THE UNIVERSITY OF WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao
The School of Māori and Pacific Development

He Puna Kōrero - Journal of Maori & Pacific Development

He Puna Kōrero

Journal of Maori and Pacific Development

Volume 11, Number 2

September, 2010

ISSN 1175-3099

A publication of:

Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao

Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

Editors: Dr. Diane Johnson, Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato and Dr. Hēmi Whaanga, Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

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He Puna Kōrero

Journal of Maori and Pacific Development

Vol. 11, No. 2, September 2010

ISSN 1175-3099

Part 2 of a Festschrift in honour of Dr Winifred Crombie

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https://doi.org/10.15663/K10.14200

TE PUĀWAITANGA O TE PUAWĀNANGA

EDITORIAL

Dr Winifred Crombie started *He Puna Kōrero: Journal of Maori and Pacific Development* in 2000 and acted as production editor until the end of 2009. When we heard that, after producing 19 issues, she believed that it was time for her to move on to other things, we decided, along with a group of colleagues, that two issues of the journal should be dedicated to her in recognition of the enormous amount of time and effort she has, over many years, dedicated to supporting the academic efforts of others, particularly PhD students and post-doctoral fellows. Each of the contributors to these two issues has personal experience of the excellence of her research supervision. Each of us has benefitted from the outstanding model she has provided and many of us have gone on to become involved ourselves in research supervision.

Winifred describes herself as 'an old fashioned socialist'. This is something that drives not only her approach to academic work but also her approach to every other aspect of her life. She has no time for the neoliberal philosophy that has led to a situation in which universities have, she believes, lost their way, celebrating personal ambition rather than genuine collegiality, and preferring outputs, however trivial, to effective outcomes that make a genuine difference to the lives of those who are least privileged. Her interest in ideas is wide-ranging and her reading spans many different disciplines, including philosophy, politics, psychology, history, economics, sociology, art and literary theory as well as linguistics and applied linguistics. That she has never felt it necessary to confine herself to one particular academic area is evidenced in the range of her publications, which focus on various aspects of language analysis (including *intra-* and *inter-*propositional relations, phonology, syntax and genre), literary stylistics (including free verse and 17th century prose style), critical discourse analysis, and language teaching and learning (including all aspects of the curriculum).

Her approach to supervision, in common with all other aspects of her life, is driven by a personal philosophy that is underpinned by a deeply embedded belief in justice, equity and fairness. Over the past few years, she has supervised research projects by students from a wide range of backgrounds whose interests span a number of different academic disciplines. Among the PhD research projects she has successfully overseen are projects in the areas of intonation (Martin Parker), genre and language teaching and learning (Brian Paltridge; Ian Bruce; Lin, Hsiu-Chen; Ngaere Houia-Roberts), the teaching and learning of languages in New Zealand (Diane Johnson), the teaching of languages to young learners in Taiwan (Wang, Wei-Pei; Yu, Jui-Fang), the impact of globalization on English language education in Taiwan (Her, Jia-Huey), the teaching of English and business writing in tertiary institutions in Thailand (Pimporn Chandee; Parichat Sarayarntanawut), case roles and discourse relations from a Māori language perspective (Hēmi Whaanga), formulaic discourse patterning in Māori mōteatea (Raukura Roa), the concept of development in Ulawa in Solomon Islands and its implications for national policy and planning (Frederick Rohorua), the ecology and historical management of harakeke by Māori (Priscilla Wehi), and the negotiation of bureaucracy in the management and administration of a marae (Adelaide Collins). Among the PhD students she is currently supervising are students working in the area of language syllabus and curriculum design (Anthea Fester), the impact of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) within and outside of Europe (Philippe Valax), contrastive studies of writing in English and

Chinese (Huang-Wu, Hsiao-li), theory and practice in the translation of documents from Māori into English and English into Māori (Jillian Tipene; Tom Roa), Māori language regeneration (Murray Peters), language policy and planning and Māori language (Roger Lewis), the teaching and learning of Māori in Aotearoa (Sophie Nock; Nātana Takurua), Hawaiian in Hawai'i (Keao NeSmith), English in Japan (Keiko Umeda), and German in Taiwan (Jörg Parchwitz). All of the people involved, including many more of those she has taught and supervised over the years, can testify to the fact that she is always prepared to go the extra distance, never putting herself first and always being ready with offers of additional help in the form of accommodation, transportation, loans (furniture, books, bedding, money), assistance with writing academic books and articles and, above all, that ever-present encouragement that is founded in her belief in the ability of others, particularly in that of those who have had to overcome obstacles in order to pursue research in which they have a genuine interest.

This, the second issue of a Festschrift in honour of Dr Winifred Crombie, brings together a range of articles by some of Winifred's current PhD students and recent PhD graduates. It begins with an article by Philippe Valax, a PhD student from the Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages in Taiwan, on the political, social and historical background of the CEFR. This is followed by two further articles by PhD students from the Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages. The first by Her, Jia-Huey, a recent PhD graduate, is in the area of cognition. In this article, Jia-Huey presents the views of senior language educational managers as they attempt to balance the needs and interests of language teachers and language learners with the need to compete as an institution in an increasingly complex and demanding context. The second of these two articles is by Huang Wu, Hsiao-Li, a current PhD student. In this article, which focuses on contrastive rhetoric, Hsiao-Li argues that a number of publications in the area of contrastive rhetoric appear to be based on misunderstanding and/or misrepresentation of the Chinese philosophical/ rhetorical tradition, something that can lead to the creation and promotion of stereotypes that are underpinned by unacknowledged value judgments. Next is an article by Sophie Nock, a current PhD student and a senior lecturer at Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao, University of Waikato. This article reports on responses to a questionnaire that explores aspects of tertiary-level Māori language immersion programme (*Te Tohu Paetahi*). Next is an article by Keao NeSmith, a current PhD student who works at the Kawaihuelani Center for Hawaiian Language, University of Hawai'i at Mānoa. He presents the findings of a questionnaire-based survey of a sample of teachers of Hawaiian in secondary and tertiary level institutions in Hawai'i. The penultimate article is by Anthea Fester, a current PhD student. In this article, Anthea looks at the impact on language teachers of trends in the literature on language teaching and learning. This Festschrift ends with an article by a former PhD student, Wang, Wei Pei, who is involved with language teacher training at Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages in Taiwan. In that article, Wei Pei draws attention to some of the problems that can arise where language teachers who over-estimate their own proficiency in the target language attempt to teach exclusively through the medium of that language.

All of the articles in this issue relate directly to PhD research undertaken under Winifred's supervision. Taken together, they provide some indication of the breadth of her interest in the area of applied linguistics.

Diane Johnson and Hēmi Whaanga

Contextualizing the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

Philippe Valax
Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages, Taiwan
[ph.valax@gmail.com]

Abstract
There is increasing interest around the world in the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) (CoE, 2001). Many language teachers living and working within Europe, particularly those who are old enough to remember the impact of World War II, are likely to be familiar with the organization out of which the CEFR emerged (The Council of Europe) and to appreciate the reasons why that organization was set up and why it was felt necessary to develop such a framework. However, language teachers who are living and working outside of Europe may be less familiar with the background to the CEFR and, therefore, less likely to be in a position to appreciate the interaction between its political goals and its possible practical applications. In that the latter rely to a considerable extent for their likely effectiveness on the former, it is important that those involved in language education should have some understanding of the political, historical and social context out of which the CEFR developed and of the various stages in its to development. The aim of this article is to provide readers with information that will help them to locate the CEFR politically, socially and historically and, therefore, to be in a better position to make a realistic assessment of its potential relevance to the contexts in which they are operating.

Introduction: Post-war Europe and the issue of European cooperation

This section deals with the situation in Europe after the Second World War and demonstrates how that situation impacted on the views of Europeans and led European nations to seek unity and how this, in turn, led to the establishment of a range of organisations and treaties, such as the Council of Europe and the European Cultural Convention, whose aim was, whilst accepting and celebrating difference and diversity, to establish and/or reinforce a sense of cultural and political unity in a wide range of areas. It is in this context that the importance of the Council of Europe and that of the European Cultural Convention in relation to the focus on unity in diversity can best be understood.

The European historical and political context

At the end of the Second World War, Europe was in shambles. The war had broken off normal international relations, setting European nations against one another. The full scale of the disaster to which extreme nationalism had led was revealed only at the end of the war. The economy was in ruins. A period of rationing and financial restrictions was accompanied by introversion. Later, the Cold War split Europe in two, with citizens of the Soviet Bloc enduring restriction of their freedom to travel and to establish contact with foreigners. As John Trim (2005, p. 13) observed in a lecture delivered for the 10th anniversary of the European Centre for Modern Languages in 2005: "Under such conditions, language teachers became quite out of touch with the up-to-date realities of the languages and cultures they were teaching and concentrated their attention on puristic formal correctness and the heritage of national literature".

All of the events to which reference has been made had a profound impact on European ways of thinking. Post-war Europeans began to believe that the only way to prevent a recurrence of the horrors of the war was to unite. Moreover, following the difficult period of reconstruction, and in the context of competition from the United States, Japan and, more recently, emerging powers such as China, India and Brazil, Europeans also began to appreciate the advantages of getting together to create a stronger entity which could better defend Europe's position on the international scene. Such an entity would, it was believed, be in a better position to address the increasing challenges of globalisation and new technologies and, associated with them, greater international mobility and a higher level of outsourcing than was previously the case. However, equally important, perhaps more so, however, was the perception that there was a need for Europeans to adhere to a range of important characteristics and values, notable among which were cultural and linguistic diversity along with tolerance and mutual understanding.

The Council of Europe and the European Cultural Convention

The characteristics and values referred to above were included in the objectives of the Council of Europe, created in May 1949, and are echoed in the CEFR. Thus, it is noted in the first chapter that the CEFR "serves the overall aim of the Council of Europe as defined in Recommendations R (82) 18 and R (98) 6 of the Committee of Ministers:[1] 'to achieve greater unity among its members', and to pursue this aim 'by the adoption of common action in the cultural field'" (Council of Europe [CoE], 2001, p. 2). In the preamble to Recommendation R (82) 18, adopted in 1982, it is observed that although "the rich heritage of diverse languages and cultures in Europe is a valuable common resource to be protected and developed . . . a major educational effort is needed to convert that diversity from a barrier to communication into a source of mutual enrichment and understanding". It is also asserted that "it is only through a better knowledge of European modern languages that it will be possible to facilitate communication and interaction among Europeans of different mother tongues in order to promote European mobility, mutual understanding and co-operation, and overcome prejudice and discrimination". European governments were therefore encouraged to adopt or develop national policies in the fields of modern language learning and teaching and cultural development which promote greater convergence "by means of appropriate arrangements for ongoing co-operation and co-ordination".

Recommendation R (98) 6 (1998) acknowledges the progress made by the member states since 1982, progress that reflects "[awareness] of the dangers that might result from marginalisation of those who lack the skills necessary to communicate in an interactive Europe". Recognizing that communication across linguistic and cultural differences requires a lifelong effort, it asserts "the growing need to equip all Europeans for the challenges of intensified international mobility and closer co-operation not only in education, culture and science but also in trade and industry".

At the end of 1954, the member states of the Council of Europe signed the European Cultural Convention, "designed to foster among the nationals of all members, and of such other European States as may accede thereto, the study of the languages, history and civilisation of the others and of the civilisation which is common to them all" (CoE, 1954, European Cultural Convention). The European Cultural Convention is a starting point for the work of the Council of Europe in the field of modern languages,

and for cultural co-operation in Europe in general which, to that point, had taken place on a very sporadic and one-off basis.[2] In its article 2, the Convention (CoE, 1954) calls each contracting party to:

a) encourage the study by its own nationals of the language, history and civilisation of the other Contracting Parties and grant facilities to those Parties to promote such studies in its territory; and
b) endeavour to promote the study of its language or languages, history and civilisation in the territory of the other Contracting Parties and grant facilities to the nationals of those Parties to pursue such studies in its territory.

In 1957, at the first intergovernmental conference on European co-operation in language teaching, following a suggestion by France, a Committee of Experts was set up to plan the development of modern language teaching in Europe (Trim, 26 September 2001, p. 2). In December 1961, the Council for Cultural Co-operation was created by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe, with four committees in charge of education, higher education, culture, and cultural heritage, to replace the Committee of Cultural Experts that had been provided for by the Cultural Convention.[3]

The European language policy

This section outlines the different stages of the European language policy up to the creation of the CEFR. These stages took place in the context of a growing body of research on political cohesion in Europe (encompassing the domains of language and culture) and evolving ideas and theories in the area of language teaching and learning.

Towards development of the CEFR

Le Français Fondamental: A first stage

In 1961, at the first Intergovernmental Symposium (held in Paris under the auspices of the Council for Cultural Co-operation), France presented *Le Français Fondamental*, the specification of a basic vocabulary and grammar for the French language. This was a pioneering work in many respects. Accompanying it was the launch of the first audio-visual course for adult learners of French language: *Voix et images de France*, which Trim (1997a, p. 48) has described as "the fountainhead of all our subsequent work over 35 years". This was by no means the first attempt to simplify the learning of a language so as to facilitate its wider use. At the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th, attempts to create and promote artificial languages which were often based on Indo-European word roots (e.g. Volapük, Esperanto and Ido) were superseded by the idea of promoting, through limitation and simplification, an already existing language.[4] The principles used to select the vocabulary of *Le Français Fondamental* (presented below) were, however, totally different.

Research whose aim was to establish a fundamental, or basic, French started in 1947, following a recommendation by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) that approaches to language diffusion should be investigated in order to facilitate mass education in developing countries. Thus, the French government sought to facilitate the diffusion of French within and beyond the countries of the French Union (l'Union Française).[5] The government asked specialists to establish a lexical and grammatical gradation from a corpus of oral texts.[6] Under

the supervision of Georges Gougenheim, research underpinning what was then named *Français Elémentaire*[7] was undertaken by the Centre d'étude du français élémentaire.[8] The aim of that research was to determine, within the context of reflection on the teaching and learning of French as a foreign language, precisely what language should be taught. A series of surveys was conducted in the 1950s and 1960s[9] to establish a list of basic words and grammatical structures that were considered to be necessary in order to communicate in the language. From a total of 312,135 words collected,[10] 1000 words were selected in relation to a frequency of occurrence criterion *(fréquence)*.[11] Among these were 270 grammatical words, 380 substantives, 200 verbs, 100 adjectives and 50 other words (Laborie, n.d.).[12] Notable by its absence, however, was vocabulary relating to health, arts and technology and a number of clearly useful words (e.g. *fourchette* [fork], *veste* [jacket], *nationalité* [nationality], *chèque* [cheque]).

A second criterion was then applied, that of availability *(disponibilité)*,[13] and a second survey was undertaken, with, at its core, 16 centres of interest, including food and drink, parts of the body and furniture. Although less frequent, the words identified in this way were clearly of communicative significance.[14] On the basis of this survey, a second series of 1500 words (constituting fundamental available vocabulary) was added to the first series of words. The total set, now referred to as *Français fondamental*, was divided into two stages: the first (*Français Fondamental: 1er degré*[15]) was limited to fewer than 1500 words, the second (*Français fondamental: 2e degré*[16]) included approximately 1700 words. Following further refinement by a commission of teaching specialists and grammarians, final lists were established. These included some words that had been absent (e.g. words relating to hygiene, health, values and religion) and omitted some either considered too sensitive (e.g. *mosquée*, *temple*) or too colloquial (*bouquin, machin, truc*).

Le Français Fondamental was, according to Blache, Guénot and Portes (2005, p. 1), a pioneering work:

> L'élaboration du français fondamental a été un travail précurseur non seulement du point de vue de ses objectifs et ses applications, mais également par la méthode employée. Il s'est agit en effet d'interpréter une analyse statistique sur un corpus de français parlé, avant que la linguistique de corpus n'apparaisse avec ses outils.
> [The elaboration of *Le Français Fondamental* was a pioneering work not only from the point of view of its objectives and its applications, but also in terms of the method used, which involved the type of statistical analysis of a corpus of spoken French before the appearance of corpus linguistics with its tools.[17]]

It must not be forgotten, however, that in the 1970s *Le Français Fondamental* became the centre of a heated debate among academics, politicians and the public. On the political level, it was criticized by both the left and the right. The Communist party, for example, expressed the view that it promoted the teaching of a kind of *sous-français* (sub-French) which was regarded as an adequate substitute for genuine linguistic and cultural education in the case of immigrants. So far as some right wing commentators were concerned, it encouraged laziness and involved a form of linguistic degeneration which could lead to a type of pidgin French.

From the perspective of linguistics and language learning and teaching, there are a number of flaws associated with *Le Français Fondamental,* and the processes leading to its construction. Among these are the ways in which the surveys were constructed, the ways in which the resulting lists were manipulated and the artificiality of some of the language based on the final lists. Nevertheless, *Le Français Fondamental* represents an important move away from the traditional grammar translation methodology and provides a solid basis for subsequent developments in the area of language teaching and learning. Thus, for example, in the 60s, the selection and grading of linguistic elements associated with audio-visual methodology was based on its frequency lists and, as indicated later, it also had an influence on the Threshold level model in the early 1970s. Indeed, the idea of a limited, simple vocabulary to facilitate understanding still exists, as can be seen in news bulletins in French on Radio France Internationale (RFI, *le Journal en français facile*), which uses a basis of 300 simple terms (RFI, n.d.). This is similar to the approach adopted by *The Voice of America* since 1959, its *Special English* programmes making use of a list of approximately 1500 terms.[18] Furthermore, it is now a well-established tradition to write and/or rewrite texts in simple language for language learners.

The Major Project in modern languages (1963-1972)

This project was launched in response to the French desire to create a European Institute of Applied Linguistics on the model of the Centre for Applied Linguistics in the United States. Although the member states rejected that proposal on the grounds of cost (Saville, 2005, pp. 275, 278), they did decide to launch a Major Project in Modern Languages (1963-1972). This involved all educational committees of the Council for Cultural Co-operation, promoted interaction between university-based language research and the language teaching profession, and led to the introduction into European universities of applied linguistics as a recognised academic discipline and to the establishment of AILA (acronym for *Association Internationale de Linguistique Appliquée* or International Association of Applied Linguistics) which held its first congress in 1964 in the French city of Nancy. The Major Project also encouraged international co-operation in the area of the development and use of audio-visual methodology in language teaching (Trim, 26 September 2001, p. 3).

In the 1970s, two phenomena led to a rethinking of language teaching methodology. First, increasing numbers of people who were not language specialists were seeking ways of accessing the information in documents written in languages in which they lacked an advanced level of proficiency. Secondly, increasing numbers of adult migrants needed to develop the language skills required for day-to-day communication in their host countries. New approaches to the specification of objectives, content and methodology were required (Saville, 2005, pp. 275, 278). Consequently, in the 1970s, a new approach was developed, one that represented a reaction against audiolingual and audio-visual methodologies as well as the situational method that had been developed in Great Britain.

The unit-credit scheme (1971-1977) and the Threshold Level

In 1971, a Symposium on Languages in adult education was organised by the Eurocentres foundation at Rüschlikon in Switzerland. A small working group (including Jan van Ek, René Richterich, John Trim and David Wilkins) was set up to examine the feasibility of a unit-credit system for language learning in adult education, a system originating in Nancy (in France) in which the Council of Europe

was interested. Although Marchl and Kingsbury, for Eurocentres, were in favour of a "situation-based approach" (Saville, 2005, p. 276), the Council, in line with the Major Project, was pushing for an 'audio-visual approach'.[19] Whereas the situational method (or 'oral approach' as it was also called) in favour in Great Britain was influenced by behaviourism, audiovisual methods, based on the joint use of image and sound[20] and developed in France in the 1950s, distanced themselves from American structuralism, rejecting behaviourism along with the type of structural exercises proposed by Skinner.[21] In terms of linguistic content and progress, audio-visual approaches were influenced by *Le Français Fondamental*; in terms of psychological theory, they were influenced by Guberina's structuro-global approach,[22] in which the use of the word 'global' signalled the fact that account was taken of factors involved in oral communication (such as the situation, emotional meaning, non verbal aspects of communication, interactional factors, and the participants' state of mind) (Puren, 1988, p. 345).[23]

John Trim began to list speech act function types. These were taken up by David Wilkins and first published in 1973 and later in 1980 in a paper entitled "The Linguistic and Situational Content of the Common Core in a Unit/Credit System" which appeared in the collection *Systems Developments in Adult Language Learning* (see Saville, 2005, p. 276). Meanwhile, René Richterich was working in the area of needs analysis and Jan van Ek was attempting to apply to German what had been done for French with *Le Français Fondamental*. Van Ek's work in this area had a powerful influence on his first papers on the *Threshold Level*.

The working group laid down the principles on which a language teaching policy should be based if it were to serve the fundamental political objectives of the Council of Europe. These principles served as the foundation of all subsequent work (Trim, 26 September 2001, p. 3):

- languages for all;
- languages are learnt for use;
- language learning is a life-long activity;
- language teaching should specify worthwhile, appropriate and realistic objectives based on a proper assessment of the needs, characteristics and resources of learners;
- language teaching should be planned as a coherent whole, covering the specification of objectives, the use of teaching methods and materials, the assessment of learner achievement and the effectiveness of the system, providing feedback to all concerned;
- effective language teaching involves the co-ordinated efforts of educational administrators and planners, textbook and materials producers, testers and examiners, school inspectors, teacher trainers, teachers and learners, who need to share the same aims, objectives and criteria of assessment.

A 'functional-notional' model was elaborated for specifying objectives in operational terms, describing "1) functions performed by acts of speech in communication (e.g. explaining, questioning, apologising, offering, congratulating, etc.); 2) general concepts (e.g. place, time, causality, etc.); 3) concrete, situation-specific concepts ... (e.g. house, train, score, grill, etc.)" (Trim, 26 September 2001, p. 4). This model was intended to define the abilities that specific groups of learners, such as migrants,

business people or tourists, needed in order to reach a communication 'threshold' in the foreign language, that is, what a learner should be able to do to be an independent user of a particular language in a country where it is used as a common medium of communication. This led to the publication of the *Threshold Level* (van Ek, 1975), followed one year later by the French version, *Un Niveau Seuil* (Coste, Courtillon, Ferenczi, Martins-Baltar & Papo, 1976).

