as the most general term for the capabilities of a person' (1971: 282). He asserted that 'competence is dependent upon both (tacit) knowledge and (ability for) use' (1971: 282). In his approach 'knowledge' refers to both cognitive and non-cognitive factors, while 'ability for use' allows for the role of non-cognitive factors, such as motivation. Hymes' concept of communicative competence was summed up by Gumperz as the speaker's

ability to select from the totality of grammatically correct expressions available to him, forms which appropriately reflect the social norms governing behaviour in specific encounters (1972: 205).

Performance, on the other hand, in Hymes' perspective,

is not identical with a behavioral record, or with the imperfect or partial realization of individual competence. It takes into account the interaction between competence... the competence of others, and the cybernetic and emergent properties of events themselves... (Hymes, 1971: 283).

## (ii) Speech Variety

Fishman (1971) stressed the importance of participants, setting and topic in determining choice of speech variety in any communicative event.

### (a) The Participants

Both Sankoff (1971) and Fishman (1971) asserted that language behaviour is a matter of role-relations as well as of individual preference:

In certain societies particular behaviours (including language behaviours) are expected (if not required) of particular individuals vis-a-vis each other (Fishman, 1971: 15).

(b) The Setting

Cazden ascribed considerable importance to the setting in which a communicative event takes place, stating:

We must attend not only to the abilities of individuals and how they develop, but to qualities of the situation, or temporary environment, in which those abilities are activated (1970: 294).

The importance of situation was confirmed in Labov's studies of New York ghetto speech. Labov found from his research

that the very children who in school or in interviews with strangers speak only in short and highly formulaic utterances, usually characterized as 'restricted codes', show themselves to be highly creative and effective communicators when they are interviewed in a setting which they perceive culturally realistic, or when their natural interaction with peers is recorded (Gumperz & Hymes, 1972: 219).

Fishman termed this action of shifting between speech varieties according to the setting in which a speech event takes place, as 'situational shifting'.

(c) Topic

Sociolinguists suggest also that content, or topic, can be seen as a variable which is manipulated as part of communicative strategies. Communication must involve some agreement by participants about the nature of the information to be conveyed. In the context of this study, the consideration of 'topic per se as a regulator of language use' (Fishman, 1971) in isolation from participant and setting, is



not relevant. What is relevant is that the exchange of information is obviously pertinent to second language teaching: for speakers to be able to communicate information on a given topic in a language other than their own, they must know the relevant vocabulary, and develop a knowledge of the social and cultural context of the other group.

From these studies it can be inferred that in the language classroom opportunities for learners to develop both linguistic and communicative competence should be provided.

#### Summary

In the preceding section the influence from various disciplines on theories of language learning was discussed, and implications for second language learning were suggested.

In the following section the major methodologies which have been used as the basis for second language teaching since the 1900s, will be outlined. It will then be possible to discuss the foreign language curriculum in use at Macquarie Primary School both in the light of these methodologies, and the theories on which they are based, and to suggest why it was necessary to make certain changes to the curriculum during its trial period.

## 2.3 Teaching Methodologies

### 2.3.1 The Grammar Translation Method

The methodology that evolved from the traditional approach to the teaching of Latin and Greek came to be called the Grammar Translation method. This method was based not on a psychological theory, but on the doctrine of 'formal discipline' which dominated the thinking of educators during the nineteenth century. According to this doctrine

the human mind could be compartmentalized into specific 'faculties' like 'thinking', 'memory', etc., and... these faculties could be trained by practice (Politzer, 1964: 147).

Among grammarians at this time, the idea of a 'universal, logical grammar' prevailed. A further assumption (Politzer, 1964) was that 'there is a basic identity between grammatical and logical categories' (p 146). This led to

the principle that the method of expressing thought and ideas in a foreign language started with grammatical analysis of the parallel statement in the native language (1964: 147).

The purpose of teaching a foreign language, then, 'was to make the student aware of "grammar" in order to teach him "how to think" ' (Politzer, 1964: 147).

According to both Chastain (1976) and Rivers (1981) an equally important purpose of this method was to enable the student to study the literature of the target language. Thus procedures which had been used to teach the classical languages, where emphasis was placed on the ability to translate the literature, were adapted to the teaching of modern languages.

The chief defect of the method for the purpose of teaching a spoken language would appear to be the lack of emphasis on communication skills; the students have little or no training, or opportunity, to use the language to express themselves.

### 2.3.2 The Direct Method

In opposition to the Grammar Translation Method, a number of theorists such as Vietor, Passy, Berlitz and Jespersen (Rivers, 1981) advocated that students should take a more active role in the classroom.

Jespersen (1904) referred to the 'transfer of training' theory of learning which had replaced the 'formal discipline' theory that had influenced the Grammar Translation method. Transfer of training theory resulted in the belief that students learn a second language in the way that children acquire their native language. In summary, they 'understand... by listening' and 'learn to speak... by speaking... associating speech with appropriate action' (Rivers, 1981: 31).

Associationist theory, therefore, was reflected in the method of teaching in which learning the new language was to be accomplished without use of native language by either teacher or student. Because of this emphasis on the target language as the medium of instruction, correct pronunciation assumed great importance.

Linguistic influence is seen in the adoption by this method of the International Phonetic Alphabet, enabling teachers to represent words from the target language phonetically.

When this method is used students are encouraged to participate in exchanges in the target language, and structures are learned using inductive processes to make generalisations. Reading material is based upon oral discussion, and native language translation never occurs.

Rivers (1981) believed that the main defect of this method was that if progress is not highly structured students 'can develop a glib but inaccurate fluency, clothing native language structures in foreign language vocabulary' (p 83).

### 2.3.3 The Reading Method

The fields of linguistics, psychology and sociology had no profound effect on this method of teaching, which was the result of the publication of 'The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States', in which Coleman recommended that 'the ability to read the foreign language with moderate ease and with enjoyment for recreative and vocational purposes' (Rivers, 1981: 35) be the objective of two year courses in high school.

In this method, the speaking skill was included only to the extent that some teachers insisted on correct pronunciation, comprehension of simple spoken language and use of easy speech patterns in order to facilitate reading. Students were encouraged to read for understanding without translating word by word.

#### 2.3.4 The Audio-Lingual Method

The chief aim of this method was the development of competency in the four macro-skills, but listening and speaking were emphasised over reading and writing. The influence of S-R psychology led to the techniques of mimicry and memorization of dialogues, and pattern drilling, using the language patterns of native speakers (Prator, 1980; Rivers, 1981).

Proponents of this method believed that language learners would experience greatest difficulty where the structures of the target language differed from those of the native language. From this belief developed the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). The teaching technique adopted, therefore, was to drill the most useful, simple structures first.

The Audio-lingual method is effective in enabling students to articulate words, and through the systematic introduction and practice of structural elements. Nevertheless, the method suffers due to its reliance on students' learning 'automatic non-thoughtful sequences'. As a result students may not be able to use the material in other contexts. Understanding by the students is necessary to enable them to make variations on structural patterns.

### 2.3.5. Cognitive Code Approaches

Those who adopt a cognitive approach to teaching base their teaching methodology on the cognitivist interpretations of language and learning outlined in sections 2.2.4. and 2.2.5. The emphasis is on the presentation of materials in a meaningful and rule-based way, to foster comprehension, competence and functional performance. Learning and teaching processes are presented in ways that complement each other, and which appreciate the individuality of students.

It will be demonstrated in Chapter 5 that a cognitive approach is the basis of Book 1 of the Japanese materials trialled at Macquarie Primary School.

### 2.3.6. Communicative Approaches

The influence of both the cognitive psychologists, and the sociolinguists of the 1960s and 1970s led to suggestions for the development of syllabuses based on a 'communicative' approach, in which teaching is centred on the fact that language is for communication. A true communicative 'methodology' is an approach in which the focus is on the functions, or notions which a student needs to be able to express. The influence of communicative ideas on the materials being trialled during the study will be pointed out in Chapter 5.

### 2.3.7 Other Methods

A number of other methods are referred to in the literature. these include:

The Silent Way (Stevick, 1976; Bell, 1981; Yoshikawa, 1982);  
Community Language Learning (Stevick, 1976; Curran, 1982);  
The Total Physical Response (Asher, 1981, 1982, 1985; Winitz, 1981; Faulkner, 1985; Griffiee, 1985);  
The Natural Approach (Terrel, 1982); and  
Suggestopedia (Stevick, 1976; Blair, 1982).

Of these, The Total Physical Response has some relevance to this study and will, therefore, be briefly outlined.

#### The Total Physical Response

Asher believed that understanding is of prime importance in the language learning process. His Total Physical Response approach, simplistically stated, is based on the hypothesis that meaning is discovered by 'decoding' noise into information [and that the] decoding process involves synchronizing language with... body movements' (Asher, 1981: 52).

Asher claimed to have demonstrated 'that when a second language is integrated with an individual's motions, there is rapid assimilation, that is, understanding of the target language' (Asher, 1981: 54).

Thus, using his method, the teacher gives a command which requires a physical response by the learner. This required response is initially

demonstrated by the teacher as the command is given. No verbal response is expected of the learner.

Asher's approach is one of several based on 'comprehension' by the learner, outlined in Winitz (1981).

### Summary

The previous section provided an overview of the methodologies, or approaches, which have influenced second language teaching, and hence syllabus design, since the 1900s. The outlines presented lay the foundation for evaluative comment about the methodologies underlying the Japanese curriculum in use at Macquarie Primary School.

Discussion will now focus on foreign language (FL) syllabus design. Then, since Stage 2 of this study is devoted to evaluation of goals, a general outline of the goals of FL programs, with reference to the literature, will follow.



## 2.4 Foreign Language Syllabus Design

Bell (1981) discussed three types of syllabus: grammatical, situational, and notional. These different approaches emerge from consideration of the forms of language which should be taught and the order in which they should be presented.

### 2.4.1 The Grammatical Syllabus

In this type of syllabus the material to be taught, the 'content', is based on linguistic items presented in a context unrelated to social meaning or use. The order of presentation of these items may be influenced by the perceived difficulty level, or by the order of acquisition by a native-speaker (Bell, 1981).

### 2.4.2 The Situational Syllabus

Wilkins (1974) stressed the importance of 'social dimensions' in a person's language experience. After consideration of factors such as the social groups with which the learner will have contact, the roles which he will perform, and the importance of written versus spoken expression to him, Wilkins believed that an attempt may be made

to predict the situations in which the learner may find himself [and to] ensure that he has the linguistic means to communicate acceptably in these situations (1974: 145).

In this type of syllabus, the setting and the interaction involved, or the situation, form the basis of, and the grammatical items become secondary to, the content selected.

Bell (1981) noted that 'those situational syllabuses which do exist are grammatical syllabuses which make use of situations to present and practise linguistic forms' (p 55).

#### 2.4.3 The Notional Syllabus

Fundamental to this type of syllabus is the view that the learner should be the starting point, suggested by Wilkins (1974). He pointed out that

it becomes possible to replace a conventional linguistic organization of teaching only if we have some way of knowing exactly what notions a learner will need to express (1974: 149).

Wilkins (1976) analysed language needs in three categories: semantico-grammatical categories, categories of modal meaning, and categories of communicative function, which become the components of a notional syllabus. Wilkins (1976) pointed out that to his knowledge, a notional syllabus did not exist, but that a recognition of learner needs, expressed as these components would result in a different approach to syllabus design. This is outlined in Wilkins (1976) and van Ek (1976).

For the purpose of this study it is sufficient to note that a syllabus organised on 'notional' lines will have as its basis the functions, or notions, which the learner will need to perform.

#### 2.4.4 The Present Situation with Respect to FL Syllabus Design

Prator commented on the state of foreign language syllabuses in the 1980's when he stated:

There is no large body of relevant, consistent and experimentally established facts which enable us to perfect a scientifically based method of language instruction (1980: 17).

Prator suggested, therefore, an eclectic approach to teaching whereby a teacher looks to various relevant disciplines for insight. Bell, too, believed in 'enlightened eclecticism' (1981: 70) in the adoption of a syllabus. His preliminary discussion centred around two types of syllabus organisation, linear, and spiral, or cyclic: the former proceeds systematically from unit to unit with no digression; the latter is based upon the needs of learners as they arise, rather than on a set of pre-determined stages and accompanying teaching strategies. Each of the three syllabus types outlined in the previous section may adopt a linear or cyclic approach. This will be discussed in relation to this study, in section 5.3.2. Bell suggested a compromise between these two methods of organisation (linear and cyclic), when he said:

we need a syllabus which reflects on the needs of the student... but which is also flexible enough to permit changes as feedback, particularly in the form of learners' errors, becomes available (1981: 70).

Omaggio (1983) also believed that there should not be one 'definitive approach'. She suggested that 'language proficiency' be used as an organising principle which 'has the potential to revolutionize language teaching' and she set down a set of working hypotheses based on a proficiency-oriented approach, against which various existing methodologies may be compared. The Australian Language Levels (ALL) Project (1985) authors stated that they investigated the use of global proficiency rating scales to guide curricula, and suggested that they were not suitable because they fail to capture the fact that

- a. learner performance is variable across tasks;
- b. different tasks will call on different criteria; and
- c. learners progress in different ways along the language development continuum

(Introductory Paper 2, 1985: 4).

#### 2.4.5 Japanese Language Syllabuses in Australia

A major problem in the teaching of any foreign language in an Australian primary school is the lack of appropriate resources, including syllabuses or curricula.\* This issue was raised in submissions received by the SSCEA (A National Language Policy, 1984).

The Japanese syllabus most readily available in Australia in 1984 was Alfonso (1977). This syllabus was designed specifically for secondary students. The main reasons against its use with primary age students were:

- a. unsuitability of lesson content;
- b. the quantity of new material introduced in each unit;
- c. the ordering of the grammatical material presented;
- d. the format;
- e. the use of a romanised text.

\* Since the introduction of the Japanese program at Macquarie Primary School in 1984 this issue has become the concern of the Australian Language Levels (ALL) Project which is currently attempting to produce curriculum guidelines for the teaching of languages other than English, across the K-12 spectrum.

Other materials known to exist, and not examined, on the assumption that they would be unsuitable for similar reasons, were :

- a. Western Australian materials developed specifically for secondary students;
- b. materials developed and published in Japan, for adults;
- c. the Alfonso (1970) materials designed for tertiary students.

## 2.5 The Goals of Foreign Language (FL) Programs.

Reference to the written goals of FL programs, and discussion with FL teachers, indicated great variation in goals from program to program.

Rivers (1981) suggested that the long range goals of FL programs will usually fall into categories concerned with

- a. development of intellectual powers;
- b. personal development, through study of philosophy and literature;
- c. increased understanding of the function of language;
- d. reading the literature of the language;
- e. opportunities for expression within another framework;
- f. insight into, and understanding of, other cultures;
- g. provision of skills of communication;

the last five being the most important.

The ALL project (1986) defined the four common goals of language learning as communication, socio-cultural, learning how-to-learn and language and cultural awareness goals.

Other authors concerned with this issue were Bell (1981), and Johnson (1982).

Chastain (1976) believed that 'listening, speaking, reading and writing should be brought to the skill level by the end of each section of the book' (p 439), so that ultimately the overall goal of being able to use each skill can be achieved.

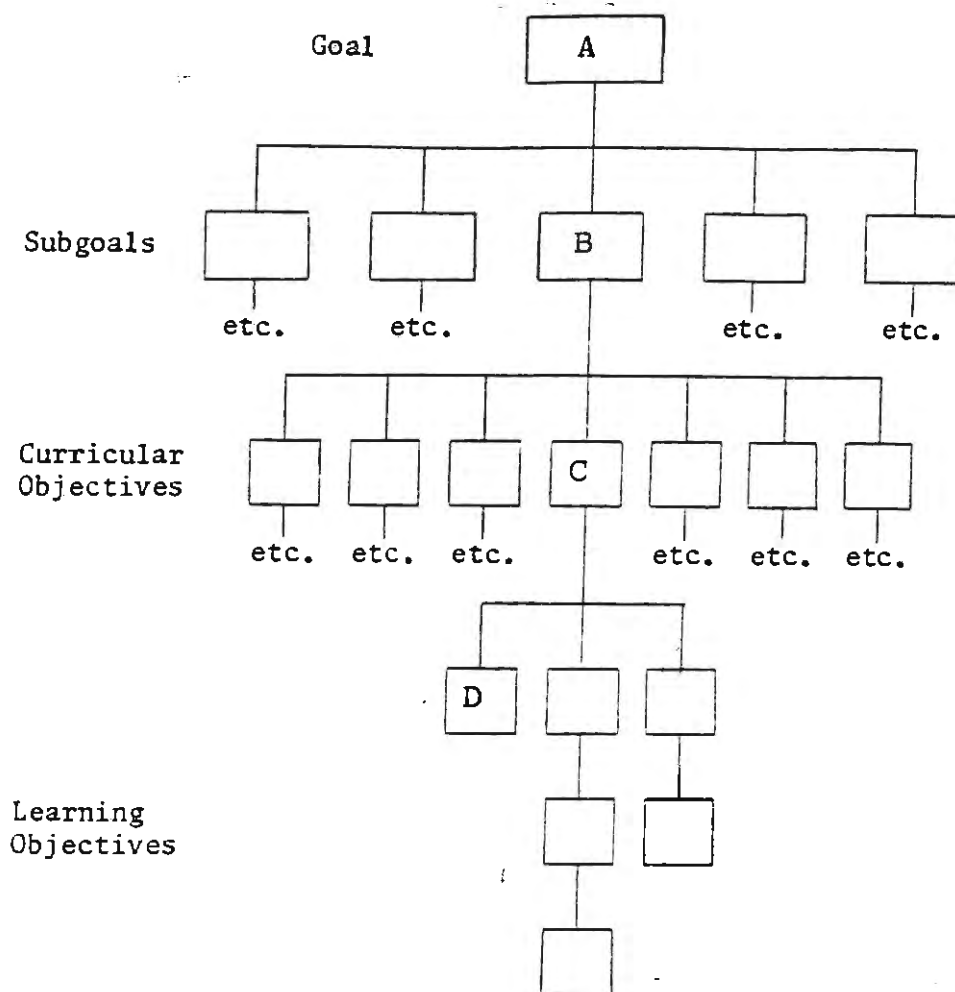
In relation to Japanese curricula, Rowe (1974) noted the importance of the reading skill, and suggested that both hiragana (the Japanese phonetic script) and kanji (characters) be introduced early.

#### Translating General Goals into Specific Aims, and Lesson Objectives

Jakobovits (1970), Jarvis and Adams (1979), Saylor et al (1981) and Bell (1981), all stressed the importance of translating the broad, general goals of a program into specific curriculum aims and instructional objectives. Jarvis and Adams exemplified this process, differentiating between goals, sub-goals, end-of-course objectives and specific lesson objectives (Fig. 2.1).

The broad goal statement (A) is broken down into sub-goals (B) 'representing a segment of learning implied in the goal statement' (1979: 13). Sub-goals are not sufficiently detailed to enable specific decisions about classroom behaviour to be made. Curricular objectives (C) are stated for each stage of the program, and are usually expressed in behavioural terms, while learning objectives (C) 'describe behaviour that students will exhibit within one class period' (1979: 13).

FIGURE 2.1



A Schematic Representation of the Model to be used to Indicate the Progressive Relationship between Goals, Aims and Objectives.

Adapted from Jarvis and Adams (1979).



### Classification of Aims and Objectives

Discussion in the literature focusses on ways of stating curricular aims and objectives. (Krathwohl, 1974; Chastain, 1980; Bell, 1981; Saylor et al, 1981).

Krathwohl (1974) outlined Bloom's taxonomy as a method of classifying educational objectives into the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains. The cognitive domain 'deals with objectives having to do with thinking, knowing and problem solving,' the affective domain 'includes objectives dealing with attitudes, values, interests, appreciations and social emotional adjustment,' and the psychomotor domain 'covers objectives to do with manual and motor skills' (1974: 73-74). It was decided that this taxonomy might be useful at the lesson level to classify those instructional objectives which may be stated behaviourally. It was also decided, however, that as not all outcomes of a language program can be measured, certain objectives may be better stated as problem-solving or expressive activities, particularly for the cultural component of the program.

#### 2.5.1 Procedures for Establishing the Goals of a FL Program

Chastain (1976), Jarvis and Adams (1979), Rivers (1981), and Bell (1981) each stressed when establishing the goals of a FL program the need to consider the needs of society, the nature of the learners, the body of knowledge about language teaching and learning, and non-language skill outcomes. Saylor et al (1981) believed that there should be a high degree of congruence amongst the goals of the school,

the teachers and the students, in order for a curriculum to be effective. This view was supported by Bell (1981).

Jarvis and Adams (1979) also emphasised the importance of evaluating the process by which the goals are formulated, as well as the content of the goals themselves.

## 2.6 Learner Characteristics Which May Affect Performance

One of the tasks of the evaluation carried out in this study was to estimate the success of the Japanese curriculum in achieving its stated goals. The literature suggests that certain characteristics of learners may influence the achievement of goals (Schumann, 1978; Strevens, 1978; Holt, 1978; Valette, 1980; Cook, 1982; McMeniman 1985). It was decided that those student characteristics which were within the scope of this study, and which might be pertinent during the first nine months of language learning, were:

- a. age;
- b. age in relation to other variables;
- c. attitude, motivation and self esteem;
- d. aptitude;
- e. previous linguistic experience;
- f. cognitive style, learning style and learning strategies;
- g. reaction to language teaching methods;
- h. ethnocentrism.

An in-depth discussion of each factor is beyond the scope of this study. Nevertheless, the points raised as each of these factors is considered will provide a reference point for discussion in chapter 5.

### 2.6.1 Age

It was established in section 1.2 that the importance of teaching foreign languages at the primary school stage has been recognised at the national level. It was noted, however, that no absolute evidence on the optimum age for foreign language study is available (section 2.4).

Various authors have discussed research on this issue and presented the various views (Wilkins, 1974; Corder, 1973; Krashen, 1973; Taylor, 1974; Terrell, 1977; Robinson, 1978; Seliger, 1978; Whitaker, 1978; Cook, 1982).

Robinson (1978) pointed out that

- a. few studies based on comparisons between older and younger children had compared communicative competence, and
- b. comparisons between migrant adults and young children are invalid because of the difference in their learning situation - factors such as environment, motivation, and stage of affective and cognitive development.

Robinson concluded that there is no evidence either from research, or observations, to confirm 'the belief that younger children acquire a second language in an artificial setting better than teenagers or adults' (1978: 5). This conclusion was corroborated by Cook (1982), who stated:

so far from showing the superiority of children, most of the hard evidence warrants the opposite conclusion: adults are better than children at learning a second language when tests are conducted under controlled situations (1982: 12).

Burstall (1979) pointed out that her findings on evaluating the Pilot Scheme for the teaching of French in primary schools did not support the view that 'the first ten years of life constitute a critical period for foreign language learning' (1979: 139). Burstall observed that the older children were generally more efficient than the younger ones. She did note, however, that there appeared to be a gain in attitude, rather than achievement, amongst students taught French in the primary school.

Seliger (1978) reviewed the literature on the 'critical period' issue, and on the evidence presented, hypothesized that

there are multiple critical periods which correlate with localisation and the gradual loss of plasticity (1978: 18).

Both Krashen (1973) and Whitaker (1978) also cited research on the decline, after five years of age, of the plasticity of the nervous system. Whitaker went on to cite evidence that

second language acquisition in the school setting should probably be initiated as soon as possible in order to capitalize on the residual language readiness of the brain (1978: 30).

Finally, Seliger (1978) pointed to research during the 1970s which led him to claim that there

is much evidence that the age of the learner is a factor in the ability to acquire a native like pronunciation of a second language (1978: 12).

#### 2.6.2 Age in Relation to Other Variables

Cohen (1976) drew attention to the importance of the Piagetian stages of Pre-Operation, Concrete Operations and Formal Operations, that is, the child's cognitive level of development, in discussion of FL acquisition. During the Concrete Operations period (approximate age range 6 - 10 years) the child 'only intuits transformational rules' (p 69) whereas at the Formal Operations stage 'he superimposes propositional logic on the classes and relationships he developed earlier' (p 69). Although it is beyond the scope of this study to investigate the hypothesis in any depth, it is necessary to be aware of the different stages through which the learners are passing, when evaluating the content of a curriculum.

McMeniman (1985) made the important point that

age appears to be an important variable as far as development of proficiency in L2 is concerned, but its influence is mediated by its interactions with other variables (p 7).

It may be observed from the preceding discussion that informed opinion varies on the issue of the optimum age for second language learning.

These diverse opinions provide a basis for some comment from the findings of this research, in chapter 5.

### 2.6.3 Attitudes, Motivation and Self Esteem

The effect of attitudes, or motivation, towards the foreign culture, the language itself, or towards the classroom situation is considered in the literature to be an important variable which may affect student performance (Jakobovits, 1970; Strevens, 1978; Valette, 1980; Cook, 1982; Loveday, 1982; McMeniman, 1985). Their findings are summarised in the statement by Valette that

students with a high positive attitude toward second language study and a strong motivation to master the language will obviously do better than students with a negative attitude and no motivation (1980: 153).

McMeniman (1985) pointed to the distinction made in the literature between integrative or instrumental orientation, stating that

an integratively oriented student is one who is learning a language in order to... interact more with individuals...  
[while] an instrumentally-oriented student is learning the language primarily for utilitarian reasons (1985: 16).

Referring to the work of Gardner in 1978, McMenemy also identified 'lack of ethnocentrism and orientation towards achievement' (p 15) as being factors associated with success in language learning.

Schumann (1978) pointed out that, on the basis of Heyde's work, it seemed that 'total self-esteem scores are predictive of both the best and the worst second language learners' (p 171). Strevens (1978) also regarded 'low expectations of success' as an 'obstacle to learning' (p 198).

In this study, low self-esteem is not considered as a separate factor but rather, in conjunction with poor attitude, motivation, and expectations of success, when discussing student performance.

#### 2.6.4 Aptitude

McMenemy (1985) cited a considerable body of research to support the view that 'language aptitude correlates significantly with achievement in a second language' (p 9), but pointed to criticism of some of the earlier studies on the grounds that they did not control for the influence of such variables as socio-psychological factors.

A test designed to assess the language aptitude of primary school age children is the Carroll-Sapon Elementary Modern Language Aptitude Test (Carroll and Sapon, 1967).

This test was administered at Macquarie Primary School prior to the commencement of the program. Time constraints, however, precluded consideration of the results in relation to achievement, during this evaluation.

#### 2.6.5 Previous Linguistic Experience

Guskin (1976), Valette (1980) and McMeniman (1985) are amongst those authors who referred to this factor. Both Guskin and Valette pointed out the advantages held by children who already speak, or have knowledge of a second language. McMeniman (1985) referred to the many studies which have considered the positive and negative transfer effects of the first on the second language. She pointed out that for older learners a new language must be learned in relation to firmly entrenched concepts about the L1, whereas for younger learners 'the situation... may well be different' (p 13).

It is apparent from the literature that the learner's age and previous linguistic experience will each influence the other, and therefore should not be considered as separate factors.

#### 2.6.6 Cognitive Style, Learning Style and Learning Strategies

In the literature a distinction is made between cognitive style, learning style, and learning strategies.

Cognitive style could be said to be the

relatively unchangeable disposition of an individual to carry out mental processing in a particular, characteristic way.  
(Adult Migrant Education Services: Interim Report, 1984: 3)



Brown (1980) differentiated between a learning style, which is self-consistent and enduring individual differences in cognitive organisation and functioning (1980: 90),

and a learning strategy, defined as

a particular method of approaching a problem or task, a mode of operation for achieving a particular end, a planned design for controlling and manipulating certain information (1980: 83).