Project 4 for modern languages (1977-1981)

Threshold Level and *Un Niveau Seuil* were both presented, along with the framework for a unit-credit system, to an intergovernmental symposium in Ludvigshaven (Germany) in 1977. This represented the launching of Project 4, entitled 'Modern Languages: improving and intensifying language learning as factors making for European understanding, co-operation and mobility' (1977-1981). In this project, "the principles developed by the unit-credit group were applied in projects across the different sectors of general secondary, vocational and adult education, as well as in migrant education" (Trim, 26 September 2001, p. 4). Versions of the *Threshold Level* in different languages started to be elaborated, involving application of the original concept to those languages while taking into account their linguistic and cultural context.[24] An intermediate level, *Waystage* (van Ek & Alexander, 1977), was developed for English,[25] the aim being to define the minimum linguistic knowledge necessary for a learner to be able to communicate with native speakers of the foreign language in casual contacts and everyday situations. This level corresponds to the acquisition of basic and general competences in a foreign language. The passage from the Waystage to the Threshold level is gradual, both specifications sharing the same model and components (more rudimentary in the case of Waystage), both referring to a 'Common Core', and both using the terminology popularized by Wilkins (1976).

Project 12: Learning and teaching modern languages for communication (1981-1988)

The findings of the works launched at the symposium in Rüschlikon were presented in 1982 at the First Strasbourg Conference, where they were approved and incorporated into Recommendation R (82) 18 of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe. Project 12 (1981-1988) was set up to help member states to implement this recommendation, which played a major role in the 1980s, leading to changes to national language policies and curricula and to an overall emphasis on the need to teach and learn languages for communicative purposes. A schools' interaction network that had already been set up as part of Project 4 was extended in order to help member states to share their experience and expertise. Teacher trainers, who played a major role in bringing new methods and materials to the classroom, were seen as key agents for modernization. For them, and for others perceived as primary change agents, a first series of 36 international workshops on specific priority themes was held between 1984 and 1987, involving 226 presenters and 1500 participants. Many of these workshops focused on aspects of what had come to be known as 'the communicative approach' to language teaching, including possible ways of incorporating it into language programmes and language teacher training. This series of workshops had a deep impact on language teaching. Indeed, it has been claimed that it helped to create a "broad consensus on the aims and methods of language teaching across member states and in fact much more widely" (Trim, 26 September 2001, p. 4).

Language learning for European citizenship (1989-1997)

In 1988, at a second Strasbourg conference, reference was made to the positive impact of projects 4 and 12 and to Resolution R (82) 18 on national curricula, especially at lower secondary level. Following the fall of the Berlin Wall in November 1989 and political changes in Central and Eastern Europe, the Council of Europe expanded from 23 members to 40 between 1989 and 1996. Resolution R (82) 18 "provided important guidelines for the reform and re-orientation of language teaching in those new member states" (Trim, 26 September 2001, p. 4).

A new project, *Language learning for European citizenship* (1989-1997), was set up, with a series of 'new style' twinned workshops extending to new sectors and including new themes, such as information and communication technologies, bilingual education, educational links and exchanges, learner autonomy and enriched models for specifying objectives (Trim, 26 September 2001, p. 5 and CoE, 2006, p. 8). These twinned workshops were organized in the following way. A first workshop was organized in a member state to launch a two-year programme of development. Co-ordinators then oversaw the work of teams in different countries. After two years, a second workshop was held in another member state, the aim being to synthesize the results, plan their diffusion and draw up recommendations for language policies. This led, at the final conference held in Strasbourg in 1997, to Recommendation R (98) 6, which stresses the role of intercultural communication and of plurilingualism, promotes the provision of concrete measures for different sectors of education[26] (including the initial and in-service training of teachers) and encourages international co-operation and the sharing of experiences and competences through exchanges.

The Rüschlikon symposium: The birth of the European Framework of Reference for Languages and of the European Language Portfolio

On the initiative of the Swiss federal government and several Swiss organisations, an Intergovernmental Symposium entitled *Transparency and Coherence in Language Learning in Europe: Objectives, Evaluation, Certification* was held in Rüschlikon in November 1991. The first objective of the Symposium was originally to relate language programmes and examinations in Europe by the means of a common framework of reference (North, 2005, p. 5). This idea was not new: Trim had already "put forward the draft of a system in 1977 and . . . tried to get a unit developed to establish and administer it", but at that time the political will was not there and there was a strong suspicion of European centralism, particularly in Scandinavia (Saville, 2005, p. 278). Switzerland, although not a member of the Council of Europe, brought the concept back in 1991, mainly for internal reasons: education in that country was the prerogative of the cantons, not of the federal government (which has no Ministry of Education) and so Switzerland was confronted with the same problems of internal mobility as was Europe (though on a smaller scale) and, therefore, with the same need for a common basis for evaluating qualifications (Saville, p. 279). Switzerland stressed that "the degree of educational and vocational mobility means that people are always having to evaluate qualifications which they don't know anything about" (p. 279). Hence the perception that there was a need for a greater degree of transparency and coherence.

From 1989 to 1990, a group of representatives from Eurocentres language schools and a working party from the CILA (Commission Interuniversitaire de Linguistique Appliquée[27]) had worked on the problem of determining the linguistic competences

attested by exams, diplomas and other forms of certification and had examined the possibility of establishing a common reference system and a model for the transparent description of exams, diplomas and certifications. In a meeting in London in autumn 1990, they had also concretized the idea of a Language Portfolio (CERLE, 2003, ¶ 2). This clearly had an impact on the way in which the aims of the development of a Common European Framework, as outlined at the Rüschlikon Symposium, were formulated. These aims were (Trim, 2005, p. 14):

- to promote and facilitate co-operation among educational institutions in different countries;
- to provide a sound basis for the mutual recognition of language qualifications;
- to assist learners, teachers, course designers, examining bodies and educational administrators to situate and co-ordinate their efforts.

The Council of Europe entrusted a small working group, consisting of John Trim (Project Director), Daniel Coste (CREDIF, France), Brian North (Eurocentres, Switzerland) and Joe Sheils (Council of Europe Secretariat), with the task of producing the text of the Framework. The task took a decade, with a first draft being published in 1995. The draft Framework was submitted for consultation (1996), with 1000 copies being sent out to institutions and individuals. Over 200 evaluation questionnaires were returned and analysed (Saville, 2005, p. 279). A second draft was then published in 1997 and presented in Strasbourg at the Final Conference of the *Language Learning for European citizenship* project, which recommended the testing of the Common European Framework. Recommendation R (98) 6, in a section on the Specification of objectives and assessment in its Appendix, "encourage(s) institutions to use the Council of Europe's Common Framework of Reference to plan or review language teaching in a coherent and transparent manner in the interests of better international co-ordination and more diversified language teaching".

The second draft of the Framework was distributed in 1998 for pilot experimentation, along with a General Guide and 10 User Guides. Then, following revisions, a final edition was published in English and in French and presented (with the European Portfolio) under the title of *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment* (hereafter CEFR) in 2001 as part of the activities organized for the European Year of Languages (jointly organised by the Council of Europe and the European Union).

Development of the Threshold level series

In parallel with the drawing up of the CEFR, the original versions of *Threshold Level* and *Waystage* were developed and extended in 1990 (van Ek & Trim, 1991a & b) in the light of developments in the field, with the addition of sections dealing with discourse analysis, the sociocultural component, compensatory strategies in interaction, communicative competences and life-long learning (Viña Rouco, 2005, p. 99). A third, higher level specification, *Vantage Level* (van Ek & Trim, 2001), was prepared, first for English (1996), then for some other languages, such as German and Greek. The *Threshold Level* had an immense impact on language policies, language programmes and textbook design. Saville (2005, p. 281) has claimed that:

> One thing which the Threshold level did was to bring together, with a common recognized objective, the independent agents who are working independently

> of each other but having to feed into the same system — the textbook writers, the teacher trainers, examining authorities, and so on. They could all refer to it although what they could do in respect to it would be entirely different.

The impact of the *Threshold Level* was reinforced by the appearance of the *Waystage* and *Vantage* levels, the three together underpinning notions of competencies that impacted strongly on the Common Reference Levels of the CEFR, a scale of six levels (elaborated between 1993 and 1996) in which *Waystage, Threshold and Vantage* levels correspond to the levels A2, B1 and B2 respectively.

The content of the CEFR: An outline

The CEFR begins with a prefatory note (CoE, 2001, p. ix), notes for the user (pp. xi – xiv) and a synopsis (xv – xv). The first chapter (pp. 1-8) defines the aims and objectives of the CEFR and outlines how it is intended to function in relation to the Council of Europe's language policy. In the context of what are referred to as 'plurilingualism' and 'pluriculturalism', there is a discussion of why the CEFR is perceived as being needed, and the criteria (comprehensiveness, transparency and coherence) it should meet. The second chapter (pp. 9-20) outlines the underlying approach, one that is defined as being 'action-oriented', and makes reference to some key concepts, including 'general competences' (knowledge [*savoir*]; 'skills and know-how' [*savoir-faire*]; 'existential competence' [*savoir-être*]; 'ability to learn' [*savoir-apprendre*]); and 'communicative language competence' [comprising linguistic[28], sociolinguistic[29] and pragmatic competences[30]]). Also referred to are language activities (involving reception, production, interaction or mediation), domains, (public or private, occupational, educational) and tasks, strategies and texts. What are referred to as 'common reference levels of language proficiency' are introduced and there are, finally, sections dealing with language learning and teaching and language assessment.

The third chapter (CoE, 2001, pp. 21-42) is devoted to a discussion of the common reference levels. The fourth chapter (pp. 43-100) introduces a series of categories intended to help those involved in language teaching and learning to reflect upon and state clearly what learners can be expected to know and be able to do with language in order to communicate.[31] Chapter 5 (pp. 101-130) explores competences that users/ learners are said to require in order to deal with communicative situations.

The sixth chapter (CoE, 2001, pp. 131-156) focuses on language teaching and learning and concerns what learners have to learn or acquire, the processes of language learning and what users of the Framework can do to facilitate learning. Some methodological options are provided and there is a discussion of errors and mistakes. The focus of the seventh chapter (pp. 157-167) is tasks and their role in language learning and teaching.[32] The eighth chapter (pp. 168-176) deals with linguistic diversification and the curriculum. The ninth, and final chapter (pp. 177-196), is concerned with assessment, which is differentiated from programme evaluation and defined, in the context of the CEFR, as relating to "the proficiency of the language user" and discussed in terms of validity,[33] reliability[34] and feasibility (p. 177).

There are four appendices to the CEFR. The first (CoE, 2001, pp. 205-216) deals with the development of proficiency descriptors and details the requirements for their

formulation. The second appendix (pp. 217-225) describes the Swiss research project which led to the development of the illustrative scales of descriptors presented in the Framework, outlining the methodology used to develop them. The third appendix (pp. 226-243) presents the DIALANG online assessment system (available at the time in fourteen European languages) which is aimed at adults who wish to assess their level of proficiency and receive feedback. It is noted that although the self-assessment statements included in a number of tables are "mostly taken from the CEF", they have been "adapted where necessary to fit the specific needs of the system" (p. 226). The fourth appendix (pp. 244-257) outlines the nature, purpose and development of 'can do' statements developed by the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE).[35]

Documents complementing the CEFR: The European Language Portfolio and the guides and manuals developed for the CEFR

Several documents have been elaborated in relation to the CEFR. The first presented is the European Language Portfolio, a self-assessment tool intended not only to help learners to assess their own progress but also to motivate them, to help them better understand the learning process and to facilitate international mobility. Its development was parallel to that of the CEFR and both were officially launched at the same time. The other documents are guides and manuals which have been designed to help users to better understand and implement the CEFR. The first one, *A Guide for Users,* has replaced the eleven guides accompanying the 1996 version of the CEFR.[36] The second one, of which the final version was published in 2009 (CoE, 2009a), is a manual for relating language examinations to the CEFR. It is complemented by a series of reference materials, CD-ROMs, videos and DVDs that provide samples of calibrated performances (intended to help examination providers to co-ordinate their judgements), and a *Reference Supplement* (CoE, 2009b) containing additional information.[37]

The European Language Portfolio

The European Language Portfolio (ELP) is a tool for self-assessment in which learners can record their results, qualifications and competences in the learning of various languages as well as intercultural experiences of all kinds, at any level, all life long, whether at school or outside of school.

It has already been noted that the idea of establishing an ELP was presented at the 1991 Symposium in Rüschlikon where the Swiss delegation launched the idea of a research project to develop a system of description of language competences which would serve as a basis for the first prototypes of a Portfolio (see CERLE, 2003). A working group was set up to elaborate descriptors of strategic and intercultural competences and language proficiency benchmarking descriptors. Language competency descriptors were elaborated between 1993 and 1996 by Günther Schneider, Brian North and René Richterich.[38,39] After a period of experimentation and some modifications in 1995 and 1996, the Council of Europe decided, in April 1997,[40] to pursue work on the development of the CEFR and to develop different versions of a European Language Portfolio.[41] In October 2000, following a pilot phase between 1998 and 2000, the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education of the Council of Europe (at their 20th Session in Poland) adopted a resolution in which they recommended the "implementation and wide use of the ELP" in the member states (*Resolution on the ELP*, 2000, recommendation 1). In an attempt to ensure that

common standards and quality are respected, the Council of Europe created, in the same year, the *Validation Committee*, a committee of national delegates and experts for the accreditation of all new versions of the Language Portfolio. The European Language Portfolio was officially launched, together with the CEFR, in 2001. The overall goal was to raise motivation and support for the study of languages by providing learners with a means to "document their progress towards plurilingual competence by recording learning experiences of all kinds over a wide range of languages" (CoE, 2001, p. 20).

The Portfolio consists of three parts: a Language Passport, a Language Biography and a Dossier. The Language Passport provides "an overview of the individual's proficiency in different languages at a given point in time" (CoE, Language Policy Division, n.d., ¶1).[42] The *Passport* can be regularly updated and records formal qualifications and diplomas, as well as self-assessments and intercultural experiences of all kinds. The *Language Biography* is a record of the language learning history of learners in which they record their experiences of language learning as well as their intercultural experiences, in formal or informal educational contexts.[43] It is intended to encourage individuals to involve themselves in the learning process, including planning their progress and evaluating their achievements, by helping them to reflect upon it. Learners can select for inclusion in the *Dossier* work that illustrates their skills, achievements and experiences in the field of foreign languages. The dossier can be updated as the learning progresses and as the individual grows older.[44] A critical aspect of the Portfolio is that it can reflect the learning processes involved in several languages at the same time and is not confined to recording qualifications gained in formal educational contexts. Also critical is the fact that, although many different types of portfolio can be designed in relation to age and local (national, regional) contexts, the same standards, as approved by the Council of Europe's Validation Committee, apply so that, in order to ensure coherence, all of them share a Common Core with the CEFR. Eighty models of Portfolios have been validated to date (October 2006). A series of documents have been developed to help teachers, teacher trainers and portfolio developers,[45] and an electronic version of the Language Passport for adults, the *Europass Language Passport*,[46] has been developed by the Council of Europe and the European Union (in 2004) and can be completed online or downloaded. Moreover, the first electronic European Language Portfolio, developed by EAQUALS and ALTE, has been accredited (see EAQUALS-ALTE, n.d.).

Guides to facilitate the use of the CEFR

A series of eleven guides, including a *General Guide for Users* (CC-LANG (98) 1) (Trim, 1997b) and ten specialised guides (CC-LANG (96) 9-18) complemented the 1996 version of the CEFR. For the final version of the CEFR, they were replaced (in April 2002) by a single *Guide for Users* (Trim [Ed.], 2001), which included the information contained in the previous guides along with new developments. This 232 page-document consists of four sections giving advice to different categories of user. The first section concerns all users; the second deals with those directly engaged in the learning/teaching process; the third section is intended for those involved in the planning, organisation, delivery and quality assessment of language education;[47] the fourth is intended for textbook and materials writers.

These guides represent one response to those who criticized the Framework on the grounds of its complexity. However, as John Trim noted in an interview with Nick

Saville (2005, p. 283), "in general, they haven't been very influential, partly because many people did not know about them, and also perhaps, because some of the guides themselves didn't build in the user dimension adequately".

The Manual for Relating Language Examinations to the CEFR

Figueras (2008, p. 28) notes that one of the areas in which the CEFR has been most subject to criticism is that of assessment. Rapid adoption of the CEFR's Common Reference Levels by examination institutions (elaborating and commercializing language tests) has not always been backed up by validation studies. This criticism, according to Figueras (p. 28), was at its height at a seminar organised in Helsinki by the Finnish Ministry of Education in July 2002. Following that seminar, the Council of Europe organised a working group to design a manual for those wishing to relate examinations to the levels of the CEFR. That manual, *Relating Language Examinations to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment* (hereafter the Manual, CoE, 2009a) represents a continuation of earlier work of the Council of Europe in the field of language policy, and particularly the Threshold Level and the CEFR.[48,49] However, the authors also wished to take into account more recent developments on levels and objectives which had been elaborated on the basis of the CEFR and which included a series of content specifications for different languages. In relation to these, it was claimed that this manual is a 'logical complement' (Manual, p. 4).

The Manual recommends following four sets of procedures (Chapters 3-6): *familiarisation* with the CEFR; *specification* of examinations in terms of objectives, content and tasks profiled in relation to the levels of the CEFR and the categories presented in Chapters 4 and 5; *standardisation* to achieve and implement "a common understanding of the meaning of the CEF levels" (Manual, p. 7) and *empirical validation* through the collection and analysis of test data. The last chapter (Chapter 7) provides guidelines for reporting on the content of examinations and the procedures followed in order to link it to the CEFR levels.

The Manual is complemented by a Reference Supplement (CoE, 2009b) which "discusses approaches to standard setting, classical test theory, qualitative methods in test validation, generalisability theory, factor analysis, and item response theory" (Little, 2006, p. 184).[50] It is also supported by a series of reference materials for different languages in CD-ROM format which provide calibrated samples of performances in writing, listening and reading. There are also videos/DVDs which provide samples of spoken performances by learners from different countries (not necessarily European countries)[51] at different levels. It has been claimed that these illustrations should "make it possible for testers and examiners to co-ordinate their judgements, and for classroom teachers to have a clearer picture of what to expect from students at different levels" (Trim, 2005, p. 17).[52]

Moving towards language-specific descriptions and a framework for languages of school education

Two recent developments are outlined here. The first involves the development of Reference Level Descriptions for national and regional languages; the second is a project involving the design of a Common European Framework of Reference for Languages of School Education (which necessarily involves mother tongue education).

Reference Level Descriptions for national and regional languages

One of the most recent projects involves the development of Reference Level Descriptions (RLDs) for national and regional languages and would appear to represent a response to those who have argued that the specifications of the CEFR are too broad to be very helpful (CoE, n.d. a, ¶ 7):[53]

> The descriptors [of the CEFR] specify progressive mastery of each skill, which is graded on a six-level scale (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2). However, for operators, textbook authors and teachers, the specification set out in the CEFR may appear excessively broad. Work began on drafting CEFR specifications language by language.

More specific descriptions, related to CEFR levels, were first developed for the German language. On the initiative of the Goethe Institut, a team of representatives from Germany, Austria and Switzerland drew up *Profile Deutsch* (Glaboniat, Müller, Schmitz, Rusch & Wertenschlag, 2002).[54,55] The motivation for this has been discussed by Trim (2007, ¶ 10).[56] Other sets of descriptions followed or are currently being developed for other languages (see for example, *Un référentiel pour le français* for French, *Plan curricular del Instituto Cervantes for Spanish, English Profile* for English, etc.).[57]

According to Beacco, Bouquet and Porquier (2004, p. 8), the authors of the French RLDs for level B2 the major aim in producing these language-specific descriptions is to facilitate the development of piloting tools for language policies, language curricula and certifications. Thus, these descriptions (CoE, 2005, p. 4) "are meant to serve as a starting point for the preparation of teaching programmes for the language concerned". Interestingly, in the online presentation of the *English Profile* (*What is the English Profile?* [n.d.], ¶ 1), the ambitions of the project are defined in the following terms: "It is intended that the project will lead to the production of a *core curriculum* [italics added] and a tool kit for English as a foreign or additional language, linked to the general principles and approaches of the CEFR".

The function of the RLDs is to transpose the descriptors of each level of the CEFR into linguistic terms that are language-specific, something that is considered necessary if the competences described in the CEFR are to be implemented. Thus, it has been argued that the RLDs should provide "inventories of the linguistic realisations of general notions, acts of discourse and specific notions/lexical elements and morpho-syntactic elements considered characteristic of [the level concerned]" (CoE, 2005, p. 5). However, although the descriptions will necessarily differ according to the languages concerned, they need, according to Beacco, et al. (2004, p. 10), to share certain features if they are to contribute to the convergence of education systems made possible by the development and diffusion of the CEFR. With that in mind, the Council of Europe has published a *Guide for the Production of RLD* (CoE, 2005) which outlines common general principles, identifies the features that these descriptions should share and specifies the methodology that should be used to create the inventories "in order to give these reference level descriptions for individual languages a degree of scientific status and a social audience compatible with their aim" (CoE, 2005, p. 6).

All of this is, according to Beacco, et al. (2004, p. 9), predicated on the hypothesis that it is possible to identify linguistic forms for particular languages which would, on the whole, correspond to the competences which are described in the CEFR independently of the languages concerned, thus moving from general reference descriptions common to different languages to reference descriptions specific to French (and other) language(s). Thus, the RLDs' function is to "décrire, sous forme d'inventaires de "mots", des contenus possible d'enseignement" [describe, in the form of inventories of 'words', the possible teaching contents] (Beacco, et al., p. 7 – my translation).

The inventories associated with these descriptions can be adjusted with time, as the language changes, and are, it has been asserted, "one of the anchor points proposed by the Council of Europe's Language Policy Division for the development of programmes that are consistent with one another, from one language to another and also with the common tools which already exist" (CoE, 2005, p. 3).

Project for a framework for languages of school education

The Language Policy Division of the Council of Europe, "concerned with the development of effective skills in the language(s) of instruction" (CoE, n.d. b, ¶ 1) has launched a project to draw up, on the model of the CEFR, a Common European Framework of Reference for Languages of School Education, that is, the languages through which school curricula are delivered, which, in most cases, will be pupils' first (mother) language. A preliminary survey was launched in April 2005, its aim being to secure a general overview of the curricula used to teach the language of instruction in member states at national or regional level, a primary focus being on identifying similarities and differences as well as any major problems that would need to be addressed.

At the time of writing, the feasibility of designing a framework of the kind to which reference has been made is still being considered. However, its potential significance can be considered in the context of the fact a number of problems have been identified in relation to the teaching of the languages of academic instruction (Beacco & Byram, 2006, p. 3).[58]

David Little (2006, p. 187) has claimed that although the notion of plurilingualism is central to the Council of Europe, "neither the CEFR, nor the ELP does full justice to the concept". The CEFR (CoE, 2001, 1.3, p. 4) recognizes that "an individual person's experience of language in its cultural contexts expands, from the language of the home to that of society at large and then to the languages of other people (whether learnt at school or by direct experience)". This represents acknowledgement of the essential role of the mother tongue in the construction of plurilingual competence. Even so, "the CEFR offers an apparatus for describing second and foreign language proficiency, and the ELP is explicitly concerned with learning languages other than the mother tongue" (Little, 2006, p. 187). The project on Languages of School Education is intended to address this issue. Thus, in the online presentation of the project on the Council of Europe site (CoE, n.d. b), it is noted that the project includes a focus on language as a school subject, language as a medium of teaching and learning across the curriculum and "possible convergences between the language(s) of school education and modern (foreign) languages" in the context of "a global or

holistic approach to language education policy aimed at promoting coherence in the development of the learner's plurilingual repertoire".

What appears to be being proposed here is a common language policy for first, second and foreign languages. It has been claimed that if this project were to succeed, it would "have important consequences not only for the CEFR but also for the ELP and the elaboration of language curricula" (Little, 2006, p. 187). As Byram (CoE & Jagiellonian University, 2006, p. 17) observes, there are a range of critical issues that need to be addressed in this context: "[It is] important to discuss the differences between concepts such as Mother Tongue Education, Standard Language Education, Key Language, Language of Instruction, First Language Education, Home Language, National Language, State Language Education, etc.". Furthermore, he notes (p. 17):

> [There] is a trend to specialisation, with the result that there is a lack of contact between for example those dealing with foreign/second language education and those specialising in mother/first/official/national language – as well as between those specialising in teaching literature and those interested in teaching language itself.

Several intergovernmental conferences have already taken place to discuss this project (Krakow, April 2006; Strasbourg, October 2006; Prague, November 2007, etc.). In his report of the last of these (held in Prague), Fleming (2007, p. 11) outlined several themes that emerged. One of these is "the importance that language plays in ensuring that disadvantaged learners[59] have full access to the curriculum and derive full benefit from it" (p. 11).[60] In relation to the Framework itself, participants made a number of potentially significant points. First, because the education world is always changing, a "more fluid set of theoretical perspectives, examples of policy and practical support" is preferable to a "single static document evolved through many years of deliberation and research" (p. 11). Secondly, the complexity of the project means that a single publication would be too expansive and/or too difficult to access and navigate. Third, there is a need to consider at an early stage the need for support mechanisms for teacher education and development. Fleming also noted that the suggestion of having an electronic format, first made at the intergovernmental conference in Strasbourg in 2006, had become clearer and more convincing in Prague. Finally, Fleming claimed (p. 11) that "the Framework document does not need a common core or centre to provide the necessary stability, coherence and direction". On the basis of Fleming's observations, it appears that what is being contemplated is a framework for languages of education that is presented from the outset in a number of documents (rather than a single one) that are more flexible and more user-friendly than the CEFR. If this is the case, it will be interesting to see what impact this will have on CEFR developments to date in that it is a project that appears to have the potential to lead to a reworking of everything that has preceded it.

Conclusion

The development of the CEFR took place in a very specific social and political context. Understanding of this context and awareness of the various projects that led up to the production of the CEFR are critical to an understanding of the nature of the framework itself and to assessment of its possible relevance outside of Europe.

Endnotes

1. Council of Europe [CoE], Committee of Ministers, 1982 and 1998. It must be noted that the Council of Europe, the oldest political organisation of the continent, is distinct from the European Union (or other anterior organization such as the European Economic Community), although "no country has ever joined the Union without first belonging to the Council of Europe (see http://www.coe.int/aboutCoe/index.asp?page=nepasconfondre&l=en). The Committee of Ministers is composed of Foreign Ministers of the member states or their deputies in Strasbourg (ambassadors/permanent representatives) and is the Council's decision-making body. European conventions or treaties are legally binding and many are also open to non-member states. Recommendations give governments' policy guidelines on different matters including culture, education, etc.

2. See Grosjean (1998), Chap. I, *Introduction*: "[La coopération culturelle européenne] restera cependant très ponctuelle et conjoncturelle jusqu'au moment où, le 19 décembre 1954, est solennellement ouverte à la signature la Convention culturelle européenne qui, depuis 40 ans, constitue le cadre et le fondement d'une action qui n'a cessé de se développer." ([European cultural co-operation], however, remained on a very sporadic and one-off basis until the moment when, on December 19, 1954, the European Cultural Convention, which for 40 years has been the framework and the foundation of an action that never ceased to develop, was solemnly open for signature.)

3. It is designated by its French acronym CDCC (Conseil de la Coopération Culturelle). In 2001, the CDCC and its specialised committees were transformed into four Steering Committees, designated by their French acronyms (see CoE, Committee of Ministers, 12 November 2001): the Steering Committee for Education (CDED: Comité Directeur de l'Education), the Steering Committee for Higher Education and Research (CDESR: Comité Directeur de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche), the Steering Committee for Culture (CDCULT: Comité Directeur de la Culture) and the Steering Committee for Cultural Heritage (CDPAT: Comité Directeur du Patrimoine Culturel).

4. Thus, for example, Ogden's Basic English was released in 1930.

5. This was the name given to what was at that time the French colonial empire.

6. Gradation (or grading) is "the arrangement of the content of a language course or a textbook so that it is presented in a helpful way" (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992, p. 160). This implies deciding on the order in which elements of the language are introduced, taking account of factors like their complexity, their frequency in the language, their importance for the learner, etc.

7. On those early works, see Gougenheim, Michea, Rivenc and Sauvageot (1956). (A new revised and augmented edition was published in 1964 under the title *L'élaboration du français fondamental: étude sur l'établissement d'un vocabulaire et d'une grammaire de base.*)

8. In 1959, this centre, located in the Ecole Normale Supérieure of Saint-Cloud, was to become the CREDIF : Centre de Recherche et d'Etudes pour la Diffusion du Français, with G. Gougenheim and P. Rivenc respectively as director and vice-director.

9. The first edition of the *Dictionnaire du Français Fondamental de la langue française* (Gougenheim), with 3500 words, was published in 1958 (a second updated and augmented edition was published by the same editor in 1977).

10. These were collected on the basis of the first surveys which involved the recording of 275 conversations.

11. It was observed that there was but a small number of words which repeatedly occurred in oral and written communication whatever the context. It was also observed that only a few grammatical words were truly indispensable for communication.

12. In a synchronic approach borrowed from structural linguistics, only the most widely used forms of standard oral language were taken into account.

13. This availability criterion foreshadowed the context setting of utterances, which would come into favour in connection with what is often referred to as 'the Communicative Approach'.

14. This vocabulary was then refined in relation to the sex, profession, region of origin, etc. of those polled.

15. Ministère de l'éducation nationale (France), 1954.
16. Ministère de l'éducation nationale (France), n.d.
17. My translation.
18. See Voice of America (n.d.), *The Roots of Special English*: "On October 19, 1959, the Voice of America broadcast the first Special English program. It was an experiment. The goal was to communicate by radio in clear and simple English with people whose native language was not English. Special English programs quickly became some of the most popular on VOA."
19. This does not mean that the audiovisual methodology is not situational, or that any situation-based approach was rejected. What John Trim seems to be referring to in this interview with Nick Saville (2005, p. 276) is the British situational method as opposed to the audiovisual method (Méthodologie Structuro-Globale Audio-Visuelle [SGAV], or, more simply, Méthodologie Audio-Visuelle [MAV]) elaborated in France by a team of the Ecole Normale Supérieure de Saint-Cloud (under the supervision of Paul Rivenc) with the major contribution of Petar Guberina and his team of the Phonetics Institute of the Faculty of Arts in Zagreb (hence its initial name of 'méthode de Saint-Cloud – Zagreb'). But John Trim adds (p. 276): "The idea of 'situation' wasn't really any better developed than a dialogue which was learnt off by heart and anatomized and so on".
20. Audio tapes and images, and later, with technical progress, video tapes. Image and sound are used simultaneously, with the image helping learners to understand what they perceive aurally. Methods using them separately are not, properly speaking, audiovisual in nature.
21. These exercises were based on automatisms, without the conscious and intelligent participation of the learner, and leaving aside any subjective data to have him/her answer indifferently, in a mechanical way: "I am tall, I am short, I am French, I am Greek, etc." (see Puren, 1988, pp. 288-386).
22. Although in the first generation of audiovisual courses, there was a division between those who were influenced by behaviourism and those who adhered to structuro-globalism.
23. Puren, here (1988, p. 345), quotes the factors presented by Guberina (1984, p. 96): "la situation (réelle ou dans la pensée), la signification intellectuelle et affective, tous les moyens sonores, les moyens lexicologiques, l'état psychologique des intervenants et leur co-action réciproque, leur perception et leur production satisfaisante de la parole".
24. For instance, although the English version is only concerned with spoken language, the French version, *Un Niveau Seuil*, includes written language.
25. Trim (26 September 2001, p. 4) explains: "An intermediate objective *Waystage* (van Ek & Alexander, 1977) was developed as the objective for the hugely successful Anglo-German multi-media production *Follow Me*, subsequently followed on TV by over 500 million viewers worldwide."
26. See CoE: Committee of Ministers (1998), *Appendix to recommendation No. R (98) 6.* Measures grouped under the titles B to F respectively concern *Early language learning* (language learning before secondary education); *Secondary education; Vocational-oriented language learning; Adult education; Bilingual education in bilingual or multilingual areas.*
27. The Inter-university Commission for Applied Linguistics, in Switzerland.
28. Linguistic competences (5.2.1) include lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthoepic (the accurate pronunciation of sounds and words) competences. A table providing scaling for general linguistic range is followed by five scales relating to vocabulary range and vocabulary control, grammatical accuracy, phonological control and orthographic control.
29. Sociolinguistic competence (5.2.2) deals with linguistic markers of social relations, politeness conventions, expressions of folk wisdom, register differences and dialect and accent. A table relating to the scaling of sociolinguistic appropriateness is included.
30. Pragmatic competence is said to include discourse competence and functional competence. Discourse competence is defined as "the ability of a user/learner to arrange sentences in sequence so as to produce coherent stretches of language" (p. 123). Functional competence is said to be concerned with "the use of spoken discourse and written texts in

communication for particular functional purposes" (p. 125) and includes the categories: microfunctions, macrofunctions and interaction schemata.

31. Here, the 'context of language use' is outlined in terms of domains, situations, conditions and constraints, the user/learner's mental context and the mental context of the interlocutor(s). This is followed by a discussion of communication theme (and sub-themes), communicative tasks and purposes, communicative language activities and strategies, communicative language processes, and texts.

32. It is noted that "[classroom] tasks, whether reflecting 'real-life' or essentially 'pedagogic' in nature are communicative to the extent that they require learners to comprehend, negotiate and express meaning in order to achieve a communicative goal" (p. 158).

33. A test or assessment is said to be valid if "what is actually assessed (the construct) is what, in the context concerned, *should* be assessed" and if "the information gained is an accurate representation of the proficiency of the candidate(s) concerned" (CoE, 2001, p. 177).

34. Reliability is defined as "the extent to which the same rank order of candidates is replicated in two separate (real or simulated) administrations of the same assessment" (CoE, 2001, p. 177). It is noted, however, that "what is . . . more important than reliability is the accuracy of decisions made in relation to a standard" (p. 177), such as the decision to fail or pass a candidate, this accuracy depending on the validity of the particular standard (e.g. a particular level) for the context.

35. These statements, anchored to the 1996 version of the CEFR (CoE, 2001, p. 248), are presented in seven tables, four of which involve skill level summaries (document D1), social and tourist statement summaries (D2), work statements summaries (D4) and study statement summaries (D6). In each table, descriptors for listening/speaking, reading, and writing are scaled according to the six ALTE levels corresponding to the levels of the CEFR.

36. The version sent for trial in 1996 was actually published in 1995.

37. The *Reference Supplement* contains three main components: quantitative and qualitative considerations in relating certificates and diplomas to the CEF and different approaches in standard setting (see http://www.coe.int/T/DG4/Linguistic/Manuel1_EN.asp#P19_2121).

38. *Evaluation und Selbstevaluation der Fremdsprachenkompetenz an Schnittstellen des schweizerischen Bildungssystems (Evaluation et auto-évaluation de la compétence en langues étrangères aux points d'intersection du système d'enseignement en Suisse).* For more details, see also the section on chapter 3 of the CEFR, and for a full account B. North (2002), in C. Alderson (2002, pp. 87-105).

39. These descriptors were included in the CEFR to describe the Common Reference Levels (CoE, 2001, p. 217, Appendix B: *The illustrative scales of descriptors*).

40. The decision was made at the final conference of the Project referred to as *Language learning for European citizenship.*

41. Recommendation R (98) 6 (CoE: Committee of Ministers, 1998, p. 5) "encourage(s) the development and use by learners in all educational sectors of a personal document (European language portfolio) in which they can record their qualifications and other significant linguistic and cultural experiences in an internationally transparent manner, thus motivating learners and acknowledging their efforts to extend and diversify their language learning at all levels in a lifelong perspective".

42. It gives the 'linguistic identity' of an individual by providing a summary overview of his or her competences in each language he or she has learnt, "[the] overview [being] defined in terms of skills and the common reference levels in the Common European Framework" (CoE, Language Policy Division, n.d., ¶ 1).

43. This includes courses taken, school exchanges and work experience.

44. CoE, Language Policy Division (n.d., ¶ 1) and also Trim (26 September 2001), Council of Europe (2006), Rehorick and Lafargue(2005).

45. See http://www.coe.int/T/DG4/Portfolio/?L=E&M=/main_pages/documents.html

46. See http://europass.cedefop.europa.eu

47. It is concerned with curriculum design, revision and updating, organisation and delivery of the curriculum, and quality assurance and quality control.

48. In fact, an earlier guide was prepared under the direction of M. Milanovic on behalf of ALTE, *Language examining and test development* (CoE, 2002).
49. The Manual, is intended to help providers of examinations to link assessments and certifications to the CEFR in a transparent way, providing reference materials, tools and procedures, so that examinations can be situated in relation to the CEFR and be comparable among themselves, thus answering the question raised by Charles Alderson: "How do I know that my Level B1 is your Level B1?" (Manual, Preface, p. ix).
50. These elements correspond to the different sections of the Reference Supplement (CoE, 2004).
51. These materials provide samples of learners of different countries, European or not, and some of these learners come from countries speaking non Indo-European languages, such as China, Korea, Japan, the United Arab Emirates, etc.
52. Examples of these illustrative materials can be found on the site of the Council of Europe, at the following address: http://www.coe.int/T/DG4/Portfolio/?L=E&M=/main_pages/illustrationse.html
53. Figueras (2008, p. 31) has noted that this includes assessment professionals, who have noted the necessity of developing detailed descriptions for different languages.
54. The 2002 edition covered levels A1-B2, then the *Profile Deutsch A1-C2 (Version 2.0)* published in 2005 by the same authors covered all six levels of the CEFR.
55. The fact that they immediately adapted their Threshold level to the CEFR, incorporating its main features (Trim, 2007, ¶ 11) explains why the Germans, the Swiss and the Austrians were able to produce RLD for German as early as 2002 (2005 for the six Common Reference Levels).
56. Trim (2007, ¶ 10) notes that: "The appearance of CEFR, published simultaneously in French and English, prompted the Goethe-Institut and others concerned with the teaching of German as a foreign language, to revise and recast Kontaktschwelle [the German Threshold level] as a multilevel survey of resources for the learning of German, distributing the functions, general and specific notions of Kontaktschwelle and their lexical and structural exponents, over the four levels A1–B2, supplemented as was felt necessary. This survey would then provide a concrete basis for each learner, or provider, to extract what was relevant to their needs, motivations, characteristics and resources and to construct individual learning profiles. A project was set up, entitled *Profile Deutsch* (Profiles for German)".
57. According to the information available on the CoE's website (see http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/dnr_EN.asp), it seems that only German and Spanish languages have RLD for all of the six levels of the CEFR. For French, RLD exist for levels A1, A2, B2 and A1.1 (for the first acquisition in French), and B1 should be published next. No RLD seem to have been published yet for English but the project for an *English Profile* is under way.
58. These include: a lack of efficiency in teaching/learning reading or writing skills; the failure to eliminate disparities in linguistic skills and experience among children of different backgrounds; the difficulties of teaching migrant children (language problems, cultural problems, and the fact that some of them have received little or no schooling in the country they come from); emphasis in some cases on grammatical knowledge at the expense of communication skills; an approach to the teaching of literature that tends to centre on the transmission of knowledge rather than on reading and analytical skills; and vague definition of objectives to be achieved.
59. This term may include native speakers, indigenous minorities or migrant children.
60. Fleming (2007, p. 11) adds that "[it] is important to recognise the degree to which the language of schooling may serve as a barrier which inhibits rather than promotes learning".

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Senior language education managers' cognition in the context of globalization and neoliberalism: Views from Taiwan

Her, Jia-Huey
Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages, Taiwan
[misty@mail.wtuc.edu.tw]

Abstract

Globalization and neoliberalism have had a major impact on the teaching of international languages, particularly English. In this context, research on language teacher cognition, which explores the interaction between what language teachers actually do and what they think, know and believe, has a great deal to offer in terms of uncovering teacher perspectives on the complexities of the situation in which they find themselves. It is, however, equally important to understand how educational managers view the current situation and how they are attempting to cope with the operational pressures they face. I report here on some of the issues that arose in the context of semi-structured interviews involving senior educational managers in one tertiary-level institution in Taiwan that focuses on language education. All of these educational managers have a background in language teaching and some of them were directly involved in the teaching of English at the point when the interviews were held. They were therefore in a position to understand the pressures under which language teachers operate on a day to day basis. The primary focus here is on the ways in which they attempt to balance the needs and interests of language teachers and language learners with the need to compete as an institution in an increasingly complex and demanding context.

Introduction

In common with other institutions involved in higher education, *Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages* (Wenzao) is in the process of reviewing its approach to English language education. Like other institutions in Taiwan and elsewhere, it must consider global and national processes in the context of its own unique circumstances. Its future, its aims and ambitions, its problems and possibilities, are bound up with its past. Nevertheless, many of the issues it faces are the same as, or similar to, the issues faced by other institutions of higher education in Taiwan and elsewhere. When institutions are undergoing a period of major change, all staff members are involved in one way or another. It is, however, those who are directly involved in management and governance who set the agenda for change and manage its overall direction. It is therefore important to understand how they view change and change processes. I report on a series of semi-structured interviews with five people involved in the management and governance of Wenzao. All of these people have been involved with Wenzao for a considerable period of time, all are familiar with its origins and its development, and all are fully aware of the pressures (global and national) that are currently impacting upon the provision of English language education in their institution and in other institutions in Taiwan.

A review of selected literature on the impact of globalisation on language education

As Graddol (2006, p. 70) has observed: "Almost everywhere educational systems are in a state of rapid change. Globalisation has led to a desperate race in many countries to upgrade the skills of their workforce faster than their economies are being forced up the value chain." The ongoing democratisation of tertiary education which has

accompanied the ever-increasing urgency to raise the educational level of the workforce, particularly in countries such as Taiwan which have limited natural resources, has not only led to growth in the number of tertiary educational institutions, it has also led to growing competition among them.[1] As student numbers fluctuate, as governments become more cautious about educational spending, as students and their parents become more informed about the cost and quality of educational options, and as staff become more mobile, tertiary institutions are increasingly struggling not only to compete but also simply to survive. Many no longer have the luxury to impose the type of entrance standards that once characterised the tertiary education sector. Thus, teaching has become more demanding at the same time as research excellence has become more critical, both in terms of perceived quality and, related to it, in terms of the ability to attract students and external funding, In such a context, attracting and retaining suitably qualified staff (including staff who teach English and staff who teach other subject areas through the medium of English) with the required combination of skills and knowledge is becoming increasingly difficult. In such a context, too, distinctiveness and the ability to attract international students can be critical factors in success. As Coleman (2006, p. 3) notes:

> The combination of higher individual fees, greater student mobility, and excess of supply over demand has accentuated the market character of HE: the student has become the customer. Universities are no longer institutions but brands. University rankings, modelled on North America, and which already inform student choice in the UK, Germany and other European countries, have now gone global thanks to Shanghai's Jiao Tong university <http://ed.sjtu.edu.cn/rank/2004/top500list.htm>.

In terms of perceived quality, English-speaking universities continue to dominate the international league tables (Shanghai Jiao Tong University, 2006) and they, and other English-speaking educational institutions such as polytechnics, continue, in general, to have more ability to attract international students than do Asian universities (Institute of International Education, 2006).