Baecher (1976) gave a detailed account of his method of cognitive style analysis, and of generating cognitive style 'maps' for bilingual children. Brown (1980) examined five cognitive styles of relevance to second language learning. These were:

Field Dependence and Independence;  
 Reflectivity and Impulsivity;  
 Tolerance and Intolerance of Ambiguity;  
 Broad and narrow category width; and  
 Skeletonization and Embroidery.

It is beyond the scope of this study to detail the considerable research which has been done in these areas. However, as Tucker pointed out:

the major application of these studies derives from the fact that teachers... can design programs of instruction appropriate to the age, experience, ability and interest of their students (1978: 210).

In terms of this study, an awareness of these issues should be reflected in the design of the curriculum so that

the most effective language program is one where teaching and learning styles complement one another (Valette, 1980: 152).

#### 2.6.7 Reaction to Language Teaching Methods

Schumann (1978) referred to a study in which some learners, who reacted negatively to language teaching methods, abandoned language

study completely. Although Schumann was referring to second language learners living in the target language environment, it could be hypothesised that any student, living anywhere, could react negatively, or adversely, to teaching methods. In the context of this study, it was of interest to consider the extent to which such a reaction might be related to either attitude towards, or achievement in, the learning of Japanese.

#### 2.6.8 Ethnocentrism

Holt (1978) defined ethnocentrism as 'a generalized intolerance of the behaviour patterns of outsiders' (p 13). Within the context of ethnocentrism Holt (1978) was concerned with the relationship between foreign language study and attitudes towards the target culture and people. He outlined various studies which have examined this issue. His conclusions may be summarised as follows:

- a. There may be a relationship between liking of the subject and sympathy for the target culture but there have been insufficient empirical studies to establish this firmly.
- b. The teaching of a FL may be a powerful force in creating more positive attitudes by primary school children towards foreigners, although 'this tolerance is possibly language-specific rather than generalized' (P 68).
- c. There is some support for 'the view that pupils' attitudes towards learning a second language are positively and significantly related to their eventual level of achievement in that language' (p 67).

- d. Research on bilingualism offered 'fairly compelling evidence for the fact that facility in a second language increases cross-cultural tolerance'. The result of an Australian study designed to test whether this tolerance is generalised beyond the target language cultures were inconclusive, but 'strongly suggestive and in part corroborative' (p 68) of the hypothesis.

These conclusions will be related to this study in chapter 5.

#### Summary

The preceding discussion has focussed on specific characteristics of learners which may have an effect on their achievement, and are therefore pertinent to the attainment of goals. These issues will be referred to in chapter 5.

The remaining sections of this chapter are devoted to issues related to Evaluation Design.

## 2.7 Evaluation Design

Various approaches to evaluation (Stake, 1967; Scriven, 1972, 1973; Worthen and Sandeis, 1973; Parlett, 1974; Cronbach, 1963; Tyler, 1974; Mills, 1978; Donovan, 1981) are discussed in the literature. Donovan (1981), commenting on the traditional approach to evaluation, stated that

its search for objective and statistically significant measures is not, of itself, appropriate to evaluation of educational innovation (p.31).

He outlined the 'field study' or 'illuminative' approach of Parlett and Hamilton (Parlett, 1974) which

aims to describe and unravel a particular course's most significant features and processes and to present the views of the participants and other interested parties as to its merits and shortcomings (Donovan, 1981: 31).

The aims of this type of approach seemed to be in accord with the purpose of the evaluation of the Japanese program of this study.

### 2.7.1 The Purpose of Evaluation

Cronbach (1963) defined evaluation broadly as the collection and use of information to make decisions about an educational program. He enumerated three types of decision-making for which evaluation is used, the first of which, course improvement ('deciding what instructional materials and methods are satisfactory and where change is needed' p114) is seen as the broad objective of this study.

Alkin (1973) emphasised the need to differentiate between curriculum, consisting of 'intended learning outcomes; the results or ends of an instructional activity' (p 43) and instruction, 'the planning and implementation of appropriate strategies for curricular components; the means to achieve learning outcomes' (p 43). Within Alkin's framework, therefore, 'curriculum' evaluation is seen as an: evaluation of a set of intended outcome; evaluation of instructional planning which will provide information about planned instructional strategies; evaluation of instructional operation which will examine the implementation of the instructional plans.

In order to bring about 'course improvement' as defined by Cronbach (1963), each of the areas suggested by Alkin should be evaluated.

#### 2.7.2 Formative and Summative Evaluation

Formative evaluation, 'the process of judging a fluid process or product that can be revised in form' (Sanders & Cunningham, 1973: 277), takes place 'during the development, implementation and operation of the program' (Jarvis & Adams, 1979: 6).

Summative evaluation, on the other hand, is 'terminal evaluation of a program that is already operational. Its purpose is to make judgements about the program's worth' (Jarvis & Adams, 1979: 6).

With reference to this study, it was decided that it would be more effective to make changes during the trialling of the materials, therefore the evaluation should be of the formative type.

### 2.7.3 Evaluation of Foreign Language Programs: the Search for a Model

Evaluation in foreign language programs is discussed by various authors (Chastain, 1976; Davison, 1976; Jarvis and Adams, 1979; Valette, 1977; Bell, 1981; Cook, 1982 and Rivers, 1981). Eddy (1981), however, noted that very little evaluation of foreign language programs is actually taking place, a theory supported by the apparent shortage of documentation of such evaluations in the literature. This lack of documentation of evaluation of FL programs also applies in Australia, where a variety of foreign language programs is conducted.

Results of evaluations of bilingual and ESL programs are well documented (Swain, 1974; Cohen, 1976; Tucker, 1976; Tucker & Cziko, 1978; Carrillo, 1979).

No specific model, appropriate for the evaluation of a foreign language program, was identified in the literature. A search of the general evaluation literature was conducted to find a model, or a framework, suitable for evaluating curriculum materials. The one which seemed to be most appropriate, and which could be modified for use in this evaluation, was Sanders and Cunningham's (1973).

The framework suggested by Sanders and Cunningham (1973) is two dimensional, consisting of 'formative evaluation activity' (an outline of the phases through which an evaluation should progress), and 'sources of information' (suggestions for obtaining data). The first dimension only, of the framework, was adopted (see Fig. 2.2) and adapted for

this evaluation. It was used in conjunction with TenBrink's (1974) 'Techniques for obtaining information for evaluation'.

In the next section, Sanders and Cunningham's framework will be outlined. This will be followed by a discussion of the issues raised by TenBrink's data collection techniques, which are described fully in section 3.5.1 to 3.5.4.

FIGURE 2.2

- 
- I. Pre-Developmental Activities
    - A. Needs Assessment
    - B. Evaluation of Needs
  - II. Evaluation of Objectives
    - A. Logical Analyses
      - 1. Cogency of Reaching Objectives
      - 2. Consequences of Reaching Objectives
      - 3. Appeals to Higher Values
    - B. Empirical Analyses
      - 1. Evaluation by Relevant Groups
      - 2. Evaluation by Specialists
      - 3. Appeals to Written Documents
  - III. Formative Interim Evaluation
    - A. Formal
      - 1. Pay-off Evaluation
      - 2. Intrinsic Evaluation
      - 3. Evaluation of Program Operations
    - B. Informal (Unob trusive)
  - IV. Formative Product Evaluation
    - A. Validation Studies
    - B. Cost Analyses
    - C. Descriptive Analyses
    - D. Goal Free Evaluation
- 

A Structure for Planning Formative Evaluation in Product Development.  
 Sanders & Cunningham (1973: 218)

#### 2.7.4 . A Structure for Planning Formative Evaluation in Product Development

The evaluation plan, as perceived by Sanders and Cunningham (1973) (see Fig 2.2) was adapted for this study. This adapted version is shown in chapter 3 (Fig. 3.1).

Sanders and Cunningham (1973) noted that the 'product' is defined broadly to include not only the materials themselves (the curriculum) but the 'process' (the implementation of that curriculum, or program in a particular setting).

##### I Pre-Developmental Activities

Sanders and Cunningham (1973) noted that pre-developmental activities occur before product development is commenced, and involves a needs assessment, evaluation of needs, and the formulation of goals.

Sanders and Cunningham (1973) suggested the following steps:

- i) Collect lists of objectives from a range of sources.
- ii) Review and revise objectives (groups involved in the program).
- iii) Decide on information collection methods for each objective.
- iv) Decide on a sampling method and describe the sample.
- v) Develop methods for data analysis.
- vi) Prepare assessment time schedule and collect information.

As the 'product' under scrutiny in this study had already been developed, and was to be trialled, these steps were modified, as outlined in sections 3.1.1. and 3.1.2.



## II Evaluation of Objectives

Scriven (1967) made the point that formulation of objectives should not cease at the end of the pre-development stage. They should, rather,

be regularly re-examined and modified in the light of divergences from them that have arisen during the developmental activities ( p77).

Scriven emphasised that evaluation of goals should include not only measurement of performance against intended goals, but also, procedures for the evaluation of the goals themselves, a view also held by Jarvis and Adams (1979).

Stake (1970) suggested two types of analysis: logical and empirical. The first logical procedure is to examine the cogency of the argument for inclusion of the objective. The second is to 'examine the consequences of accomplishing it' (p 224), and the third is to compare the objective with a higher-order value statement, for example, a policy statement.

The first empirical analysis procedure, evaluation by relevant groups, can involve a variety of data collecting techniques including surveys and discussion. The second category is collection of judgemental data from experts, and the third, the analysis of documents.

## III Formative Interim Evaluation

Patton (1980) suggested that formative interim evaluation involves the collection of descriptive information, and the processing of 'critical appraisals'. Descriptive information is objective, generated from inspection of the parts, or the 'preliminary versions'

of the product, while critical appraisals are judgements made by those involved in the program (parents, students etc.).

Sanders and Cunningham (1973) differentiated between formal and informal procedures as follows:

Formal procedures refer to structured data collection and appraisal activities, whereas informal procedures are generally unstructured and often unplanned (p 74).

Scriven noted that three areas for evaluation, using both formal and informal procedures, take place at this stage: Pay-off evaluation is 'an examination of the effects of the teaching instrument of the pupil' (Scriven, 1973: 74-5).

Intrinsic evaluation is an appraisal of the instrument itself, 'analysis of the content of program components or the appraisal of instructional strategies' (Sanders and Cunningham, 1973: 228).

Evaluation of program operations is an 'evaluation of the operational design of the project development (p 231).

#### IV Formative Product Evaluation

Sanders and Cunningham (1973) suggested four areas for evaluation at this point:

- i) Validation studies involve validating the product by observing the extent to which objectives are achieved with a sample of subjects from the target population.
- ii) Several procedures are suggested for Cost Analyses. Of these only budgetting and cost accounting are applicable to this study.

- iii) Descriptive Analyses at this stage will enable the product to be evaluated in terms of a particular context.
- iv) Finally, goal-free evaluation, by an external evaluator unaware of the established goals, is suggested, to provide information about strengths and weaknesses of the product.

## 2.8 Techniques for Obtaining Information for Evaluation Purposes

TenBrink (1974) enumerated four major techniques for obtaining information for evaluation purposes: analysis, inquiry, observation and testing.

He stated that:

- i) Analysis is 'a process of separating something into its component parts - breaking it down "to find out" what it is made of' (p 137).
- ii) Inquiry is used to obtain information about 'attitudes, interests, and interpersonal relationships' (p 137) through such instruments as interviews and questionnaires.
- iii) Observation, while generating information about cognitive skills is most suitable for gathering information about psychomotor and affective behaviour.
- iv) Testing, similarly, may be used to gather information in the three areas (cognitive, affective and psychomotor), but is the 'major information-gathering technique for... information about the cognitive aspects of... behavior' (p 139).

TenBrink went on to itemize various instruments suitable for use with each of these techniques (Fig 3.3). Those used in this study are described in sections 3.5.1 to 3.5.4. Procedures for constructing certain specific information-gathering instruments, are, however, the subject of discussion in the literature (TenBrink, 1974; Davison, 1976; Patton, 1980; Cohen and Manion, 1980). These will now be outlined.

### 2.8.1 Questionnaire Construction

TenBrink (1974) outlined the six basic steps in questionnaire construction:

- i) Describe the needed information.
- ii) Write the questions.
- iii) Arrange the questions.
- iv) Provide a way to respond.
- v) Write instructions.
- vi) Reproduce the questionnaire.

He then pointed out the pitfalls to be avoided.

TenBrink also detailed points to be considered in the construction of attitude scales, which, he said, 'provide information which is supplementary to that obtained through observation' (p 303). The guidelines used for constructing a Likert scale (p 303-4) were used when writing the questionnaires for this study. In this type of scale the respondent is presented with a number of statements and asked to indicate, on a five-point scale, his level of agreement or disagreement.

In this study the procedures suggested by TenBrink (1974) were used in questionnaire construction.

### 2.8.2 A Brief Introduction to Testing in FL Programs

Various authors (Lado, 1961; Cronbach, 1963; Scriven, 1967; Chastain, 1976; Valette, 1977; Carroll, 1980; Brown, 1980; Rivers, 1981 and

Bell, 1981) have considered the issues related to testing.

Bell (1981) outlined four types of test used in foreign language programs: prognostic (or aptitude), proficiency, attainment (or achievement) and diagnostic. The attainment test, which assesses 'the extent to which a learner has mastered the contents of a particular course' (p 192), was identified as the type suitable for use at Stage 3 of this evaluation.

### 2.8.3. Constructing Teacher-made Tests

Scriven (1967) suggested the construction of a 'test-question pool' as the program proceeds. Items are then randomly selected and the same number assigned to each student.

Cronbach (1963) commented that:

Giving each student in a population of 500 the same test of 50 questions will provide far less information... than drawing for each student 50 questions from a pool of say, 700. The latter plan determines the mean success of about 75 representative students on every one of 700 items; the former reports on only 50 items (p 121).

For the improvement of a program, item data are obviously of greater importance than test scores, therefore this means of test construction was seen as the 'ideal'.

### 2.8.4 Test Validity, Reliability and Practicality

A number of authors (TenBrink, 1974; Heaton, 1975; Rivers, 1981; Bell, 1981) commented on test validity and reliability.

According to Bell (1981) validity

is concerned with relevance; does the test actually measure what we want it to measure and does it do it well enough for us to have faith in the results (p198).

Bell outlined four types of validity: content validity; construct validity; empirical validity; and face validity. In the construction of teacher-made tests, TenBrink (1974) assigned the greatest importance to content validity. He suggested using a checklist of instructional goals or specific objectives against which to compare test items: each item should 'clearly measure a specific objective' (p 399) and, correspondingly, every defined specific objective should be measured by a test item. Unless this is adhered to, the test will have low validity.

Construct validity shows whether a test is 'capable of measuring certain specific characteristics in accordance with a theory of language behaviour and learning' (Heaton, 1975: 154).

Empirical validity may be either concurrent or predictive. Concurrent validity is demonstrated by the rating of students by an experienced teacher immediately after being given a test; if students are tested and rated subsequently, the validity is predictive.

Face validity relates to judgements about the test's appropriateness by those who administer it.

Reliability, on the other hand,

is concerned with the precision of the measurement made possible by the test; does the test measure... sufficiently accurately for us to have confidence in the results? (Bell, 1981; 199).

While Bell (1981) gave suggestions for the elimination of potential sources of error, extrinsic and intrinsic, TenBrink (1974) claimed that it is not always necessary to use a reliability coefficient. He outlined situations for which such coefficients would be useful and noted that use of a 'discrimination index' is an alternative indication of the internal consistency of a test. He outlined the procedures involved in making a discrimination index (pp 392-394).

Accordingly, it was decided that in this study a discrimination index would be used to test for reliability of the oral test used to assess student performance in Stage 3 of the evaluation.

A final characteristic considered by Bell to be an essential for a 'good' test is practicality. The parameters of this practicality are:

- a) Economy: the cost in time, money and personnel of administering a particular test.
- b) Ease: the degree of difficulty experienced in the administration and scoring of the test and the interpretation of the results (1981: 200)

When constructing the Oral Test used during Stage 3 of this evaluation, consideration was given to the points raised in the preceding discussion, regarding test validity, reliability and practicality.

#### 2.8.5 Constructing Rating Scales

TenBrink (1974) described five steps which should be used to ensure good design of a rating scale:



- a) Specify an important learning outcome.
- b) List the important characteristics of each outcome.
- c) Define a scale for each characteristic.
- d) Arrange the scales.
- f) Write the instructions.

At Step (c) TenBrink gave examples of various types of rating scales, of which the qualitative type, behavioural type, and descriptive-graphic type were used during this study.

Procedures (similar to those outlined in section 2.8.4) for evaluating rating scales were also suggested. TenBrink (1974), however, mentioned an additional source of error especially applicable to rating scales: scorer error. A procedure for estimating scorer reliability was outlined.

#### 2.8.6 Sampling Techniques

The importance of obtaining a representative sample of a defined population is stressed in the literature (TenBrink, 1974; Cohen and Manion, 1980). For the purpose of this study it was decided that the total population of families with children involved in the program, the children themselves, and the teachers, should be invited to complete each questionnaire. The success of this technique, and possible sampling error, will be discussed in chapter 6.

### 2.8.7 Procedures for Evaluating Information-gathering Instruments

The three criteria against which information-gathering instruments may be judged are validity, reliability and ease of use; the most basic procedures used to judge are checking for flaws, and trying out the instrument (TenBrink, 1974).

### 2.8.8 Identification of Sources of Error

TenBrink outlined three sources of error in information-gathering instruments. These may arise from within the instrument itself, from within the process of information gathering, or from within the individual being evaluated. Factors arising from within the instrument, which may contribute to unreliability or invalidity, include: inappropriate content, the difficulty of the items, ambiguity, and the amount of information; from within the information-gathering process they include test administration, and scoring and recording and from within the individual there also may be a variety of factors. TenBrink (1974) suggested ways in which error can be minimised (p 28 ff), and ways in which it can be 'lived with' (p 52-55).

Considerable care was taken during this study to avoid the sources of error referred to by TenBrink.

### 2.8.9 Factors in Evaluating Texts for the Foreign-language Classroom

Davison (1976) suggested a number of factors which should be considered when evaluating texts for foreign language teaching. The checklist shown in Fig. 2.3 was based on these factors, and was used in Intrinsic Evaluation, at Stage 3.

FIGURE 2.3

- 
1. Student/Text
    - Objectives of students
    - Age of students
    - Language background of students
    - Level of students
    - Style and content
  2. Curriculum/Text
    - Objectives of curriculum
    - Time allotted
    - Methodology
  3. Class Size/Text
  4. Teacher/Text
  5. Internal Construction of Text
    - Identification of teaching points
    - Sequencing
    - Variety
    - Review
    - Practise of skills
- 

Checklist of Factors to be Considered when Evaluating a Foreign-language Text.

Based on Davison (1976: 310-314).

CHAPTER 3  
THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

3. The Study

The study involved an evaluation of the Japanese language program during its implementation period at Macquarie Primary School in the ACT. The evaluation focussed on the following questions:

- a. Were the goals of the program valid, consistent, and appropriate?
- b. How successful was the program in achieving its stated goals?
- c. How was school organisation affected by the program?
- d. Did use of the program result in any unexpected outcomes?
- e. What revision or modifications were necessary to the program?

These questions will be commented on in detail in chapter 6, after the presentation of the results of the evaluation.

Due to the limited period of time in which students were exposed to Japanese during this study, and although their language development was monitored and assessed, language proficiency development was not the primary focus of this evaluation.

The Evaluation Model Used in this Study

The evaluation model used in this study was adapted from Sanders and Cunningham (see discussion in section 2.7.4.) Figure 3.1 shows the adapted framework:

FIGURE 3.1

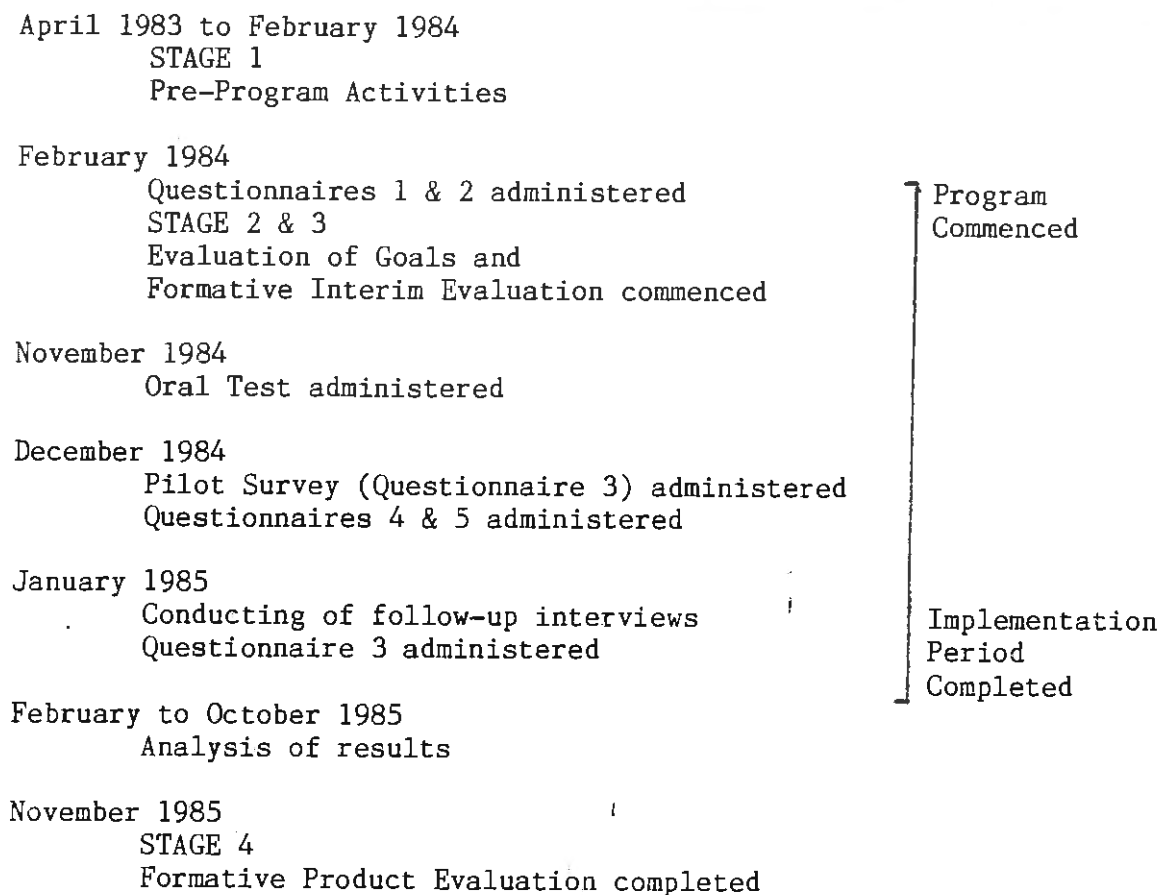
- 
- |         |  |
|---------|--|
| Stage 1 | Pre-program Activities                                   |
|         | 1 Needs Assessment                                       |
|         | 2 Adoption of a curriculum                               |
|         | 3 Specification of goals                                 |
|         | 4 Collection of contextual information                   |
| Stage 2 | Evaluation of Goals                                      |
|         | 1 Means of establishing goals                            |
|         | 2 Logical and empirical analyses of goals                |
|         | 3 Hierarchical consistency of goals, aims and objectives |
| Stage 3 | Formative Interim Evaluation                             |
|         | 1 Pay-off evaluation                                     |
|         | 2 Intrinsic evaluation                                   |
|         | 3 Evaluation of program operations                       |
|         | 4 Other outcomes of the program                          |
| Stage 4 | Formative Product Evaluation                             |
|         | 1 Cost analyses  |
|         | 2 Descriptive analyses                                   |
- 

Adapted from Sanders and Cunningham (1973: 118).

A Structure for Planning Formative Evaluation in Trialling a Product.

Figure 3.2 shows the time frame within which the study took place:

FIGURE 3.2



The Formative Evaluation of the Implementation of the Japanese Program at Macquarie Primary School:  
A Time-line

In the following section each stage of the evaluation, as shown in Figure 3.1, will be described. This will be followed by a discussion of the techniques used to obtain the information required at each stage. In the final sections the setting in which the study took place, and the curriculum to be trialled, will be briefly described.

### 3.1 Stage 1 Pre-program Activities

#### 3.1.1 Needs Assessment

In the context of Sanders and Cunningham's (1973) framework (Fig. 3.1) several 'needs assessment' steps took place prior to the commencement of the evaluation. These were:

- (i) preliminary discussion between members of school staff and officers of the ACT Schools Authority;
- (ii) a meeting between parents and teachers to discuss the viability of introducing a foreign language into the curriculum at Macquarie Primary School;
- (iv) a submission to the ACT Schools Authority Multicultural Education Advisory Committee (MEAC) seeking funds to implement such a program.

Evaluation of the needs apparent from the steps outlined led to the decision to introduce the teaching of Japanese at Macquarie Primary School.

#### 3.1.2 The Adoption of a Curriculum

At this point the search for an appropriate curriculum commenced. The steps taken in the adoption of a curriculum (the 'product') for trial are outlined in section 5.1.2.

#### 3.1.3 The Specification of Goals

The following steps, leading to the specification of goals, took place prior to the commencement of the program:

- (i) the administering of Questionnaire 1 (PQ1) to parents, and Questionnaire 2 (SQ1) to students (Appendices 1, 2);
- (ii) specification of a set of goals in answer to the question "What are our expectations of the program?"
- (iii) 'writing-in' a set of aims for Book 1 of the materials, and lesson objectives for each lesson, based on analysis of stated lesson content and strategies;
- (iv) preliminary examination of the materials to assess their potential to achieve the broad goals formulated for the Japanese language program; and
- (v) consideration of the formulated goals in the light of parent and student expectations.

#### 3.1.4 Collection of Contextual Information

Information concerning the students, teachers, resources and facilities relevant to the program in its setting was collected from school records, and from examination of available resources and the materials themselves. This led to the compilation of a descriptive report about the program (see section 3.6 to 3.6.5).



### 3.2 Stage 2 Evaluation of Goals

Prior to Stage 2 (Evaluation of Goals) questionnaires 3, 4, and 5 (Appendices 3, 4, 5) were administered to parents, students and teachers, respectively.

Evaluation of goals of the program involved:

- (i) examination of the means of establishing the goals;
- (ii) analyses of the goals themselves;
- (iii) examination of hierarchical consistency of the goals of the program, the aims of Book 1, and lesson objectives.

#### 3.2.1 Means of Establishing Goals

The goals of the Japanese Program were established with reference to the literature, and the responses of parents and students in the questionnaires.

#### 3.2.2 Logical and Empirical Analyses of Goals

Logical and empirical analyses of the goals involved four steps:

- (i) comparison of the goals with those of the school;
- (ii) consideration of the goals with regard to the National Language Policy (1984);
- (iii) comparison of the goals with goals of other foreign language programs;

- (iv) evaluation by relevant groups; the opinions of parents, and teachers involved in the program, was sought through the second parent questionnaire (PQ2) and the teacher questionnaire (TQ) (Appendices 3, 5).

### 3.2.3 Hierarchical Consistency of Goals, Aims and Objectives.

An assessment was made of the hierarchical consistency of the broad goals of the program, the objectives of the materials and the objectives at lesson level, using the framework suggested by Jarvis and Adams (1979) (Figure 2.2).