As Harris, Leung and Rampton (2001, p. 31) note, "[globalization] . . . is inextricably linked with the developments and demands of free market capitalism". Coleman (2006, pp. 5-6) observes that "the recruitment of international students and international staff, which English facilitates, leads to enhanced institutional prestige, greater success in attracting research and development funding, and enhanced employability for domestic graduates" so that "[institutional] and individual self-interest . . . coincide both for academic staff, whose international careers depend on a demonstrated ability to teach and publish in English, and for students whose access to a good employment track on graduation also depends heavily on their proficiency in English". Furthermore, "[thanks] to universities' dual function as teaching and researching institutions, a powerful impact is exerted by the language of academic publication. . . . and the research which teachers cite in today's classrooms is increasingly in English, not only in sciences but across the disciplinary panoply (Hoberg, 2004, p. 91, citing Ammon, 1998)". Discussion of the changing character of English (or Englishes), and of the unequal distribution of power and control in relation to what is included in the English curriculum and how achievement is assessed has thus had little impact on the problems faced by educational managers, academics, teachers and students in Asian countries who are increasingly obliged to

compete in the international arena. As Canagarajah (2005, p. xiv) notes, although "there is an emerging consensus that we need to relate to language norms differently", and although "it is increasingly accepted that we have to relate to Global English as a plural system with heterogeneous grammatical and discourse conventions" (p. xxvii), it is nevertheless still the case that "the way knowledge is spread . . . [displays] a one-sided imposition of homogeneous discourses and intellectual traditions by a few dominant communities".

There are significant problems for Asian tertiary institutions which are attempting to enter the global educational marketplace, a major barrier being English language proficiency. Thus, for example, Farrell and Grant (2005, p. 6) report on interviews with 83 human resources professionals, noting that in eight out of nine occupation areas investigated, there would be resistance to hiring Chinese graduates for work in a foreign company, the main reason being poor English. Even so, the situation is changing. Efforts are being made to encourage international students to study in Asia. Thus, for example, in September 2004, Ko Kheng Hwa, Managing Director of the Economic Development Board in Singapore, reported that Singapore aimed "to develop . . . into a thriving international education hub offering a rich spectrum of academic and specialty courses from secondary school to university levels", the expectation being that "the number of full time international students [would triple] to 150,000 in about 10 years' time". Furthermore, in December 2005, at the 11th meeting of the ASEAN in Kuala Lumpur, the Indian Prime Minister proposed setting up "Centres of English Language training in Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar and Vietnam" (Graddol, 2006, p. 115). In Singapore, English has gradually shifted from being a second language to becoming the main language of the home. In Malaysia in 2003, basic proficiency in English became a requirement for all foreign employees (p. 38). As Graddol (p. 45) notes:

> One of the most significant educational trends world-wide is the teaching of a growing number of courses in universities through the medium of English. The need to teach some subjects in English, rather than the national language, is well understood: in the sciences [where], for example, up-to-date text books and research articles are obtainable much more easily in one of the world languages and most readily of all in English.

So far as Taiwan is concerned, Jong-Tsun Huang (2003, October 13), former Minister of Education, noted in *The Current Development and Challenges of Higher Education in Taiwan* that the number of foreign students coming to Taiwan for study increased from 5,440 in 1992 to 7,331 in 2002. In order to further expand this number, the government is establishing scholarships to encourage foreign students to attend Taiwanese universities, creating joint university degree granting programs with foreign universities and encouraging the development of courses that are taught in English. In the academic year 2005 – 2006, twenty Taiwanese universities offered a total of 18 undergraduate programmes, 62 Master's programmes and 31 Doctoral programmes through the medium of English (Her, 2007, *Appendix 2*).

In common with many other countries in Asia, Taiwan is in the process of reforming and liberalizing its education system. This liberalization is intended to "give students the ability to meet the challenges caused by globalization, and therefore continue increasing Taiwan's international competitiveness", and to ensure that they have

"'analytical thinking skills', 'innovative skills' . . . and 'viewpoints that are global in nature'" (Department of Statistics, (Ministry of Education (Taiwan)), 2005, p. 4). In 1998, Taiwan set aside NT$150 billion to be spent over five years on education reform projects which covered all levels of education (Department of Statistics, (Ministry of Education), 2005, p. 6). A significant aspect of the reform and the 2005 amendment to the University Act which provided for the establishment of an evaluation committee which would "entrust academic organizations or professional evaluators to carry out regular evaluation on the universities and publish the results as reference for educational subsidies from the government" (Article 5), and also required that universities should establish review systems relating to "teaching, research, instruction and services" (Article 21) (Ministry of Justice (Taiwan), 2005, December 28).

Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages

Established in 1966 in Kaohsiung (the location of Taiwan's largest port, currently the fifth largest port in the world) by the Sisters of the Roman Union of the Order of St Ursula as the first five year junior college of languages in Taiwan, *Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages* (then named Wen Tzao in commemoration of the first Chinese consecrated as a bishop in the history of the Catholic Church in China, Wen-Tzao Lo 1616-1691) has traditionally been highly regarded as a destination for language education and liberal arts. It began as a college for girls, offering four languages: English, French, German and Spanish. In 1980, however, the Ministry of Education requested that it extend its mission to include the language education of boys in order that it could play a more central role in a national project involving the promotion of languages generally in Taiwan. In 1999, the college changed its name to *Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages* (hereafter Wenzao) and extended its range of activities to include a four-year degree-granting college. Since then, it has introduced a number of Masters level programs and its current aim is to become a university, still with a primary focus on language education.

Wenzao has always required its students to study at least two languages and it has gained a reputation for producing graduates who are able to use these languages productively. In this sense, it has been ahead of its time. It was one of the first Taiwanese institutions outside of the compulsory education sector to recognise the significance of the globalisation of English and to act on it, insisting that English should not be treated exclusively as an academic subject, but should play a central role in vocational, skills-centred education. It also recognised that students who could offer more than one language in addition to Chinese were likely to be sought-after in an increasingly global market place, one that required inter-cultural literacy and practical skills as much as, or more than, the primarily academic focus that then dominated Taiwanese educational institutions. It also gained a reputation for producing graduates who were aware of, and responsive to, issues of social and environmental significance.

Background to the interviews

The five people interviewed had the following roles at Wenzao at the time when the interviews took place, that is, in the period from February to April, 2004: the President, The Dean of Academic Affairs, two heads of department (the English department and the Foreign Language Instruction Department) and the Chairperson of the Board of Governors who was President of the college for over twenty years. Two

of those interviewed – the Chairperson of the Board of Trustees and the then Chairperson of the Foreign Language Instruction Department, are Sisters of the order of St Ursula and have been involved in the college since its establishment; two others – the Dean of Academic Affairs (then also the Vice President) is a former student of the college and has been associated with it for many years. The then Chairperson of the English Department has been associated with Wenzao since 1971. The then President, someone who has also had a long-term association with the institution through membership of its Board of Trustees, oversaw many of the recent changes and sought to ensure that these changes were consistent with the college's overall mission.

All of these people were interviewed according to an interview schedule. That interview schedule was, however, designed to refer to their specific areas of interest and expertise and so was slightly different in each case. Common to all of the interviews, however, was a request that these managers should identify and reflect on issues (social, economic, educational) that were impacting on their institution and, in particular, on the English curriculum, the English language proficiency achievements of students, and the education and training of teaching staff.

The interviews were tape recorded and transcribed. Although every effort was made to stick as closely as possible to the actual wording of the responses, some changes were made – changes that preserved the full meaning of the original but removed any material that was clearly not intended for publication (such as, for example, references to particular people by name). Interviewees were given copies of the transcripts and asked if there were any additional comments they wished to make. The material was then revised and resubmitted to the interviewees who were advised that they could make any changes they felt necessary in order to ensure that the final version of the material was a valid representation of their views and did not include any information that they would prefer to be omitted. All changes suggested by the interviewees at that stage were incorporated into the final version of the text. Where interviewees suggested different wording, the wording they suggested was included in the final version.

Although the interviews focused on a wide range of issues, including issues that were specific to Wenzao, only those issues that have widespread applicability (either within a national or an international context) are reported on here.

Reporting on the interviews

Main changes and factors influencing change

Former President and Chairperson of the Board of Governors: The main factor that has influenced changes is the changing pattern of economic development in Taiwan. In 1966, Taiwan was only just beginning to emerge as an economic force in the world; the 1970s, however, saw very major developments. Other major changes were: the end of martial law, the emergence of Kaohsiung as a free industrial processing zone (leading to greatly increased need for people with foreign language skills, particularly English), and the need for more personnel in the diplomatic/ foreign service (leading to the admission of boys in Wenzao from 1980 on); the growing need in the 1990s for more provision for two year post high school education (which led to the opening of a two year Junior College facility); the major changes that took place in Taiwan from 1999 (the first year of the implementation of a five year Action Plan

for educational reform).[2] In addition, there is technology – global improvements in technology have had a positive impact on school administration and management and on classroom practices. Technology inevitably influences both teaching and learning. A major shift is the shift towards the perception that students must accept responsibility for their own learning. Leading students towards sources of information and understanding, getting them to experiment and discover things for themselves is important and technology has an important role to play in this.

The negative aspect of the influence of the external environment, of economics and enterprise, has become such a leading power in our world that education is losing its independence in the area of educational policy and social conventions. This includes:

- Business and enterprise decide what is and who are most useful to them. As a result currently Humanities, because it is not "practical," is losing its ground. Even the Ministry of Education has announced that universities will be evaluated on the basis of graduate employment figures. This perspective is spreading in Taiwan and it is a dangerous one because it ignores the intrinsic value of education.

- Rating scales dominate all sectors: beginning from enterprise, down to universities, high schools, junior high schools, elementary schools, and even kindergartens.

The then President: In the 1990s, vocational education changed rapidly in order to accommodate rapid economic development. The increasing need for more qualified professionals meant that schools were constantly encouraged to upgrade, to diversify, to introduce new programs. In response, the number of educational institutions, including the range of programs offered, has grown. At the same time, however, the national birth rate has decreased. Competition among educational institutions has grown. In connection with this, we need to be aware of public perceptions. People want their children to go to university. That is their first choice. After that come colleges, then junior colleges. Similarly, parents generally perceive public universities to be better than private ones. Those institutions that resist change could end up with students who are rejected by other institutions.

The expansion of technology has led to changed expectations in relation to teaching methods and the content of teaching programs. To be part of the developments that are happening, teachers need to constantly upgrade their professional knowledge. To play a genuine part in the rapidly changing world of education, they need to be active in research. In a competitive and fast moving market place, you need to keep ahead. One of the main things that has had an impact on Wenzao is the fact that other institutions have changed.

The then Chairperson of the Foreign Language Instruction Department: In the past, as the entire nation moved toward development, society was simpler and students were more highly motivated and easier to teach. Although the students who came to Wenzao were generally somewhere in the middle (in terms of performance), they achieved well at Wenzao. They had a good foundation in language and their pronunciation, writing and spelling were generally good. Grades became more variable after the college was opened to boys. In the 1990s, as Taiwan became more

economically successful and as the numbers at Wenzao grew, the students became less highly motivated and it became more difficult for the teachers to give them individual attention. At the same time, the learning conditions improved in some ways – with better equipment and more varied teaching methods – although the students' language was generally less accurate. The prevailing mood was that fluency was more important than accuracy. Students became more used to acquiring things, to getting what they wanted without major effort. They became more interested in acquiring money than in getting a good job. As the country's wealth grew, there were more rich people and more middle class people and the gap between these people and the poor became more evident. A crucial factor in all of this was technology. This was the beginning of the technological generation. Necessity shifted from having a pair of shoes to having a cell phone. There were also major cultural changes. Through global technology, Western culture became more influential, particularly among the young people, and students seemed to have less respect for, and confidence in, their own culture. A critical change was the sense of immediacy that came with technology: "Just press a few buttons, and you'll get the information. There's no need to think. The younger generation is geared towards immediacy but learning a language takes time and effort."

Another change is that it is now more difficult to find appropriate staff. There are new departments, new requirements. There is more competition for staff.

The then Chairperson of the English Department: When Wenzao was founded, it was the only languages school in Taiwan. Many people came to study from other parts of Taiwan. One third of the students were from Kaohsiung and the south; one third from Taipei; one third from other parts of Taiwan. There were only 200 new entrants each year, 50 in each class: two classes majored in English, one in French, one in a combination of German (with 25 students) and Spanish (with 25 students). Students had more class contact time in English. The total number of graduation credits required in English was 230; it is now 220. The work schedule was better than it is now. It changed a lot after the tenth year of operation as the institution grew. Because the number of students was smaller in the early years, there was more time to give individual attention to students. There is now a wider gap between students on entry although most of them have a reasonable level. I believe that the best students perform better now than they did in the past but that the least able students perform worse than in the past. The wider gap between students on entry creates more problems for staff. Even so, it is our responsibility to make sure that they all progress to an acceptable level. This is more difficult as our administrative duties expand and as the expectation that staff will do research grows.

Cost is a major factor. . . . Fee increases are now affecting all institutions – public and private.

Retaining aspects of the institution's mission while adapting and changing

Former President and Chairperson of the Board of Governors: Wenzao needs to be creative and responsive in its thinking but it must also maintain its essence. . . . Another is to maintain the focus on liberal arts. Maintaining a liberal arts core, a focus on education rather than simply professional training, is critical. Professional training needs to be built on top of general education. It should never replace it. This is something we need to focus on in this period of transition. In addition, we need to

consider how best to allocate administrative tasks fairly and appropriately, according to the principle of delegation of authority. We cannot expect senior managers to do everything. . . . All in all, it is important to ensure that growth does not undermine quality. We need to be clear about our teaching objectives. We need to focus on what education, in the broader sense, is for.

The then President: Our graduates need to be employable in a range of areas so they need to have professional knowledge in other areas. This means that our staff members need to have knowledge and skills in a range of areas. We need to focus on extending our capacity.

The then Dean of Academic Affairs: An important aspect . . . is size. . . . The larger an institution becomes, the more diffuse it is likely to be.

Preferred changes

Former President and Chairperson of the Board of Governors: I would like to see the curriculum . . . providing a more complete reflection of the philosophy and characteristics that have distinguished this institution. An institution's vision should be reflected everywhere throughout the curriculum – in teaching, in research, in administration, in management. Research should include research on adult education. This is, after all, part of liberal arts, and this should be felt throughout the curriculum. We need to set up an academic research centre, including cross-cultural research, a centre that can continue Wenzao's vision and project it into the future. The teaching and learning of languages should include an emphasis on inter-cultural understanding.

The then President: Teaching staff need to develop in a range of areas, including developing genuine international and intercultural perspectives and they need to bring new knowledge and new perspectives into the classroom. One way of doing this is to engage in academic exchanges with other institutions. Another is to undertake doctoral study that is wide-ranging rather than too narrow. Doctoral research should be seen as an opportunity in the broadest sense - not just a way of obtaining a degree, but a way of becoming a permanent member of a research culture, a way of broadening horizons, understanding more about teaching and learning, understanding more about different cultural perspectives, becoming more aware of the ways in which we can enhance our own institution by learning from others. In recruiting new staff members, we need to focus not just on their language competence, but also on their professional knowledge, their understanding of teaching and learning, their awareness of international research, their competence in other professional areas.

We need to open up to the world beyond our immediate context. We need to appreciate and understand other cultural perspectives and bring this appreciation and understanding into our teaching in every area. . . . We are professional educators and this is something we need to take seriously. We need to know as much as possible about teaching and learning and we need to develop our teaching capacity. Our institution is known for its holistic approach to education as well as for its global perspective. This needs to be reflected in our staffing. Staff members need to develop knowledge and understanding that extends beyond their own subject area. We need to develop and maintain a research culture. Research needs to be seen as a critical part of what we do. Making this change is not easy – but it is necessary. Existing staff members need to understand that this is fundamental to our future. All staff members

in any institution of higher learning must engage in research. Otherwise, the institution cannot expect to be taken seriously.

The then Chairperson of the Foreign Language Instruction Department: We need to build relationships of trust and mutual understanding between administration and faculty. We need to streamline administration - reduce bureaucracy, reduce complexity, reduce the number and length of meetings. We all need to understand the pressures on one another and try to ease them wherever possible. Teaching staff are carrying heavy teaching loads at a time of major change. More and more is being expected of them. They need to feel valued and they need to feel that their efforts are appreciated.

The then Chairperson of the English Department: We need a clear, agreed direction so that we all understand what we are aiming to achieve. We need to recognise, and make use of the many strengths that staff have. Above all, we need clear policies about assisting students who are under-performing. It is not in the interests of the institution to have dropouts – and it is certainly not in the students' interest.

Ten year vision

The then President: Taiwan has been isolated for too long. It has lost many opportunities to participate in international organizations. I would like Wenzao to be an institution that is aware of, and responsive to, the outside world, one that is globally connected, an institution that has a unique national position in relation to language education, but also one in which students become socially, politically, culturally and economically aware, an institution that promotes understanding and respect for others and for humanity as a whole. I would like it to have a research centre that takes the lead in language learning nationally and also has a role to play internationally. I would like it to have a European centre too.

The then Chairperson of the Foreign Language Instruction Department: The situation in Taiwan is very fluid, political and economic change are taking place very rapidly, there is too much instability to make it realistic at this point to have a solid vision for the future in terms of the kind of institution that this should be. Whatever that is, whole person education should be at the centre, the holistic tradition should be developed and strengthened. Education is about people. Success isn't just about passing exams. It is about accepting responsibility, about making a contribution, about life and relationships. Above all, I would like to see an institution built on a solid foundation of good relationships – relationships between faculty and administration, faculty and students, relationships among faculty members, relationships built on co-operation and concern for one another. I would like to see a positive atmosphere, a happy place to teach and learn, a challenging place, a place that doesn't crush or overwhelm people, a place that supports people so that they can achieve. I would also like it to be financially stable.

The then Chairperson of the English Department: I would like to see Wenzao as an institution that is distinctive, one that promotes a particular approach to education, one that is united and progressive but one that is not afraid of change, or afraid to be different. . . . Remaining exactly as we are now is not an option. We need to accept the challenge of competition but move forward in a way that is a reflection of who we are and who we want to be.

Main frustrations in attempting to bring about change

The then Dean of Academic Affairs: The main frustration relates to the fact that there is currently too much centralization, too much expectation that things will be handled at the top level of college administration. We need to have more autonomous academic units with the capacity to develop and follow through on developments. We also need a greater level of understanding about the need for research, about the fact that the responsibilities of academic staff are not only teaching, but also research. There also needs to be more understanding of the fact that teaching involves much more than classroom interaction. It involves working together on curriculum matters, considering how best to develop self-access facilities and resources that encourage independence and critical thinking, looking at new ways of assessing performance. It involves working with management to achieve the best possible outcomes, rather than relying on management. It involves being prepared to take the initiative. . . .

I believe that people should work as a team, that there should be intellectual companionship. The support I want is not just support with the implementation of ideas, but also support in the development of ideas and concepts. If people became more involved, they would have more understanding of the issues and would derive intellectual satisfaction from what is achieved. We need to work quickly and efficiently. I sometimes wonder whether we should slow down the pace of change. That is what people seem to want but the result might be that the necessary changes just don't take place. In a competitive environment, people need to be clear about what needs to be achieved and they need to set out to achieve it as quickly and efficiently as possible. Stress and anxiety are inevitable in an environment of change and the longer processes of major change continue, the greater the build up of stress. Logically, what is needed is for people to take a genuine interest in what needs to be achieved and in how it can be achieved and to work together to put the changes in place as quickly and efficiently as possible.

The English Department: Meeting expectations

The then President: There are more students overall and so there are greater demands on the English department, particularly in terms of teaching students who are not majoring in English. The increase in subjects has led to an increase in expectations so far as the English Department is concerned. The timetable is not ideal. Now, for example, what might in the past have been a three hour teaching slot is often divided up into one hour sessions which take place at different times. Also, it is more difficult to find appropriate staff because of the requirement that new staff have doctorates. There is a great deal of competition for staff with doctorates, and even more for staff who have doctorates, are effective and experienced practitioners, have the motivation to continue doing research and improve generally, and an appreciation of what we are aiming, as an institution, to achieve.

It would be helpful if the English Department could review its curriculum and rationalise its offerings – offering fewer options in more concentrated sessions. This would reduce the burden on staff. . . . [The role of the English department] will change as national and global developments lead to changes in the profile of students. The globalisation of English will eventually lead to less need for a focus on English as a subject.

The entire nation is promoting the teaching and learning of English. The English Department should be involved in the debate and should take a leading role in promoting change and development. Its staff members need to . . . play a significant role, take responsibility. They are in an ideal position to promote and facilitate positive developments.

The then Chairperson of the Foreign Language Instruction Department: As we grow and develop, as new departments are added, it will become increasingly important to remember our mission so that we all move in the same direction. We need to find a way of adding that does not diminish or end in a loss of focus.

The English curriculum

The then President: So far as the English curriculum is concerned, we need a curriculum that is theory-driven and research-related. We need to establish clear, uncluttered pathways and clear links into areas such as translation and interpreting. We need staff who have a global perspective, who are aware of the world in which our students will be operating, who understand something of the other subject areas they are involved in, who know what will be required of them in the future.

The then Chairperson of the Foreign Language Instruction Department: I believe that we need better, more integrated courses and materials. In the past, textbooks were often more varied internally, with a range of different approaches, including approaches that were genuinely communicative in their orientation. Now, textbooks tend to be less well integrated and less clearly based on genuine language progression. They tend to focus on skills separately. There is more variety of books, but less coherence. If different courses rely on different books from different series, the sense of overall progression can get lost in the detail. Integrated skills teaching works better. If different courses are taught by different staff members, focus on different skills and use completely different texts, the danger is that there will be no overall coherence. Where courses are taught in blocks by the same staff member and in an integrated way, staff can get to know their students better and can be more efficient in terms of preparation and preparation time. The Ministry of Education requirement for Wenzao to upgrade resulted in a situation in which the focus moved from progressive, integrated skills-based development to an approach in which the skills began to be taught separately and overall coherence of programs became much more difficult to achieve. If it were possible to do so, I would reverse this trend.

The then Chairperson of the English Department: We need to have teachers who take a global perspective, who are not just specialists in one area of language development, such as, for example, writing, but who are flexible, who understand the whole area of language development, all of the skills involved, and can contribute in a general sense. We need to have more integrated courses, courses that involve integrated skills development.

We did have an integrated skills approach in the 1970s. We used set textbooks for integrated skills-based learning. After that, we moved to a separate skills approach, where courses were based on a single skill (e.g., reading). After that, we moved to dual skills courses (e.g., listening and writing). There is no clear rationale for this, or at least not one that is firmly based in theory. What happened was that our curriculum was externally evaluated and it was suggested by the evaluators that it would be better

to divide 6 hour course blocks into smaller blocks with different subject/ skill headings. The main argument for this type of modularization seems to have been that it gave students more opportunity for success. Under the new structure, students who were unsuccessful in one area might be successful in another. Once staff members began to select their own textbooks, the sense of overall coherence began to disappear. Another thing that reinforced this was the introduction, in 1997, of level-based classes (that is, of having different classes for students at different levels who were at the same stage of their program). This meant that the overall sense of program coherence began to be lost. If the level of students at the same stage of the same program is so different that they need to be taught different things in different classes, then it is difficult to maintain any real sense of overall program coherence. . . .

The then Dean of Academic Affairs: The German Department is making use of the Common European Framework, using six general proficiency bands. It is systematising the use of textbooks, teaching materials and test materials. There is a clear sense of direction and progression in the 5-year Junior college program and the 4-year evening college program. What they are doing now has been done in the English department for some time already.

English for specific purposes

The then Dean of Academic Affairs: Language learning takes time and effort. One way of providing students with more opportunities to learn language is to provide them with instructional materials that are effective not only in teaching English, but also in teaching subject content. There are several ways of achieving this. One way is to design English language courses that are specifically linked to students' major subjects such as, for example, international affairs. These English courses would support and reinforce subject area learning.

We need to make a distinction between English for Specific Purposes and subject or content knowledge. There is a role for Chinese in the teaching of subjects but there is also a role for English. For example, readings from general magazines such as *Time* and *The Economist* and from professional journals and magazines can be included in English courses. Evidence from proficiency studies over the past seven or eight years indicates that students have strong listening skills even though there are no listening skills classes in the fourth and fifth years of study. This is related to the fact that they listen to English constantly. If both staff and students are capable of using English in their professional subject areas, then they should do so. This is a niche that we need to pursue. It should not only be the English department that uses English as an instructional tool.

The standard of English proficiency of graduates now and in the past

Former President and Chairperson of the Board of Governors: I believe that standards are not as high overall as they were when there were fewer students. We need to focus on making sure that our students have a solid language foundation and personal formation on which to build their professional skills.

President: I believe that most teaching staff do not believe that proficiency standards have improved overall. . . . It is important to have internationally recognized proficiency standards in all languages. This is why Wenzao intends establishing a proficiency test centre. However, there are all sorts of factors that affect proficiency

achievements over time. We need to think not only about comparing the achievements of our current students with those of students in the past, but also about comparing our current achievements as an institution with those of other institutions. There was much less competition in the past.

It is not only overall proficiency that matters. What also matters is competence in particular areas. Our students need to do well in speech competitions, in public performances of various kinds. They need to learn to respond well to challenges of various kinds.

The then Dean of Academic Affairs: It is always possible to improve the proficiency gains of students. To do this, we need to focus specifically on proficiency. We need to clearly establish proficiency benchmarks and let students know what our expectations are and how they are performing in relation to these expectations. We need to be clear about what students need to do in order to improve their proficiency and we need to re-evaluate our English language programs in relation to proficiency targets. We need to establish a clear correlation between teaching hours and proficiency gains.

The then Chairperson of the Foreign Language Instruction Department: I believe that the overall standard of proficiency is fairly good, not very different from what it was in the past - but more is expected of students now. The main difference is not in what we achieve, but in what others are now achieving. . . . Competition has become a major factor. New colleges are being opened all the time, some of them financed by individuals or companies. In this context, we need to think very carefully about how we are going to develop.

There is also the question of entry standards. We have five year Junior College students when they are younger and we have longer to work with them. In at least one area, entrants to our two-year and four-year programs are less proficient overall than students who have completed three years of our Junior College program. We need to focus on developing teaching methodologies that meet the needs of our older entrants. In some areas, we may need to think carefully about entry requirements.

The then Chairperson of the English Department: The range of proficiency achievement is wider than it was in the past. Some students perform better than in the past, but there is a lengthening tail of students at the lower end. . . . Now, the students come from a wider range of backgrounds and there is a more marked difference between the rich and the poor. Many students have less supportive home backgrounds than was generally the case in the past.

Training new and existing staff

The then President: In general, we need to run more workshops in different areas, such as curriculum and teaching methodologies. We need to establish a set of criteria such as, for example, competency standards, supported by workshops, in the use of electronic equipment, computer programs and laboratories. New teaching staff, apart from having a sound orientation . . . also need to be provided with in-service training.

Increasing self-access

The then Dean of Academic Affairs: Nowadays, students are very good at technology.

Also, they seem not to enjoy attending lectures or doing language practice drills as much as they did in the past. It makes sense to create e-learning websites that allow students access at times that are convenient to them. It also makes sense to make use of the things they enjoy in order to achieve the outcomes we want. The more effective our e-learning initiatives are, the more time staff will have to conduct research. Staff members need to be innovative and creative in their approach to teaching and learning. One of our current aims is to increase teaching quality. The Office of Academic Affairs now has a policy that teaching staff should upload their syllabuses before the beginning of the academic year. Staff members now need to create at least one e-course. These courses are evaluated by experts and, where they are judged to be of sufficient quality, the courses are put on line. Teachers have a choice in terms of course delivery modes. Thus, for example, staff members can conduct face-to-face teaching for half of each semester, or they can provide a complete e-learning environment, or have face-to-face teaching for one third of each semester and website learning for the other two thirds. Teaching staff now have options. There is inbuilt flexibility – flexibility for staff and flexibility for students. Students have greater control over their own learning.

The new building will be equipped with a teaching platform, including computers, tape recorders, VCR, electronic blackboards. In the future, teachers will be able to go to class with a USB flash disk only. They will then be able to link to their own website or e-course. Since there will be a video recorder in each classroom, students who need to be absent from class, can view the class videotape. Alternatively, teachers can create videos at home and post them on their web sites.

What all of this should lead to is not only an increase in the availability of web-based e-learning resources with all of the flexibility for staff and students that is associated with it, but also an improvement in quality as different staff members share resources, add to and modify existing courses and adapt courses in line with student responses and learning outcomes. The development of e-courses should lead to a higher level of co-operation among teaching staff.

Where two or more staff members are teaching the same course, a course leader can develop materials – where they have not already been developed – with others contributing ideas, suggestions etc. so that, ultimately, workloads will be reduced and quality will be assured. Internet-based resources will become richer and richer, reflecting the combined efforts of staff members over the years. Self-access provides great opportunities where teaching staff get together and organise and systematise their teaching materials. It involves, too, a gradual transfer of responsibility for their own learning to students who can access resources in a medium that is familiar to them and about which they are generally enthusiastic.

For all of this to succeed, there must be good, systematic course planning and resource planning, planning that is based on a sound understanding of what is needed in order to make overall proficiency gains and specific improvements in particular areas. Students need direction in terms of what to do in resource centres in order to achieve particular outcomes. What we do not want is directionless or aimless activities. Good planning is the essence of good resource development and effective resource use. Teaching staff can make more time available for research and self

development if they are prepared to make the effort in the initial developmental stages.

Further comments
The then President: We need to operate in a way that is consistent with Ministry of Education policy but we also need to take advantage of the liberalization of education. We are free to make many decisions for ourselves and we need to use this freedom in a responsible and creative way. We need to be clear about the philosophy and the theory that drives the curriculum and we need to be theory-driven and consistent in our approach to pedagogy and methodology so that we can justify our position and meet challenges in considered ways. We need to use technology in ways that enhance learning and reduce the burden on teaching staff.

The then Chairperson of the English Department: I think there are three things that are critical:

- Successful teaching needs to be at the centre of everything we do;
- Successful teaching is teaching that is inclusive, teaching that focuses on the needs of all students whatever their capacities;
- Successful teaching needs to be supported by solid, reliable policy-making and good administration.

Identifying the major issues emerging from the interviews
The interviewees identified a number of factors that are currently having an effect on higher education institutions generally and on the teaching and learning of English in particular. These include *political, economic, demographic and social considerations, including industrial and commercial globalisation, the ongoing globalisation of English, the spread and increasing sophistication of technology, and the effects of technology and the ready availability of a wide range of consumer goods on learner attitudes and approaches and on teaching styles.*

Their concerns relate to *increasing competition in the education marketplace* and hence to *the need for an improved research profile* (seen largely in terms of staff capabilities and research capacity, to be achieved through the appointment of appropriate staff and the development of existing staff), *distinctiveness* (achieved, in this case, through retaining as much as possible of the original mission of the institution and designing an overall curriculum that is holistic and coherent and centres on languages and liberal education), *teaching and learning excellence leading to increased proficiency gains and success in other acknowledged tests of language skills such as speech competitions* (achieved through a more systematic approach to curriculum and syllabus specification, improved teaching and learning materials, more innovative approaches to assessment, the effective use of internationally recognised proficiency benchmarking, and the creation of language courses that relate directly to other subject areas as well as the teaching of some subject areas through the medium of English), *flexibility and adaptability* (achieved through willingness to transform the institution in line with national aspirations and student needs and the increased use of technological resources in order to improve flexibility), *responsiveness to individual student needs and aspirations* (achieved through the use of self-access, web-based materials and a focus on all students, including those who are less able), and *employability of graduates* (achieved through collaboration with national and

international educational, industrial and commercial organisations, and through ensuring that a high level of language proficiency is accompanied by global awareness, adaptability, creativity and the ability to a acquire new skills readily). In addition, so far as the institution as a whole is concerned, there is a recognition that Taiwan, in common with many other countries, is undergoing rapid change and that, in order to be responsive to changes as they take place, *administration needs to be efficient, streamlined and less bureaucratic.*

There is general agreement that there is now *a wider range of ability among students.* It is considered that the highest achievers do extremely well, but that there is a lengthening tail of students who are performing less well. There is also a general feeling that the increased influence of Western culture, the increased availability of consumer goods, and the increased availability of information (through the world wide web) have led to a situation in which *students generally expect more instant gratification than they did in the past.* Students are perceived as being less willing to participate in more traditional approaches to learning (such as lectures), less willing to devote time to gaining language skills and, therefore, more likely to focus on *fluency rather than accuracy.*

In this context, it is considered important to capitalize on those things that students respond positively to (such as *e-based learning*) at the same time as attempting to ensure that *language learning is purposeful*, that it is based on *coherent programs* that are designed to underpin *genuine proficiency gains*, that *both accuracy and fluency are treated as being equally important*, and that *individual skills development does not replace integrated skills-based teaching and learning.* In a more general sense, it is considered important that *professional training should not replace education.*

As the institution grows in size and is required to be more competitive, it has become *more difficult to cope financially, more difficult to attract appropriate staff* (staff who are not only well qualified, but are also effective teachers and researchers), *more difficult to maintain a sense of distinctiveness, more difficult to maintain a supportive environment* in which staff and students feel valued and appreciated. Increase in size and diversity have also led to *more timetable problems and a greater need to rationalize offerings.*

Repeated references were made by these managers to *the need for staff to understand the position of management in changing times and to co-operate and collaborate with management in effecting change*. Many, perhaps all, of these difficulties are also being experienced by other higher education institutions both in Taiwan and in other parts of the world.

Endnotes

1. In 2005, the Taiwanese government spent NT$445,697,170 on education, that is, a total of 18.53% of government expenditure in that year, and the number of students in Taiwanese universities and colleges (of which there were 145) was 938,648 (Ministry of Education (Taiwan), 2006).

2. Following the Ministry of Education's Sixth National Conference on Education, a Committee for Deliberation on Education Reform was established and produced an Advisory Report on Education Reform. The emphasis was on greater access to education, more personal attention to students, increased routes to advanced study, increased quality and a

move towards lifelong learning. In 1998, NT$150 billion was allocated to a five year plan, beginning in 1999, which involved: building a complete education system, popularization of kindergarten system, building complete systems for teacher training, promotion of improved technical education, promotion of lifelong learning and online teaching, furthering home education, improvement of education for handicapped people, improvement of education for Aboriginals, easier access to higher education, creation of new student counseling systems, increase of education funds and expansion of research into education (Department of Statistics (Ministry of Education), 2005, pp. 6-7).

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The Chinese philosophical/ rhetorical tradition: Debunking some myths

Huang Wu, Hsiao-Li
Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao (School of Māori and Pacific Development)
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato (University of Waikato)
Private Bag 3105, Hamilton, New Zealand
[hh5@waikato.ac.nz]

Abstract
In the process of conducting research on the overall rhetorical structuring and internal discourse structuring of texts written in English (120 texts) and in Chinese (120 texts) by experienced and novice writers on the basis of prompts designed to elicit one of four discourse modes (*recount, argument, explanation* and *classification*), I reviewed literature in a number of areas. One of these areas was contrastive rhetoric where I found a number of works that seemed to be based on misunderstanding and/or misrepresentation of the Chinese philosophical/ rhetorical tradition. This short article begins by providing a brief outline of some critical aspects of that tradition, identifies some of the ways in which it has been misinterpreted and/ or misrepresented in literature in the area of contrastive rhetoric and discusses some of the potential dangers associated with misinterpretation/ misrepresentation of this type, dangers that include the creation and promotion of stereotypes based on unacknowledged value judgments.

The Chinese philosophical rhetorical tradition: A short overview

In China, there was no separation between philosophy and rhetoric until comparatively recently (Kennedy, 1998) and there have been many different schools of thought whose recommendations have been very different. Many of these Chinese schools of thought have been largely neglected in the West. As Oliver (1976, p. 145) observes:

> If Western rhetoricians neglect the rhetorical theories of Gautama Buddha and Confucius, they at least regard their names with familiarity. We must suspect, meanwhile, that very few of them have even heard the names of other great classical Chinese rhetoricians, including Meng-k'o (known in the West as Mencius), Chuang-Tzu (or Chuang-Chou), Mo-Tzu (the romantic idealist), or Han Fei-Tzu (the legalistic, cynical pragmatist).

Many major developments in Chinese philosophy/ rhetoric can be traced back to the Chou dynasty (the Classical period), which lasted from the time when people from the Western plateau conquered the valley of the Huang (Yellow River) and its tributaries in Northern China (c1040 BCE) till 221BCE when a new dynasty, the Ch'in dynasty, typified by autocratic rule and the rejection of many of the influences from the past, began the process of unification of the country.

Among the major schools of thought associated with the Chou dynasty are *Confucianism, Yin and Yang, Mohism, Taoism, Sophistry and the School of Names* and *Legalism.* The differences among these can be profound. Thus, for example, whereas "Taoist rhetoric sees vagueness as a virtue and argumentation as futility; Confucianism strives for clarity and recommends speech as a sharp knife with which to whittle away the sophistries and fallacies from a subject, leaving its true nature

unsullied and unavoidably clear" (Oliver, 1969, p. 3). It is, therefore, unwise to generalize about Chinese approaches to written communication on the basis of the sayings/ recommendations of one particular thinker or one particular school of thought.

The impact of different schools of thought and different thinkers associated with them has varied over time, as has the way in which the thinking of different scholars has been interpreted. One example is the interpretation of *li* (禮). Although it is often now supposed that Confucius[1] and his follower, Meng-k'o (Mencius) considered ceremony and social norms to be paramount, Confucius also placed considerable emphasis on 'moral responsibility' and Meng-k'o consistently emphasized the importance of 'courageous realism' (Oliver, 1969, p. 6).

While Mohism (associated with the thinking of the 5th century BCE thinker Mo Tze and his followers) is generally, in common with Confucianism, thought of as endorsing the subordination of the individual to the collective with the aim of achieving social harmony, it nevertheless recommended a style that aimed for practical results and took full account of the needs of audiences (Oliver 1971, pp. 183-193). In fact, in the 4th and 3rd centuries BCE, Mohist thinkers were responsible for the formulation of "a logical system that has some resemblance to dialectic as practiced in the Greek philosophical schools" (Kennedy, 1998, p. 158, referring to Graham, 1978). Consistent with Confucianism, Taoism and Mohism is a school of thought, *Yin and Yang*, that focuses on the balancing of primordial entities, such as light and dark and life and death. From this perspective, social order is seen as involving the achievement of harmony. As Oliver (1971, pp. 176 – 177) observes, the belief is that "[d]ifferences of viewpoint cannot be overcome by contention" and so it is "disadvantageous to urge ardently acceptance of one's own views". This has had an enduring impact on Chinese approaches to persuasion and argumentation. However, it could be interpreted as more of a prescription for reasoned argumentation (politely and considerately worded) than it is for the avoidance of the expression of opinions.

Chinese sophistry and legalism are different in many ways from Confucianism, Taoism, Mohism and Yin and Yang. Chinese sophistry was particularly in evidence in the 5th and 4th centuries BCE but may have begun up to a century earlier. The sophists had a particular interest in public speaking and, in particular, in the promotion of the interests of the individual through an emphasis on argumentation (often fallacious argumentation) and on analogy and paradox. In fact, reliance on historical sources, quotations from the classics, analogy, paradox and use of proverbs are particularly associated with the Chinese sophists (Kennedy, 1998, pp. 158 – 161). Similar in some ways to the sophists were the legalists, the most notable of whom, Han Fei-tsu (born around 280 BCE), has been referred to as "the Machiavelli of ancient China" (Oliver, 1971, p. 216). The primary aim of the legalists was to replace traditional norms by unquestioning acceptance of a ruler's authority. Those who wished to exert influence on powerful rulers were recommended to pander to their desires, interests and prejudices rather than pursuing logical argument (Watson, 1967, pp. 75 – 76). In this connection, it is important to note that the works of Chinese sophists and legalists have been frequently condemned.

Even this very brief overview of some of the main strands of ancient Chinese thinking which have impacted, to a greater or lesser extent, on contemporary Chinese oratory

and writing should be sufficient to alert readers to the multi-faceted nature of Chinese approaches to discourse and make them wary of generalization.

Some examples of misinterpretation/ misrepresentation of the Chinese philosophical tradition in literature on contrastive rhetoric

The origin of studies in contrastive rhetoric is generally traced to an article by Kaplan (1966) in which, on the basis of an analysis of scripts written in English by learners of English, he proposed five different types of paragraph development, associating each with what he identified as particular cultural groups (English; Semitic; Oriental; Romance; Russian). At that time, he regarded each of these paragraph development types as being influenced by culturally specific thought patterns. With the 'Oriental group' (Chinese, Thai and Korean), he associated an indirect spiral form of development (one in which a subject is approached from a variety of indirectly related points of view) as opposed to the linear, logical form of paragraph development he associated with English (presented as typically beginning with a topic statement supported by examples related to the central theme). More recently, Kaplan (1987; 1988) has argued that the differences he detected are more likely to reflect different writing conventions than different patterns of thought. From a position in which differences that were believed to exist in the writing of different groups were attributed to patterns of thought, Kaplan moved to a position in which they were attributed to cultural predispositions (c.f. Kaplan, 1966 & Kaplan, 1987; 1988). In each case, the conclusions reached, the assumptions underlying these conclusions and the ways in which they may be interpreted need to be given careful consideration. Laclau and Mouffe (2001 [1985]) argue that discourses and the identities produced through them are inherently political entities that involve the construction of antagonisms and the exercise of power. From this perspective, it becomes apparent that articles such as these run the risk of establishing and/or reinforcing stereotypes, partly through the use of metaphors – the straight line, the spiral etc. Furthermore, as Kubota (1999, p. 11) observes, "a . . . culture is not a monolithic, fixed, neutral, or objective category but rather a dynamic organism that exists in discursive fields in which power is exercised". In addition, cultural hybridity is becoming the norm in many parts of the world (Hermans & Kempen, 1998). In highlighting this, the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CoE, 2001, p.4) uses the terms 'plurilingualism' and 'pluriculturalism' to refer to a context in which ". . . as an individual's experience of language in its cultural context expands . . . he or she . . . builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact".

Kaplan (1972) has claimed that the indirectness he believed he had detected in the writings of the Oriental group may be related to the influence of the *ba gu wen* (eight-legged essay), a standard compositional format employed by entrants to civil service examinations from the mid 15th century until the early 20th century. In fact, he claimed that this format was typical of expository and persuasive writing in China, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Singapore. Others, including Cai (1993), have also referred to the importance of this format and, in connection with it, of the Confucian concepts of *ren* (仁)(benevolence) and *li* (禮). The first of these relates to the values associated with moral obligation; the second to correct behaviour/ etiquette. Applicants for civil service positions were obliged to demonstrate their ability to promote social harmony through application of the principles of *ren* and *li* in the context of compositions that demonstrated knowledge of the classics, included parallelism and repetition, were

strictly limited in terms of number of words and were made up of eight parts as follows:[2]

poti (破題)(opening) – generally involving two sentences introducing the topic;
chengti (承題)(amplification) – elaboration of the topic;
qijiang (起講) (preliminary exposition) – focus on straightforward exposition;
qigu (起股) (first argument) – generally made up of a limited number of sentence pairs that convey similar meaning in different words;
zhonggu (中股) (second argument– the main argument) – a series of parallel sentences constituting the main argument;
hougu (後股) (third argument) – an series of parallel sentences that extend on the ideas in the main argument or add to them;
xugu (束股) (final argument) – groups of parallel sentences made up of between two and five lines that revisit the main topic/theme and complete any points that remain outstanding;
dajie (大結) (conclusion) – concluding remarks – straightforward exposition but allowing for a measure of creativity.