By the end of Stage 2, Question 1, 'Are the goals of the program valid, consistent and appropriate?' was able to be answered regarding validity and consistency.

### 3.3 Stage 3 Formative Interim Evaluation

Within this stage of the evaluation the four areas listed by Sanders and Cunningham (1973), (Figure 3.1), were considered. It was then possible to answer the first four evaluative questions (see section 3.1).

#### 3.3.1 Pay-off Evaluation

To complete Pay-off evaluation, an examination of the effects of the teaching instrument on the students, the following information was required:

- (i) student performance data;
- (ii) information on the attitudes of students towards the program, from students, parents and teachers; and
- (ii) analysis of other variables which may affect student performance.

##### (i) Student Performance Data

It was decided to assess student achievement in the four skills areas identified in the first goal of the curriculum, in order to evaluate the extent to which this goal was being achieved.

The techniques used to obtain this information were the Testing and Observation Instruments suggested by TenBrink (1974). They are described in Section 3.5.

(ii) Student Attitudes

As the program proceeded, enthusiasm and interest during lessons was monitored as a matter of course, and appropriate adjustments to the lesson plan were made if necessary. Any unusual incidents were noted.

In the longer term, student attitudes towards the Japanese program, the people and culture, and the carry-over to other cultures, were gauged from responses to relevant sections of questionnaires 3, 4 and 5. A comparison was also made of student attitudes both prior to, and after commencement of the program.

(iii) Analysis of Other Variables

Learner characteristics, or variables, which the literature suggested may have an affect on second language learning, and which were pertinent to this study, were outlined in section 2.6 (2.6.1 - 2.6.8). These were age; age in relation to other variables; aptitude; previous linguistic experience; cognitive style, learning style and learning strategies; reaction to language teaching methods, and ethnocentrism.

Information about student age was obtained from school records. A comparison was made of student performance across age and grade level.

An assessment of each student's attitudes was made (as outlined in section 3.3.1 (ii) ) and compared with performance.

Each student's language aptitude was assessed at the commencement of the program using the Carroll-Sapon Elementary Modern Language Aptitude Test (see section 2.6.4). The intention was that performance as predicted in this test would be compared with actual performance.

Analysis of results of ESL children, or those from NESB, enabled comment to be made regarding performance and previous linguistic experience.

It was beyond the scope of this study to analyse each child's cognitive style, learning style, and learning strategies. However, the materials used in the program were examined to ensure that a variety of teaching strategies was used (see section 5.3.2), and student reaction to the different lesson components was sought in questionnaire 4.

Responses to questionnaires 4 and 5 also enabled an assessment to be made of the appropriateness of the materials with regard to the 'age, experience, and interest' (Tucker, 1978: 210 - see section 2.6.6) of the students.

Student reaction to language teaching methods was monitored during the course.

Student attitudes were considered in the light of Holt's (1978) findings on ethnocentrism, as discussed in section 2.6.8.

### 3.3.2 Intrinsic Evaluation

At this stage the 'product' itself, that is, the unpublished materials to be used as the basis for the program (Book 1: sā hajimemashō), was assessed. These materials were identified in section 1.3.2 and will be described more fully in section 3.6.5.

An analysis sheet was drawn up on which the percentage of time to be spent in each lesson on each of the macro-skills could be recorded. The materials were then evaluated using the framework suggested by Davison (1976). The relationship between the content of lessons, the time spent on each of the macro-skills, the short-term objectives of each lesson and the long-term goals of the program, was considered. A daily observation sheet provided a cross-check of the actual time spent on each of the skills areas, and the actual content taught. Responses to questions 10 and 11 (SQ2), and 8 and 9 (TQ) provided information on the appropriateness of the content for each grade level.

The final stage in the evaluation of the product was a consideration of the methodological approach implied by the curriculum, with reference to the literature.

### 3.3.3 Evaluation of Program Operations

The opinion of all staff involved in the program, on its effect on classroom and school organisation, was sought formally through the questionnaire (TQ), and in informal discussion, throughout the implementation period.

Modifications to program operations which were made during the implementation period will be discussed in section 6.5.1 to 6.5.3

### 3.3.4 Other Outcomes of the Program

The final step of this stage of the evaluation was to examine any comments, either verbal (recorded in the note-book) or written (from questionnaires) about the program, to ascertain whether any unexpected outcomes had arisen from the program. It was undertaken at this stage, rather than during Formative Product Evaluation.

By the end of Stage 3, Formative Interim Evaluation, data enabling research questions 1, 2, 3 and 4 to be answered, had been collected.

### 3.4 Stage 4 Formative Product Evaluation

At Stage 4, an overall evaluation, with reference to the five evaluative questions (see section 1.4), was made of the curriculum, both as an entity and in the context in which it was trialled.

Processed data from information obtained in answer to questions 1, 2, 3 and 4 enabled question 5 'What revision or modifications were necessary to the program?' to be answered. In fact, any major changes deemed necessary had, because of the nature of formative evaluation, frequently been made as a result of trialling on the first group taught. Other modifications which seemed necessary were made after the overall evaluation. These modifications will be described in sections 6.5.1 to 6.5.4.

The descriptive analyses compiled at the final stage of the evaluation constitute Chapter 6 of this study.

### 3.5 Techniques for Obtaining Information for the Evaluation

TenBrink's (1974) four techniques for obtaining information were outlined in section 2.8. For ease of reference the sources of information are listed in Figure 3.3. Each of the sources of data identified in Figure 3.3 was used at an appropriate stage in the evaluation, so will be briefly discussed in the following sections.

FIGURE 3.3

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1	Analyses of Documents School aims and objectives Program description Literature survey
2	Inquiry Instruments Questionnaires Interviews Group discussion
3	Observation Instruments Observation schedules Checklists Field notes
4	Testing Instruments Teacher assessment Teacher-made tests

---

Techniques for Obtaining Information for Evaluation

Adapted from TenBrink (1974).

#### 3.5.1 The Documents

##### (i) School Aims and Objectives

The Macquarie Primary School goals, pertinent to this study, will be presented at 5.2.2, where they will be discussed in relation to the aims of the Japanese program.



(ii) Program Description

A description of the program, the materials themselves, and the setting in which this study took place, is presented in section 3.6.

(iii) Literature Survey

The literature which provided the theoretical base for this study was discussed in Chapter 2.

### 3.5.2 Inquiry Instruments

Three inquiry instruments, suggested by TenBrink (1974) were used in this evaluation. These were

- 1 Questionnaires
- 2 Interviews
- 3 Group discussion

(i) Questionnaires

Questionnaires were administered at Stage 1 (Questionnaires 1 and 2) and prior to Stage 2 (Questionnaires 3, 4 and 5) of the evaluation (Appendices 1 - 5).

The construction of the questionnaires was guided by:

- (a) reference to the literature: TenBrink (1974) and Cohen and Manion (1980) outlined the procedures to be adopted in questionnaire development;
- (b) consultation with Dennis Strand of the Evaluation and Research Section of the ACT Schools Authority;

- (c) adaptation of two existing questionnaires developed by Williams (1981), with the permission of the author, (for questionnaires 1 and 2 only).

#### QUESTIONNAIRE 1 (PQ1)

The purpose of the first Parent Questionnaire (PQ1) was to:

- (i) collect information about parents' perceptions of the role of language study at primary school level; and
- (ii) ascertain the attitude of parents towards foreign language study.

PQ1 consisted of nine items:

- \* Items 1 and 2 were for administrative purposes, enabling contextual information, on the language background of each child, to be compiled.
- \* Item 3 was used to ascertain parent reaction to the introduction of foreign language study, generally, at primary school.
- \* Item 4 was used to ascertain whether parents would like their child to study a foreign language at high school.
- \* Item 5, in conjunction with the previous two questions, gave an indication of which language parents would prefer their child to learn.
- \* Items 6 - 9 were designed to ascertain parents' perceptions of the purpose of foreign language study, and to assist in the compilation of appropriate broad goals for the program.

Administrative Procedures (PQ1)

PQ1 was administered in February 1984, at Stage 1 (Pre-program Activities) of the evaluation. Both parents of each child in the school were invited to complete the questionnaire. Shortage of time precluded the use of a pilot survey.

QUESTIONNAIRE 2 (SQ1)

The purpose of the first Student Questionnaire (SQ1) was to:

- (i) collect information about the language background of the students;
- (ii) gauge each child's attitude to the forthcoming program; and
- (iii) ascertain each child's perception of the purpose of language study.

SQ1 consisted of eleven items:

- \* Items 1 - 4 were for administrative purposes.
- \* Items 5 and 6, used in conjunction with item 2 of Parent Questionnaire (PQ1) enabled the collection of information on the language background of each child.
- \* Item 7 was used to ascertain the respondent's attitudes towards learning Japanese prior to commencing the program.
- \* Item 8 asked respondents to indicate which language they would choose to learn if given the choice, and why.

Responses were to be compared with parent responses to item 5 in PQ1. The purpose of such a comparison was to enable an assessment to be made of the extent of parent influence on children's responses.

- \* Items 9, 10 and 11 were used to assess student perceptions of the purpose of foreign language study.

#### Administrative Procedures (SQ1)

The questionnaire (SQ1) was administered to each child in grades 3 - 6 at the commencement of Stage 1 of the evaluation. Students completed the questionnaire in class groups in the first scheduled lesson.

Prior to, and during completion of, the questionnaire all items in the questionnaire were explained to the group, and any questions answered.

#### QUESTIONNAIRE 3 (PQ2)

The second Parent Questionnaire (PQ2) was in three sections.

- (i) The purpose of Section A was to obtain information about both student and parent perception of, and attitude towards, the Japanese program, after one year of operation.
- (ii) Section B was designed for parents who wished to offer comment on the appropriateness of the goals of the program.
- (iii) The purpose of Section C was to obtain information about the parents' course.

PQ2 consisted of 27 items

- \* Items 1 and 2 provided statistical information.
- \* Items 3 and 4 supplied information on the language background of respondents, and students, and enabled the percentage of responses by parents of ESL children to be calculated.

- \* Item 5 was designed so that the extent of practical usage of Japanese outside school, by each student, could be assessed.
- \* Items 6 and 7 were included so that information about the child's attitude towards school could be obtained.
- \* Items 8, 9 10 and items 16, 17 were indicative of the child's attitude towards Japanese.
- \* Item 11 indicated respondents' perceptions of the role of Japanese in various areas of the child's development.
- \* Items 12, 13, 14 and 15 were designed to gauge respondents' reactions to the commencement and continuation of language study, either Japanese or another language.
- \* Items 18 and 19 enabled respondents' attitudes towards the program prior to its commencement and after one year of operation, to be compared.
- \* Items 20, 22, 23 and 24 concerned the appropriateness and achievement of the goals of the program.
- \* Item 21 allowed parents to make suggestions or comments about the operation or outcomes of the program.
- \* Items 25, 26 and 27 concerned the parents' course, and its operation.

#### The Pilot Study (PQ2)

A pilot questionnaire was drawn up and circulated to parents randomly selected from the parent body. As a result of the Pilot Study, minor alterations were made, only to the structure of this questionnaire.

It was decided at this point that only parents with children in Grades 3 - 6, whose children had participated in the 'formal' program, would be asked to participate in the major study.

#### Administrative Procedures (PQ2)

PQ2 was sent, in February 1985, to all parents of children who had been in Grades 3 - 5 the previous year. The questionnaire was also sent to a sample of ten parents whose children had proceeded to Year 7 at high school, but who had participated in the Japanese program during 1984. These ten parents were selected on the basis of their child's assessed performance, and attitude, in an attempt to provide as wide a variety of opinion as possible. Parents were invited to respond to the questionnaire anonymously, or otherwise, as they wished. They were also asked to indicate their willingness and availability for follow-up interview if it was considered appropriate.

Sections B and C of the questionnaire, concerning the Goals of the Program and the Parents' Course, were optional.

This questionnaire (PQ2) was administered during Stage 2 of the evaluation. Responses to items relevant to this stage (Evaluation of Objectives) were analysed at this time; information from other items was used in Stage 3 (Formative Interim Evaluation).

#### QUESTIONNAIRE 4 (SQ2)

The second Student Questionnaire (SQ2) was designed to gauge student attitude to the Japanese program after they had been attending lessons during 1984.

SQ2 consisted of sixteen items:

- \* Items 1 - 6 and 9 each contributed information about student attitudes to school, school subjects generally, and Japanese specifically. Responses to items specifically related to the study of Japanese were only to be considered if a child indicated a strong negative attitude towards Japanese. The assumption here was that if a child displayed a negative attitude only towards Japanese, it was probably the subject itself that was the problem rather than an overall negative attitude towards everything. Responses to these questions, therefore, would isolate children with a negative attitude specifically towards Japanese.
- \* Items 7, 8 allowed students to rate themselves according to ability in, and understanding of, Japanese.
- \* Items 10 and 11 were included so that an assessment of student reaction to lesson content could be made.
- \* Items 12, 13, 14 enabled student attitude towards further foreign language study to be gauged. The purpose was to discover whether children who chose not to continue Japanese would consider studying another language.
- \* Items 15 and 16 were designed so that an assessment of student interest in Japan could be made. Responses to question 16 would also have implications for the content of the cultural component of the program.

Administrative Procedure (SQ2)

SQ2 was administered at school to class groups of children in Grades 3 to 6, in November 1984. They were given the option of completing the questionnaire anonymously. All items were read aloud to children in Grades 3 to 5, and questions answered prior to, and during completion of, the questionnaire. Children in grade 6 read the questionnaire independently and were left to complete it in their own time.

QUESTIONNAIRE 5 (TQ)

The Teacher Questionnaire (TQ) was designed to elicit information about both teacher and student attitude towards the Japanese program. In addition teachers' perceptions of the effect of the program on school organisation were obtained. It was hoped that information on any unanticipated outcomes of the program would also be elicited.

TQ consisted of twenty-three items:

- \* Items 1 to 7 and 12 were designed to gauge teacher attitude to foreign language study, specifically Japanese, in the primary school.
- \* Items 8 - 11 were included so that aspects of the program requiring revision would become apparent.
- \* Items 12 - 16 enabled teachers' perceptions of the appropriateness and achievement of the goals of the program to be assessed.
- \* Items 17 and 18 concerned the effect of the program on specific children, including ESL children.
- \* Item 19 concerned the effect of the program on school and class organisation.



- \* Items 20 - 23 invited comment on the goals of program, including unexpected outcomes.

#### Administrative Procedures (TQ)

Because of the small number of staff actually involved in the Japanese program with their class group, it was decided not to attempt a pilot teacher survey.

The Teacher Questionnaire (TQ) was drawn up and given to each of the five class teachers and to the ancillary staff member who had attended lessons. The school principal and the librarian, both of whom had commented frequently about the program, were also asked to complete the questionnaire.

The Teacher Questionnaire was administered during Stage 2 of the evaluation.

#### (ii) Interviews

Wherever clarification of comments made in questionnaires was required, subjects were interviewed.

#### (iii) Group Discussions

Group discussions occurred regularly between:

- a) parents, and the teacher of Japanese, at the Parents' Course;
- b) class teachers and the teacher of Japanese;
- c) students and the teacher of Japanese.

Such discussions were generally informal in nature, but enabled the teacher of Japanese to keep anecdotal notes about, for

example, course content, program organisation and children's attitudes.

### 3.5.3 Observation Instruments

#### (i) The Observation Schedule (Appendix 6)

An observation schedule was drawn up with the knowledge that it would be completed by an observer <sup>in observation strategies,</sup> untrained, on a frequent but irregular basis. The ideal was that an observation schedule be completed for each lesson for each grade.

The recorder was asked to note:

1. variations from the stated lesson plan;
2. particular difficulties experienced by specific children or by the group;
3. any unexpected occurrences;
4. the time spent on each step in the lesson.

#### (ii) Checklists

Because of the numbers of students involved in each lesson, and because the recorder was also to be an assistant in group work, a simplified checklist was used. This consisted of a class list on which was recorded the number of responses made by any child, during each lesson.

#### (iii) Field notes

A notebook was kept, in which comments made by anyone involved with the program were recorded.

Any changes made to lesson procedures were noted on the daily lesson plans, which became in effect, a 'diary' of the program for each class.

#### 3.5.4 Testing Instruments

##### (i) Teacher Assessment

It was decided that, since the first broad goal of the program concerned the four macro-skills, student performance using these skills should be assessed. Student achievement in reading and writing could mainly be assessed by reference to the individual workbooks and with reference to the daily observation schedule and checklist. It was decided also that since reading/writing skills at this stage of learning Japanese were interdependent, the skills could be assessed at the same time.

Similarly listening/speaking skills could be simultaneously assessed, since at this stage of their learning the students were listening and responding to questions. The observation schedule and checklist again provided data for this assessment.

##### (ii) The Oral Test

In the goals of the program (1.3.1) greater emphasis was placed on listening and speaking skills.

Any changes made to lesson procedures were noted on the daily lesson plans, which became in effect, a 'diary' of the program for each class.

#### 3.5.4 Testing Instruments

##### (i) Teacher Assessment

It was decided that, since the first broad goal of the program concerned the four macro-skills, student performance using these skills would be assessed in the following ways:

- reading - by reference to the daily observation schedule and checklist;
- writing - by reference to individual workbooks;
- speaking - by reference to the daily observation schedule and checklist;
- listening - by reference to the daily observation schedule and checklist.

##### (ii) The Oral Test

In the goals of the program (1.3.1.) greater emphasis was placed on listening skills.

Because of the numbers of children in each class, and the consequent lack of opportunity for each child to demonstrate these skills frequently, it was decided to administer an oral test (individually) to all students (Appendix 7).

#### Purpose of the Oral Test

The primary purpose of the oral test was to enable individual students to demonstrate the listening and speaking skills they had acquired on completion of Book 1 of the materials being trialled.

#### Design of the Test

There were fourteen items in the test. These were selected for inclusion as the program proceeded, in the manner suggested in section 2.8.3. Items 1 - 9 were arranged in increasing order of difficulty, which was the order in which they had been taught. Items 10 - 14 were oral commands used frequently in the classroom.

#### Item Description

- \* Item 1 tested the student's ability to give his/her name in Japanese.
- \* Item 2 tested ability to respond appropriately to a greeting.
- \* Items 2 - 4 tested knowledge of vocabulary and understanding of the questions.
- \* Items 5 and 6, in addition to testing vocabulary, required knowledge of ordinal numbers to 30 and the ability to respond to a complex question.

- \* Items 7 - 9 tested the child's ability to express 'liking' or 'disliking', and understanding of use of the particle 'mo'.
- \* Items 10 - 14 were oral commands used frequently in the classroom. Each item tested firstly, comprehension of the command, and secondly, ability to perform the task.
- \* Item 10: the child was expected to repeat, by rote, the Japanese 'hiragana' syllabary.
- \* Item 11: the child was expected to count by rote.
- \* Item 12: the child was expected to read a sentence from the board.
- \* Item 13: the child was expected to write his/her name.
- \* Item 14: the child was expected to perform the appropriate action.

#### Administrative Procedures for the Oral Test

The oral test was administered to each child individually by the teacher or the bilingual aide. Responses for each child were recorded by someone other than the examiner. This was either the teacher of the program (when the test was administered by the Japanese aide), or the Australian teacher's assistant.

In order that the testing situation was as much like the normal classroom as possible, during the test all charts and pictures normally present in the room were on view.

There were no time constraints for test administration, but when a child was obviously having difficulty he/she was either assisted, or the next item attempted.

### Scoring Procedures

Each child's test was individually scored. Figure 3.4 gives an item description, possible maximum score, and method used to allocate points. After scoring the test for all children an item analysis was carried out using the procedures described by TenBrink (1974). The results of the item analysis, together with notes made in the observation schedules, indicated items which were causing particular difficulty.

FIGURE 3.4

Item	Description	Possible Maximum Points	Method of Scoring
1	giving name	1	acceptable response
2	greeting	1	appropriate response
3	knowledge of vocabulary	7	a point for each
4	vocabulary	4	appropriate response
5, 6	ordinal numbers	4	2 points for each correct response
7-9	expressing liking/disliking; use of particle 'mo'	6	2 points for each appropriate response; 2 points for use of particle 'mo'
10-14	oral commands	10	appropriate response to each of 5 commands; 1 point:understanding 1 point:performance

Total maximum possible - 33

Scoring Procedures for an Oral Test Based on  
Book 1: s̄a hajimemashō



### 3.6 The Setting in Which the Study Took Place

#### 3.6.1 The School

Macquarie Primary School is a 'traditional' school built in 1967 to serve the population of the ACT suburb of Macquarie. Curricula in the school have traditionally been developed by the staff, with some limited parental involvement, on a broad 'subject' basis. There is a strong emphasis on teaching the 'basic skills' with importance also placed on developing the 'whole' child.

#### 3.6.2 Other Institutions Offering Japanese in the ACT

Macquarie Primary School is one of three 'feeder' primary schools for Canberra High School, which offers courses in French and German to students in years 8 - 10 after a general introduction to both languages in year 7.

In 1984 Japanese was offered at four government secondary schools (years 7 - 10) and three secondary colleges (years 11 - 12); at three private schools; at the Canberra College of Advanced Education (CCAЕ) and at the Australian National University (ANU). There are also various evening courses for adults.

#### 3.6.3 Those Involved in the Japanese Program

##### The Students:

At the beginning of the 1984 school year 220 students, from both English speaking (ESB) and Non-English speaking background (NESB) (see

SQL Table 4.5) were enrolled at the school. The children were placed in eight unstreamed classes at the grade level appropriate to their age and general ability. It was decided that all children should initially be given the opportunity to learn Japanese: children in grades K - 2 would have limited exposure only; those in grade 3 - 6 would commence the program of formal language study which was the subject of this evaluation.

Table 5.1 shows numbers of children in each grade, including those from NESB who attended English as a Second Language (ESL) classes. This information was necessary since previous linguistic experience was considered in the literature (see section 2.6.5) to be a factor which may influence student achievement.

TABLE 3.1

Distribution of Children (Grades 3 - 6) Commencing Japanese classes at Macquarie Primary School in February 1984\*

Grade	Children Not Attending ESL Classes	Children Attending ESL Classes	Total
3	19	6	25
4	22	4	26
5	25	3	28
6	39	6	45
Total	105	19	124

\* During the year these numbers fluctuated.

### The Staff

Those directly involved in the program included:

one non-native Japanese teacher;

one bilingual teacher's aide, a native speaker;

five class teachers who, initially, attended lessons with their own class.

The remaining staff - the Principal, Librarian, ESL teacher and Support teacher were not directly involved in the program.

### The Parents

Parents were encouraged to participate in the program. An evening meeting to describe the program was held early in Term 1, and an outline of the course was subsequently delivered to all parents. An evening course was offered, initially on a weekly basis, but as the year proceeded classes were reduced to one every three weeks.

Parents were invited to visit the school during the day to see classes in progress, but this proved to be impracticable for the majority.

Parents were kept informed of the accomplishments of each grade through the weekly newsletter.

#### 3.6.4 Timetabling for Japanese

It was originally anticipated that Book 1 (sā hajimemashō) would be completed by mid-year, but as the program proceeded it became apparent that a longer period would be required.

Forty-five minutes was selected as the optimum time-span for each lesson, both to facilitate timetabling 'back-to back' with other subjects, and to enable a variety of learning activities to take place within each lesson.

Three hours per week was allocated to each class from grades 3 - 6 (Fig. 3.5). Class teachers attended three out of four lessons with their class.

FIGURE 3.5

Time	Day of Week				
	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri
9.00 - 9.45	3	3	3	3	6/1
9.45 - 10.25	4	6/2	4	4	4
10.25 - 11.00	Daily fitness program and Morning Recess				
11.00 - 11.45	5	5	6/2	6/2	6/2
11.45 - 12.30	6/1	6/1	6/1	5	5
1.30 - 2.00	2	1	K	-	-
2.00 - 3.00	-	-	-	-	-

Original Timetable (February 1984) for Japanese Lessons at Macquarie Primary School, by Class Group.

### 3.6.5 Description of the Materials

#### The Curriculum

The materials to be evaluated consisted of a children's workbook and an accompanying teacher's handbook entitled: Book 1 s̄a hajimemashō (Let's Begin).

The children's workbook contained fifty pages. Each page was designed to facilitate the learning of the hiragana syllabary using simple vocabulary, and to practise using grammatical structures. The book contained also games, drawings for completion, crosswords, dot-to-dot pictures, and songs.

The teacher's handbook contained lesson plans page-by-page, to correspond with the children's workbook, in both English and Japanese. These lesson plans are discussed in section 5.1.2.

#### Supplementary Materials

The following materials to accompany Book 1 were made by the teacher and teacher's aides: picture and word cards for each vocabulary item; hiragana and katakana cards; charts; games to practise vocabulary and structures; cassettes for listening and pronunciation practice.

As the course proceeded the following materials were purchased from Japan: books; song books; artefacts; toys and games; maps and charts.

Summary

In section 3.1 - 3.4 the stages of the evaluation were outlined. this was followed, in section 3.5, by a description of the techniques used for obtaining the information required during those stages. In the final section (3.6) the setting, in which the study took place, was described.

## CHAPTER 4

THE PRESENTATION OF DATA OBTAINED FROM THE FIVE QUESTIONNAIRES  
ADMINISTERED DURING THE STUDY

Data obtained from the five questionnaires administered in the course of the evaluation is pertinent to the results of the evaluation at each of its four stages. Therefore, in order to preserve the clarity and continuity of presentation of those results in Chapter 5, the considerable data obtained from the questionnaires will be presented separately, in this Chapter. Discussion arising from this data will be presented in Chapters 5 and 6.

## 4.1 Questionnaire 1: The First Parent Questionnaire (PQ1)

PQ1 posed ten questions. These are presented, together with the statistical results in Tables 4.1 to 4.4

Questions 1 and 2: Language Background

- Q1 Please indicate your child's class.
- Q2 If your native language is not English, please indicate the language.

Responses to these questions, and information from school records, contributed to the compilation of 'contextual information' about participants in the program.

TABLE 4.1

Parent Responses to Q 1 and 2 (PQ1)

## Child's Grade and Parent's Language Background

Parent with child in grade	Language Background of Parent *				Total
	English	European	Asian	Aboriginal	
K	11	1	1	0	13
1	23	5	1	0	29
2	21	4	0	0	25
3	24	1	0	0	25
4	21	5	0	0	26
5	18	6	0	0	24
6	35	1	1	0	37
Total	153	23	3	0	179
%	85.5	12.8	1.7	0	100

\* Language backgrounds were classified as either English, European, Asian or Aboriginal. This was so that a check could be made for correlation between language background and preferred language choice (Q 5)

Question 3: Foreign language study in the Primary School

Q3 Do you believe it is appropriate for your child/ren to start to learn a foreign language at primary school?

Responses to this question are summarised in Table 4.2.



TABLE 4.2

## Parent Responses to Q3 (PQ1)

Do you believe it is appropriate for your child/ren to start to learn a foreign language at primary school?

Grade in which child enrolled	Responses			
	Yes	Undecided	No	Total
K	13	0	0	13
1	28	1	0	29
2	23	0	2	25
3	25	0	0	25
4	26	0	0	26
5	22	0	2	24
6	34	0	3	37
Total	171	1	7	179
%	95.5	0.6	3.9	100

Question 4: Foreign language study at High School

Q4 Would you like your child/ren to learn a foreign language at high school?

Responses to this question are summarised in Table 4.3.