Cai (1993, p.9) has claimed that:

> English compositions by Chinese ESL students have consistently shown evidence of use of either the eight-legged or the four-part[3] or the three-foot organizational patterns, a restricted expression of personal feelings and views, an indirect approach to the chosen topic, and a preference for prescribed, formulaic language, all of which are so unfamiliar to native English-speaking instructors that they mistakenly perceive these students as 'poor writers'.

The four-part model to which Cai refers is the *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* model, a model that introduces a topic (*qi*), expands on it (*cheng*), presents another viewpoint on the topic (*zhuan*) and then sums up/ concludes (*he*). Fagan and Cheong (1987) analysed 60 essays written by Chinese ESL ninth grade students, claiming that over 50% of these essays followed the four-part model rather than a topic sentence supported by other sentences (which they represented as 'the English pattern'). This raises a number of issues. First, the fact that the student texts examined were generally very short means that the focus was, once again, as in so many studies, essentially on the paragraph. Secondly, there seems to have been no valid reason for confining consideration of typical English text structuring to *topic-support*. After all, as Chen (2007) points out, the Problem-Solution (*PSn*) pattern (see Hoey, 1983; van Dijk, 1980), which typically involves four parts (Situation - Problem – Response to problem/ Solution – Evaluation) is a very common one although, of course, what Chen refers to as "the Western Problem-Solution pattern (and its elaboration)' and 'the Chinese four-part pattern' are "by no means the only common patterns expected in Britain or in China" (Chen, 2007, p. 139). In fact, Kirkpatrick (1997) has argued convincingly that neither the *ba gu wen* (eight legged essay) nor the *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* have much impact on contemporary Chinese writing, adding that "as these structures do not influence the writing in Chinese of these students, they are unlikely to exert a great influence upon their writing in English". In later works, Kirkpatrick (2002a & 2002b) observes that contemporary Chinese textbooks actually advocate a linear style of writing. A more

recent study, by Liao and Chen (2009), also reaches a similar conclusion. They compared the rhetorical strategies of argumentative writing recommended in three Chinese and three English L1 composition textbooks (each published before 1990), finding that they made similar recommendations in relation to, for example, macrostructure, introductory and concluding sections, positioning of thesis statements and support of arguments. They did, however, maintain that they differed in that only the Chinese textbooks emphasized moral and historical appeals and the use of analogy, set phrases and proverbs (p. 695). In connection with the research of Chen (2007), Kirkpatrick (1997; 2002a & b) and Liao and Chen (2009), it is interesting to note that Kubota (1997) has reached similar conclusions with reference to Japanese writers. She has observed, for example, that representations of Japanese expository prose as being characterized by "a classical style (*ki-sho-ten-ketsu*), reader responsibility, and an inductive style with a sudden topic shift" (see, for example, Hinds (1983, 1987, 1990)) can be challenged by "multiple interpretations of *ki-sho-ten-ketsu* offered by composition specialists in Japan" (p. 460). In addition, she found that approximately half of the 46 Japanese university students involved in a study in which they were asked to write essays in expository and persuasive modes in Japanese and in English used similar patterns in their Japanese and English essays (Kubota, 1998) and that overall low scores in relation to ESL organization appeared to be largely influenced by lack of experience in English composition and lack of English language skills (p. 86).

Mohan and Lo (1985) have not only noted that contemporary Chinese books of rhetoric advocate a direct writing style[4] but also that the *wen-yan* style included a number of varieties in addition to the *ba gu wen* (eight-legged essay). They have also observed that the *wen-yan* style was largely replaced in the early 20th century by the *bai-hua* style, a style that is not only direct but draws heavily on spoken language. However, even if it were the case that the *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* model was typical of contemporary Chinese writing, it is important to stress that it is a model that has often been misrepresented. Mo (1985, pp. 63 & 71) has argued that this model is, in fact, linear rather than circular, and Cahill (2003, p.170) has observed that its third stage model is not typically a 'turn', a digression or a rhetorical move of circularity, but "the occasion to develop an essay further by alternative means". Furthermore, Chou (1989) has noted some striking similarities between the *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* model and the conventional superstructure - *introduction-body-conclusion* – that is often recommended for English essays. Finally, Lin (1987), in examining 50 samples of expository writing submitted in the context of the qualifying examination for Taiwanese government employment, found no instances of circular paragraph development.

Taylor and Chen (1991) examined the introductions to 31 academic papers in geophysics and related fields.[5] Of the 31, 11 were written in English by first language speakers of English. The others (10 written in English and 10 in Chinese) were written by speakers of Chinese as a first language. They found that each of four moves identified by Swales (establishing the field; summarizing relevant previous research; identifying a gap; introducing the project by stating its purpose and objectives) was present in all cases. The Chinese scientists were, however, less likely to elaborate the moves and tended to pay less attention to summarizing previous research, citing fewer references. As they noted, the second of these may have had less to do with writing conventions than the fact that extensive research archives were not readily available.

Furthermore, it seems likely that a lack of elaboration is commonplace among those who are obliged to write in a second language whatever that language may be and it also seems likely that Chinese academics have, in general, fewer opportunities to submit their work for publication and, therefore, fewer opportunities to rehearse academic article structuring.

A study by Zhu (1997) of 20 sales letters written in Chinese revealed that although some of them included indirect expression, all of them were developed in a linear way without 'circularity' or 'digression' (p. 543). Similarly, a study by Kong (1998) of business request letters written in English, some by speakers of English as a first language, others by speakers of Chinese as a first language, revealed a similar move structure although there were differences in terms of 'face relationships' (pp. 137-138).

Some studies have claimed that there are some significant similarities between samples of texts written by contemporary writers from Chinese-speaking and English-speaking backgrounds. Others have claimed that there are some significant differences. Thus, for example, Matalene (1985), on the basis of the examination of essays written in Chinese, has claimed that they differ from essays by students from Anglo-American backgrounds in that they typically (a) include assertions rather than proofs, (b) present arguments later, and in a less direct way, and (c) rely heavily on appeals to history, tradition and authority. It may be, however, that these findings are attributable as much to the context in which the writing was produced as they are to general characteristics of Chinese writers. Similarly, although it is certainly true that Confucianism is associated with a high level of respect for collective wisdom, it does not necessarily follow from this, as Ng (2002) asserts, that students who have been influenced by Confucianism will be more reluctant than others to state and defend positions with which there is likely to be disagreement. Once again, context may be a deciding factor. Even so, there *are* some things that have been said to be typical of the writing in English of students from a Chinese background that may be present irrespective of context. Thus, for example, Hinds (1987, pp, 143 & 146) has asserted that readers from an Anglo-American cultural background are more likely to make use of extensive cohesive signaling than are writers from some other backgrounds and Wang, Chen and Hsu (1998) have observed that Chinese writers, when writing in English, make more frequent use of ellipsis than is typically the case of Anglo-American writers. These things are likely to be due, in part at least, to the fact that Chinese is a pro-drop language, that is, one in which certain classes of pronoun may be omitted where their referents can be contextually recovered, particularly in subject position (Huang, 1989).

The dangers inherent in misinterpreting and/or misrepresenting the Chinese philosophical/ rhetorical tradition

It is important to acknowledge and take account of the linguistic and cultural impact of globalization. It is also important to recognize one's own positioning as a researcher and the impact that that positioning may have on the research. Otherwise, there is a danger that the creation and promotion of stereotypes based on unacknowledged value judgments will be perpetuated. Thus, for example, Kubota (1999, pp. 10-11) notes that "[l]abels used for representing cultures are produced, reinforced, and contested by discourses that manifest power struggles within the culture and between cultures".

In connection with this, it is important to note that references to aspects of Chinese history and Chinese rhetorical traditions have not always been adequately contextualized and have sometimes been based on assumptions rather than evidence. These sorts of assumptions are now beginning to be questioned. Thus, for example, it was noted above that the *qi-cheng-zhuan-he* model has been found to have much in common with the conventional superstructure *introduction-body-conclusion* (Chou, 1989) and to have a tendency towards linearity rather than circularity (Cahill, 2003; Mo, 1985). Furthermore, although some researchers have detected some interesting differences between the products of Chinese and Anglo-American writing (Fagan & Cheong, 1987; Hinds, 1987; Huang, 1989; Matalene, 1985; Wang, Chen & Hsu, 1998), analysis of the structure of English and Chinese suggests that some of these differences (e.g. subject omission and paucity of cohesive signalling) may be attributable, in the case of first language speakers of Chinese writing in English, to problems with the referential system of English rather than to fundamental differences in perceptions of the roles of writer and reader. In addition, a number of researchers have found significant similarities between aspects of Chinese and Anglo-American writing (Kong, 1998; Lin, 1987; Zhu, 1997). What all of this indicates is the fact that it is unwise to make broad generalizations about contemporary Chinese writing, or indeed, about the writing of any heterogeneous group, on the basis of specific instances.

Endnotes

1. Confucius was a contemporary of Guatama Buddha who died in 479BCE (10 years before the birth of Aristotle).

2. This type of essay was first introduced into civil service exams of 1487 and 1496 (Wilson, 1995) but the essay type dates back at least to the Song Dynasty (Lui, 1974).

3. They indicated that this model included: *qi* (preparation for the topic); *cheng* (introduction and development of the topic); *jun* (turn to a seemingly unrelated topic); and *he* (summing up)

4. A classical style of written Chinese based on the grammar and vocabulary of literary Chinese in ancient China.

5. These were: metallurgy, mineral processing, materials science, and materials and mechanical engineering.

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Participant responses to a tertiary-level Māori language immersion programme: Reporting on a questionnaire-based survey

Sophie Nock
Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao (School of Māori and Pacific Development)
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato (University of Waikato)
Private Bag 3105, Hamilton, New Zealand
[sophnock @waikato.ac.nz]

Abstract
The overall aim of the research project reported here was to collect and analyse data relating to views of students who participated in the Māori language component of a degree programme (*Te Tohu Paetahi*) offered by the University of Waikato in 2008. The focus here is on the responses of the 25 questionnaire respondents who were in the *Hukatai* (beginner) language stream. In setting up the programme, every effort was made to ensure that those factors widely regarded as impacting positively on Māori student success rates were catered for. Nevertheless, careful analysis of the data reveals that the presence of a few success inhibiting factors relating to physical and teaching styles and resources were sufficient to destabilize some learners. It also reveals the fact that almost all of the students had little understanding of language proficiency development levels and significantly overestimated their proficiency gains.

Introduction to *Te Tohu Paetahi*

As a result of an initiative in the late 1990s involving a group of senior academic staff at the University of Waikato (including Te Wharehuia Milroy, the late Dr. Hirini Melbourne and John Moorfield), *Te Tohu Paetai*, was introduced in 1991. This was the first Bachelor's degree in New Zealand involving an intensive, fast-track route through a major in *te reo Māori* and a range of other courses delivered through the medium of *te reo Māori*. This initiative represented a response to concern about the future of *te reo Māori* in a context where inter-generational transmission was severely limited and the number of fluent speakers seemed inadequate to ensure a viable future for the language. Applicants for *Te Tohu Paetahi* were rigorously screened, the aim being to accept only those who were wholly committed to learning the language and who were, therefore, most likely to be able to cope with the demand of an intensive programme of this type. In addition, every effort was made to ensure that each group would be varied, including a mix of male and female participants of different ages and backgrounds and with different experiences, including different amounts of exposure to *te reo Māori*. In this way, an attempt was made to replicate, to the extent possible, the type of secure *whānau* (extended family) environment in which children generally acquire their first language.

In the first year of study, *Te Tohu Paetahi* participants focus exclusively on *te reo Māori* in an intensive fast track immersion context which provides them with more exposure to the language than would be possible in the case of mainstream students, the aim being to provide that "quantity and quality of involvement" that Johnson and Swain (1997, p. xiii) associate with immersion programmes. Except in the case of the first iteration of the programme in 1991 (when eight language papers at three different levels were taught in a single year), *Te Tohu Paetahi* participants have generally taken six papers in *te reo Māori* in their first year of study, attending classes from 9.00a.m. till 3.00p.m. for five days each week in four week blocks. Between 1997 and

2008, there were two streams – an advanced stream (*Rehutai*) and a beginner stream (*Hukatai*). Students in the advanced stream completed a major in *te reo Māori* by the end of their second year of study; students in the beginner stream completed a major in *te reo Māori* in their third year of study (or in their second year if they participate in summer school courses). Since 2009, however, the staffing situation has meant that it has been possible to make only the *Hukatai* stream available.

A typical morning begins with an opening *karakia*/prayer (to clear the pathway for successful learning) and usually three times a week a thirty minute *kapa haka* (performing arts) session (intended to awaken the spirit). There are two breaks – one at mid-morning, the other at lunchtime. As previously noted, students focus on *te reo Māori* papers in their first year of study. These papers include: MAOR111 (Te reo Māori Introductory 1), MAOR112 (Te reo Māori Introductory 2), MAOR211 (Te reo Māori Post Introductory 1), MAOR212 (Te reo Māori Post Introductory 2), MAOR213 (Te reo Māori Post Intermediate 1), and MAOR214 (Te reo Māori Post Intermediate 2).

In addition to the learning of *te reo Māori*, *Te Tohu Paetahi* students in their second and third years of study are able to enrol in papers offered by Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao (School of Māori and Pacific Development) and/or offered by other Schools/ Faculty. Although in the initial years of the running of the programme, many other Schools/ Faculty offered papers (in, for example, management, education, computer science, applied linguistics) through the medium of *te reo Māori*, a number of factors have contributed to the fact that far fewer of these papers are now available, making it more difficult now for *Te Tohu Paetahi* students to diversify their programmes.

The University of Waikato has, for some time, offered *Te Tohu Paetahi Entrance Scholarships*. These scholarships were available to all students accepted and enrolled in their first year of study of *Te Tohu Paetahi*. They covered tuition and resource fees for all six language papers referred to above. However, there are conditions associated with payment of the total scholarship sum. These include demonstrated aptitude and commitment, obtaining a pass grade in all six language papers and criteria relating to attendance.

A review of selected literature on learner motivation and success factors

Bandura (1991, p. 69) defines motivation as follows:

> Motivation is a general construct linked to a system of regulatory mechanisms that are commonly ascribed both directive and activating functions. At the generic level it encompasses the diverse classes of events that move one to action. Level of motivation is typically indexed in terms of choice of courses of action and intensity and persistence of effort. Attempts to explain the motivational sources of behaviour therefore primarily aim at clarifying the determinants and intervening mechanisms that govern the selection, activation, and sustained direction of behaviour toward certain goals.

Following studies by Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Masgoret and Gardner (2003, pp. 211-213), a distinction is often made, within the context of language learning, between intrinsic motivation and instrumental motivation. This binary classification has been challenged. Thus, for example, Green (1999) has argued that although looking at motivation in terms of intrinsic and instrumental categories might be

appropriate in some contexts, it was not equally applicable in others and Oxford and Shearin (1994) found, with reference to a study of American learners of Japanese, that more than two thirds of the reported motivations of participants could not be usefully described as either integrative or instrumental. Furthermore, Green (1999) has objected to an 'immutable and non-manipulable' concept of motivation (p. 276), noting, in particular, its failure "to provide a meaningful developmental model for students and teachers" (p. 265). It is now widely believed that motivation is subject to change and can be influenced by the extent to which students see themselves as being competent (see, for example, Porter Ladousse, 1982 & van Lier, 1996).

Dőrnyei and Ottó (1999) observe that motivation "is not a static state but rather a dynamically evolving and changing entity" and that a complex multi-faceted approach is necessary to account for "all the relevant motivational influences on learner behaviour in the classroom" (para. 3). Based on the action control model of Kuhl (1987), they have proposed a process model which involves five phases: goal setting, intention formation, initiation of intention enactment, action, and postactional evaluation (Dőrnyei & Ottó, 1999, para. 37), noting that "[a] broad array of mental processes and motivational conditions play essential roles in determining why students behave as they do" (para. 99). Green (1999, p. 265) has argued that goal-centred, process-oriented approaches to motivation are of fundamental importance in that they enable teachers to "manipulate motivational variables to bring about optimal learning outcomes".

Dörnyei (2003) has identified three theories of cognitive motivation (*self-determination theory, attribution theory,* and *goal theory*) that have influenced L2 motivation research. The first is *self-determination theory* (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2002), a theory which has much in common with Gardner and Lambert's (1972) framework. According to this theory, intrinsic motivation is conceptualized as involving enjoyment and satisfaction and extrinsic motivation as involving instrumentally driven actions. The second theory, *(causal) attribution theory*, is described by Weiner (1992) as being centrally concerned with the impact on motivation and future achievement of past positive or negative experiences. Here, increased motivation is associated with confidence (in turn associated with past positive experiences), and reduced motivation (involving a greater likelihood of failure) is associated with anxiety (in turn associated with past negative experiences). In connection with this, it is relevant to note that the research of Clément, Dörnyei and Noels (1994) demonstrates the powerful influence of self-confidence on motivation in language learning settings. The third theory, *the situated/ goal-based theory,* emerged out of research in the 1990s on cognitive neuroscience (involving the study of brain mechanisms during activities of various kinds). Here, motivation for action is seen as being stimulated by novelty, pleasure, self-image and social image and the significance of specific needs and goals (Schuman, 1997) and emphasis is placed on the impact on motivation and learning outcomes of learning context (e.g. classroom context, course design, teacher and learner characteristics). Thus, for example, Batstone (2002) argues that the essential difference between communicative contexts, which locate learners in social environments where use of the target language is necessary for interaction to occur, and learning contexts which locate learners firmly in classroom situations must be accommodated in studies relating to motivation. Ellis (1994) observes that the first of these contexts is generally associated with stronger integrative motivational factors than is the second. This would appear to be of

particular significance so far as Māori participation rates and Māori success rates are concerned.

So far as Māori learners are concerned, there are two studies that are of particular relevance here. The first of these studies (Levy, 2002) is very specific in its orientation, relating to barriers and incentives to Māori participation in the profession of psychology. It is, however, important in that it draws attention to the fact that "barriers are closely interrelated, with each impacting on the other" (p. 5) and identifies a number of needs that are common to a range of areas, including the need for "a supportive network of whanau, friends and tutors" and "the ability to access supports". Referring to the research of Nikora (1998), this study notes the importance of the presence of Māori staff in terms of the continuing motivation and success of Māori students (Levy, 2002, p. 22).

The second study (Greenwood & Te Aika, 2008) explores, in relation to four case studies (one of which involves a language revitalization programme for teachers offered at the University of Canterbury), factors that impact on success in the case of Māori learners in tertiary institutions. In each case, administrative leaders, teaching staff, students and members of *iwi*, community groups and wider *whānau* were interviewed and twenty-one factors that were seen as contributing to success were identified. These were:

> a high level of iwi support ; strong institutional support; active consultation with iwi and engagement of iwi with the programme; a clear professional or vocational focus; accommodation of students' varying levels of entry and needs; insistence on high standards; recognition of students' emotional and spiritual needs as well as academic needs; affirmation of students' connection to the community; creation of teaching spaces appropriate to the field of studies; implementation of tikanga Māori and Māori concepts and values; strong, clear-visioned and supportive leadership; significant Māori role models; teaching staff who are prepared to learn; teaching staff who have professional credibility in their field; respectful and nurturing relationships with students; opportunities for students to redress previous unsatisfactory schooling experiences; opportunities for students to develop effective learning strategies; tuakana–teina relationships between students; a personalised and preferably iwi-based induction; a graduation that involves whānau; and strategic reduction of financial barriers to learning.

Five overarching themes were also identified:

> In Māori terms, education is valued as a communal good, not just a personal one;
> Māori models of sustainability or kaitiakitanga involve not only conservation of resources but also guardianship of land, language, history and people;
> The learner is a whole and connected person as well as a potential academic;
> The development of space where Māori values operate becomes a 'virtual marae';
> Tensions need to be navigated between institution drivers and iwi goals.

Introducing the questionnaire-based questionnaire survey

Overall aim

The overall aim of this research project was, using a questionnaire-based survey, to collect and analyse data relating to the perspectives, expectations and attitudes of students who entered the *Te Tohu Paetahi* programme in 2008. The findings relating to the 25 students in the *Hukatai* stream who participated in the questionnaire-based survey are reported here.

The questionnaire

The questionnaire developed for this survey has five main thematic areas:

- Background information (Questions 1 – 4);
- Expectations, challenges, barriers and highlights (Questions 5 - 10);
- Experience of/ attitudes towards aspects of the programme and the institution (Questions 11 – 14 and Question 18);
- Self-assessment of progress made during the programme (Questions 15 - 17).

A final question (Question 19) provided an opportunity for participants to make any other comments they chose.

The questionnaire (see *Appendix*), which was approved by the appropriate research ethics committee, combined multiple choice questions, closed questions and open-ended questions. In the case of three of the questions, participants were asked to select a point on a scale. The questionnaire was distributed to students during their end of year marae field trip and was collected on completion and each participant was given a code for data entry and analysis purposes.

The data: Background information

Table 1 below provides information relating to Questions 1 – 3.

Table 1: *Background information about survey participants*

Categories	Variables	Number	Percentage
Gender	Male	7	28%
	Female	18	72%
	Total	**25**	100%
Age ranges	18-21	7	28%
	21-25	3	12%
	26-30	3	12%
	31-35	4	16
	36-40	3	12%
	41-45	3	12%
	46-50	0	
	50+	2	8%
	Total	**25**	**100%**
How participants found out about Te Tohu Paetahi	Family member	8	32%
	Friends	12	48%
	Newspaper	1	4%
	Magazine Advertisement	1	4%
	Radio		
	Television		
	Ipurangi	1	4%
	Waikato University	2	8%
	Total	**25**	**100%**

Table 2 outlines participants' primary reasons for enrolling in Te Tohu Paetahi (Question 4). Participants could select more than one response. There were 37 selections from 25 respondents.