TABLE 4.3

## Parent Responses to Q4 (PQ1)

Would you like your child/ren to  
learn a foreign language at high school?

Grade in which child enrolled	Responses			
	Yes	Undecided	No	Total
K	13	0	0	13
1	29	0	0	29
2	24	0	1 <sup>a</sup>	25
3	25	0	0	25
4	26	0	0	26
5	22	0	2 <sup>b</sup>	24
6	35	2	0	37
Total	174	2	3	179
%	97.2	1.1	1.7	100

a. ~~One~~ parent did not give a reason.

b. ~~One~~ parent saw no benefit at all from language study.

Question 5: Language choice

If you answered yes to either of the previous two questions please answer this question.

Q5 If given a choice, which one of the following languages would you prefer your child/ren to learn:

European/Aboriginal/Asian?

Responses to this question are tabulated in Table 4.4.

TABLE 4.4

## Parent Responses to Q5 (PQ1)

## Parent Preferred Language Choice

Child in grade	Preferred Language					Total
	European	Aborig- iginal	Asian	Either/ any/ European + Asian	No Comment	
K	2	0	10	1	0	13
1	10	0	13	5	1	29
5	5	0	15	4	1	25
3	5	0	15	5	0	25
4	8	0	12	6	0	26
5	14	0	7	1	2	24
6	19	0	12	4	2	37
Total	63	0	84	26	6	179
%	35.2	0	46.9	14.5	3.4	100

Parental preference for their child to study a European language

A significant number of parents indicated that they would prefer their child/ren to learn a European language. Some even specified the language, and this was most often German or French. Typical reasons given for this choice were:

- a European language would be widely used if one is living, working or traveling in Europe;
- it is more useful in high school or later life;
- German is important for anyone seeking a scientific - research based career;

- our language is based on the European languages.

#### Parental preference for their child to study an Aboriginal language

Although no parents would choose for their child/ren to study an Aboriginal language, several commented that they were glad that a choice of an Aboriginal language had been included in the questionnaire.

#### Parental preference for their child to study an Asian language

With reference to an Asian language parents believed that it:

- is regionally important for Australians and will be a great advantage in the future;
- is important for Australians to develop strong ties with our Asian neighbours, learning an Asian language will assist this.

With regard to Japanese in particular parents believed that possibilities for real contact are considerable.

Several parents indicated that they believed that the study of any language would benefit their child/ren, while others suggested that exposure to a variety of languages would be ideal.

#### Questions 6, 7, 8 and 9: Role of Language Study

The study of a foreign language can be important for my child at primary school because:

- Q6 It will enable him/her to communicate with the people who speak the language
- Q7 It will enable him/her to learn more about the people who speak the language
- Q8 It will be a preparation for studying a foreign language later in life
- Q9 Other comments.

These questions were designed with the broad goals of the program in mind, so that an assessment could be made of parents' perceptions of the purpose of foreign language study.

#### The 'Communication' Role

168 (88.3%) parents agreed that foreign language study would enable the child to communicate with people who speak the language. Of the 14 (7.8%) parents who disagreed 5 (2.8%) had also not been in support of foreign language study at primary school (Q4). Of the remaining 9 (5%) who disagreed, one parent commented that this would depend on the content and method used, and another that it would depend on opportunity.

#### The 'Cultural' Role

170 (95%) parents agreed that foreign language study would enable their child to learn more about the people who speak the language; 6 (3.4%) disagreed. 5 of these had been against the introduction of the program.

TABLE 4.5

Parent Perceptions of the Role of Foreign Language Study  
in the Primary School as Demonstrated in Q6, 7 and 8.

Parent with child in grade	Responses																	
	Q 6 'communication' role						Q 7 'cultural' role						Q 8 'future language study' role					
	sa	a	d	sd	nc	t	sa	a	d	sd	nc	t	sa	a	d	sd	nc	t
K	3	8	2	0	0	13	7	6	0	0	0	13	5	8	0	0	0	13
1	9	15	2	0	3	29	10	18	0	0	1	29	11	16	1	0	1	29
2	7	16	2	0	0	25	8	15	2	0	0	25	8	16	1	0	0	25
3	12	11	1	0	1	25	14	11	0	0	0	25	11	14	0	0	0	25
4	7	16	1	0	2	26	11	14	0	0	1	26	9	17	0	0	0	26
5	3	17	2	2	0	24	8	13	2	1	0	24	5	17	2	0	0	24
6	10	24	2	0	1	37	14	21	1	0	1	37	16	20	1	0	0	37
Total	51	107	12	2	7	179	72	98	5	1	3	179	65	108	5	0	1	179
%	88.3		7.8		3.9		95		3.4		1.6		96.6		2.8		0.6	

Note: 1. Responses to Q6 are indicated in the 'communication' column, to Q7 in the 'culture' column and to Q8 in the 'future language study' column.

2. The following abbreviations are used in Tables 4.5, 4.9, 4.14, 4.15, 4.16, 4.17, 4.18 and 4.30:

sa	strongly agree	sd	strongly disagree	und	undecided
a	agree	nc	no comment	t	total
d	disagree				

### The 'Preparation for Future Language Study' role

173 (96.5%) parents thought that foreign language study would be a preparation for future study, whereas five (28%) disagreed.

Several parents commented that there should be continuity of study from primary to high schools. Another parent commented that 'reading the literature of the other country' was usually a feature of foreign language programs.

From these responses it was apparent that the majority of parents:

- (i) supported the introduction of a foreign language program at primary school level;
- (ii) believed that language study would enable children to learn more about the culture of the country concerned, to communicate with others who spoke the language, and to prepare for future language study.

### Summary

The results of the questionnaire confirmed the existence of a 'need' for the introduction of a program of foreign language study. This had also been apparent at the parents' meeting when such a program was first discussed.

Parents' perceptions of the role of foreign language study were pertinent to the establishment of the goals of the program, and will be discussed further in section 5.1.3.

#### 4.2 Questionnaire 2: The First Student Questionnaire (SQ1)

On commencement of the program all students in grades 3 - 6 were asked to complete a questionnaire in which they responded to questions relating to their own language background and their attitude to language study.

##### Section 1: Personal Information (Questions 1 - 6)

In this section students gave personal information including their name, age and class, the date, their country of birth and languages other than English spoken at home. Table 4.5 was drawn up from this information, and that contained on school record cards and enrolment forms.



TABLE 4.6

Language Background of Students Studying Japanese at Macquarie Primary School in February 1984, by Grade.

Student of grade	Language Spoken at Home											Total
	A	F	D	S	Hu	R	I	G	T	He	V	
3	21	1		1				1			1	25
4	21				1	1	1		1	1		26
5	20	2	3	1	1			1				28
6	38	3	1	1				1	1			45
Total:	100	6	4	3	2	1	2	3	1	1	1	124
Total %	80.6						19.4					100

Note: The following abbreviations are used in the above table:

A	Anglo-Australian	I	Italian
F	Finnish	G	Greek
D	Dutch	T	Turkish
S	Serbo-Croatian	He	Hebrew
Hu	Hungarian	V	Vietnamese
Ru	Russian		

All the students of Non-English speaking background (NESB) did in fact speak English but with varying degrees of fluency. Some of the NESB children both understood and spoke the home language, while others only understood it.

## Section 2: How I Feel About Learning a Language (Qs 7 - 11)

Question 7: Attitude towards Japanese

Q7: Are you pleased that you will be learning Japanese this year?

Responses to this question are summarised in Table 4.7.

TABLE 4.7

Student Responses to Question 7: Are You Pleased That  
You Will be Learning Japanese this Year?

Student of Grade	Response			Total
	Yes	No	Undecided	
3	25	0	0	25
4	21	4	1	26
5	26	2	0	28
6	45	0	0	45
Total	117	6	1	124
%	94.4	4.8	0.8	100

The students were invited to give reasons for their responses, however very few chose to do so. Of the few who did express an opinion, the most common positive response was 'It's interesting' or 'It's different'. Of the negative responses, there was only one comment: 'Too much time'.

Question 8: Language Choice

Q8: If you could choose, which of the following languages would you like to learn?

Responses to this question are tabulated in Table 4.8

TABLE 4.8

Responses to Q8 (SQ1): It you Could Choose, Which of the Following Languages Would You Like to Learn?

Student of Grade	Response								
	European		Aboriginal		Asian		No Response		Total
		% of total		% of total		% of total		% of total	
3	7	10.3	3	30.0	14	31.1	1	100	25
4	12	17.7	1	10.0	13	28.9	0	0	26
5	16	23.5	5	50.0	7	15.6	0	0	28
6	33	48.5	1	10.6	11	24.4	0	0	45
Total	68	100	10	100	45	100	1	100	124
% of all children	54.8		8.1		36.3		0.8		100

The data indicates a large number of students, particularly in the senior classes, if given the choice would learn a European language.

The change over the age groups from grades 3 to 6 is apparent from the above tabulation.

Reasons given for the choice of language included 'Lots of people speak (eg) French', 'My mother speaks (eg) French', and 'I want to go to (eg) France'.

Questions 9, 10, 11: Role of language study

Learning another language can be important to me because:

Q9: I will be able to communicate with people who speak it.

Q10: I will learn more about the people who speak it.

Q11: It will help me if I study another language later.

These questions were formulated in order to obtain an indication of student perception of the purpose of studying another language.

Responses are tabulated in Table 4.9 and from these it would appear that:

- (i) Most students would expect to learn more about the people who speak the language they are studying. This relates directly to the second overall goal of the program (2.1.2).
- (ii) A very high proportion of students would expect to be able to communicate with other speakers of the language being studied. This results specifically to the first long term goal of the program (2.1.1).
- (iii) A large number of students would expect there to be some carry-over from present study of a language to future study.

Student perceptions of the role of foreign language study were considered when the goals of the program were specified (see section 5.1.3).

TABLE 4.9

Children's Perceptions of the Role of Foreign Language Study,  
as Demonstrated in Q9, 10 and 11.

Child in grade	Responses																	
	Q 9 'communication' role						Q 10 'cultural' role						Q 11 'future language study' role					
	sa	a	d	sd	nc	t	sa	a	d	sd	nc	t	sa	a	d	sd	nc	t
3	24	1	0	0	0	25	22	2	1	0	0	25	20	1	2	2	0	25
4	17	8	0	0	1	26	12	12	1	0	1	26	14	9	1	1	1	26
5	12	14	2	0	0	28	7	18	1	2	0	28	13	12	1	2	0	28
6	17	27	1	0	0	45	14	18	13	0	0	45	20	20	4	1	0	45
Total	70	50	3	0	1	124	55	50	16	2	1	124	67	42	8	6	1	124
%	96.8		2.4		0.8		84.7		14.5		0.8		87.9		11.3		0.8	

Note: The following abbreviations are used above:

sa	strongly agree	sd	strongly disagree	und	undecided
a	agree	nc	no comment	t	total
d	disagree				

#### 4.3 Questionnaire 3: The Second Parent Questionnaire (PQ2)

Parents were given the option of identifying themselves or remaining anonymous. They were also asked to indicate whether they would be prepared to attend a follow-up interview, if thought necessary by the evaluator.

In the following tables responses from parents are generally shown according to the grade level of their child. However, where there were insignificant differences in response by parents of children at different levels, only total responses are shown.

Section A (Q1 - 5) was for administrative and statistical purposes only. Responses are amalgamated in Table 4.10.

TABLE 4.10

Parent Responses to Section A of PQ 2 Indicating:  
 (i) Number of identified/anonymous responses  
 (ii) Sex of child for whom completed  
 (iii) Language spoken in the home  
 (iv) Contact with Japanese speaking people

Child in grade	Responses								Total Parent Responses
	(i)		(ii)		(iii)		(iv)		
	ident- ified	anon	boy	girl	Eng	Other	some	none	
3	4	4	4	4	7	1	1	7	8
%	50	50	50	50	87.5	12.5	12.5	87.5	
4	11	3	8	6	13	1	0	14	14
%	78.6	21.4	57.1	42.9	92.9	7.1	0	100	
5	11	3	8	6	13	1	2	12	14
%	78.6	21.4	42.9	57.1	92.9	7.1	14.3	85.7	
6	7	3	7	3	10	0	2	8	10
%	70	30	70	30	100	0	20	80	
TOTAL	33	13	27	19	43	3	5	41	
%	71.7	28.3	58.7	41.3	93.5	6.5	10.9	89.1	100

Questions 6 and 7: Child's feelings about school

Q6 How would you describe your child's feelings about school?

Q7 How often does your child discuss school or school activities  
with you?

Responses to these two questions are shown in Table 4.11

TABLE 4.11

Parent Perceptions of their Child's:  
 (i) Feelings about school  
 (ii) Discussion about school

Child in grade	(i)				(ii)				Total
	la	l	dl	d	vo	o	s	he	
3	5	3	0	0	4	2	2	0	8
%	62.5	37.5	0	0	50.0	25.0	25.0	0	
4	5	8	1	0	5	6	3	0	14
%	35.7	57.1	7.2	0	35.7	42.9	21.4	0	
5	4	10	0	0	7	5	1	1	14
%	28.6	7.4	0	0	50.0	35.7	7.15	7.15	
6	4	4	2	0	2	4	4	0	10
%	40.0	40.0	20.0	0	20.0	40.0	40.0	0	
Total	18	25	3	0	18	17	10	1	
%	39.1	54.4	6.5	0	39.1	37.0	21.7	2.2	100

Note: The following abbreviations are used in tables  
 4.11, 4.20, 4.23 and 4.24

la	likes a lot	vo	very often
l	likes	o	often
dl	does not like	s	sometimes
d	dislikes	he	hardly ever

Questions 8, 9, 10: Reactions to the Japanese Program

Q8: How often does your child mention the Japanese Program?

Q9: If you can remember things that your child has said... please comment.

Q10: How would you rate your child's interest in, and enjoyment of Japanese?

Responses to questions 8 and 10 are shown in Table 4.12.



TABLE 4.12

Parent Responses to Q8 and 10 (PQ2) Indicating:  
 (i) Frequency of Discussion of Japanese Program;  
 (ii) Rating of Interest in/Enjoyment of Japanese.

Child in grade	(i)				(ii)				Total
	vo	o	s	he	vh	h	m	l	
3	2	2	4	0	2	5	1	0	8
%	25	25	50	0	25	62.5	12.5	0	
4	3	1	8	2	3	4	6	1	14
%	21.4	7.1	57.2	14.3	21.4	28.6	42.9	7.1	
5	0	3	9	2	2	4	4	4	14
%	0	21.4	64.3	14.3	14.2	28.6	28.6	28.6	
6	1	2	6	1	1	3	6	0	10
%	10.0	20.0	60.0	10.0	10.0	30.0	60.0	0	
Total	6	8	27	5	8	16	17	5	46
%	13.0	17.4	58.7	10.9	17.4	34.7	37.0	10.9	100

Note: The following additional abbreviations are used in this table

vh very high      m moderate  
 h high            l low

Parents' comments about their child's reactions to the program were varied, but could be categorised into comments concerning;

- (i) the language itself;
- (ii) teaching methods;
- (iii) cultural aspects of the program;
- (iv) other.

Some examples of comments in each of these categories follow.

(i) Comments concerning the language

- My daughter was pleased that she understood some words she heard on TV;
- Likes learning different ways of naming Australian things;
- From time to time finds difficult;
- Enjoyed it, not too difficult;
- "I know how to say that in Japanese";
- Had difficulty remembering symbols;
- Enjoys trying to put together sentences;
- Finds revision boring; wants to learn more new things;
- Some difficulty with oral work;
- Thinks its fun to learn the language,

(ii) Comments concerning the teaching methods

- Enjoyed singing; films were interesting;
- Enjoys the games;
- Enjoyed films and games; some too hard;
- Likes workbook activities;
- Sings Japanese songs with his brother;
- "I can count to ten in Japanese".

(iii) Comments concerning cultural aspects

- Enjoyed native speakers and cultural exchange;
- Became more aware about Japan and Japanese culture;
- Enjoys meeting 'real' Japanese people;
- Discovered she liked Japanese food;
- Tries the cooking at home;

- Japanese visitors and the Tea Ceremony;
- "Did you know that in Japan they...";
- Likes learning about Japanese way of life;

(iv) Other

- Would like to live in Japan;
- Would like to visit Japan;
- Enjoys corresponding with penfriend;
- Success rate and enthusiasm high;
- Enjoyed the experience because he made progress.

Responses to questions 8, 9 and 10, concerning children's attitudes towards learning Japanese, will be discussed further in section 5.3.1 (Student Attitudes towards the Japanese Program).

Question 11: The Importance of FL Study

Q11: How important is foreign language study in the social, emotional and intellectual development of your child.

The data for this question is not tabulated by the grade of the child, since an initial tabulation showed no significant difference in response from parents with children at different levels.

Responses for the three areas of development are shown in Table 4.13.

TABLE 4.13

Parent Perception of the Importance of FL Study in the Child's Social, Emotional and Intellectual Development.

Area of Development	Responses				
	vi	i	mi	ni	t
social	8	25	12	1	46
%	17.4	54.3	26.1	2.2	100
emotional	3	23	11	8	45*
%	6.7	51.1	24.4	17.8	100
intellectual	9	26	10	1	46
%	19.6	56.5	21.7	2.2	100

Notes: \* One parent did not respond.

The following abbreviations are used:

vi	very important	i	important
mi	moderately important	ni	not important
t	total		

Questions 12 - 15: Commencement of and continuation of language study

In these question parents were asked to respond to a statement, and comment if they wished.

Data from related questions was analysed together.

Questions 12, 13 and 14: Continuation of language study

Parents were asked to respond to the following statements:

Q12: I would like my child to continue to learn Japanese at Macquarie

Q13: It is important that my child studies Japanese at high school

Q14: The availability of foreign language study will be a factor in the choice of high school for my child.

As there was no significant difference in responses from parents with children in different grades, total responses only are tabulated, in Table 4.14.

TABLE 4.14

Parent Preferences Regarding the Continuation of FL Study for their Child, as Demonstrated in Q12, 13 and 14 (PQ2)

	Responses					T
	sa	a	un	da	sd	
Japanese at Macquarie	18	20	7*	0	1	46
%	39.1	43.5	15.2	0	2.2	100
Japanese at high school	13	14	11	6	2	46
%	28.3	30.4	23.9	13.0	4.4	100
Foreign lang study at hs	10	9	7	20	0	46
%	21.7	19.6	15.2	43.5	0	100

\* 4 responses were from Grade 6 parents who indicated n/a as their children were proceeding to high school.

#### Parents' Comments

With regard to the continuation of study of Japanese at Macquarie Primary School, most comments were highly positive and supportive of the program. Several parents mentioned the importance of the program in assisting children to accept different values, and cultures. One commented that the availability of early foreign language training

would influence her choice when her youngest child started school. Another mentioned the importance of 'completing the course'. However one parent observed 'My child doesn't seem to enjoy it much', and another 'It is not important'.

Comments from parents who would like their child to continue Japanese at high school varied. A number of parents said that it was desirable, but not essential for their child to continue; others thought that continuity from primary school was important and were disappointed that Japanese was not offered at Canberra High School; one parent pointed out that not many high schools offer Japanese and the 'continuity of a language is not reason enough to choose one high school over another'. Another believed that Japanese was far more relevant for Australians than French and German, but several parents would like their child to learn a European language also.

Other parents commented that a foreign language (not necessarily Japanese) should be compulsory for every child, and 'there are better languages than Japanese'.

A significant 41.3% of parents agreed that availability of foreign language (FL) study would be a factor in their choice of high school. Several parents would not send their children to a high school where foreign language study was not available, but a large number indicated that availability of FL study would be one of many factors considered; other factors, including overall curriculum, academic achievement, positive attitudes of staff, would probably be of greater importance.

Several parents commented that they would be reluctant to send their child out of area, but would do so if the child indicated strong interest in study of a particular foreign language.

Question 15: Commencement of Language Study

Parents were asked to respond to the statement:

My child should have acquired basic literacy skills in English before commencing formal study of Japanese .

Responses are shown in Table 4.15. As responses were not significantly different from parents with children at different grade levels, totals only are shown.

TABLE 4.15

Parent Responses to the Statement that Basic Literacy Skills should be Acquired before Formal Study of Japanese is Commenced (Q15, PQ2)

	Responses					
	sa	a	un	da	sd	T
Number	18	13	4	10	1	46
%	39.1	28.3	8.7	21.7	2.2	100

Only seven parents chose to comment. Four believed that basic literacy skills should be acquired first, because, they said, of the difficulty of learning English. Two, however, believed that both mother tongue and second language should be taught side-by-side. One parent commented 'I don't feel that interference from Japanese is likely because the script is so different'.

Question 16: Children's Attitudes towards non-English -Speaking-  
People

Parents were asked to respond to the statement:

After participating in the Japanese program my child shows a  
more positive attitude towards non-English-speaking people.

Responses are shown in Table 4.16.

TABLE 4.16

Parent Responses to the Statement My Child Shows More Positive  
Attitudes to Non-English-speaking People after Participating in the  
Japanese Program

Child in Grade	Responses					
	sa	a	un	da	sd	T
3	1	4	2	1	0	8
%	12.5	50.0	25.0	12.5	0	100
4	1	6	5	2	0	14
%	7.1	42.9	35.7	14.3	0	100
5	2	5	4	2	1	14
%	14.3	35.7	28.6	14.3	7.1	100
6	0	4	5	1	0	10
%	0	40.0	50.0	10.0	0	100
Total	4	19	16	6	1	46
%	8.7	41.3	34.8	13.0	2.2	100

Most parents who chose to comment to question 16 pointed out that their children had always had a positive attitude. One agreed that the program 'had certainly reinforced it'. One parent who had



observed some change commented that this was 'not necessarily due to the Japanese program', while another felt that it was 'a little early to state definitely, but there appears to be a change'.

Several parents had noticed positive changes in attitude. One parent wrote 'My child showed a very positive interest in Japanese people. He would sidle up to small children and try to make contact...".

Question 17: Children's Interest in Japan, Asian and other Cultures

Parents were asked to respond to the statement:

After participating in the Japanese program my child shows more interest in i) Japan and the Japanese

ii) Asia generally

iii) Other cultures

Preliminary analysis showed no significant difference in responses from parents with children at different levels, therefore total responses only are shown.

TABLE 4.17

Parent Responses to the Statement that after Participating in the Japanese Program Children Showed More Interest in (i) Japan; (ii) Asia Generally; (iii) Other Cultures, (Q17, PQ2)

Area	Responses					
	sa	a	un	d	sd	T
(i) Japan	18	21	6	0	1	46
%	39.1	45.7	13.0	0	2.2	100
(ii) Asia	3	14	19	9	1	46
generally %	6.5	30.4	41.3	19.6	2.2	100
(iii) Other	2	10	22	11	1	46
cultures %	4.4	21.7	47.8	23.9	2.2	100

The five comments recorded in response to question 18 are various, cover the whole range of opinion, and are reproduced here:

- I haven't noticed any difference;
- My son doesn't like Japanese;
- Already had general interest in Asia due to living there for 2 years;
- Notices Japanese characters and pictures; not extended to anything else;
- Has shown a keen interest and understanding of the Japanese and Asian people.

Questions 18, 19, 20: Feelings about the Introduction of the Japanese Program

Parents were asked to respond to the statements:

Q18: At the beginning of 1984 I thought the introduction of the Japanese program was a good idea.

Q19: At the end of 1984 I think the introduction of the Japanese program was a good idea.

Q20: My child has benefitted from participating in the Japanese program.

There was no significant difference in response from parents with children at different grade levels, therefore only total responses are shown.

TABLE 4.18

Parent Reaction to the:

(i) Introduction of the Japanese Program;

(ii) Statement that their Child has Benefitted from the Program.  
(Q18, 19, and 20, PQ2)

Statement	Responses					
	sa	a	und	d*	sd	T
(i) Supported intro of Japanese :						
beginning of 1984	19	23	3	1	0	46
%	41.3	50.0	6.5	2.2	0	100
end of 1984	22	21	2	1	0	46
%	47.8	45.7	4.3	2.2	0	100
(ii) child has benefitted						
	10	32	3	1	0	46
%	21.7	69.6	6.5	2.2	0	100

\* The negative response was from the same parent.

Parents commented that all primary school children should have the opportunity to learn a second language. One parent would like to see some discussion on whether language study should be compulsory; another mentioned that not all children can cope with the language, but that such a program was important as an aid to cross-cultural understanding.

Comments about benefits derived from the program generally fell into the category of broadening of horizons eg. 'Her general view of the world is less insular'.

One parent observed that her daughter 'had more confidence when attempting new things'.

#### Question 21: Further Suggestions and Comments

This question was included to ensure that parents had the opportunity to express any other opinions about the program.

Comments generally fell into the category of positive or negative support for the program, or suggestions.

#### Comments offering positive support

The following comments sum up the feelings of one group of parents about the program:

- My son really enjoys hearing about the Japanese people and culture, and loves to relate snippets of information to us. He now displays more interest in Asian cultures and shows his disdain of racist attitudes.

- Please keep the program going; the real effects on children's social, intellectual and emotional development cannot be realistically assessed for a couple of years yet.
- My son feels very comfortable about the program. Teacher, course, environment are positive and non-threatening so there has been no sense of anxiety about the unknown.

A number of parents expressed concern about continuation of Japanese at secondary level, for example:

- More consideration should be given to the introduction of Japanese at secondary level.
- I would like to see all secondary schools introduce Japanese as one of their choices.

#### Negative comments

One parent 'would prefer if my children learnt another language, for example German, French or Italian'. Another commented that he would prefer Japanese to be taught informally and not at the expense of Maths etc. Another parent believed that his children would have shown the same interest in any foreign language.

#### Suggestions

Five parents made the following suggestions:

- After an initial introduction perhaps children should be given the choice of continuing.
- In upper grades they should learn enough to feel they could try to use Japanese in a practical situation.
- I would suggest that each class has a pen-friend.

- My only recommendation would be that the program be expanded to take in other languages.
- The contact with Japanese visitors was very good, and the meals, a great success. I would like to see more contact with Japanese visitors, possibly children.

Questions 22, 23 and 24: Goals of the program

These three questions relating to the goal of the program, were optional. The goals of the program were stated and the parents asked to respond to the following questions:

Q22: How appropriate do you think these goals are?

Q23: How well do you think these goals are being achieved?

Q24: If you would like to change these goals in any way, please comment.

22 parents chose to respond to the question regarding appropriateness of aims, and 18 on the achievement of those aims. Several parents offered suggestions to question 24.

Appropriateness of Aims

Most parents simply wrote 'very appropriate' or 'highly appropriate' in response to this question. There were several more substantial comments, for example:

- The aims and emphasis seem realistic. The increasing ability to use more than one language is both personally and educationally enriching.
- The aims seem appropriate because they would relate equally well to the study of any language.

- I consider that an experience-based approach to language development is a most effective way of developing communicative competence.

Several parents commented on the second aim:

- The latter aim should be the main purpose of the course. Primary curricula are too time consuming to warrant a major diversion of time and resources into churning out possible Japanese speakers who will forget it all too soon having no use for it in everyday life.
- The second aim is important.
- The more they learn about other people from other countries, the more they are likely to understand them and thus be able to help produce a peaceful world.

There was one negative comment: 'I did not see any evidence of their written ability and minimal interest in oral communication'.

#### Achievement of aims

Five parents commented simply 'very well'; one, 'I don't know'; and one '5 out of 10'. Some parents offered more substantial comment. Of these a number suggested that a more realistic assessment could be made after a long period. Their feelings are summed up in the words of one parent, who said: 'I believe these aims are being achieved to some degree but more time is required to fully achieve them'.

Other parents felt qualified to comment with regard to their own child, for example:

- Difficult to assess, but with our son we have observed a small degree of understanding of the written word.
- In general terms I expect the aims are being carried through reasonably successfully although my son rates his own progress as slow.
- My son appears to be gaining 'more proficiency' in the above skills, however, not being a speaker of Japanese, it is difficult to assess.

Several parents commented with regard to the second aim:

- As regards my child I think the aim of fostering an understanding, etc, has been achieved in a small way. If anything to do with Japan is shown on TV... my daughter stops to watch or listen.
- It has sensitized him to other languages and cultures, and increased his understanding and tolerance.

#### Suggestions for changing the aims

A few parents only offered comment, as follows:

- I think the aims are great, but unless kids practise at home they soon forget.
- Would love to see my child read and write Japanese with ease by Grade 6 - but its a hard task, I know.
- Just a little more emphasis on traditional. Japanese folk tales, music, food etc.
- I'm just pleased that this experience is available to my children.
- Add 'the enjoyment of learning a second language.'



Section C : The Parents' Course

17 respondents completed this (optional) section.

Questions 25, 26

Q25: If you attended the parents' course during 1984, please indicate.

Q26: If you stopped attending during the year please tick the item which best indicates why.

Three parents who completed this section completed the parent course. Fourteen parents stopped attending during the year for the following reasons:

lack of time	6
other commitments	5
too difficult	1
other	2

Question 27

If you are interested in attending a parents' course in 1985 please indicate.

14 respondents answered this question. 6 were interested, 3 were not, and 5 were undecided.

Respondents were asked to indicate their opinion of the structure of such a course. Responses were as follows:

should continue as it was	3
as it was, but with more participation by parents	0
a different approach, ie. suitable for adults	3

#### 4.4 Questionnaire 4: The Second Student Questionnaire (SQ2)

Students were given the option of completing the questionnaire anonymously. The number of identified and anonymous responses is shown in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19  
Number of Responses to SQ2, by Grade

Child in Grade	Number of Responses Received		
	anonymous	identified	Total
3	0	24	24
4	0	22	22
5	0	24	24
6	8 (18.6%)	35 (81.4%)	43
Total	8 (7.1%)	105 (92.9%)	113

#### Question 1: How do you feel about school?

This question gave insight into each student's general attitude. Responses were only considered from students who indicated a dislike of Japanese.

#### Question 2: How do you feel about the following subjects?

Responses to this question with regard to Japanese are shown in Table 4.20.

TABLE 4.20

Students Feelings Towards Japanese as a Subject (Q2, SQ2).

Child in Grade			Total + ve				Total - ve		Total resp- onses
	1a	1	No	%	d1	d	No	%	
3	15	7	22	91.5	2	0	2	8.5	24
4	19	2	21	95.5	1	0	1	4.5	22
5	8	12	20	83.3	3	1	4	16.7	24
6	8	14	22	51.2	14	7	21	48.8	43
	50	35	85	75.2	14	8	28	24.8	113

Table 4.20 indicates the difference in response from grade to grade. Reactions towards Japanese at this time (December 1984) were later compared with feelings towards learning Japanese prior to the commencement of the program (Table 4.23).

Questions 3, 4, 5 and 6

- Q3: Which is your favourite subject? Why?  
 Q4: Which subject do you like least? Why?  
 Q5: Which subject do you think you do best at?  
 Q6: Which subject do you do least well?

Only responses marked 'Japanese' were considered by the evaluator, for the reasons outlined in section 3.5.2 (SQ2). As only a small number of students did respond 'Japanese', these responses are not tabulated. Instead, a summary follows.

### Japanese as a favourite subject

Four students listed Japanese as their favourite subject, for the reason that it was a new and interesting subject. Of these four, three also believed that they 'did best' at Japanese (Q5).

### Japanese as the least-liked subject

Seven students listed Japanese as the least-liked subject. Three of these thought also that they did least well at Japanese. Two of the three gave lack of understanding as their reason for disliking Japanese. The four remaining students did not perceive themselves as achieving poorly. These four all gave boredom as their reason for disliking Japanese.

The reasons listed for dislike of Japanese were also very frequently used for other subjects nominated as least liked.

A check of the responses of the seven students (who had nominated Japanese), to question 2 (indicating feelings about a range of subjects) also showed that for five of them, Japanese was one of a number of disliked subjects. For the other two, Japanese was the only subject they disliked.

These responses will be discussed further in section 5.3.1.

### Question 7: How do you rate yourself at Japanese

When scoring, responses from students with positive attitudes towards Japanese were recorded separately from responses from those with negative attitudes (Q2).

This enabled a check to be made of the correlation, if any, between positive/negative attitude and perception of achievement. Results are shown in Table 4.21.

TABLE 4.21

Responses to Q7 (SQ2): How do You Rate Yourself at Japanese?

	Grade	1 exc	2 vgd	3 gd	4 ok	5 nsg	6 strug	Total
Children with positive attitudes to Japanese	3	7	3	5	6	1	0	22
	4	2	5	8	4	2	0	21
	5	1	3	2	13	1	0	20
	6	3	2	5	9	0	3	22
Total		13	13	20	32	4	3	85
%		15.3	15.3	23.5	37.6	4.7	3.6	100
Children with negative attitudes to Japanese	3	0	0	1	1	0	0	2
	4	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	5	0	0	1	2	1	0	4
	6	0	0	3	12	3	3	21
Total		0	0	5	16	4	3	28
%		0	0	17.9	57.1	14.3	10.7	100

The ratings 'excellent', 'very good' and 'good' are perceived to be those in which students regard themselves as 'achieving', while 'not so good' and 'struggling' could be perceived as 'non-achieving' ratings. The rating 'OK' is ambiguous. Oral discussion with students revealed that this was perceived by most of them as 'so-so', and 'middling-to-good'.

Given this interpretation of the categories, and excluding temporarily the none-the-less, ambiguous column (4), it could be said that the

correlation between positive attitude and self-perception of achievement in columns 1 - 3, is high; only five children who enjoy Japanese would rate themselves as 'under-achieving'.

There is some correlation between negative attitude and under-achieving. Only five children who do not like Japanese still see themselves as 'good' at it.

If column 4 statistics are included and the view of the children, that this category is more 'under-achieving' is adopted, weight is given to the 'negative attitude' - 'under achieving' correlation. At the same time this leaves a large number of children with positive attitudes 'under-achieving'. Unless it could be argued that children with positive attitudes to Japanese regard 'OK' as all right, while those with negative attitude regard it as not all right. This would seem to be logically consistent.

Question 8: How do you feel about what you have learned so far?

The categories for response were:

- understand everything
- understand most things
- understand some things
- don't understand much
- don't understand anything

Responses to this question were tabulated with those to question 7 (How do you rate yourself at Japanese?) so that any similarities between understanding and perception of ability may be observed.

Results are shown in Table 4.22 and will be discussed in sections 5.3.1 and 5.3.2.

TABLE 4.22

Comparison of Perceived Ability Rating and Level of Understanding by Students in Response to Q7, 8 (SQ2)

Level of understand	Child in Grade	Responses: Self-rating						Total
		exc	vgd	gd	ok	nsg	strug	
Understand everything	3 4 5 6	4 1 1 1		4		1 1		
Total		7	7		2			16
Understand most things	3 4 5 6	4 1 1 1	2 1 3	5 7 2 8	3 4 12 9		1	
Total		6	6	22	28	1		63
Understand some things	3 4 5 6			2 1	3 1 2 10		1 2	
Total				3	16	3		22
Don't understand much	3 4 5 6						1 1 2 6	
Total					1	4	6	11

Note: There was no response in the category 'don't understand anything' which is therefore not included in the table.

Question 9: How did you feel about Japanese Before you started learning it?

Responses to this question were tabulated in conjunction with responses to question 2. (How do you feel about Japanese?). This enabled a comparison to be made between student attitude prior to the commencement of, and after participation in, the program.

To simplify the table, responses to question 9 were placed in three categories, as follows:

Category used in table	Response in SQI
Positive	excited pleased curious* interested*
Negative	not pleased
Uncertain	scared no strong feeling no response

\* These responses were terms substituted by students instead of the given terms.

Results of the comparison are shown in table 4.23 and will be discussed in section 5.3.1.



TABLE 4.23

Comparison of Feelings Towards Japanese by Students (Grades 3 - 6)  
in February and December 1984 (Q2 and 9, SQ2)

Responses in February 1984 by type of response and grade	Responses in December					
	la	l	d1	d	t	
Positive	3	13	2	1	0	16
	4	15	1	0	0	16
	5	5	9	0	0	14
	6	6	13	6	3	28
Total		39	25	7	3	74 (65.5%)
Negative	3	0	0	0	0	0
	4	0	0	0	0	0
	5	0	0	3	0	3
	6	0	1	4	1	6
Total		0	1	7	1	9 (8%)
Uncertain	3	2	5	1	0	8
	4	3	1	1	0	6
	5	4	2	2	0	7
	6	1	1	4	3	9
Total		10	9	8	3	30 (26.5%)
Grand Total		49	35	22	7	113 (100%)
Total %		74.3		25.7		

Questions 10 and 11: Lesson Content

Q10: In Japanese lessons how do you feel about:

- learning new words and sentences?
- saying new words and sentences?
- writing new words and sentences?
- learning how to write hiragana?
- singing?
- playing games?
- finding out more about Japan?

Q11: How easy/difficult do you find those activities?

Items 1 - 4 constituted the formal content of the materials. Items 5 - 7 were the less formal aspects of the program. Responses to both questions, in respect of these items, are shown in Tables 4.24 and 4.25 and will be discussed in section 5.3.2.

TABLE 4.24

Student Reaction to Program Content,  
as Demonstrated by Responses to Q10 (SQ2)

Aspect of lesson	Student in grade	Student Responses						
		1a	1	Total +ve %	d1m	d	Total -ve %	Total responses
Learning new words & sentences	3	10	8	75	3	3	25	24
	4	10	12	100	0	0	0	22
	5	5	15	83.4	3	1	16.6	24
	6	7	12	44.2	18	6	55.8	43
		<u>32</u>	<u>47</u>	<u>69.9</u>	<u>24</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>30.1</u>	<u>113</u>
Saying new words & sentences	3	11	7	75	5	1	25	24
	4	11	8	86.4	2	1	13.6	22
	5	5	15	83.4	3	1	16.6	24
	6	5	12	39.5	20	6	60.5	43
		<u>32</u>	<u>42</u>	<u>65.5</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>34.5</u>	<u>113</u>
Writing new words & sentences	3	13	3	66.7	6	2	33.3	24
	4	12	8	90.9	1	1	9.1	22
	5	11	9	83.4	2	2	16.6	24
	6	8	15	53.5	14	6	46.5	43
		<u>44</u>	<u>35</u>	<u>69.9</u>	<u>23</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>30.1</u>	<u>113</u>
Learning hiragana	3	13	6	79.2	4	1	20.8	24
	4	12	8	90.9	2	0	9.1	22
	5	12	8	83.4	3	1	16.6	24
	6	8	18	60.5	10	7	39.5	43
		<u>45</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>75.2</u>	<u>19</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>24.8</u>	<u>113</u>
Singing	3	16	5	87.5	3	0	12.5	24
	4	15	5	90.9	1	1	9.1	22
	5	11	9	83.4	3	1	16.6	24
	6	5	11	37.2	14	13	62.8	43
		<u>47</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>68.1</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>31.9</u>	<u>113</u>
Games	3	20	2	91.7	1	1	8.3	24
	4	21	1	100	0	0	0	22
	5	20	4	100	0	0	0	24
	6	29	10	90.7	4	0	9.3	43
		<u>90</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>94.7</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>5.3</u>	<u>113</u>
Finding out about Japan	3	14	7	87.5	2	1	12.5	24
	4	17	4	95.5	1	0	4.5	22
	5	16	7	95.8	1	0	4.2	24
	6	15	17	74.4	6	5	35.6	43
		<u>62</u>	<u>35</u>	<u>85.8</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>14.2</u>	<u>113</u>

TABLE 4.25

Student Perception of Difficulty of Content of Materials  
as Demonstrated by Responses to Q11 (5Q2)

Aspect of lesson	Student in grade	Student Responses						Total responses
		easy	%	DK	%	hard	%	
Learning new words & sentences	3	12	25.0	10	41.7	2	8.3	24
	4	11	50.0	10	45.5	1	4.5	22
	5	3	12.5	21	87.5	0	0	24
	6	<u>7</u>	<u>16.3</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>58.1</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>25.6</u>	<u>43</u>
		33	29.2	66	58.4	14	12.4	113
Saying new words & sentences	3	11	45.8	13	54.2	0	0	24
	4	10	45.5	11	50.0	1	4.5	22
	5	2	8.3	20	83.4	2	8.3	24
	6	<u>4</u>	<u>9.3</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>69.8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>20.9</u>	<u>43</u>
		27	23.9	74	65.5	12	10.6	113
Writing new words & sentences	3	11	45.8	8	33.4	5	20.8	24
	4	9	41.0	12	54.5	1	4.5	22
	5	7	29.2	14	58.3	3	12.5	24
	6	<u>11</u>	<u>25.6</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>58.1</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>16.3</u>	<u>43</u>
		38	33.6	59	52.2	16	14.2	113
Learning hiragana	3	11	45.8	7	29.2	6	25.0	24
	4	12	54.5	7	31.8	3	13.7	22
	5	8	33.3	14	58.3	2	8.4	24
	6	<u>12</u>	<u>27.9</u>	<u>24</u>	<u>55.8</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>16.3</u>	<u>43</u>
		43	38.1	52	46.0	18	15.9	113
Singing	3	15	62.5	8	33.3	1	4.2	24
	4	9	41.0	12	54.5	1	4.5	22
	5	11	45.8	11	45.8	2	8.4	24
	6	<u>11</u>	<u>25.6</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>58.1</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>16.3</u>	<u>43</u>
		46	40.7	56	49.6	11	9.7	113
Games	3	18	75.0	4	16.7	2	8.3	24
	4	14	63.6	8	36.4	0	0	22
	5	16	66.6	8	33.4	0	0	24
	6	<u>32</u>	<u>74.4</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>23.3</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2.3</u>	<u>43</u>
		80	70.3	30	26.5	3	2.7	113
Finding out about Japan	3	9	37.5	13	54.2	2	8.3	24
	4	12	54.5	8	36.4	2	9.1	22
	5	9	37.5	15	62.5	0	0	24
	6	<u>20</u>	<u>46.5</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>51.2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2.3</u>	<u>43</u>
		50	44.3	58	51.3	5	4.4	113

Questions 12, 13, 14

Q12: If you had a choice now, would you like to go on learning Japanese?

Q13 If you have a choice at high school would you like to go on learning Japanese?

Q14 If you have a choice at high school would you like to learn another language?

Since responses to all three questions are concerned with further foreign language study results are amalgamated into table 4.26.

Responses from children with positive attitudes towards Japanese (from Q2) are shown separately from those with negative attitudes.

Some children chose to comment on their responses to these questions (Grade 3, seven comments; Grade 4, two comments; Grade 5, seven comments; Grade 6, sixteen comments). Most comments were made by children with negative attitudes towards learning Japanese.

Children from all grades who would not continue learning Japanese gave as their reasons; disliking it (7 responses), boredom (6 responses), difficulty (7 responses), and preference for learning another language (4 responses). Some children from grades 3 and 4 however, would not learn another language because they 'liked' or 'preferred' Japanese! Other comments included 'I only like English' and 'I'm not really interested in other languages'.

TABLE 4.26

Student Attitude Towards Further Language Study,  
as Demonstrated by 12, 13 and 14 (SQ2)

		Responses												Total
Grade	Would continue Japanese now				Would learn Japanese at High School				Other language at High School					
	y	m	n	dk	y	m	n	dk	y	m	n	dk		
Children with positive attitudes	3	14	3	1	4	12	5	3	2	13	5	3	1	22
	4	15	5	1	0	15	4	1	1	11	8	1	1	21
	5	11	7	1	1	9	7	3	1	16	2	2	0	20
	6	8	8	2	4	7	8	4	3	14	8	0	0	22
Total	48	23	5	9	43	24	11	7	54	23	6	2	85	
%	56.5	27.0	5.9	10.6	50.6	28.2	12.9	8.3	63.5	27.1	7.1	2.3	75.2	
Children with negative attitudes	3	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	2
	4	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
	5	0	1	2	1	1	1	2	0	2	2	0	0	4
	6	2	6	11	2	2	5	14	0	9	9	3	0	21
Total	3	7	14	4	4	6	17	1	12	12	3	1	28	
%	10.7	25.0	50.0	14.3	14.3	21.4	60.7	3.6	42.8	42.8	10.8	3.6	24.8	

Abbreviations: y yes; m maybe; n no; dk don't know

Question 15: Would you like to go Japan?

Responses to this question are shown in Table 4.27.

TABLE 4.27

Student Responses to Q15 (SQ2):  
Would you like to go to Japan?

Child in Grade	Responses				Total
	yes	maybe	no	don't know	
3	19	1	2	2	24
4	17	0	0	5	22
5	19	4	1	0	24
6	30	4	5	4	43
Total	85	9	8	11	113

Comments made by children who would like to go to Japan fell chiefly into several broad categories: to learn more about the people and culture (23 comments); to practise speaking skills (6 comments) and because it would be interesting (22 comments). Some children would go because they liked what they had heard about it (7 comments). Other comments were from children who had never been outside Australia or would enjoy the experience (11 comments). Four comments from children who would not like to go to Japan expressed dislike of Japanese people, lack of fluency in the language, embarrassment and (from a Greek child) 'it isn't my home country'. Other comments were not related to the Japanese program in any way.

Question 16: Do you think you know more about Japan than you did at the beginning of the year?

Responses to this question were used as a reference when analysing the content of the curriculum in relation to the overall goals of the program.

TABLE 4.28

Student Responses to Q16: Do You Think You Know More About Japan Now than You did at the Beginning of the Year?

Child in Grade	Responses				Total
	a lot more	a bit more	no more	no response	
3	21	3	0	0	24
4	19	3	0	0	22
5	20	4	0	0	24
6	25	14	3	1	43
Total	85	24	3	1	113



#### 4.5 Questionnaire 5: Teacher Questionnaire (TQ)

TQ was completed by five class teachers of grades 3 - 6, the principal, the librarian and a member of the ancillary staff who had assisted with the program.

#### Questions 1, 2, 3, 4 and 7: Support of FL study, specifically Japanese in the primary school

- Q1: I support the introduction of FL study, at primary school level in principle
- Q2: I support the introduction of foreign language study at primary level in practice
- Q3: At the beginning of 1984 I thought the introduction of Japanese was a good idea
- Q4: At the end of 1984 I think the introduction of Japanese was a good idea
- Q5: Children should not begin foreign language study until they have basic literacy skills in English.

Results are shown in table 4.29.

TABLE 4.29

Teacher support of FL study and specifically Japanese at the primary level (Q1, 2, 3, 4 and 7, TQ)

Support for	sa	a	u	d	sd	T
Q1 - FL in principle	5	2	1	0	0	8
Q2 - FL in practice	5	2	1	0	0	8
Q3 - Intro of Jap (beg 84)	6	1	1	0	0	8
Q4 - Intro of Jap (end 84)	5	3	0	0	0	8
Q5 - Acquis of basic literacy skills first	0	1	1	6	0	8

One respondent commented that she was doubtful at the outset, and wondering whether children's interest would continue for a prolonged period. Several others commented on the children's obvious enthusiasm and enjoyment.

Another respondent noted that, from her own experience, learning two languages had caused difficulties, and another that an early start gives a stronger foundation for later study.

One comment, that the program took 'so much time out of the timetable each week' was pertinent to the operation of the program.

To the final statement regarding acquisition of basic literacy skills prior to introduction of foreign language study, one respondent commented that although a few children may find it too demanding, observation would suggest that the majority would cope well.

#### Questions 5, 6 Teacher support for FL study at High School

Q5: It is important that the children have the opportunity to study another language at high school .

Q6: It is important that the children have the opportunity to continue the study of Japanese at high school.

Responses are shown at Table 4.30.

TABLE 4.30

Teacher Support for Foreign Language Study,  
and Specifically Japanese at High School. Q5 and 6 (TQ)

Support for:	Responses					
	sa	a	un	d	sd	T
Q5: another language	4	3	0	1	0	8
Q6: study of Japanese	2	3	1	2	0	8

Several respondents believed that the children 'should not be deprived of the opportunity to add to their knowledge' of Japanese, while others suggested that foreign language study gives children an opportunity to learn about other cultures, and that study of 'any language would do'.

Question 8: Appropriateness of curriculum materials

Q8: To what extent do you think the various areas (vocabulary, grammatical structures, games, activities and songs, introduction of hiragana, 'shape' of lesson, length of lesson, pace in relation to degree of difficulty, resources) were appropriate for children at the various levels?

Responses are shown in Table 4.31

While most teachers agreed that the vocabulary introduced was appropriate for all levels, it was felt that the grammatical structures would not be suitable for grades K, 1 and 2. The games were felt to be highly appropriate, generally, although one respondent believed the songs were not at all appropriate for grades 5 and 6.

TABLE 4.31

Teacher response to Q8 (TQ)  
Regarding Appropriateness of Curriculum Materials

Number of Responses* by Area																					
grade	vocab- ulary			grammatical structures			games			hiragana			lesson			res- ources					
													shape			length		pace			
	ha	a	na	ha	a	na	ha	a	na	ha	a	na	naa	ha	a	ha	a	ha	a	ha	a
K	3	1	1			2	4					1	2	1	1	1			2	1	1
1	3	3				2	4					3		1	1	1			2	1	1
2	3					2	4				2	1		1	1		1		2	1	1
3	5				3	1	4	2		5	1			2	2	1	2		4	4	
4	5				3		4	1		4	1			1	2	1	1		3	3	
5	5			1	3		4		1	5				1	3		3		4	4	
6	4	2			4		4	1	1	5	1			2	3	1	3	1	3	4	1

\* Only responses which were actually used are included in the table

Note: Some teachers chose to respond for each grade level, others only for the grade level which they were currently teaching. Therefore the number of responses, level by level, varies.

There was fairly general agreement that 'hiragana' was not suitable for grades K - 2. All teachers thought that the 'shape', length and pace of lessons, and the resources used at the various levels either appropriate or highly appropriate.

#### Question 9: Specific difficulties encountered

Q9: Were there any specific areas which caused difficulties or problems to you or your own class?

Two respondents commented on the pressures caused to an overcrowded timetable, and one found her 'slot' prior to recess interfered with 'basic' learning time. Two others commented on the difficulties they had experienced, while the 'children were OK'. Another mentioned the initial difficulties third grade children experienced with origami. One respondent noticed a 'loss of interest amongst a small group of senior children'.

#### Questions 10 11: Strengths and Weaknesses

Q10: What are the strengths of the program?

Q11: What are the areas of the program which could be improved?

Positive comments about the program itself mentioned the organisation, presentation, atmosphere and teaching, and the fact that it introduced new skills and culture with an emphasis on enjoyment. Also mentioned, was the opportunity for multicultural and language awareness, and for

all children to start on equal terms. The level of parental interest and support was noted, as was the influence on children's tolerance of others.

Areas for improvement included further grouping of children for extension and remediation, and more class teacher involvement.

Shortage of time in which to accomplish all lesson objectives was also a concern.

Question 12: Importance of FL Study

Q12: How would you rank foreign language study in the following areas of development of children: social, emotional, intellectual.

Responses are tabulated in table 4.32

TABLE 4.32

Teacher Perception of the Importance of FL Study in the Development of Children (Q12, TQ)

area of development	Responses				T
	v imp	imp	mod	not	
social	7	1	0	0	8
emotional	2	3	3	0	8
intellectual	4	4	0	0	8

Question 13:

Q13: What effect, if any, has the learning of Japanese had on those areas of development of the children in your class?

Responses to this question, indicating the level at which any effects were felt, are tabulated at Table 4.33.

TABLE 4.33

Class Teacher Perceptions of the Effect of Studying Japanese on Areas of Development of Students in their Class (Q13, TQ)

area of development	Responses, showing level of effect for each grade					
	no effect		small	mod	significant	
social	4	5			3	6 6*
emotional	4	5		6	3	
intellectual				5 6	3	4

Note: Only the five class teachers answered this question.  
\* There were two 6th grades.

Question 14

Q14: After participating in the program the children appeared to show more interest in... and,  
After participating in the program the children appear to have more positive attitudes towards Japan and the Japanese, Asia and Asian cultures, other cultures.

Responses to this question, indicating grade level for which the teacher made the response, are shown in Table 4.34.

TABLE 4.34

Class Teacher Perceptions of the Interest and Attitude of Children, after Participation in the Japanese Program towards:

- (i) Japan and the Japanese;
- (ii) Asia and Asian Cultures;
- (iii) Other Cultures

Area of concern	Responses by Grade							
	more interest				more positive attitude			
	sa	a	d	sd	sa	a	d	sd
(i) Japan and the Japanese	4 3	6 5			4 3			
(ii) Asia and Asian culture		6,3 5	4		3	5 6	4	
(iii) Other cultures		6,3 5	4		3	5 6	4	

Three other teachers who worked with all children also responded. All agreed that the children showed more interest and more positive attitudes in each of the three categories.

Questions 15 and 16

Q15 Please indicate children's enjoyment of, interest shown and educational value derived from the program, both early in the program and by the end of 1984.

Q16 If you noticed changes during the year, please comment.



Responses to question 15 are shown in Table 4.35. These are followed by respondents' comments to question 16.

TABLE 4.35

Teacher Perceptions of Children's Enjoyment of, Interest shown in, and Value derived from the Japanese Program

	Number of responses	Responses		
		a lot	quite a lot	some
enjoyment	3	0		
	1	0	—————→	0
	1	0	←—————	0
	1		0	
	1	0	—————→	0
interest	3	0		
	1	0	—————→	0
	1	0	—————→	0
	1		0	
	1		0	←————— 0
educational value from	1	0	-----+--→ ?	
	1	?	-----→ 0	←-----?
	3	0		
	1	0	—————→	0
	1		0	

Notes: 1 Starting and finishing points indicated by '0'. Direction of arrow indicates any change from early in, to end of, 1984

2 There was no response in the 'very little' category, therefore it was omitted from this table.

Comments received in response to Q16 indicated that interest and attitude varied from individual to individual and from age group to age group. In general, children in grades 3 and 4 appeared to teachers to be more enthusiastic and perhaps more interested than the older children.

Questions 17 and 18

Q17: Were there any children whose progress in Japanese differed markedly from their progress in other subjects, or whose progress surprised you in any way?

Q18: From your observations what comments would you make about the progress of ESL [English as a Second Language] children in Japanese?

The following comments were made:

- A child who was often slow in other subjects coped very well with Japanese.
- A child who was sometimes rather shy gained a lot of confidence by excelling in Japanese.
- One 'slow' child was really keen and more capable than I had expected.

With regard to children of non-English speaking backgrounds, the following comments were made.

- Most have difficulties but some seem to cope better than single language children.
- The third grade children did much better than I expected... they surprised me by being very quick to recognise vocabulary, and anxious to participate in activities. There was no apparent confusion.
- No change in ability or attitude.
- Rate of progress similar.

Questions 19

Q19: Please comment on the effect of the introduction of the program on school or classroom organisation.

Most comments were made with regard to timetabling at the class level, with opinion being divided as to whether introduction of the program created minor or major problems.