***Table 2**: Primary reasons for enrolling in the programme*

Variables	**Number of respondents selecting each category**	**Percentage selecting each category**
Interest in te reo Māori	23	92%
Employment	3	12%
Degree	8	32%
Other (see discussion for other responses)	3	12%
Total	**37**	

Question 5 asks participants what their expectations for the programme were. The following table refers to participant's expectations.

The data: Expectations, challenges, barriers and highlights

Table 3 outlines participants' expectations when they enrolled in the programme (Question 5). There were 49 selections from 25 respondents.

***Table 3**: Participants; expectations at the beginning of the programme*

Variables	**Number of respondents selecting each category**	**Percentage selecting each category**
Fluency	12	48%
Improve understanding	18	72%
Develop language	17	68%
Other	2	8%
Total	**49**	

Included in the 'Other' category were:

> *Develop an understanding of culture as well.*
> *To learn as much as possible as quickly as possible, starting from no previous knowledge.*

Table 4 outlines participants' responses to a question (Question 6) asking whether and, if so, to what extent their initial expectations had been met.

***Table 4**: Whether and to what extent initial expectations were met*

Yes- Unspecified extent	**Yes - Absolutely**	**Yes - Partially**	**No**
1 (4%)	12 (48%)	10 (40%)	2 (8%)

In connection with the extent to which their expectations had been met, the following two comments, added by respondents, are instructive. The first of these comments indicates just how high the expectations of some of the participants can be. The second indicates the importance of ensuring that the teaching of the language is culturally embedded.

> *To learn as much as possible as quickly as possible, starting from no previous knowledge.*
> *To develop an understanding of culture.*

Among the other comments made in connection with expectations were a number that signaled the need for careful monitoring of various aspects of the programme, including ensuring that assignments are set well in advance of deadlines and, possibly, setting aside time on a regular basis (as an official part of the programme) for participants to work on assignments in class:

> *I tutuki pai āku mahi engari he tere haere te wā, ā, ētahi wā he moumou wa i te karaehe.* (I achieved my goals but the time went fast, and sometimes time was wasted in class.)
> *Did not like certain teaching styles of one of the teachers sometimes felt belittled.*
> *Unable to use Māori outside classroom.*
> *Outside unexpected events that took me away from class...meant assignments were rushed etc...*

Question 7, an open-ended question, asked participants to identify any barriers to the achievement of their initial expectations. There were only two responses:

> *Unable to use Māori outside the classroom;*
> *For most part it was myself who hindered my own studying/ learning but it would be nice if we didn't have different teachers for each paper – that was a bit challenging.*

All 25 participants responded to a question (Question 8) asking them to select one or more things that they considered to be highlights of the programme. There were 104 selections (see *Table 5* below).

Table 5: *Highlights of the programme*

Variables	**Number of responses**	**Percentage of respondents selecting this category**
Learning environment	21	84%
Learning styles	18	72%
Fellow students	22	88%
Personal development	20	80%
Kapa haka	14	56%
Other	4	16%
Total	**104**	

The following comments were associated with the 'Other' category:

> *Ko te mea nui, arā, e kōrero ana ahau i roto i te reo rangatira nāianei! Ka nui te mihi ki ngā kaiako, kia ora!!* (The important thing, that is, I am talking in this noble language now. Many thanks to all the teachers. Thank you!)
> *Ko ngā kaiako katoa* (All of the teachers)
> *Pai rawa.* (Great)
> *All of the above.*

The following comments were added by participants in connection with the question above:

> *Just being educated again after being off school for a year.*

Ko ngā kaiako he pai rawa atu. (The teachers are fantastic.)
Tino pai o tātou kaiako! Tino pai ōku hoa karaihe hoki!! (Our teachers were great. My class mates were fantastic too.)
Ko te mea nui, arā, e kōrero ana ahau i roto i te reo rangatira ināianei! Ka nui te mihi ki ngā kaiako, kia ora!! (The important thing, that is, I am talking in this noble language now. Many thanks to all the teachers. Thank you!)
Kāore he pai tō tātou rūma me te rūma kai. He pai rawa atu a kaiako Y rāua ko kaiāwhina A, he mama a rāua whakamārama, whakaako i a au. He rerekē ngā kaiako katoa he pai tēnā. (Our classroom was not suitable or the tea room made available. Teacher Y and sessional assistant A were excellent, their explanations and teaching was easy for me to follow. All the teachers were different. I thought that was a good strategy).

The next question (Question 9), an open ended question, asked participants to identify any **low points** that they experienced in connection with the programme. There were 19 responses. Two of these simply indicated that there were no low points. A further two identified the end of the programme as a low point. The remaining 15 responses are grouped loosely into categories below:

Personal factors
I ngā wā katoa kāore i taea e au te puta atu ki te karaehe i te wā e māuiui ana au. Nā kona ka mahue [i a]au te mahi i taua wā. (I was not able to come to class when I was sick; as a consequence I missed a lot of work at that time.)
Sometimes frustrating to come back after break/holiday and feel like you've gone backwards...because you've forgotten stuff over break.

Learning context generally
Going to class 9-3 each day.
He raruraru ngā rama, ngā raiti i te ruma wānanga i whiwhi au ngā headaches. (I had trouble with the lighting in the classroom causing me headaches.)
He tino kino te lighting i roto i te ruma o Hukatai me te papatuhituhi hoki. Ko ngā hiahia o taua ruma, he raiti me [i] tētahi papatuhituhi hou, he nui hoki. (The lighting in the classroom was troublesome and the whiteboard as well. It really needed better lighting and a bigger whiteboard.)

Teachers, teaching and assessment
My low point was my loss of enjoyment in learning the reo, through this method especially towards the end of the year. I felt some papers were not well structured and things were changed at the last minute, I became confused and in the end 'couldn't be bothered'.
Papers X and Y due to chaotic teaching or ....., lack of teaching. Had to listen to sexist and very ethnocentric monologues of kaiako X.
Not understanding instructions just not understanding in general sometimes.
Ehara[Kāore] au i te rongo ētahi wā pouri. (I couldn't hear sometimes.)
Sometimes the tests weren't on time.
Feeling overwhelmed on two occasions.
Found some things hard to understand and sometimes felt that my standard of work was not good enough.

Specific tasks
Standing up to speak every week.

Factors relating to other students
I hinga ētahi o aku hoa akonga mai i a [ā]mātou karaehe. (Some of our class mates failed some of our papers throughout the year.)

Ko te āhuatanga o ētahi tauira i roto i te karaehe, arā, he āhua hōhā rātou, ā, ka amuamu rātou i ngā wā katoa me ngā tāngata kāore rātou i tae atu ki te karaehe, engari, ki a au ko te mea nui kāore he kotahitanga, nā te mea, ko ētahi tangata kuare. (The attitude of some of the students in class, that is, they were somewhat annoying, and they would complain all of the time and students who didn't come to class, but the main thing to me was the class wasn't one because of some ignorant students.)

The final question in this section (Question 10) asked participants to indicate whether one of more of three categories – financial; personal; learning problems – hindered their learning and invited them to comment on anything, both within and outside of the university, that created difficulties for them. Only 20 participants responded. *Table 6* below indicates the number and percentage who selected each of the three categories. This is followed by comments that were added by respondents.

Table 6: *Problems/ concerns*

Variables	**Number of respondents selecting each category**	**Percentage of total cohort selecting each category**
Financial	6	24%
Personal	6	24%
Learning problems	5	20%
Other	3	12%
Total	**20**	

Personal circumstances
Procrastination and my outside social life.
Personal commitments....just doing too much this year.
It was hard for me to do my learning skills at home.
Not good at writing papers and worse in Māori! Tangihanga (funerals), *work,* (Anything that took me away from work.)

Financial concerns
Finances did sometimes way heavy on my mind especially nearing the end of the course which was also the part of the course I did not enjoy.
I ngā wā katoa. (Financial burdens all of the time.)

Lack of an appropriate language learning strategy
Primarily with language learning strategy for an unfamiliar grammatical item.

Other
Inability to use Māori outside of the classroom.
Ae, ko aku tamariki i te mea i ētahi wā ka tiaki au aku tamariki he tino mārō tēnā mōku. (Yes, my children because sometimes I was responsible for looking after them which was very difficult for me and my learning or attending class.)
Finances did sometimes . . .

The data: Experience of/ attitudes towards aspects of the programme and the institution
Participants were asked (Question 11) whether they believed that there was a sufficient variety of activities. Twenty-two participants who responded to this question, all in the affirmative. Of these, some either added positive evaluation (e.g. 'definitely') or commented positively on a specific aspect of the activities and four expressed some sort of reservation (in one case alongside a positive comment). The comments are listed in categories after *Table 7.*

***Table 7**: Was there sufficient variety in the activities?*

Yes + positive comment	Yes	Yes + reservation	No response
9 (36%)	9 (36%)	4 (16%)	3 (12%)

Positive comments
Yes definitely.
Āe! (Absolutely).
Definitely.
Yes. The good thing was every kaiako brought their own style of teaching, activities which in my opinion benefited the students.
Āe, anei te ako Tuatahi ki te tino structured- (he ka pai) Kāore kua mutu (pōuri) (Yes, this is the first time I've learnt the structure of the language this way, it's good. But it's finished now how sad.)
Kei te tautoko au. (Yes, I support this).
Āe i ngā wā katoa. He rawe tērā ki ahau. (Yes, all the time. That's great to me.)
Awesome variety and perspectives.
He pai a mea mō tēnā, arā, tākaro kēmu kia mahia ngā kupu hou me ngā rerenga. (Kaiwhakaako Y was great for using board games to consolidate new words and new constructions.)

Reservations
Yes, but they need up dating.
Āe, engari, me mahi i te kōrero, ā, ka parakitihi i te reo tētahi-ā- tētahi. (Yes, but practice the oral component before the actual test.)
Due to the different lecturers yes, but sometimes it was a bit confusing.
Papers X and Y - very good mix of listening, speaking, writing and reading.
Papers Z and A - main focus on reading and writing, not enough listening and speaking.

Participants were asked (Question 12) whether participants found the pace of learning demanding enough or too demanding. Twenty-three participants responded to this question. *One of them selected both options, adding a note indicating that whether the programme was demanding enough or too demanding depended on how busy s/he was at the time* (see *Table 8*). The following question (Question 13) inquired about if the workload was appropriate (see *Table 9*). Once again, one of the respondents selected two categories, indicating that a number of factors influenced perception of the workload at particular times. For this reason, percentages are not given in *Tables 8* and *9.*

***Table 8:** Was the pace of learning demanding enough or too demanding?*

Demanding enough	Too demanding	No response
22	2	2

Table 9: *Was the workload appropriate?*

Too light	About right	Too demanding
1	20	3

Participants were then asked whether they would like additional topics to be included in *Te Tohu Paetahi.* They could select any number from four possible responses including 'Other'. There were 18 involving 26 selections. The percentage of the total cohort selecting each item is indicated in brackets after the actual number of responses.

Table 10: *Additional topic preferred*

Ngā mōteatea (laments)	Critical research	Guest speakers	Other
12 (48%)	3 (12%)	8 (32%)	3 (12%)

Among the comments, including comments by those who elected the category 'Other' were the following:

> *Instead of texts from 1960 - modern texts, about politics, art, social issues of today.*
> *More practice in kōrero to acquire more sentence structures particularly.*
> *Just more variety of different learning types. I found reading really improved my reo, but I don't think there was enough.*
> *More marae stays.*
> *Ko ngā tūmomo karakia.* (Some different types of prayer).

Question 18 asked whether participants felt they had been supported by the School of Māori and Pacific Development. Twenty-three participants responded to this question, all in the affirmative. However, four added reservations which in three cases referred to the attitude of at least one member of teaching staff. The comments provided are divided into categories below.

> **Generally positive**
> *Very helpful when asked.*
> *Definitely a positive experience.*
> *Āe. Kāore he raru mōku.* (Yes. No problems for me)
> *Awesome environment to encourage participation and giving it a go!*
> *Everyone was here to help whenever I asked and were happy to help.*
> *He rawe hoki anō te tautoko me te āwhina māku.* (For me I found the support and help great.)
> *Yep. Always had ways to help, e.g. suggesting mentors, and helpful lecturers who were always willing to help out.*
>
> **Environment/ style of learning/ activities**
> *I think this environment really helps Māori to learn our language. The style of learning being made to stand and kōrero every week really made us feel confident in speaking and writing.*
> *Yes, activities held involving TTP hākinakina/pōhiri. (sports and formal welcomes for visitors)*
> *Yes...etc. Hākinakina day, (sport days) involvement in pōwhiri (formal welcomes for visitors).*

Tutors

E kore rawa ahau taku haerenga ko ngā kai pūkenga i hapainga taku mana e ngā wā katoa tō rātou korowai aroha ki ahau. (I would never have developed if it weren't for the skills of the teachers who supported me all of the time, and embraced me in their cloak of love.)

Ae he tika tērā kōrero. Nā o mātou kaiako katoa i awhi i a mātou mahi i te wā i pōrangi mātou. (Yes, that is correct. All of our teachers totally supported us even when we were a bit crazy.)

Financial assistance/ tutors

Yes by assisting with fees with entry scholarship and providing information and tutors.

Progress in te reo Māori

Ae, nā te mea ka whai ake au i ngā tohu matua o te reo Māori. (Yes, because I am pursuing a degree in Māori.)

Āe, nā te mea, ka hoki atu au ki te maru o te Pua Wānanga o te Ao kia ako ai ahau i ngā mea hou i roto i te reo Māori ā tērā tau. Ka whai ahau i tētahi tohu hoki ā tērā tau. (Yes, because next year I will return under the mantle of the School of Māori and Pacific Development to continue with the pursuit of my language and to further develop my knowledge base in things Māori.)

Ae! I te timatanga o tēnei tau kāore au i mōhio i te reo Māori engari inaianei kei te pai ake. (Yes, At the beginning of the year I did not know how to speak the Māori language but now I am able.)

This course helped me achieve one of my goals for my future.

Āe, he tino pai rawa atu ki a au te mahi a Te Tohu Paetahi. Me[a] atu ahau ki āku hoa, āku whānau rānei ki te haere i [ki]te ako i te reo Māori mā Te Tohu Paetahi, Ahakoa he tino uaua taua mahi i te tīmatanga o te tau, i te mutunga ka puta atu i a koe i te mahi tuhi, a, ka taea e koe te kōrero i roto i te reo Māori, Ahakoa he iti, he nui rānei te kōrero. Ko te mea nui ka taea e koe te kōrero Māori. Pai ki a au 'the pace' o te akoranga i Te Tohu paetahi. (Yes, I thoroughly enjoyed Te Tohu Paetahi. I will definitely suggest to my friends, and my family to come and learn the Māori language through the te Tohu Paetahi route. Despite the work being very difficult at the beginning of the year, by the end of the year not only can you write in the Māori language you also be able to speak in the Māori language. Even though you may be able to say many things or only a few things in the language. The most important thing is you will be able to speak in the Māori language. The pace of the class of Te Tohu Paetahi was alright for me.)

Definitely. Te Tohu Paetahi have helped me a lot. Ko ngā ture, ngā āhuatanga mō te whakatakoto kōrero. (The grammar rules for sentence construction.)

Reservations

They did the best they could. Most of all the teachers were fantastic and encouraging but it only takes one to knock your confidence and that can either topple you or make stronger. In my case it made me stronger but it toppled my reo.

I am very grateful for this opportunity to learn Te reo Māori in such a short period of time – and the scholarship saved me from taking out another huge

student loan. The atmosphere at te SMPD was very encouraging apart from Teacher Y's attitude.
Yes. Found most of the staff very supportive and helpful.
Ō mātou kaiako āe, engari, ko ētahi atu kāo. (Our teachers, yes; but some teachers, no.)

The data: Self-assessment of progress made during the programme
Question 15 asks participants to rate the development of their language, selecting a number from 1 (non-user) to 9 (expert user) to mark the beginning and end points.

Table 11: *Self-assessed proficiency gains*

Student number	Beginning	End	+/-
H1	1	6	+5
H2	3	5	+2
H3	1	4	+3
H4	1	6	+5
H5	5	8	+3
H6	5	7	+2
H7	3	7	+4
H8	3	8	+5
H9	4.5	8	+3.5
H10	2	5	+3
H11	-	-	-
H12	1	6	+5
H13	3	8	+5
H14	2	7	+5
H15	2	4	+2
H16	0	6	+6
H17	5	8	+3
H18	1	6/7	+5.5
H19	3	5	+2
H20	5	7	+2
H21	3	6	+3
H22	1	5	+4
H23	5	7/8	+2.5
H24	0	4	+4
H25	4	7.5	+3.5

With reference to *Table 11* above, it is important to bear in mind that these entries represent self-perception of proficiency and proficiency gains rather than actual proficiency and proficiency gains. The average perceived proficiency gain was just over three and a half bands.

The following two questions (Question 16 and 17) asked participants to rate their own learning and their own development in the language on a scale from 1 (poor) to 10 (excellent). Their ratings are outlined in *Tables 12* and *13*. There were 23 responses to each of these questions.

Table 12: Self-assessment of learning - from 1 (poor) to 10 (excellent)

Level	1 - 4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Number of selections/		1		5	6	6	5
Percentage of 23 respondents		4%		22%	26%	26%	22%

Table 13: Self-assessment of development of own reo - from 1 (poor) to 10 (excellent)

Level	1 - 4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Number of selections/		2	2	4	3	8	4
Percentage of 23 respondents		9%	9%	17%	13%	35%	17%

The data: Additional comments

Finally, participants were invited to add any comments they wished to make. Sixteen chose to do so. Of the comments provided, 10 were positive, 3 were negative and one made a recommendation in relation to the future development of the programme.

General positive comments

Ka mau te wehi (Absolutely fantastic).

Pai rawa atu the mahi i roto o TTP!! (The work in Te Tohu Paetahi is great.)

He tino pai tēnei tau ki a au. He tino piritata te nuinga o mātou ināianei Ka wani kē!! (This year has been excellent for me. Our class is very close to each other now. Absolutely fantastic.)

Expressions of thanks

Kia ora!!! (Thank you!!!)

He mihi nui ki ngā kaiako o Hukatai 2008. (A big thank you to all the teachers of Hukatai 2008).

Ki ngā kaiwhakaako, ngā puna reo, ngā puna mātauranga he mihi maioha tēnei ki a koutou i āwhina, i tautoko i a au i tēnei tau i roto i aku akomanga. Tēnā rawa atu ki a koutou. (To all my teachers, the spring of language, the spring of knowledge, this is my thanks to you all who supported, who nurtured me this year. I say thank you very much!!)

He tino hari koa tōku ngākau, e mihi atu ana anō ki ngā kaiako o te tau nei, ā, ka nui te aroha ki a koutou. Kia ora!! (I am very pleased with my learning, and must again thank all the teachers on the programme. Thank you very much!!)

Kei te mihi nui ki ngā kaiako katoa mo te awhi, me ō rātou aroha ki a mātou i tēnei tau. Kia ora anō koutou katoa! (A big thank you to all the teachers this year for your help, support and love this year. Thank you all so much)

Just like to thank teacher W and the other kaiako for the knowledge you've passed onto us. The best thing I can say about Te Tohu Paetahi is that we have so many Māori separated from our culture and if only they knew about this course they could find out how special and how lucky we as Māori people are.

Nō reira, e kaiako W he mihi nui mai i a ahau ki a koe, he tino ātaahua tō āhua, tō mahi hei awhi i a matou. E kaiako W kia ora. (Therefore, to teacher W a big thank you to you, you have a lovely personality, your assistance in helping us was great. So teacher W thank you very much.)

Intention to recommend the programme to others
Ka whakanui ahau tēnei hotaka ki ētahi atu akonga. (I would recommend this programme to other students.)
Will recommend to everyone! Was an awesome experience! Have already convinced my family to give it a go!

Outdated resources
Resources are outdated and in my opinion do not appeal to the younger generation, but valuable nevertheless for historic info.

Criticism of a staff member
My main concern was the desire of teachers for such an intensive programme. The teachers need to be able to concentrate on the programme and should show an interest and should encourage students. Teacher Z did none of the above. Please replace! For TTP at least.

Would not recommend the programme to others
At the moment I would be reluctant to encourage a family member /friend to do this course. May be I need to enjoy my holiday and think about this question again.

Recommendation for programme improvement/ development
Only to reiterate need more for more practice in te reo. However, this comment is made realising later in the course that it would be desirable to have done at least Te Kākano prior to beginning and preferred a more intensive kōrero based course prior to starting TTP. It has been clear that the students with such prior knowledge have coped better and many excelled.

Overview and discussion
Of the 25 participants, only 7 (28%) were male, of these, 2 were aged 50 or over. In view of the fact that it is proving increasingly difficult to find men of an appropriate age who are able to speak on the *paepae*, it would be useful in future to target older males in marketing the programme. So far as publicity and marketing are concerned, word of mouth appears to be considerably more effective than any institutionally-based strategies thus far employed. It may therefore be that holding regular get-togethers for family and friends of participants would be a more useful way of attracting new students than is media-based advertising. In connection with this, it is important to note that a desire to learn *te reo Māori* is, by far, the most important reason for enrolment in the programme, with interest in obtaining a degree and/ or employment being considerably lower in participants' list of priorities. Although participants were spread over a number of age ranges, the highest number – 7 (28%) – was in the age range 18-21, suggesting that it may be useful to target school leavers in the future, particularly school leavers who have *whānau* members who have already participated in the programme.

On entry to the programme, all of the participants expected that their proficiency in *te reo Māori* would increase, with 30% focusing on fluency and 36% on increased understanding. In connection with this, it is relevant to note that 12 (48%) of the participants indicated either that their expectations of the course had either not been met at all (2) or only partially met (10) in spite of the fact that that all 24 who

responded to a question relating to self-assessed proficiency indicated that they believed that their proficiency level had improved by at least two bands. In fact, their self-assessment of their proficiency gains averaged out (unrealistically) at above three and a half bands, with eight participants believing that their proficiency had improved overall by five bands or more. This, together with some of the comments made in response to a number of different questions, suggests that students should be made more aware of what proficiency involves, perhaps providing them with examples of each proficiency band in terms of reading, writing, listening and speaking, of the types of proficiency gains that might realistically be expected in a single year.