Other comments referred to the 'movement' of classes created by the introduction of the program which occasionally 'unsettled children'.

Questions 20 -23: Aims of the Program

The final four questions concerned the aims of the Japanese program. The aims were stated, and the questions asked:

Q20: How appropriate do you think these aims are?

Q21: How well do you think these aims are being achieved?

Q22: Are there any other outcomes of the program of which you are aware?

Q23: If you would like to change these aims in any way, please comment.

All respondents commented that the aims were either 'very appropriate', 'good', or 'excellent', and that they were being achieved 'very well' or 'very well indeed'.

Two respondents commented that the second aim was particularly appropriate and being achieved. One respondent added that the first aim 'has been realised commensurate with the time available for the program'.

No suggestions were made to change the aims in any way.

Several respondents mentioned other outcomes which they had observed.

These were:

- Class/teacher 'bonding' when the regular class teacher was highly involved in the program.
- A sense of pride that they 'can do it' especially when it looks so difficult to parents.
- Difficulties for new children as the program progressed.
- The children are anxious to meet people from Japan. Many want to visit Japan. Several have tried cooking, and most will eagerly try the 'unfamiliar'.

#### SUMMARY

Chapter 4 has been devoted to the presentation of data resulting from responses to the five questionnaires administered during the study. It will now be possible to refer to relevant data at the appropriate stage of the evaluation, in the following chapter.

## CHAPTER 5

RESULTS OF THE FORMATIVE EVALUATION OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE  
JAPANESE LANGUAGE CURRICULUM AT MACQUARIE PRIMARY SCHOOL

The order of presentation of the results of the evaluation will follow that outlined in Figure 3.1.

## 5.1 Stage 1: Pre-Program Activities

## 5.1.1 Needs Assessment

The needs assessment processes which took place prior to the introduction of the Japanese language program at Macquarie Primary School were outlined at 3.1.1. These took the form of consultation between interested parents and staff, and personnel from the ACT Schools Authority, and resulted in the writing of submissions requesting supplementary staffing, and funding for the purchase of resources to support such a program.

The extent of parent, student and teacher support for the program is indicated in data from the questionnaires, as detailed in chapter 4.

At the Needs Assessment phase the following factors, arising from the data, were of significance:

- (i) There was strong support for foreign language (FL) study at both primary and high school level, by parents, students and teachers.
- (ii) While a number of parents indicated a preference for study of a European language by their child, 46.9% preferred an Asian language. A small number of parents nominated Japanese specifically as the language of their choice. There was

strong support for the study of Japanese by students in Grades 3 - 5; support from Grade 6 children was limited.

- (iii) From both parents and teachers there was fairly strong belief in the importance of FL study in both the intellectual and social development of children.

On the basis of the needs assessment, it was decided to introduce a Japanese language program at Macquarie Primary School.

It was suggested in the literature that attitude towards the learning of a language is an important factor in successful achievement. The data obtained at the Needs Assessment phase indicated that the majority of children (94.4%) entered the program with a positive attitude towards learning Japanese. This point will be considered further in section 5.3.1.

#### 5.1.2 The Adoption of a Curriculum

Prior to the commencement of the Japanese program at Macquarie Primary School, an appropriate curriculum was sought. This involved the following steps:

- (i) A search of the literature to identify published curricula preferably for the teaching of Japanese, but, alternatively, for other languages at primary level.
- (ii) Correspondence, with the language consultants of the Department of Education in each of the states, seeking information about Japanese curriculum currently in use in Australia.

- (iii) Subsequent approaches to primary schools in Australia in which Japanese was taught.
- (iv) Discussion with Ms Marguerite Wells of the Curriculum Development Centre, Canberra, who has for several years researched the extent of the teaching of Japanese, and the curricula used, in Australia and New Zealand.

These investigations revealed that in 1984\*:

- (i) No formal course for primary students appeared to have been published, or was in use, in Australia. Teachers were developing their own materials, or attempting to adapt materials produced for secondary students.
- (ii) The curriculum used predominantly in all states, except Western Australia, at the secondary level, was Alfonso (1977). Western Australia had its own materials, developed specifically for secondary students. New Zealand secondary schools mostly used a variety of materials developed for adults and published in Japan.

The curriculum adopted for trial at Macquarie Primary School was designed by a native speaker of Japanese for use at a school in the

\* Since 1984 two curricula suitable for use in primary schools have come to the attention of the writer:

- 1 Machida, T. and Taguchi, M. (1980). Japanese for Children, Melbourne [no details].
- 2 Williams P. Kimono. The writer has not yet been able to obtain bibliographic details.

ACT with students from grades 3 - 10. The materials were unpublished, and permission was obtained from the author to trial them at Macquarie.

### 5.1.3 Specification of Goals

The goals of the Macquarie Primary School Japanese Program were formulated with reference to the literature of foreign language pedagogy, and, subsequently the expectations of both parents and students identified in PQ1 and SQ1, and presented in chapter 4.

#### Goals of FL Programs Emerging from the Literature

The literature (see section 2.6) indicated that the goals of foreign language programs generally fell into the broad categories of communication, socio-cultural awareness, learning-how-to-learn, and language and cultural awareness. It was also pointed out that the needs of the learners should be taken into account when formulating goals.

It was decided that, in view of the time required to master a new script, emphasis should initially be placed on listening and speaking skills in this program.

#### Expectations of Parents and Students

Responses to questions 6, 7, 8 (PQ1) and 9, 10, 11 (SQ1) indicated agreement by parent and students with the following roles of language study:

\* Ogi, Saeko. Sā hajimemashō: Teacher's Handbook and Children's Workbook (unpublished materials).



- (i) communication with other speakers of the language (parents 88.3%; students 96.8%);
- (ii) obtaining information about the people and culture (parents 95%; students 96.8%);
- (iii) preparation for future language study (parents 96.8%; students 87.9%).

Of the 14.5% of children who disagreed with the cultural role, 81.3% were grade 6 children. A comment made by one parent indicated that 'reading the literature' was often a purpose of foreign language programs.

#### Statement of Goals

On the basis of the literature, and the information obtained from the two questionnaires, two broad goals for the Japanese language program were identified;

- (i) To provide the children with the skills which will enable them to communicate orally, and to some degree in writing with other speakers of Japanese .
  - The skills required are:
    - a) an increasing ability to understand spoken Japanese;
    - b) an increasing ability to speak Japanese;
    - c) to a lesser extent, an increasing ability to read and write Japanese;
- (ii) To foster in the children an understanding of the Japanese way of life.

(Macquarie Primary School  
Japanese Program: Goals. Feb.1984)

### Preliminary Examination of Materials

In accordance with the evaluation plan, a preliminary examination of the materials to be trialled (see section 3.6.5 curriculum) was then made in order to identify the objectives and assess their relationship with the goals formulated for the Japanese program at Macquarie Primary School. Since the objectives were not explicitly stated, they were compiled after an examination of the 'content' of the children's work book, and the lesson plans outlined in the teacher's handbook.

From the children's workbook and teacher's handbook it was apparent that each lesson was planned around a variety of activities which could be categorised as follows:

- (i) revision;
- (ii) learning new vocabulary structures;
- (iii) using new vocabulary and/or structures;
- (iv) learning and practising hiragana;
- (v) singing;
- (vi) activity work and games.

Activities in each new lesson followed on naturally from preceding lessons. There was no particular theme, throughout the book, however children were to be given many opportunities to use their new language in pairs, or small groups, and both orally and in writing. Analyses of lesson outlines indicated that, assuming 45 lessons of 45 minutes duration, theoretically 1055 minutes was likely to be spent on developing listening/speaking skills, and 970 minutes on reading/writing skills. This was in keeping with the emphasis given to listening/speaking skills in the first broad goal of the program.

Statement of Aims of Book 1:

After analysis of the materials (sā hajimemashō - Let's Begin), the following Statement of Aims was compiled:

On completion of Book 1 students will be able to:

- (i) recognise, understand and reproduce both orally, and in writing, the vocabulary contained in the book; and recognise and write the 'hiragana' contained in the vocabulary;
- (ii) respond appropriately, orally, to questions based on structures contained in Book 1; and construct and reproduce orally and in writing sentences based on those structures;
- (iii) recognise and sing the songs contained in Book 1;
- (iv) understand and respond to the oral instructions listed on p49 of the teacher's handbook.

These aims may be summarised as follows:

- (i) to enable the children to recognise and understand some basic vocabulary and structures in Japanese;
- (ii) to give them the opportunity to practise the new language by responding to questions and composing sentences both orally and in writing.

Relationship of the Aims of the Materials to the Goals of the Japanese Program

The two broad goals of the Japanese Program for Macquarie School were identified in section 5.1.3. When these are compared with the Statement of Aims of Book 1, it would appear that:

- (i) There is a strong relationship between the Aims and the first broad goal of the Japanese program, which concerns the development of the four macro-skills. Hence use of Book 1 should facilitate achievement of this goal.
- (ii) The 'content' of Book 1 does not relate specifically to the Japanese culture, therefore use of Book 1 of the materials would not appear to contribute directly to achievement of the second broad goal, concerning understanding of the Japanese way of life.

The necessity for a hierarchical relationship between the goals, aims and objectives was pointed out in the literature. It will be further discussed in section 5.2.3.

#### 5.1.4 Collection of Contextual Materials

The final activity which took place prior to the commencement of the program, was the collection of information about the particular setting in which the Japanese program was to be introduced, namely Macquarie Primary School. Descriptions of the school, those involved in the program, timetabling for Japanese, other institutions offering Japanese in the ACT, and the materials themselves were compiled using 'contextual' information. These descriptions are an integral part of the evaluation, constituting sections 3.6.1 to 3.6.5 of this study.

#### Summary

During Stage 1 (Pre-developmental Activities) of the evaluation, as part of needs assessment procedures, questionnaires were administered to parents and students to be involved in the program.

Responses to the questionnaires furnished data with regard to:

1. language background;
2. attitudes toward foreign language study;
3. preferred language choice; and
4. perceptions of the role of language study,

both of participants in the program, and their parents.

Information from these questionnaires supported the view that foreign language study, by the children of Macquarie Primary School, had general community support.

The study of an Asian language was seen to be appropriate by a majority of parents and students. Japanese was selected as the language to be studied for the reasons outlined in section 1.3.

Responses to questions regarding perceptions of the role of foreign language study were taken into consideration when the broad goals of the Japanese program were formulated. Examination of the materials to be trialled led to the compilation of a Statement of Aims for Book 1 of the program. The collection of contextual material enabled a descriptive report of the school setting to be written.

At this point the Japanese program commenced and Stages 2 and 3 of the evaluation began.

## 5.2 Stage 2: Evaluation of Goals

This stage of the evaluation involved:

- (i) comparing the procedures used to establish the goals of the program with suggestions made in the literature;
- (ii) analysing the goals themselves; and
- (iii) analysing the goals, aims, and objectives for hierarchical consistency.

On completion of these steps it was possible to evaluate the extent to which the goals of the Japanese program were appropriate, valid, and consistent, and to answer the first evaluative question posed in section 1.4.

### 5.2.1 Means of Establishing Goals

From the literature (2.6.1) it emerged that the following points should be considered when establishing the goals of a foreign language program:

- (i) the needs of society;
- (ii) the needs and expectations of parents and students;
- (iii) reference to the literature on language learning; and
- (iv) the relationship between the goals of the program and the goals of the school.

Each of these factors was considered during the establishment of the goals of the Japanese program. It would therefore appear that the means of establishing the goals was quite valid.

### 5.2.2. Logical and Empirical Analyses of the Goals

#### Comparison with goals of the school

The goals of Macquarie Primary School pertinent to the broad goals of the Japanese program include provision of:

- (i) a curriculum with a basic core of communication, literacy and numeracy skills as a basis for further education; and
- (ii) the opportunity to learn self-control and direction through knowledge and acceptance of self and others.  
(Macquarie School Handbook, 1983. School Goals: Items 1 & 2).

It would appear that the study of another language, in this case Japanese, is not in conflict with these provisions.

#### Consideration of goals with regard to the National Language Policy

The benefits of foreign language study cited in the National Language Policy document (1984) included appreciation of the multicultural nature of Australian society, intercultural tolerance and understanding, and linguistic flexibility. The goals of the Macquarie Primary School Japanese program are seen to attempt to encompass these benefits.

#### Comparison with goals of other primary school language programs

A number of primary school language programs were examined\*.

\* Within the ACT: Italian (Duffy); Indonesian (Forrest, Scullin, Page, Weetangera); French (Lyons, Lyneham); Spanish (Macgregor, Wanniasa); 2. Outside the ACT: Italian (Doncliffe SA); Spanish (Langton, NSW); Arabic, Italian, Croatian, Spanish (St. Michaels, NSW) (McLean, 1982).

There was a considerable variation in quality of statements of goals, aims and objectives, from school to school. The most complete statements contained broad goals translated into specific aims for each level of the program.

The emphasis in the programs inspected differed according to the ethnic background of the children involved in the program. Where programs were offered to both native and non-native speakers, the goals for each varied.

However, the goals of programs which were pertinent to acquisition of a foreign language by non-native speakers could be broken down into two categories, culture-oriented and language-oriented.

#### Culture-oriented goals

Examples of these were:

- to promote and maintain an understanding of the people and their way of life;
- to foster and maintain interest in and understanding of the people, language and cultural heritage; to understand and participate in the culture;
- to provide knowledge, attitudes and insights into the culture; to appreciate the similarities and differences between two cultures;
- to encourage positive attitudes.



Language-oriented goals

Examples of these were:

- development of general language skills;
- to provide the learner with necessary linguistic skills to carry out communicative tasks at a level appropriate to the length of language study;
- to develop skills of listening, understanding and speaking;
- to stimulate interest in, and provide opportunities for, the learning of the language;
- to develop language through themes, songs, stories and poetry;
- to communicate in another language;
- to provide foundation for later L2 learning.

These two categories encompass three of the 'classes' suggested by Rivers (1981) and the ALL Project (1986) outlined in section 2.6.

Other goals which emerged from existing programs fell into another two categories suggested by Rivers (1981). These were development of intellectual powers, and increase of understanding of the function of language.

Development of intellectual powers

Examples of goals which fell into this category were:

- to encourage divergent thinking;
- to train and extend oral memory and recall.

### Understanding of the function of language

Examples in this category were:

- understanding the structure of English;
- to extend basic literacy and encourage structural awareness of mother tongue and foreign language.

Two further goals were suggested which do not fit into the frameworks outlined in section 2.6. These were:

- to foster and maintain community involvement; and
- to develop a common resource pool for sharing of materials, and develop a negotiated curriculum.

The broad goals of the Macquarie Primary School Japanese Program fall into the culture-oriented and language oriented categories emphasised by most of the other primary school foreign language programs.

### Evaluation of appropriateness of the goals based on the questionnaires submitted by parents and teachers

The results of question 27 (PQ2) and question 20 (TQ) are shown together in Table 5.1.

As there was no significant difference in response from parents with children at different levels all parent responses are recorded together.

TABLE 5.1

Parent and Teacher Responses to Q27 (PW2) and Q20 (TQ):  
Are the Aims of the Program Appropriate?

	Responses			Total
	positive	negative	no response	
Parents	21	1	23*	45
Teachers	8	0	0	8
Total	29	1	23	53

\* This section of the parent questionnaire (PQ2) was optional

From the data it is apparent that parents who chose to respond to this optional question, and teachers, believed the goals of the program to be appropriate for the Macquarie Primary School Japanese Program.

### 5.2.3 Hierarchical Consistency of Goals, Aims and Objectives

It was suggested in the literature (see section 2.5) that the broad goals of a program will only be achieved if they are hierarchically consistent with curricular aims and objectives.

Using Jarvis and Adams (1979) model it was possible to examine the broad, long term goals of the program, the specific aims of Book 1 of the materials, and the learning objectives for each lesson, for hierarchical consistency.

This analysis indicated that lesson objectives, and the specific aims of Book 1 are hierarchically consistent with the first broad goal of the program which was to provide the children with the skills which will enable them to communicate orally, and to some degree in writing, with other speakers of Japanese.

The second broad goal of the program was:

To foster in the children an understanding of the Japanese way of life.

As the content and lesson strategies of Book 1 were not culture-specific, none of the aims at this level, or the lesson objectives, reflected this second broad goal of the program.

The analysis of hierarchical consistency concluded Stage 2, Evaluation of Goals.

### Summary

During Stage 2, the goals of the Japanese language program were evaluated.

Certain procedures, suggested in the literature, were used to establish the goals. The goals themselves were then evaluated using the logical and empirical analyses suggested by Sanders and Cunningham (1973). Finally, the goals of the program, the aims of Book 1 of the curriculum, and the objectives at lesson level were compared for hierarchical consistency using a framework suggested by Jarvis and Adams (1979).

At the conclusion of Stage 3 it was possible to answer the first evaluative question:

Are the goals of the program valid, consistent, and appropriate?

This will be discussed in chapter 6.

### 5.3 Stage 3: Formative Interim Evaluation

#### 5.3.1 Pay-off evaluation

It was suggested in the literature (Sanders and Cunningham, 1973) that during this stage of the evaluation the effect of the program on the students be evaluated using the following data:

i) Student performance

This information was obtained from the children's workbooks, the teacher's field notes and the results of an oral test.

ii) Student attitudes

This information was obtained from written comments in the Student Questionnaire (SQ2), the Parent Questionnaire (PQ2), and the Teacher Questionnaire (TQ) in conjunction with anecdotal notes based on oral comments of parents, teachers, students and visitors to the school.

(iii) Analysis of other variables

This information was obtained from responses to questionnaires 1 - 5, and from school records.

#### Student Performance Data

Various types of tests of performance were outlined in section 2.8.2. The use of a rating scale such as Australian Second Language Proficiency Ratings (ASLPR) (Ingram & Wylie, 1982) was considered, but was found to be unsuitable to assess the language level of this population. It was decided that the most appropriate method of assessing the performance of this population, was to rank each child using a simplified four-point grading scale devised by the author (see Fig. 5.1).

FIGURE 5.1

Rank	Ability Level	Descriptors
A	high	understands well and responds appropriately, without assistance
B		usually able to understand and respond appropriately, with minimal assistance
C		occasionally understands, but usually requires assistance to make appropriate response
D	low	rarely understands, rarely able to respond; constantly needs assistance

Rating Scale used to Assess Student Performance in Listening/Speaking and Reading/Writing in Japanese at Macquarie Primary school

Using this scale, each child was rated for performance:

(i) During lessons

Each child was given a rating for performance in oral sessions, in which predominantly listening/speaking skills were involved, and for completion of the workbook, which focussed on reading/writing skills.

(ii) In the oral test

Here the emphasis was on listening and speaking but there was some provision for demonstrating reading skills.

A list of specific items causing general difficulty, was generated from both these sources. This will be referred to in section 6.5.1.

#### Assessment of student performance in oral sessions, during lessons

During lessons for each grade a class list was used by the teacher's aide to record the number of times each child responded orally to a question or command. This ensured that over a number of lessons all children were given opportunities to participate orally. The aide also noted whether any individual child was experiencing difficulty, or whether any particular item appeared to cause difficulty for numbers of children. The teacher also added her comments at the end of the lesson.

On completion of Book 1, the bilingual aide, the Australian aide, the class teacher and the teacher of Japanese, together, using the information contained on the checklists, rated each child's performance in listening/speaking activities in oral sessions, using the simplified grading scale indicated in Figure 5.1. A summary of these results for each grade appears in Table 5.2.

#### Assessment of student performance in work books

The workbook completed by the children provided a permanent record of their reading and writing skills. In addition, the daily notes completed by the teacher and teacher's aide provided information on the children's ability to read orally either from the blackboard, their books, charts, or flashcards.

For the purpose of assessment for this study, the simplified rating scale was again used. Results are shown in Table 5.2.



Assessment of student performance in oral test.

The oral test (Appendix 7) was administered on completion of Book 1 of the program following the procedures outlined in section 3.5.4. Each child was given a point score out of a total of 33 possible points.

The point score was then converted using the rankings and descriptors shown in Figure 5.1, as follows:

Rank	Point score
A	30 - 33
B	22 - 29
C	15 - 21
D	Under 15

The purpose of the conversion was to approximate scores in the oral test with performance during lessons. The number and percentage of children obtaining each rank in the test is shown in Table 5.2, together with ranks based on children's performance in class.

TABLE 5.2

Rating of Performance in the Four Macro-skills  
of Children (grades 3-6) in;  
(i) Japanese lessons, and  
(ii) the Oral Test.

Grade	Number of children respond- ing	Skill	Children Obtaining Rating							
			A		B		C		D	
			no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%
3	23	(i)	10	43.5	5	21.7	3	13.1	5	21.7
		(ii)	9	39.1	4	17.4	6	26.1	4	17.4
4	24	(i)	7	29.2	8	33.3	8	33.3	1	4.2
		(ii)	11	45.8	5	20.8	7	29.2	1	4.2
5	26	(i)	11	42.3	5	19.2	9	34.6	1	3.9
		(ii)	15	57.7	2	7.7	7	26.9	2	7.7
6	45	(i)	13	50.0	8	30.8	5	19.2	0	-
		(ii)	11	24.5	18	40.0	11	24.5	5	11.0
			18	40.0	11	24.5	14	31.1	2	4.4
			11	24.5	24	53.3	6	13.3	4	8.9

Note: (i) = during lessons: listening/speaking and reading/writing  
(ii) = in the oral test

Comparison of performance across the three areas of assessment

From the performance data obtained during lessons, and from the results obtained from the oral test (Table 5.2) the following general observations may be made.

- (i) During lessons a higher percentage of Grade 3 children required frequent help with listening/speaking tasks (21.7%) and reading/writing tasks (17.4%) than those in grades 4 and 5 (see Table 5.2). 11.0% of children in Grade 6 also required considerable help with listening/speaking tasks.
- (ii) The ability to perform reading/writing tasks with no assistance was higher than the ability to perform listening/speaking tasks for children in all grades except Grade 3.

These results had implications for lesson structure and timetabling for use of the bilingual aide (see section 6.5.1), but no other general applicability.

Summary

The preceding section of the evaluation, concerning student performance, is related to the second evaluative question concerning achievement of the goals of the program.

The data obtained from the children's workbooks, field notes, and the oral test enabled an assessment to be made of each child's performance in the four macro-skills emphasised in the goals of the program, and inherent in the aims of Book 1 of the curriculum.

With regard to the performance of children individually, in relation to the aims of Book I, it was apparent that a number of children were performing at a low level in several of the areas of assessment. It was suggested in the literature that certain learner characteristics may influence performance (sections 2.6. to 2.6.8). These characteristics will now be discussed in relation to student performance data obtained during this study.

#### Student attitudes, motivation and self-esteem

Data from the three questionnaires administered to students (SQ2), parents (PQ2), and teachers (TQ), which are relevant to student attitudes, motivation, or self-esteem will now be discussed.

#### Student attitudes towards the study of Japanese prior to the commencement of the program

From Table 4.7 (SQ1) it was apparent that 54.8% of students would have chosen to learn a European, rather than an Asian (36.3%) or Aboriginal (8.15) language. From their comments, this is, for some students, a reflection of their awareness of languages studied, or spoken, by their parents. Preference for a European language did not, however, appear to affect students' attitudes prior to the commencement of the program, since 94.4% (Table 4.6, SQ1) at that time said that they were pleased to be studying Japanese. The data presented in Table 4.8 indicates both an integrative and instrumental motivation (McMeniman, 1985) for learning Japanese.

Student Attitudes towards the Japanese Program in December 1984

Data in Table 4.20 indicated that in December 1984, 75.2% of students liked Japanese as a subject, while 24.8% did not like it much, or disliked it. Of that 24.8%, 18.6% of students were in Grade 6, and represented 48.8% of the population at that level. A further indicator of the attitude of some Grade 6 students may be their reluctance to identify themselves when completing SQ2 (see Table 4.19).

Responses to questions 3, 4, 5 and 6 (SQ2) gave some insight into the students' reasons for liking or disliking Japanese. Of relevance here is the fact that five of the seven students for whom Japanese was the least-liked subject, also disliked up to six other subjects. For the other two students Japanese was the only disliked subject.

Table 4.12 recorded parental perception of student interest in, and enjoyment of, the Japanese program. For students in grades 3 - 5 there was some approximation between their liking for Japanese and their interest and enjoyment as perceived by parents. For grade 6 students, however, this appeared not to be the case.

Table 4.21 offered a comparison of student attitude towards Japanese with their rating of their progress.

Similarly, from Table 4.22, it was apparent that students' perceptions of their own understanding was also reflected in their self-rating: children who rated themselves as excellent, or very good, or good, generally saw themselves as understanding everything or understanding most things, while children who rated themselves as not-so-good, or

struggling, saw themselves as understanding some things, or not understanding much. Perhaps significantly, of the eleven children who did not understand much, nine (81.5) were from Grade 6.

The literature (Strevens, 1978; Schumann, 1978) suggested that expectations of success and feelings of self-esteem seem to influence performance in second language learning. The limited data collected during this study appears to offer very general support to this theory.

#### Changes in attitude from February 1984 to December 1984

From Table 4.23 it was observed that:

- (i) Of 74 (65.5%) students who commenced the program with positive attitudes, 64 (86.5%) retained them.
- (ii) Of 9 (8%) students who commenced the program with negative attitudes, 8 (8.9%) retained them.
- (iii) Of the 30 (26.5%) students who commenced the program with feelings of uncertainty, 11 (36.7%) felt negative towards the Japanese program after participation in it.
- (iv) Of a total of 29 (25.7%) students who had negative feelings towards Japanese in December 1984, 21 (72.4%) were in Grade 6.

Table 4.35 (TQ) indicated teacher perception of children's enjoyment of, and interest in, the Japanese program. Of significance are the perceptions of the two grade 6 teachers, one of whom saw no change in the attitude of students; the other indicated a change from 'a lot' to 'some' for both enjoyment of and interest in, the program.

The students' comments, offered in SQ2, gave some insight into the reasons for their attitudes towards, and reactions to, different aspects of the Japanese program. As these have implications for change, they will be dealt with in section 6.5.2.

Attitude towards further language study.

Of 85 (75.2%) children with positive attitudes towards Japanese, 48 (56.5%) would continue their study at primary school, and 5 (5.9%) would not. The remaining 42 (37.6%) were undecided (see table 4.25). Of the 28 (24.8%) children with negative attitudes towards Japanese fourteen (50%) would not continue studying at primary school, three (10.7%) would, and eleven (39.3%) were undecided.

It could perhaps be anticipated that children with negative attitudes would not choose to learn Japanese at high school: only four (14.3%) indicated that they would; others (12, 86.7%) would not, or were undecided.

Six (7.1%) children with positive, and 3 (10.7%) with negative attitudes towards Japanese would not learn another language at high school.

These results pose questions concerning the extent to which early exposure to a foreign language might have affected the attitudes of students towards further language study. Such questions could be considered in a later study.

Attitude in relation to performance.

From the data obtained in the questionnaires and follow-up interviews, and from observations recorded in the field notes, the following generalisations about student attitude in relation to performance, during this study, may be made:

- (i) Not all children with positive attitudes towards the program did achieve well (ie. gain ratings of A or B in every area of assessment). However, most children with positive attitudes perceived themselves to be achieving (Table 4.21) and willingly participated during lessons.
- (ii) No children with negative attitudes towards Japanese achieved ratings of A or B in the areas of assessment. 17.8% of these children perceived themselves as achieving.
- (iii) During lessons, particularly with Grade 6 children, it was observed that those with negative attitudes could usually perform satisfactorily with persuasion and assistance from the teacher. The question of the self-esteem of these children was raised in discussion between staff. It was felt that the link between attitudes, self-esteem and performance could be explored further.

Other variables related to student performanceAge

In section 2.6.1 the various points of view regarding the optimum age for language study were outlined.



The student performance data summarised in Table 4.21 offers no evidence to support the theory that younger children will learn a language more successfully than older children. Although the study was limited both by the age range of the children (8 - 12 years), and the length of the evaluation (ten months), some general observations may be made:

- (i) There was some, apparently insignificant, variation in performance from grade to grade across the three areas of assessment (Table 4.21).
- (ii) The younger (Grade 3 and 4) children generally showed more enthusiasm for all aspects of the program, and were less inhibited in oral sessions.
- (iii) During lessons, questions regarding the structure of the language came frequently from Grade 6 children, while those in the other grades seemed to accept without question the patterns presented. Also, some of the older children appeared to be trying to construct sentences in the new language word-by-word. These observations seem to indicate an attempt to logically organise knowledge (Cohen, 1976), and offer support to Burstall's (1979) finding that older children are more 'efficient' at learning a language.
- (iv) Japanese visitors to the program often commented on the near-native pronunciation of children in the younger grades (1 and 2) during their informal lessons. This supports Seliger's (1978) claim that the 'age of the learner is a factor in the ability to acquire a native-like pronunciation of a second language' (p12).

McMeniman suggested that the influence of age on development of proficiency in L2 is 'mediated by its interactions with other variables' (1985: 7). These variables will now be considered.

#### Previous Linguistic Experience

In February, 1984 124 children (grades 3 - 6) commenced the Japanese Language Program (Table 3.1). By December 1984 113 children were participating. None of the children who participated in the program during the period of the study had any prior knowledge of Japanese. Twenty-four children (19.4%) who commenced the course had some knowledge of a language other than English. Nineteen of these children were attending English-as-a-second language (ESL) classes.

On the basis of observations made during lessons, and from the comments of teachers (Q17 & 18, TQ) and parents of children attending ESL classes (in PQ2), two points may be made about the effect of the previous linguistic experience of children involved in this study:

- (i) Generally speaking, the rate of progress of children with knowledge of another language, as well as English, was similar to that of mono-lingual children. However, both Grade 3 and 4 teachers noted that several ESL students seemed to do better in Japanese than would have been expected from their general performance in other subjects.
- (ii) Both mono- and bi-lingual children at Grade 6 level appeared to apply their knowledge of the structure of their first language in the second language learning process, sometimes

resulting in confusion (McMeniman, 1985). This point was made previously, with regard to AGE.

These very general observations accord with the views cited in section 2.6.5.

#### Cognitive Style, Learning Style, and Learning Strategies

It was pointed out in section 2.6.6 that, for the purpose of this study, the application of research into cognitive style, learning style and learning strategies should be reflected in 'programs of instruction appropriate to the age, experience, ability and interest' (Tucker, 1978: 210) of the students. These factors will therefore be discussed in section 5.3.2 (ii).

#### Reaction to Language Teaching Methods

From the data presented in Tables 4.24 and 4.25, it would appear that, with regard to the teaching methods:

- (i) Every aspect of lessons was less popular with Grade 6 children, except games.
- (ii) A significantly larger percentage of children in Grade 6, compared with other grades, found learning and oral reproduction of new vocabulary and structures more difficult than other aspects of lessons.
- (iii) Across the grades, more children enjoyed games than anything else.
- (iv) Very few children experienced difficulty with the less formal aspects of lessons, namely singing, games, and finding out about Japan.

While it was not within the scope of this study to consider individual reactions to teaching methods, the data pointed to the need for some change in method of presentation of the materials at least at Grade 6 level. This will be discussed in section 6.5.2.

In terms of Schumann's (1978) point, that negative reaction to language teaching methods may lead students to abandon language study completely, it is interesting to note the reasons given, particularly by grade 6 children with negative attitudes, for their dislike of learning Japanese (see Q2, SQ2). The four children who gave 'boredom' as their reason did not perceive themselves as achieving poorly, but would not continue Japanese if given the choice; three of the four, however, may learn another language at high school.

#### Ethnocentrism

It was suggested in the literature that the teaching of a FL may be a powerful force in creating more positive attitudes by primary school children towards foreigners, although 'this tolerance is possibly language-specific rather than generalized' (Holt, 1978: 68). In this study, teachers of all grades, 3 - 6, observed that children showed more interest in Japan and the Japanese, with children in grades 3 and 4 also seeming to show more positive attitudes. Comments from parents in response to Q17 (PQ2) supported the view that their children were more interested in Japan and the Japanese since participating in the program, with 36.9% of parents believing that this interest may extend to other Asian cultures. With regard to positive attitudes, several parents had noticed changes in their children. One parent pointed out that such change may not necessarily

be due to participation in the program. Teachers of all grades except Grade 4 believed that the more positive attitudes they had noted extended to both Asian, and other, cultures (Table 4.33, TQ).

The students themselves were not asked directly about their attitudes towards the Japanese, or other cultures. Their response to SQ2: Q15 (Would you like to go to Japan?) and Q16 (Do you think you know more about Japan now than you did at the beginning of the year?), and their reasons, may perhaps be indicative of attitude.

Reasons given by children who would like to go to Japan, which may be construed as indicating positive attitude, included learning more about the people and culture, practising speaking skills, and the fact that it would be interesting. A reason for not going, given by one child, was dislike of Japanese people.

Responses to the second question were shown in Table 4.27. A significantly large 39.5% of Grade 6 children, (in contrast to 12.2%, 13.6% and 16.7% in Grades 3 - 5) believed that they knew only a bit more, or no more, about Japan than at the beginning of the course. It could be construed that this demonstrates a negative attitude towards the program.

These general observations offer support to Holt's (1978) views, but there is insufficient evidence to suggest that tolerance is generalised beyond the target language culture.

### Summary

During the first phase of Stage 3, (Pay-off Evaluation), the effect of the Japanese language program on the participating students was evaluated with reference to data about student performance, student attitudes, and other relevant learner characteristics.

On completion of this phase it was possible to answer evaluative question 2:

How successful is the program in achieving its stated goals?.

This will be considered in chapter 6.

#### 5.3.2 Intrinsic Evaluation

Intrinsic evaluation, an analysis of the curriculum itself, formed the next phase of Stage 3. The factors used to evaluate the text being trialled were suggested by Davison (1976) (see section 2.8.9).

#### Relationship between text and students

##### (i) Objectives of students

From their responses in SQ2 it was apparent that most children expected to be able to communicate with Japanese people, and to learn more about the Japanese culture, by participating in the Japanese program. The aims of Book 1 of the materials under discussion, and their hierarchical relationship to the goals of the whole program were discussed in sections 5.1.3 and 5.2.3. It was suggested that use of

the text alone would not contribute to the students' understanding and appreciation of Japanese culture. It was also suggested that on completion of Book 1 communication with other speakers of Japanese would be possible to a very limited extent.

(ii) Age of students

On the basis of the opinions of school staff involved in the Japanese program it would appear that the text and accompanying resources, and the length and content of lessons, were appropriate for the majority of grade 3 - 6 students. Some staff believed that some formal aspects of the text were less suitable for younger children, and one believed that the songs were not suitable for children in grades 5 and 6. From the responses of the students involved in the program to SQ2: Q10 (Table 4.23) it would appear that children in grades 3, 4 and 5 generally, enjoyed most aspects of lessons, with singing, games and cultural activities being slightly more popular than formal aspects. At grade 6 level, however, a large number of children expressed dislike of both formal and informal aspects of lessons, with the exception of playing games. This feeling was particularly strong for singing (disliked by 62.8% students) and, to a lesser extent, for cultural aspects (disliked by 25%). A significantly high 60.5% disliked saying new words and sentences.

From a comparison of responses shown in tables 4.23 and 4.24 there does not appear to be a correlation between feelings towards different aspects of lessons, and their level of difficulty as perceived by students.

Several generalisations may be made about the level of difficulty of certain aspects of lessons, for different grade levels:

- 1) A larger percentage of children at Grade 6 level experienced difficulty with both learning new words (25.6%) and saying new words (20.9%) than at other grade levels.
- 2) Informal aspects of lessons were less difficult for all grade levels, than formal aspects.

From observations recorded by the teacher of Japanese, and by teacher's aides, it appeared that, at least in the early stages of the program, children at all levels were deriving enjoyment and benefit from all aspects of the lessons. However, as the program progressed, some children at Grade 6 level became increasingly and more obviously restless during lessons. In singing, particularly, Grade 6 children initially regarded the songs as a 'novelty', but this wore off. It became necessary to locate and introduce songs more suitable for this group's level of development.

(iii) Language background of students

The children's workbook was completed by all children using the Japanese 'hiragana' syllabary. All instructions to the children during lessons were, initially, in Japanese. The textbook was not written for children from a specific language background, and no children who commenced the program in 1984 had knowledge of the Japanese language, although a few had contact with Japanese people (see Table 4.9). With regard to the Japanese language, therefore all children started at the same level.



Table 3.1 shows numbers of ESL children who commenced Japanese in February 1984. Teacher reaction to the effect of the Japanese program on these children was sought in TQ (Q18). The comments of teachers generally indicated no apparent advantages or disadvantages to this group of children. Observations made by the teacher of Japanese, and teacher's aides, in the course of lessons, revealed no difficulties peculiar to ESL children in particular.

(iv) Language level of students

Book 1 of the materials being trialled was written specifically for beginning students of Japanese at primary school level. There was, therefore, no conflict between the language level of the students and the language level of the text.

(v) Style and content

The 'register' used throughout Book 1 was the standard Japanese 'masu' form. This is the form initially used in other Japanese teaching texts, and is appropriate for the needs of a foreigner communicating with any Japanese. Several Japanese visitors, however, while agreeing that it was necessary in the language teaching situation, commented on the artificiality of its use in the classroom: a Japanese teacher would not use the form with his students.

In Book 1 the vocabulary was chosen both for its suitability for primary school children, and to support the introduction of the hiragana syllabary. In the course of using Book 1 the children learned to respond to a number of classroom instructions given in Japanese. No peculiarly Japanese 'situations' were suggested by the

grammatical items taught, although by the end of Book 1 students had been introduced to five frequently used Japanese particles (wa, ga, mo, o, to) in meaningful expressions. Reactions to the songs introduced in Book 1 by Grade 6 children later in the course led to the inclusion of other songs more suitable to their stage of development. The games and activities were highly suitable for all grades.

Both the style and content of Book 1 (with the exception of the songs at Grade 6 level) could therefore be said to be appropriate to the needs of the students.

#### Relationship between curriculum and text.

##### (i) Objectives of the curriculum

The first broad goal of the Macquarie Primary School Japanese Program was to develop primarily the skills of listening and speaking, followed by those of reading/writing. Both in theory (based on analysis of lesson content) and in practice (the actual teaching time involved) the time spent on listening/speaking on the one hand, and reading/writing on the other, was, in the early lessons, approximately equal. Therefore at this stage of the program, using Book 1, the goal of emphasis on listening/speaking skills was only partially met by the text.

The second broad goal of the program, development of cultural awareness, could not be achieved at all using the text, since the vocabulary and structures used were not peculiarly 'Japanese'.

However, other resources were used extensively to supplement the text itself.

Responses to PQ2 (Q27 - 29) and TQ (Q20 - 23) indicated that both parents and teachers generally perceived that the broad goals of the program were being achieved, but that more time was required to assess this fully.

(ii) Time allotted to various aspects of the program

The text was flexible in approach to the use of time in that no 'deadline' for completion was stated. Very obviously, the amount of time allotted to 'Japanese' would vary from school to school; the division of that time equitably between different aspects of the program would directly affect the time taken to complete the text. In fact at Macquarie Primary School considerably longer than anticipated was taken to complete Book 1, due to the emphasis placed on the cultural aspects of the program.

The text assumed that 'formal' learning would not take place outside the classroom, so a significant part of each lesson was devoted to revision.

#### Text and Class size

The text was originally designed for use at a school where the maximum number of children attending Japanese lessons at each grade level was twelve. At Macquarie numbers of children attending lessons ranged from 25 - 32 in each class group.

The author of the text maintained that a class of thirty children could be regrouped, and the materials still be used with equal effect.

In practice, the teaching of writing skills, at this stage the introduction of the hiragana syllabary, did not appear to be affected by large class size. It was possible to circulate and assist children with difficulties as they were copying from the board. When the teacher's aide or class teacher was present this task was easier still. As the course proceeded and the children were expected to write their own sentences, the task of assisting each child 'on the spot' became increasingly difficult.

From the early stages it was not possible to give every child practice in reading (either words or sentences) in every lesson. Although in theory this could be done by regrouping children, it was only possible to monitor each child's attempts when the bilingual aide or class teacher was present. The same problem arose with the development of listening/speaking skills. Whether the class practised as a whole group or in small groups, supervision or monitoring was difficult.

The problems associated with teaching language to this large a group would seem to be associated with the goals of the program rather than the text in use. The emphasis placed on oral skills in the goals was an ideal, and may not be possible to achieve effectively with large groups.

### Text and Teacher

Explanations and instructions in the teacher's handbook were written in both English and Japanese, enabling use by speakers of either language. Each step for each lesson was enumerated. When each lesson was taught for the first time these steps were followed reasonably meticulously. However almost invariably they were varied when the lesson was taught to the next class. In some cases this was due to the needs of the students at the particular time - further explanation was necessary or a diversion occurred. At other times variations to lesson procedure were made because it was believed that a different procedure would facilitate understanding by the children. Occasionally a lesson appeared to be out of place and two or three lessons were re-ordered.

### Internal Construction of Text and Syllabus Design Methodology underlying the syllabus

The text was first examined in order to establish whether any one theory, methodology, or approach, had 'influenced' its construction.

The theories of the descriptive linguists combined with the behaviourist view of language learning (sections 2.2.3 and 2.2.4) appear to have influenced the text, to the extent that:

- (i) vocabulary and grammar were introduced in context;
  - (ii) repetition, reinforcement and practice occurred frequently;
- and

(iii) learners were expected to learn by analogy, rather than by studying rules.

However, the provision of opportunities to create new utterances in order to make and test hypotheses, and the selection of items with similarity at the semantic level for practice, reflected the theories of the T-G linguists and cognitive psychologists (section 2.2.4).

The influence of certain methodologies was also present in the materials: the emphasis on the target language as the medium of instruction, and the absence of translation into the native language, were features of the Direct Method; while the emphasis on competence in all four macro-skills, and the presentation of simple structures and creation of new sentences by substitution of an appropriate vocabulary item, were reminiscent of the Audio-lingual Method. Finally, the early and, thereafter, regular introduction of commands demanding a physical response was based on Asher (1981) (section 2.3.7).

It would appear from these observations that no one theory, or methodology, provided the basis for the design of the syllabus. However, the attempt to present the materials in a meaningful way, using vocabulary and concepts suitable for primary school age children; and to foster comprehension, with the early introduction of 'pair' and 'group' work to foster competence (Hymes, 1971), indicated a predominantly cognitive approach.

### Syllabus Design

The content appears to have been selected on the basis of its suitability for children of primary school age, its level of difficulty, and some basic notions which the learners may need to express. Analysis of the lesson units indicated that it would be possible to re-write the aims of Book 1 to express these notions.

As the lesson units were based on a set of pre-determined stages, with accompanying teaching strategies, the syllabus organisation was what Bell (1981) termed linear rather than cyclic (section 2.4.4). The provision in every lesson for revision, however, reflected awareness of the need for flexibility in terms of learners' possible errors.

Analysis of the materials being trialled suggested that the author adopted an eclectic approach to language teaching (Prator, 1980; Bell, 1981) in the design of her curriculum.

### Summary

During Intrinsic Evaluation, an analysis of the text itself took place. This enabled information to be gathered about any changes, or modifications, necessary to the text. These modifications will be discussed in chapter 6.

### 5.3.3 Evaluation of program operations

#### Effect on staffing

The decision to introduce the Japanese program throughout the school meant, initially, the restructuring of classes to free one teacher to teach Japanese. This was facilitated by the allocation to the school of an additional<sup>al</sup> 0.5 staff member from the 'defined needs pool' of the ACT Schools Authority. In practical terms, a non-Japanese speaking teacher was employed to relieve a Japanese-speaking teacher already on the staff from her position as a 'class teacher'.

#### Timetabling at the school level

It was originally planned that all teachers would attend Japanese lessons with their classes. When timetabling commenced, however it was decided that a proportion of 'Japanese' time should be used for relief from face-to-face teaching time for class teachers. For grades K - 2, therefore, the thirty minutes per week 'Japanese' allocation was used this way, so children attended Japanese lessons without their class teacher. For grades 3 - 6 one 45 minute session was used in a similar way; during this session it was planned to teach cultural aspects so that teachers would not be disadvantaged by missing a 'language' lesson. The 'Japanese' timetable used when the program commenced in 1984 is shown in section 3.6.4 (Fig 3.5).

After several weeks of operation of this timetable it was decided that one Grade 6 teacher should be given extra time in which to develop a curriculum in another subject area. She subsequently did not attend



Japanese lessons with her class. At this time also an ancillary staff member expressed an interest in participating in the program. On a regular basis she attended lessons with various grades.

These arrangements were accomplished with the minimum of difficulty, and initially with no apparent adverse effects. The arrival of a bilingual teacher's aide for two days a week from mid-year onwards also had no impact on whole school organisation.

#### Timetabling at the class level

Staff involved in the program were asked to comment informally and in writing, on the effects of the introduction of the program on school or class organisation. At the class timetabling level several teachers experienced problems (Q19, TQ).

It had been realised prior to the commencement of the Japanese program that the introduction of another 'subject' into an already crowded school curriculum, may cause some difficulties. Several suggestions had been made to alleviate the problems. These included greater integration across subject areas, thus reducing formal subject divisions; and teaching subjects for set blocks of time, for example an eight week block of science, instead of for a regular set weekly period for the entire year. Analysis of class timetables during 1984 indicated that staff were still teaching by subject and that little integration or block teaching, was taking place.

The five class teachers and the principal each commented on this aspect of the program operations. All pointed out the difficulties associated with timetabling for the reasons already mentioned.

#### Materials preparation

Prior to commencement of the program two weeks were allocated to the teacher of Japanese in which to duplicate copies of the children's workbook and prepare accompanying aids. In addition a wide variety of support materials, including maps, charts and books, were purchased from Japan using funding obtained as a result of a submission to the Multicultural Education Advisory Committee.

The preparation period meant that in February 1984 the program was able to be implemented with the minimum of fuss.

#### The Parent Program

During 1984 a parent program was offered, the purpose of which was to acquaint parents with the work their children were doing, rather than to teach Japanese. The program began with 34 parents attending the course one evening each week. After several months it was suggested that a fortnightly evening might be sufficient. This was because parents were also being informed through the weekly newsletter about the children's activities in the Japanese course. During the year the numbers of parents attending the course fluctuated, eventually stabilising at nine regulars. Responses to section C of PQ2 indicated that lack of time, or other commitments, were the main reason for

parents dropping out. There were mixed feelings about the structure of the course, with some parents preferring to actually learn the language rather than simply find out what their children were learning.

#### Extra-curricular activities

These activities were those which were not part of either the curriculum materials being trialled or the planned cultural aspects of the program. They included:

- two Japanese banquets;
- frequent demonstrations of origami by visiting Japanese;
- the making of 1000 paper cranes for Hiroshima day;
- the visit of Junko Morimoto, authoress;
- a calligraphy demonstration;
- a tea ceremony;
- a bonsai display;
- kite flying;
- the commencement of correspondence by Grade 5 with a school in Japan;
- participation in an exhibition of work in Belconnen Mall Shopping Centre.

A highlight of the year's program was the frequent visits by Japanese, who talked to the children, assisted in lessons, and showed pictures and artefacts.

#### 5.3.4 Other outcomes of the program

The outcomes of the Japanese language program at Macquarie Primary School, in terms of the goals of the program, were largely able to be anticipated. A number of unexpected outcomes however, will now be discussed.

1. Perhaps the most important outcome was the change in attitude towards the program, during the year, by a significant number of Grade 6 children. This outcome was unexpected and not supported by the questionnaire responses of Grade 6 parents, suggesting that the sample size (at that level) was too small, or at least unrepresentative, or perhaps simply that parents were unaware of their children's reactions.

Although some Grade 6 children had entered the program with negative feelings towards it, most said they were pleased to be learning Japanese at the commencement. Despite their change of attitude, the goals of the program were achieved, to an extent, for some of these children. However as a result of the data obtained from SQ2 and TQ regarding the content of the curriculum, many changes were made to the language learning component of the program for the second year of operation.

2. Teachers involved in the program noted, to their surprise, that some children of lower ability were able to achieve good results during Japanese lessons. It was beyond the scope of

the study to examine this outcome closely, however the need was indicated for close monitoring of the progress of those children.

3. Both the teacher of the program and Japanese visitors, observed the apparent facility with which kindergarten and Grade 1 children absorbed and retained language during their thirty minute weekly lesson.

In addition, a number of parents and teachers believed that the formal language program should be introduced earlier. These facts, coupled with the achievement of the goals of the program with Grade 3 children particularly, led, in 1985, to the introduction of the language program at Grade 2 level.

4. The cultural aspects of the program were an outstanding success at all levels, even to the jaded palates of Grade 6! Origami and the Japanese banquets proved unexpectedly popular.

The gains to the children from the cultural component of the program were noted by both the parents and teachers, leading one parent to suggest that the cultural aim of the program should be the first, and indicating the value of in-depth study of one culture. The study did not seek to ascertain whether the gains would have occurred if there had been no language component in the program.

5. The program aroused the interest of two staff members, one of whom requested to continue to learn the language in succeeding years. The other teacher had a Japanese pen friend who wrote to the Grade 3 children, stimulating their interest further.

#### 5.4 Stage 4: Formative Product Evaluation

Stage 4, Formative Product Evaluation, constitutes Chapter 6 of this study, in which the results of Stages 1-3 of the evaluation are related to the specific evaluation questions posed in Section 1.4.

## CHAPTER 6

## INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS OF THE STUDY

## 6. An Overview of the Chapter

The objective of this chapter is to answer the questions posed in chapter 1, in the light of the results presented in chapter 5, and to indicate any changes which were made during, or following, the formative evaluation process.

## 6.1 Are the Goals of the Program Valid, Consistent and Appropriate?

## 6.1.1 Validity of means of establishing goals

It was pointed out in the literature (Section 2.5.1) that the means by which the goals of a program are established is as important as the goals themselves. The means, by which the <sup>goals of the</sup> Macquarie Primary School Japanese Program were established, were detailed in Sections 5.1.3 and 5.2.1. Since the procedures suggested in the literature were followed, and suggestions for their improvement sought from parents and teachers during the implementation of the program, the means of establishing the goals is considered to be valid.

## 6.1.2 Validity and appropriateness of the goals themselves.

Goals of foreign language programs suggested by the literature were discussed in Section 2.5, and the procedures used to analyse the goals of this program detailed in Section 5.2.2. The goals of the

Japanese program were found to be in accord with the goals of the school, the policy of the SSCEA (National Language Policy), and the opinions of parents and teachers. The goals of the program were similar to those of other primary school foreign language programs in general, rather than in degree of specificity.

### 6.1.3 Consistency of goals, aims and objectives

It was demonstrated in Section 5.2.3 that the goals of the program, the aims of Book 1 and objectives at lesson level were hierarchically consistent.

## 6.2 How Successful is the Program in Achieving its Stated Goals?

### 6.2.1 Achievement of the first goal of the program

The first goal was: to provide the children with the skills which will enable them to communicate orally, and to some degree in writing, with other speakers of Japanese.

The results of this evaluation suggest that within the implementation period:

- (a) all children developed some skill in understanding spoken Japanese, and some ability to read and write Japanese;
- (b) a number of learner characteristics affected the extent to which these skills developed;



- (c) during this study, the most influential characteristic appeared to be attitude, possibly in conjunction with low self-esteem, and reaction to language teaching methods. A longer period is required to effectively evaluate achievement of this goal.

#### 6.2.2 Achievement of the second goal of the program

The second goal was: to foster in the children an understanding of the Japanese way of life.

Parents, and teachers of children who participated in the program, were in agreement that the cultural aim of the program was being achieved. Many parents saw the most important benefit of the program as an increased awareness of and tolerance towards the Japanese. Some parents believed that this tolerance extended to people of other cultures.

Responses from most children during lessons, and in the questionnaire (SQ2) indicated an increased awareness of the Japanese way of life.

### 6.3 How is School Organisation Affected by the Implementation of the Program?

#### 6.3.1 The effect on staffing

During the period of the study a teacher was provided by the ACT Schools Authority to teach Japanese. From mid-1984 a Japanese bi-

lingual teacher's aide assisted with the program for two days a week. Staffing within the school, therefore, was unaffected during the implementation period.

#### 6.3.2 The effect on time-tabling

At the whole-school level of time-tabling, no difficulties were experienced. At the class time-tabling level, however, teachers experienced problems of 'curriculum cram' due to the simultaneous introduction of the Japanese and computing programs. The suggestions offered to alleviate the problem were, generally, not adopted. Consequently in the second year of operation of the program, changes were made to the timetable (see Section 6.4).

#### 6.3.3 Parental involvement

The parent program (outlined in Section 5.3.3) was conducted during the evening, so school organisation was not affected. Some parents attended children's lessons during the day, but in insufficient numbers to have any effect on organisation.

#### 6.3.4 Extra-curricular activities

With the exception of the two banquets, all extra-curricular activities were conducted during Japanese lesson times, so there was no interruption to normal school routines.

In order for the banquets to take place changes were necessary to enable the teacher of Japanese to supervise food preparation and decoration of the venue, and so that the school assembly hall could be

used to accommodate the fifty-or-so guests. The organisation required was considerable, but those involved in the banquet pursued normal school routines, and were therefore unaffected.

In summary, therefore, the introduction of the Japanese language program had a significant effect on time-tabling at the class level, but no other apparent disruptive effects on school organisation.

#### 6.4 Does Use of the Program Result in any Unexpected Outcomes?

There were several unexpected outcomes resulting from the introduction of the Japanese language program. These were outlined in Section 5.3.4. As a result of the unexpected outcomes several changes were made to the program. These are indicated in Section 6.5.

#### 6.5 What Revisions or Modifications are Necessary to the Program?

##### 6.5.1 Modification to lesson structure and content

As each lesson proceeded, its structure, or content, was often varied to suit the needs of a particular group. These changes were 'written in' after trial with each succeeding group. After the oral test a list of specific items causing general difficulty was made. These also resulted in minor changes to lesson structure.

After the program had been in operation for three months children

in each grade were grouped into approximately six smaller ability groups for a short segment of each lesson. However, effective supervision of each group was not possible when the teacher's aide was not present.

Student performance data (5.3.1) suggested that the bi-lingual teacher's aide should be present, where possible, at least for activities involving listening and speaking.

#### 6.5.2 Changes to the curriculum

It was decided during Formative Interim Evaluation that a different approach would be used for Grade 6 children the following year. Although shortage of time precluded data collection concerning cognitive style, learning style and learning strategies, it was apparent during this study that for some children in Grade 6 particular teaching methods and learning strategies may not be in accord. Future lessons, therefore, for Grade 6 children, would initially be planned around 'situations' in which the children might find themselves, and 'functions or notions' which they might need to express. The emphasis was to be on oral skills, rather than ability to write the hiragana syllabary.

The success of the 1984 program with Grade 3 children led to the decision to include Grade 2 children in the formal program in the following year.

### 6.5.3 Timetable changes

Several minor adjustments to the timetable were made during the period of the study, for reasons unconnected with the Japanese program. As a result of the concerns expressed by teachers, the number of teaching hours for Japanese was reduced for Grade 6, to 2 1/4 hours in Term 2. The following year Grades 3 - 6 were each allocated 2 1/4 hours for Japanese , and Grade 2, 2 hours .

### 6.5.4 The parent program

It was decided to run an evening course for parents during the second year of the Japanese program. Interested parents would be invited to a planning session at which the structure of their course would be decided.

### 6.5.5 Revision of the goals of the program

During the implementation period of the Japanese language program it became apparent that many parents saw enjoyment of the program by the children as extremely important. It was also believed by teachers that the children would become more confident, especially in oral sessions, if they were not pressured to give a correct response. It was decided, therefore that 'enjoyment' of the learning experience should be written into the goals of the program. It was decided also that, despite the equal emphasis placed on attainment of reading/writing skills in Book 1 because of the nature of the Japanese script, the overall goals of the program should still stress understanding and speaking skills.

The goals of the Japanese language program therefore, were revised slightly to read:

In an enjoyable and non-threatening learning environment to,

- (i) provide the children with the skills which will enable them to communicate orally, and to some degree in writing, with other speakers of Japanese.

The skills required are

- a) an increasing ability to understand spoken Japanese;
  - b) an increasing ability to speak Japanese;
  - c) to a lesser extent, an increasing ability to read and write Japanese;
- (ii) foster in the children an understanding of the Japanese way of life
- (Macquarie Primary School Japanese Program: Goals. December 1984).

### Summary

After the results of the evaluation had been interpreted in relation to the five evaluative questions it was possible to make a decision concerning the continued use of the materials. It was decided that the formative evaluation process had enabled the unpublished curriculum to be successfully adapted for use at Macquarie Primary School, and that Books 2 and 3 of the course would be similarly trialled as the program proceeded.

## CHAPTER 7

## OBSERVATIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## 7. Introduction

In Australia in recent years there has been increasing awareness of the need to introduce foreign languages to students at the primary school level. In keeping with government policy on the one hand, and community needs on the other, a variety of programs is now offered in primary schools. Published evaluations of such programs are not, however, widely available. In this Chapter, conclusions based on the results of the evaluation undertaken during this study will be presented. It is hoped that these will be of interest to others intending either to introduce a foreign language program at primary school level, or to evaluate such a program.

The conclusions reached during the study concern both the evaluation process, and teaching of Japanese to primary age children.

## 7.1 Conclusions Concerning the Evaluation Process

Sanders' and Cunningham's Structure for Planning Formative Evaluation in Product Development (1973) provided a useful framework for the evaluation. Several problems associated with data collection techniques, however, arose during stages 2 and 3:

- (i) Since the teacher of the program was also the evaluator, problems arose with recording observations both during, or between, lessons, when there was no aide present.

- (ii) The teacher's aide recorded observations as accurately as possible for an 'untrained observer'. Some relevant observations could have been overlooked.
- (iii) Considerable time was required to extract data from questionnaires 1 - 5, owing to both the size of the samples, and the fact that the data was handled manually.
- (iv) Considerable time was also required to administer the oral test. This was only possible with the assistance of both bilingual and Australian teacher's aides, and may not be possible in another situation.
- (v) The literature suggested that a pilot study be administered prior to each 'main' study. Shortage of time precluded this for all but questionnaire 3 (PQ2).
- (vi) The sample of parents (22%) who responded to PQ2 in respect of children in Grade 6, may not have been large enough to be representative.

These problems may have been eliminated, or at least alleviated, had an external evaluator been available, freeing the teacher of the program to examine more closely particular issues of concern. In the absence of an external evaluator, or a mechanical means of processing data, a smaller scale evaluation, for example of the curriculum alone, may have been more effective.



## 7.2 Conclusions Concerning the Teaching of Japanese to Primary Age Students.

### 7.2.1 Appreciation of the Need for Small Classes

During the period of the study the achievement of the broad goal of the Japanese program concerning oral communication did not appear to be adversely affected by the size (up to thirty students) of the class attending lessons. This had been a concern prior to the commencement of the program, as the materials on trial had only been used with small classes. At Macquarie Primary School pair work, involving oral exchanges using the limited vocabulary and structures known, featured frequently during lessons; however the difficulty of effectively supervising such activities was noted. At later stages in the course, it is doubtful whether sufficient opportunities for oral communication for each individual could be provided in a class of thirty students.

### 7.2.2 Opportunities for Further Study of Japanese

In this study sufficient interest in continuing to learn Japanese was expressed by both students and parents, to warrant negotiations with the local high school regarding the inclusion of Japanese in its curriculum.

### 7.2.3 The Need for Further Research

It was demonstrated during this evaluation that the broad goals of the Japanese program, as far as was possible to judge at that stage, were being achieved. There would appear to be a need however, for a

longitudinal study to be made of selected students as they progress through the course.

In addition, time constraints during this evaluation precluded all but a cursory examination of the factors, suggested in the literature, which may have affected achievement. The limited results of this study suggested that a further in-depth study of a sample of students selected on the basis of their attitudes towards the Japanese program, may be of significance. In particular it would be of interest to consider:

- (i) the extent to which expectations of success and self-esteem factors (Strevens, 1978; Schumann, 1978) influence performance.
- (ii) the extent to which early exposure to foreign language study might affect attitudes towards further language study;
- (iii) whether, in the long term, older children do prove to be more 'efficient' at learning a language (Burstall, 1979).

#### 7.2.4 Curriculum Content and Communicative Competence

It was pointed out (5.3.1) that it would be inappropriate to attempt to assess the communicative competence of students after such limited exposure to the language. However, on completion of Book 1 of the curriculum on trial, it was decided that the 'content' of the future materials should be selected, as far as possible, around a 'theme' or 'situation', in keeping with the suggestions of Bell (1981), and that these 'themes' should reflect, where possible, Japanese cultural situations. In order to achieve communicative competence, games and role-play should be used more frequently at all levels. Because of

the nature of the Japanese language, however, and the need to master the hiragana syllabary, emphasis must also be placed on reading/writing skills in the initial stages.

#### 7.2.5 The Need for Curriculum Development

The need for development of a Japanese curriculum for use at secondary level has already been recognised by various authorities (see Section 5.1.2). Since this study commenced, two curricula suitable for the teaching of Japanese at primary level, have been published (see Section 5.1.2). The materials trialled during this evaluation have been found to be highly suitable for use with students in Grades 3 - 5 at Macquarie Primary School. Their publication and hence availability, would be welcomed by other primary school teachers of Japanese.

#### 7.2.6 The Need for Qualified Teachers

In preliminary discussions concerning the introduction of a foreign language at Macquarie Primary School, concern was expressed about the continuation of Japanese, should the only teacher qualified to teach the language be transferred. It was decided at that time that efforts should be made to recruit a further Japanese-speaking teacher as vacancies arose at the school. During the first year of operation of the program however, it became apparent that within the ACT, the small body of teachers qualified to teach Japanese had no training, qualifications or experience at the primary level. Further investigation indicated that within the ACT at least, although

primary B. Ed. students may take a foreign language major as part of their degree, only a secondary curriculum component is offered. ?<sup>not</sup>

While the principles of foreign language teaching are similar at all levels, this study has shown that the practice is not.

If the recommendation of the SSCEA (Section 1), concerning the teaching of foreign languages in primary schools, is taken seriously, increased attention will need to be paid to this problem at teacher training institutions.

The points raised in Sections 7.2 and 7.2.6 are relevant to the teaching of any foreign language at primary school level.

#### Summary

This study has explored the introduction of a foreign language program into a typical, small, primary school in the ACT. It has been demonstrated that the formative evaluation process may be used effectively during the implementation of such a program, enabling needs to be perceived, and appropriate adjustments made. It has also identified some of the problems associated with foreign language programs in the primary school, and demonstrated the need for more adequate provision of curriculum materials, qualified teachers, and the documentation of such programs, which would contribute towards achievement of the recommendations of the Senate Standing Committee on Education and the Arts concerning foreign language study at the primary level.

## APPENDIX 1

Parent Questionnaire - February 1984

1. Please indicate your child's class.
2. If your native language is not English, please indicate the language\_\_\_\_\_.
3. Do you believe it is appropriate for your child(ren) to start to learn a foreign language at primary school?  
Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_
4. Would you like your child(ren) to learn a foreign language at high school?  
Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_
5. If you answered yes to either of the previous two questions, please answer this question:

If given a choice, which one of the following languages would you prefer your child(ren) to learn?

- A European language \_\_\_\_\_  
 An Aboriginal language \_\_\_\_\_  
 An Asian language \_\_\_\_\_

The study of a foreign language can be important for my child at primary school because:

6. It will enable him/her to communicate with people who speak the language  
 strongly agree \_\_\_\_\_ agree \_\_\_\_\_  
 disagree \_\_\_\_\_ strongly disagree \_\_\_\_\_
7. It will enable him/her to learn more about the people who speak the language  
 strongly agree \_\_\_\_\_ agree \_\_\_\_\_  
 disagree \_\_\_\_\_ strongly disagree \_\_\_\_\_
8. It will be a preparation for studying a foreign language later in life  
 strongly agree \_\_\_\_\_ agree \_\_\_\_\_  
 disagree \_\_\_\_\_ strongly disagree \_\_\_\_\_
9. Other comments \_\_\_\_\_

Thank you for your cooperation.

## APPENDIX 2

Student Questionnaire - January 1984Section 1: Personal Information

1. Name: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Age: \_\_\_\_\_
3. Class: \_\_\_\_\_
4. Date: \_\_\_\_\_
5. In which country were you born? \_\_\_\_\_
6. Is a language other than English spoken in your home? (If yes, which language)?  
\_\_\_\_\_

Section 2: How I feel about learning a language

7. Are you pleased that you will be learning Japanese this year?  
Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_ Undecided \_\_\_
8. If you could choose, which of the following languages would you like to learn? (Tick one)  
European (German, French etc). \_\_\_  
Aboriginal \_\_\_\_\_  
Asian (Indonesian, Japanese etc) \_\_\_

Learning another language can be important to me because:

9. I will be able to communicate with people who speak it  
strongly agree \_\_\_ agree \_\_\_  
disagree \_\_\_ strongly disagree \_\_\_

10. I will learn more about the people who speak it  
strongly agree    \_\_\_                    agree                    \_\_\_  
disagree                \_\_\_                    strongly disagree \_\_\_
11. It will help me if I study another language later  
strongly agree    \_\_\_                    agree                    \_\_\_  
disagree                \_\_\_                    strongly disagree \_\_\_



## Macquarie Primary School

Bennelong Cres. Macquarie, ACT 2614, Telephone: 51 5288

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February, 1985

Dear Parents,

Now that the Japanese program has been in operation for one year we are asking parents who had a child learning Japanese in 1984 to complete the attached questionnaire. This will help us to find out your opinion about the program.

If you wish, your responses to the questions will be confidential (the code number on your questionnaire is for "reminder" notices only). However, as a second stage of the study we may want to interview willing parents about their responses. If you would be prepared to be interviewed would you please attach the slip below to your questionnaire before returning it to the school.

Your time and assistance in completing the questionnaire by 4th March would be greatly appreciated.

Thank you,

Angela Mawbey

---

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Address: \_\_\_\_\_

Phone: \_\_\_\_\_



MACQUARIE PRIMARY SCHOOLJAPANESE PROGRAMPARENT QUESTIONNAIRE, FEBRUARY, 1985

The questionnaire is in three sections.  
 We would like you to complete Sections A (and C if appropriate).  
 Section B requires more time and consideration. If it is  
 possible for you to complete this section, it would be appreciated.

If you have more than one child learning Japanese at Macquarie  
 please complete the questionnaire with regard to one child only.

SECTION A

1. Who is completing this questionnaire?

Mother \_\_\_\_\_ Father \_\_\_\_\_ Other \_\_\_\_\_  
 (e.g. step-parent/  
 guardian)

2. My child is a boy/girl in class \_\_\_\_\_

3. What language(s) do you normally speak at home?

\_\_\_\_\_

4. What language(s) does your child normally speak at home?

\_\_\_\_\_

5. Do you have any contact with Japanese speaking people?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

FOR QUESTIONS 6 - 11 PLEASE TICK ONE ONLY

6. How would you describe your child's feeling about school?  
 likes a lot \_\_\_\_\_ likes \_\_\_\_\_ doesn't like \_\_\_\_\_ dislikes  
 a lot \_\_\_\_\_

7. How often does your child discuss school or school  
 activities with you?  
 very often \_\_\_\_\_ often \_\_\_\_\_ sometimes \_\_\_\_\_ hardly ever \_\_\_\_\_

8. How often does your child mention the Japanese Program?  
 very often \_\_\_\_\_ often \_\_\_\_\_ sometimes \_\_\_\_\_ hardly ever \_\_\_\_\_

9. If you can remember thing\* that your child has said  
 about learning Japanese (e.g. things he/she has enjoyed  
 or disliked, found easy or difficult) please comment:

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

10. How would you rate your child's interest in, and  
 enjoyment of Japanese?  
 very \_\_\_\_\_ high \_\_\_\_\_ moderate \_\_\_\_\_ low \_\_\_\_\_  
 high

11. How important is Foreign Language study in the  
 following areas of development of your child?

	very important	important	moderately important	not important
--	-------------------	-----------	-------------------------	------------------

Social development (e.g. development of attitudes, tolerance etc.).	_____	_____	_____	_____
--	-------	-------	-------	-------

emotional development (e.g. development of stability, maturity, positive self-concepts etc.,).	_____	_____	_____	_____
--	-------	-------	-------	-------

intellectual development (e.g. development of thinking skills, literacy skills, etc.).	_____	_____	_____	_____
---	-------	-------	-------	-------

The following questions are written as statements.  
Please tick the term which best describes your response  
to each question, and comment if you wish.

12. I would like my child to continue to learn Japanese  
at Macquarie.

Strongly agree	agree	undecided	do not agree	strongly disagree
-------------------	-------	-----------	-----------------	----------------------

\_\_\_\_\_

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

13. It is important that my child studies Japanese in  
high school

strongly agree	agree	undecided	don't agree	strongly disagree
-------------------	-------	-----------	----------------	----------------------

\_\_\_\_\_

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

14. The availability of foreign language study will be a  
factor in the choice of high school for my child

strongly agree	agree	undecided	don't agree	strongly disagree
-------------------	-------	-----------	----------------	----------------------

\_\_\_\_\_

Comment \_\_\_\_\_

15. My child should have acquired basic literacy skills in  
English before commencing formal study of Japanese.

strongly agree	agree	undecided	don't agree	strongly disagree
-------------------	-------	-----------	----------------	----------------------

\_\_\_\_\_

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

16. After participating in the Japanese program my child shows a more positive attitude towards non-English speaking people

strongly agree	agree	undecided	don't agree	strongly disagree
-------------------	-------	-----------	----------------	----------------------

_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

---

17. After participating in the Japanese program my child shows more interest in

strongly agree	agree	undecided	don't agree	strongly disagree
-------------------	-------	-----------	----------------	----------------------

Japan and the  
Japanese

_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

Asia generally

_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

Other cultures

_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

---

18. At the beginning of 1984 I thought that the introduction of Japanese was a good idea

strongly agree	agree	undecided	don't agree	strongly disagree
-------------------	-------	-----------	----------------	----------------------

_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

---

19. At the end of 1984 I think that the introduction of Japanese was a good idea

strongly agree	agree	undecided	don't agree	strongly disagree
-------------------	-------	-----------	----------------	----------------------

_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

---

20. My child has benefitted from participating in the Japanese language program.

strongly agree	agree	undecided	don't agree	strongl disagre
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

---

21. Do you have any further suggestions or comments?  
(e.g. negative/positive remarks; short/long term  
advantages/disadvantages; unexpected outcomes of the  
program, etc.)

Please comment:

QUESTIONNAIRESECTION B. (Optional)

The aims of the Japanese Program at Macquarie are:

- to provide the children with skills which will enable them to communicate orally, and to some degree in writing, with other speakers of Japanese. The skills required are: an increasing ability to understand spoken Japanese, and increasing ability to speak it; to a lesser extent, an increasing ability to read and write Japanese.

- to foster in the children an understanding of the Japanese way of life.

22. How appropriate do you think these aims are?

23. How well do you think these aims are being achieved?

24. If you would like to change these aims in any way, please comment.

QUESTIONNAIRESECTION C.

This section is for parents who attended the parents' course in 1984.

25. If you attended the parents' course during 1984 please indicate:

YES/NO

26. If you stopped attending the parents' course during the year please tick the items which best indicate why:

lack of time \_\_\_\_\_  
 other commitments \_\_\_\_\_  
 too difficult \_\_\_\_\_  
 not what you expected \_\_\_\_\_  
 other \_\_\_\_\_

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

---

27. If you are interested in attending a parents' course this year please indicate:

YES/NO/UNDECIDED

Please tick appropriately your opinion about the structure of this year's parents' course

should continue as it was \_\_\_\_\_  
 as it was but with more participation by parents \_\_\_\_\_  
 a different approach completely i.e. suitable for adults \_\_\_\_\_

Thank you for completing this questionnaire.

QUESTIONNAIRE - DECEMBER 1984.

NAME - \_\_\_\_\_

CLASS - \_\_\_\_\_

DATE - \_\_\_\_\_

We would like you to answer these questions so we will know how you feel about Japanese now you have been learning it for nearly a year.

For all the questions, please put a tick on the line that best shows how you feel.

ABOUT SCHOOL

1. How do you feel about school?

Like a lot \_\_\_\_\_ Like \_\_\_\_\_ Don't like much \_\_\_\_\_ Dislike a lot \_\_\_\_\_

2. How do you feel about the following subjects?

	Like a lot	Like	Don't like much	Dislike a lot
P.E./Games	_____	_____	_____	_____
Science	_____	_____	_____	_____
Library	_____	_____	_____	_____
Drama	_____	_____	_____	_____
Reading	_____	_____	_____	_____
Japanese	_____	_____	_____	_____
Singing (Music)	_____	_____	_____	_____
Social Studies	_____	_____	_____	_____
Maths	_____	_____	_____	_____
Art	_____	_____	_____	_____
Storywriting	_____	_____	_____	_____
Writing	_____	_____	_____	_____

3. Which is your favourite subject? \_\_\_\_\_

Why? \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

4. Which subject do you like least? \_\_\_\_\_

Why? \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_



5. Which subject do you think you do best at? \_\_\_\_\_
6. Which subject do you think you do least well? \_\_\_\_\_

ABOUT JAPANESE

7. How do you rate yourself at Japanese?

Excellent \_\_\_\_\_ Very Good \_\_\_\_\_ Good \_\_\_\_\_ OK \_\_\_\_\_

Not so good \_\_\_\_\_ Struggling \_\_\_\_\_

8. How do you feel about what you have learned so far?

Understand everything \_\_\_\_\_ Understand most things \_\_\_\_\_

Understand some things \_\_\_\_\_ Don't understand much \_\_\_\_\_

Don't understand anything \_\_\_\_\_

9. How did you feel before you started learning Japanese?

Excited \_\_\_\_\_ Pleased \_\_\_\_\_ Not pleased \_\_\_\_\_

Scared \_\_\_\_\_ No strong feeling \_\_\_\_\_

10. In Japanese lessons how do you feel about ..... ?

Like a lot

Like

Don't like

Dislike  
alot

Learning new  
words and  
sentences

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Saying new words  
and sentences

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Writing new  
words and  
sentences

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Singing

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Learning how  
to write  
Hiragana

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Playing games

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Finding out  
more about Japan

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

## 11. How do you find these activities?

	Easy	O.K.	Hard
<u>Learning</u> new words and sentences	_____	_____	_____
<u>Saying</u> new words and sentences	_____	_____	_____
<u>Writing</u> new words and sentences	_____	_____	_____
Singing	_____	_____	_____
Learning how to write Hiragana	_____	_____	_____
Playing games	_____	_____	_____
Finding out more about Japan	_____	_____	_____

## 12. If you had a choice now, would you like to go on learning Japanese?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ Maybe \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_ Don't know \_\_\_\_\_

## 13. If you have a choice at high school would you like to go on learning Japanese?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ Maybe \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_ Don't know \_\_\_\_\_

If you answered No, why not? \_\_\_\_\_

## 14. If you have a choice at high school, would you like to learn another language?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ Maybe \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_ Don't know \_\_\_\_\_

If you answered No, why not? \_\_\_\_\_

## 15. Would you like to go to Japan?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_ Maybe \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_ Don't know \_\_\_\_\_

Please explain why or why not. \_\_\_\_\_

## 16. Do you think you know more about Japan now than you did at the beginning of the year?

A lot more \_\_\_\_\_ A bit more \_\_\_\_\_ No more \_\_\_\_\_

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE, DECEMBER, 1984

Please tick the term which best describes your response to each question and comment if you wish.

1. I support the introduction of foreign language study at primary school level in principle.

strongly agree	agree	undecided	don't agree	strongly disagree
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\_\_\_\_\_

Comment:

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2. I support the introduction of foreign language study at primary level in practice.

strongly agree	agree	undecided	don't agree	strongly disagree
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Comment:

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3. At the beginning of 1984 I thought the introduction of Japanese was a good idea.

strongly agree	agree	undecided	don't agree	strongly disagree
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\_\_\_\_\_

Comment:

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4. At the end of 1984 I thought the introduction of Japanese was a good idea.

strongly agree	agree	undecided	don't agree	strongly disagree
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Comment:

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5. It is important that children have the opportunity to study another language at high school.

strongly agree	agree	undecided	don't agree	strongly disagree
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Comment:

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6. It is important that the children have the opportunity to continue the study of Japanese at high school.

strongly agree	agree	undecided	don't agree	strongly disagree
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Comment:

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7. Children should not begin foreign language study until they have the basic literacy skills in English.

strongly agree	agree	undecided	don't agree	strongly disagree
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Comment:

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8. To what extent do you think the various areas (listed below) are/were appropriate for children at the following levels:

i) <u>vocabulary</u>	highly approp	approp	not very approp	not at all approp
K	_____	_____	_____	_____
1	_____	_____	_____	_____
2	_____	_____	_____	_____
3	_____	_____	_____	_____
4	_____	_____	_____	_____
5	_____	_____	_____	_____
6	_____	_____	_____	_____

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

ii) grammatical  
structures

K	_____	_____	_____	_____
1	_____	_____	_____	_____
2	_____	_____	_____	_____
3	_____	_____	_____	_____
4	_____	_____	_____	_____
5	_____	_____	_____	_____
6	_____	_____	_____	_____

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

iii) games and  
activities  
including  
songs

K	_____	_____	_____	_____
1	_____	_____	_____	_____
2	_____	_____	_____	_____
3	_____	_____	_____	_____
4	_____	_____	_____	_____
5	_____	_____	_____	_____
6	_____	_____	_____	_____

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

8 cont. iv) introd. of hiragana	highly approp	approp	not very approp	not at all approp
K	_____	_____	_____	_____
1	_____	_____	_____	_____
2	_____	_____	_____	_____
3	_____	_____	_____	_____
4	_____	_____	_____	_____
5	_____	_____	_____	_____
6	_____	_____	_____	_____

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

v) 'shape' of lesson	highly approp	approp	not very approp	not at all approp
K	_____	_____	_____	_____
1	_____	_____	_____	_____
2	_____	_____	_____	_____
3	_____	_____	_____	_____
4	_____	_____	_____	_____
5	_____	_____	_____	_____
6	_____	_____	_____	_____

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

vi) length of lesson	highly approp	approp	not very approp	not at all approp
K	_____	_____	_____	_____
1	_____	_____	_____	_____
2	_____	_____	_____	_____
3	_____	_____	_____	_____
4	_____	_____	_____	_____
5	_____	_____	_____	_____
6	_____	_____	_____	_____

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_



10. What are the strengths of the program?

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

11. What are the areas of the program which could be improved?

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

12. How would you rank language study in the following areas of development of children?

	very important	important	moderately important	not important
Social development (e.g. development of attitudes, tolerance, etc.)	_____	_____	_____	_____
emotional development (e.g. development of stability, maturity, positive self-concepts, etc.)	_____	_____	_____	_____
intellectual development (e.g. development of thinking skills, literacy skills, etc.)	_____	_____	_____	_____

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_



13. What effect, if any, has the learning of Japanese had on those areas of development of the children in your class.

	no effect	small effect	moderate effect	significant effect
social	_____	_____	_____	_____
emotional	_____	_____	_____	_____
intellectual	_____	_____	_____	_____

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

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14. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

i) after participating in the program the children appeared to show more interest in

	strongly agree	agree	don't agree	strongly disagree
Japan and the Japanese	_____	_____	_____	_____
Asia and Asian cultures	_____	_____	_____	_____
Other cultures	_____	_____	_____	_____

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

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ii) after participating in the program the children appear to have more positive attitudes towards

Japan and the Japanese	_____	_____	_____	_____
Asia and Asian cultures	_____	_____	_____	_____
Other cultures	_____	_____	_____	_____

Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

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19. Please comment on the effect of the introduction of the program on school or classroom organisation (egs., timetabling, other curriculum areas, relief from face-to-face teaching, movement of classes etc., or any aspects which have affected you, or which you think are significant.

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The aims of the Japanese Program at Macquarie are:

- to provide the children with skills which will enable them to communicate orally, and to some degree in writing, with other speakers of Japanese. The skills required are: an increasing ability to understand spoken Japanese, and increasing ability to speak it; to a lesser extent, an increasing ability to read and write Japanese.

- to foster in the children an understanding of the Japanese way of life.

20. How appropriate do you think these aims are?

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21. How well do you think these aims are being achieved?

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22. Are there any other outcomes of the program of which you are aware?

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23. If you would like to change these aims in any way, please comment.

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Observation Schedule

<u>DAY</u>	<u>TIME</u>	<u>LESSON NO.</u>
<u>DATE</u>	<u>CLASS</u>	<u>OBSERVER</u>

Length of time on oral activities:

Length of time on written activities:

Attention span/attentiveness of group  
 reason?  
 action taken?  
 specific individuals?

Performance/understanding of the whole group  
 any specific problems?  
 any specific children?  
 action taken?

Comments

## APPENDIX 7

ORAL TEST (Romanised Version)

1.    namae wa nan desu ka
2.    aisatsu  
      ( \_\_\_\_\_ san, \_\_\_\_\_.)
3.    kore wa nan desu ka  
      ( \_\_\_\_\_ desu ) 7 items randomly selected from pool.
4.    kore wa \_\_\_\_\_ desu ka.  
      (hai, sō desu.)  
      (ie, sō ja arimasen.)
5.    \_\_\_\_\_ ban wa nan desu ka.  
      ( \_\_\_\_\_ desu)
6.    \_\_\_\_\_ wa nanban desu ka.  
      ( \_\_\_\_\_ ban desu)
7.    dōbutsu wa, nani ga suki desu ka  
      ( \_\_\_\_\_ ga suki desu)
8.    kudamono wa, nani ga suki desu ka  
      ( \_\_\_\_\_ ga suki desu)
9.    \_\_\_\_\_ mo suki desu ka  
      (hai, \_\_\_\_\_ , mo suki desu)
10.   'a i u e o' o itte kudasai.
11.   kazu o itte kudasai.
12.   kono bun o yonde kudasai.
13.    namae o kaite kudasai.
14.   tatte kudasai.  
      doa ni itte kudasai.  
      arigatō gozaimasu.

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