For the majority of the participants, the main highlights of the programme were associated with the overall approach, the context in which it took place and the opportunity to interact with fellow students. Perhaps surprisingly, 10 (40%) did not select *kapa kaka* as a highlight. In the comments associated with this question. Although the selections available relating to highlights did not include any reference to teaching staff, 5 of the 8 comments provided in connection with this question referred positively to teaching staff. It is, however, clear from the fact that certain staff members were selected for particular praise in one case here, and from the fact that several comments associated with other questions indicated that at least some of the students were not comfortable with the teaching style of one staff member, that the issue of staffing needs to be addressed. It is also clear from one of the comments included in this section, and from a number of comments associated with other questions, that the physical resources (classroom, tea room) provided for the programme participants are not wholly satisfactory. Because the programme is an intensive one that requires participants to be in one place for long periods of time, is an issue that is of particular concern.

In connection with two of the issues already raised (physical resources and teachers), it is important to note that of the 15 comments relating to low points of the programme, 2 referred to problems associated with physical resources (poor classroom lighting; inadequate whiteboard) and 6 to problems associated with teaching (poor course structuring; teacher sometimes inaudible; tests available late; sexist and ethnocentric monologues; poorly presented instructions). Although comments made in connection with other questions suggest that these participants were, in general, very satisfied with the teaching they received, it is evident that this was not always the case. Even if the negative comments recorded are associated wholly, or in large part, with a single member of teaching staff, they raise an issue of very considerable significance, particularly in a context where students spend long periods of time with individual staff members. Problems associated with teaching may not only impact negatively of the enjoyment and success of course participants, they may also have a negative impact on the future of a programme, particularly one that relies heavily on word of mouth as a way of attracting future students. Failing to address issues of this kind should not therefore be regarded as a viable option.

Another issue that arose in connection with responses to a request to identify low points in the programme was one participants' perception that some students failed to turn up to class regularly, complained often and were disruptive. Once again, this is an issue that needs to be addressed in future iterations of the programme although the conditions associated with the scholarship are intended to go some way towards this. One additional way of addressing it might be to draw up a teacher/ student contract,

one that clearly specifies realistic expectations in relation to both parties and signals what will happen in the event of any perceived failure to meet these expectations.

Asked to indicate whether problems associated with finance, personal life, learning or any other matter had hindered them during the programme, 20 responded in the affirmative, with the largest number, 6, indicating that they had experienced financial problems, closely followed by problems associated with personal life and learning (5 selections each). In connection with this, it is important to note that a number of the participants referred, at other points in their questionnaire responses, to the fact that they appreciated the fact that scholarships were made available to them.

A number of questions sought information on participants' responses to various aspects of the programme itself. Of the 25 participants, 22 (88%) indicated that they considered the pace of the programme to be sufficiently demanding and 20 (80%) that the workload was about right. Although all but 2 of the participants reported that they believed that the learning activities were sufficiently varied, 4 of them nevertheless expressed some reservation. One indicated that the activities needed updating; one that there was a need for more oral practice before tests; one that they were sometimes confused and one that two of the papers had too few listening and speaking activities. These reservations can provide valuable input into the planning of future iterations of the programme.

When asked whether the programme would benefit from the inclusion of other activities, 12 (48%) indicated that they believed it would benefit from the inclusion of *mōteatea* (laments) and 8 (32%) that it would benefit from guest speakers. Only 3 (12%) indicated that they would appreciate the inclusion of critical research. Among the comments was one that indicated a perceived need for more variety to cater for different learning styles, one that indicated that more speaking skills practice would be beneficial and one that referred to the need to update texts to include more modern ones. These responses, once again, can provide valuable input into programme planning for the future.

Asked whether they felt they had been supported by the School of Māori and Pacific Development during their studies, the 23 participants who replied all indicated that they did, many clearly expressing a high level of enthusiasm in their responses. However, all four of those who expressed reservations, stated or implied that the support offered by one or more of the teachers was unsatisfactory.

So far as self-assessed proficiency and proficiency improvement are concerned, all of these students were in the *Hukatai* (beginner) stream. Some were genuine beginners; others false beginners at the point of entry to the programme. In many cases, their estimates of their entry level proficiency are unrealistically high. In almost all (perhaps all) cases, their estimates of their exit level proficiency are also very considerably inflated. It is evident, therefore that there is a need for more discussion of proficiency and proficiency levels during future iterations of the programme. Irrespective of the difficulty they clearly had in assessing their own entry-level and exit-level proficiency, it is important to note that, on a scale from 1 (poor) to 10 (excellent), almost all of the participants selected 7 or above in assessing their own learning and the extent to which they had made progress in *te reo Māori*. Nevertheless, although the final comments supplied by most of the participants were,

in general, very positive, three of them reiterated earlier negative comments about certain aspects of the programme (outdated resources; the attitude of one of the teachers; the need to consider making more practice available to those who enter the programme with the lowest levels of proficiency) and one clearly signaled that s/he would not currently recommend the programme to others.

The questionnaire responses support Dőrnyei and Ottó's (1999, para. 19) contention that "[a] broad array of mental processes and motivational conditions play essential roles in determining why students behave as they do" (para. 99) and Schumann's (1997) and Batstone's (2002) insistence on the interaction between motivation and learning context. In addition, they support the contention of Greenwood and Te Aika (2008) that there are a range of general (e.g. strategic reduction of financial barriers) and Māori-specific factors (e.g. significant Māori role models) play a critical role in the capacity of Māori students to succeed in tertiary educational contexts. However, in view of the fact that this survey not only highlights many positive aspects of the programme to which it relates but also reveals some potential barriers to success, it also reinforces the importance of Green's (1999, p. 265) assertion that that teachers should be enabled to "manipulate motivational variables to bring about optimal learning outcomes".

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Appendix

School of Māori and Pacific Development
The University of Waikato
Private Bag 3105
HAMILTON
New Zealand

The University of Waikato
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

Questionnaire for Students of Te Reo Māori in Te Tohu Paetahi 2008

Information about the attached questionnaire

This Questionnaire is designed for students learning te reo Māori in Te Tohu Paetahi class 2008.

The overall aim of this research project is to collect and analyse data relating to the teaching and learning of te reo Māori in the Te Tohu Paetahi specialised programme 2008, in the School of Māori & Pacific Development with a view to providing information and analysis that can inform future development. The research project focuses on (a) the attitudes and learning of te reo Māori of the students in Te Tohu Paetahi 2008. (b) Analysis of responses from a small focus group in te reo Māori.

Although I would be very grateful for responses to this questionnaire, you should not feel obliged to complete it. If you *do* decide to complete the questionnaire, you should not feel obliged to answer every question if you would prefer not to (although I hope that you will).

The part of my research that relates to this questionnaire involves reporting students' experiences in particular learning experiences. So you are NOT asked to provide your name. If you complete all or part of the questionnaire, the information you provide will be included in publication(s) and reported in conference presentations and or included in a research project.

If you would like to discuss any aspect of the questionnaire, please feel free to contact me. My name and contact details are provided below.

Sophie Nock
School of Māori and Pacific Development
The University of Waikato
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton, New Zealand
Tel: 64-7-838 4294
E-mail: sophnock@waikato.ac.nz

Te Tohu Paetahi 2008

Questionnaire

1. Male ☐
   Female ☐

2. Age group
   - 18-21 ☐
   - 22-25 ☐
   - 26-30 ☐
   - 31-35 ☐
   - 36-40 ☐
   - 41-45 ☐
   - 46-50 ☐
   - 50+ ☐

3. How did you find out about Te Tohu Paetahi?

   - Family member ☐
   - Friends ☐
   - Newspaper ☐
   - Magazine Ad. ☐
   - Radio ☐
   - Television ☐

4. What were your primary reasons for enrolling in Te Tohu Paetahi?

   - Interest in te reo Māori ☐
   - Employment ☐
   - Degree ☐
   - Other ☐
   - _____ ☐
   - _____ ☐

5. What were your expectations of this programme?

   - Fluency ☐
   - Improve understanding ☐
   - Develop language ☐
   - Other ☐
   - _____

6. Did you achieve your expectations and to what extent?

Yes	☐
No	☐

To what extent?

Absolutely	☐
Partially	☐
Not at all	☐

7. If you answered no to the above question what hindered your ability to achieve your expectations?

_____

_____

8. What were some of the highlights for you during your study in Te Tohu Paetahi?

Learning environment	☐
Learning styles	☐
Fellow students	☐
Personal development	☐
Kapa haka	☐
Other	☐

_____

_____

9. What were some of the low points?

_____

_____

_____

10. Did you have any barriers, problems or concerns that hindered your learning? Talk about both within the university and outside the university.

Financial	☐
Personal	☐
Learning problems	☐
Other	☐

_____

_____

11. Do you think there was a sufficient variety of task of activities?

_____

_____

12. Did you find the pace of learning demanding enough, too demanding?

(a.)	Demanding	
(e.)	Too demanding	

13. Did you find the workload intensive?

(a.)	Too light	
(e.)	About right	
(i.)	Too demanding	

14. What other topics would you like to see included in Te Tohu Paetahi that are not covered?

Ngā Mōteatea	
Critical Research	
Guest Speakers	
Others	

15. How would you rate the development/proficiency of your language compared to when you started? Give yourself a number for when you began and when you finished your first year of study in Te Tohu Paetahi. Use the descriptors below.

Start of the year_____ End of the year_____

Language Descriptors

1. **Non-user**
   A few isolated words.
2. **Intermittent User**
   No real communication possible except the most basic information using isolated words or short formulae in predicable situations to meet immediate needs. Great difficulty in understanding spoken and written language.
3. **Very Limited User**
   Conveys and understands only general meaning in very familiar situations. Frequent breakdowns in communication.
4. **Limited User**
   Basic competence is limited to familiar situations. Frequent problems in understanding and expression. Not able to use complex language.
5. **Modest User**
   Partial command of the language, coping with overall meaning in most situations though likely to make many mistakes. Should be able to handle basic communication in familiar areas.
6. **Competent User**
   Generally effective command of the language in spite of some inaccuracies, inappropriate usages and misunderstandings. Can use and understand fairly complex language, particularly in familiar situations.
7. **Good User**
   Has operational command of the language with occasional inaccuracies, inappropriate usages and misunderstandings in some situations. Generally understands and uses complex language well and can follow, and produce, detailed reasoning.

8. **Very Good User**
   Fully operational command of the language with only occasional unsystematic inaccuracies and inappropriate usages. Misunderstandings may occur in unfamiliar situations. Handles complex, detailed argumentation well.
9 **Expert User**
   Fully operational command of the language: appropriate, fluent, accurate with complete understanding.

16. Overall how would you rate your first year of **learning** on a scale of 1- 10 with 10 being excellent?

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**
poor									excellent

17. Overall in your opinion how well has your te reo Māori developed?

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**
poor									excellent

18. Did you feel that the School of Māori & Pacific Development helped towards achieving your goals? Please explain.

_____
_____
_____

19. Any other comments.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Heoi anō, ka nui ngā mihi ki a koe me tō whakaaro rangatira ki te tautoko i tēnei mahi rangahau. Tēnā koe.

Preliminary findings of a questionnaire-based survey of a sample of teachers of Hawaiian in secondary- and tertiary-level institutions in Hawai'i

R. Keao NeSmith
Kawaihuelani Center for Hawaiian Language
Hawai'inuiākea School of Hawaiian Knowledge
University of Hawai'i at Mānoa
[kumukeao@gmail.com]

Abstract[1]

As part of a research project involving aspects of the teaching and learning of Hawaiian as an Additional Language (HAL) in Hawai'i, I conducted a questionnaire-based survey of a sample of 30 teachers of HAL in first- and second-year classes in high school and tertiary-level institutions. Although some of those involved in the survey indicated that they had had some training in the teaching of additional languages, most did not. Furthermore, responses to a range of questions about aspects of their own teaching and about their own proficiency in Hawaiian language and that of their students suggests that many of these teachers have little knowledge of some significant developments in the area of the teaching of additional languages that have taken place since the 1970s. Given the fact that the survival of Hawaiian language and culture currently depends to a very considerable extent on the success of language teaching programs in secondary schools and tertiary-level institutions, these findings are of major concern.

Introduction: Hawai'i, its people, its language and its culture

Hawai'i is the most isolated archipelago in the world. It consists of high volcanic islands and low-lying atolls and is located in the subtropic zone of the central northern Pacific Ocean. The aboriginal people of the Hawaiian Islands (*Kānaka Maoli*[2]) are Polynesians who are estimated to have first colonized the Islands between 300 and 800 CE[3] from the Marquesas or Society Islands, more than 2,000 miles (3,200 km) south, and brought with them their language, which evolved into what is now known as Hawaiian (*ka 'ōlelo Hawai'i*[4]). Prior to the start of the 20th century (and through the first two decades of the 20th century), *Kānaka Maoli* were Hawaiian monoglots.

In 1810, King Kamehameha the Great of Hawai'i Island conquered the eight inhabited islands of the archipelago and united them under his rule. In 1840, King Kamehameha III established the first Constitution of what was then called the Hawaiian Kingdom and formed the government as a Constitutional Monarchy whose political system was a hybrid of traditional *Kanaka Maoli* polity, European-style constitutional monarchy and democratic systems found in other States (see Preza, 2010, p. 56 and Moore, 2010, p. 291). In 1843, Great Britain and France became the first States to recognize the sovereignty of the Kingdom[5] and the Kingdom declared its neutrality by proclamation of Kamehameha III on May 16, 1854[6].

The vast majority of *Kānaka Maoli* were literate in the 19th century and were prolific writers and avid contributors to the over 50 Hawaiian language newspapers that were in regular circulation throughout the 1800s and early 1900s[7]. Nogelmeier (2010, p. 59) notes that,

> In the history of Pacific Island societies where the technologies of literacy were introduced, Hawai'i stands apart for its rapid adoption of literacy and zeal for

written production. Although the vagaries of archival methods make it difficult to accurately measure, it appears that the Hawaiian published writings also exceed the sum of what all other Polynesian societies generated during the 19th and early 20th centuries, largely due to the extensive newspaper production.

On January 17, 1893, a small group of white natural-born and naturalized Hawaiian subjects and foreign nationals living in Honolulu, supported by U.S. Minister John Stevens and a legion of heavily armed U.S. marines, revolted in a coup against the government of Queen Lili'uokalani and declared a Provisional Government against the will of the people, who were loyal to Queen. In 1895, the rebel government held Lili'uokalani in house arrest at 'Iolani Palace for one year (Lili'uokalani, 1898, p. 267). As U.S. troops prevented the Queen from arresting the coup perpetrators under threat of war, she was forced to temporarily assign her executive power to the American President in order to do an investigation of the actions of the U.S. diplomat and military commanders, remove them from Hawaiian territory, restore the government, and to reinstate the Queen (United States House of Representatives, 53rd Congress, Executive Documents on Affairs in Hawai'i: 1894-1895, p. 461).

Sanford Dole, a son of American citizens resident in the Kingdom, was named President of the Provisional Government, which a year later changed its name to the Republic of Hawai'i[8]. Pres. Grover Cleveland of the U.S., on March 9, 1893, accepted the assignment of executive power and charged James Blount with the duty of launching an official investigation into the events surrounding the coup. As a consequence of Blount's several reports on the matter, the U.S. Secretary of State, Walter Gresham, concluded that the participation of U.S. Minister Stevens and U.S. troops in the coup amounted to a violation of the treaties of friendship between the Kingdom and the U.S. (United States House of Representatives, 53d Cong., Executive Documents on Affairs in Hawai'i: 1894-1895, pp. 459-463). Negotiations between Queen Lili'uokalani and Pres. Cleveland resulted in a settlement in December 1893 whereby the President would restore Lili'uokalani and her government to power in exchange for amnesty for the coup insurgents. Two executive agreements emerged between the Hawaiian Kingdom and the United States, the first being the *Lili'uokalani assignment* and the *Agreement of restoration* (Sai, 2008, pp. 120-125). However, as a result of political stonewalling in Washington, the U.S. has, to this day, failed to enforce *Lili'uokalani assignment* that binds the President and his successors to administer Hawaiian Kingdom law, and the *Agreement of restoration*, which are considered under international law as treaties.

In 1898, the U.S. declared war on the Kingdom of Spain and moved to capture all of its overseas territories, including Cuba and Puerto Rico in the Caribbean and Guam and the Philippines in the Pacific. In violation of the Kingdom's neutral status, the U.S. used Kingdom territory as a military base from which it launched its attacks against Spanish-held Guam and the Philippines. The U.S. maintains several military bases and thousands of personnel in the Hawaiian Islands until this day (Sai, 2008, p. 130). Between 1894 and 1898, Republic leaders lobbied the U.S. Senate to annex the Hawaiian Islands unsuccessfully as a result of numerous protests by the Queen and tens of thousands of petitions of protest by Kingdom subjects (Coffman, 2009, p. 268 and Silva, 2004, pp. 145-159). In 1898, however, the U.S. Congress, under the presidency of William McKinley, issued a joint resolution (a unilateral action), known as the Newlands Resolution, in which the U.S. declared the Hawaiian Islands a U.S.

territory[9]. U.S. Congressman Thomas H. Ball (D-Texas) stated on the floor of the House of Representatives that the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands by joint resolution is (United States Congressional Records, 55th Congress, 2nd Session, p. 5975) "a deliberate attempt to do unlawfully that which can not be lawfully done."

Beginning in the first two decades of the 20th century, American citizens migrated in droves to the Hawaiian Islands, and in 1959, the U.S.-installed territorial government conducted a plebiscite in which those who participated (by this time resident U.S. citizens outnumbered Kingdom subjects[10]) voted to become a state of the United States[11] and the U.S. declared the Hawaiian Islands the 50th state of the United States.

In 2001, a 3-member arbitration panel of the Permanent Court of Arbitrations at the World Court at the Hague, Netherlands verified that the Hawaiian Kingdom to be an independent and sovereign State[12] (Larsen v. Hawaiian Kingdom, 2001, p. 566) and in March 2010, the United States District Court in Washington acknowledged the legitimacy of the *Lili'uokalani assignment* (Sai v. Clinton, March 9, 2010, pp. 2-3), although the U.S. continues to refuse to enforce the Assignment.

Among his conclusions, Blount (Foreign Relations of the United States, 1894, p. 825) reported the following opinion from the Reverend Dr. Charles McEwen Hyde, which reveals the ambition of the conspirators and supporters of the coup.

> The Americanization of the islands will necessitate the use of the English language only as the language of business, of politics, of education, of church service; and open the wide field of English literature.

Thus, prominent in the political agenda of the coup conspirators was the drive to transform Hawaiian speakers into English monoglots.

In 1896, the rebel Republic of Hawai'i government enacted into law Act 57 in which it refused to support Hawaiian-medium education, which resulted in the dwindling of those schools until all schools became English-medium schools by the first decade of the 20th century[13]. Throughout the governance of rebel forces, and through most of the 20th century under U.S. rule, Hawaiian language and culture were stigmatized through pro-American and pro-English legislation and social and political conditioning to the point that, by the mid-20th century, most *Kānaka Maoli* were ashamed to be known as Hawaiian-speakers or practitioners of numerous aspects of traditional Hawaiian culture (see Moore, 2010, p. 11), which led to the atrophy of Hawaiian-speaking communities and, by the last decade of the 20th century, a Hawaiian-speaking population of fewer than 1,000 – a near complete fulfilment of the aspirations of Reverend Dr. Charles McEwen Hyde. The political upheavals in the Hawaiian Kingdom that began in 1893 worked to completely transform the social, political and linguistic makeup of the Hawaiian Islands and are the greatest contributing factors that led to the near total depletion of native-speakers of Hawaiian and, coupled with innovations of second-language speakers of the last decade of the 20th century and the first decades of the 21st century, the greatest disruption in the natural evolution of the Hawaiian language among native speakers.

Privately owned Ni'ihau Island is the only place left in the Hawaiian Islands today where a community of native speakers of Hawaiian (numbering perhaps 200)

continues owing to restricted access to non-residents and the tight-knight, rural lifestyle of residents. In addition, Hawaiian-speaking families who are relatives of those living on Ni'ihau live primarily on the west side of neighbouring Kaua'i Island, particularly in the towns of Kekaha, Waimea, Kaumakani, and Hanapēpē, with a few more families and individuals scattered in other parts of Kaua'i and other islands in Hawai'i (possibly numbering just over 300 in total[14]). Apart from the Ni'ihau community, very few native-speakers exist, and the few that do are older than 60 years old and many of them have not had opportunities to use the language exclusively in decades resulting in many forgetting how to communicate exclusively in Hawaiian (see Reinecke, 1988, p. 124 and Schütz, 1994, p. 365). Thus, by the latter half of the 20th century, Hawaiian had become a foreign language to the vast majority of *Kānaka Maoli*. In contrast, English native speakers (including *Kānaka Maoli* and others) who have learned HAL and are able to converse in Hawaiian to some extent probably number between 2,000 and 3,000 in the first decade of the 21st century[15].

The 1970s marked the beginning of a Hawaiian Renaissance (Kanahele, 1982, pp. 10, 36). By the 1980s, enrollments in courses in HAL were rising steadily, with a boom in enrollments being experienced in the 1990s. In 1984[16], the first Hawaiian immersion preschool was opened in Kekaha, Kaua'i (Wilson & Kamanā, 2001) and Hawaiian immersion schools have now been established on every island except Lāna'i. However, the majority of teachers in these schools are not themselves native speakers of the language, but graduates who learned the language in high schools and/ or post-secondary institutions and many have majored in Hawaiian in tertiary institutions. As Wong (1999, p. 94) observes,

> It has become apparent that new speakers of Hawaiian exhibit a marked divergence from those speakers who acquired Hawaiian as a first language and who are generally considered to be speakers of "real Hawaiian".

It is therefore clear that the future of Hawaiian language and culture now depends, to a very considerable extent, on the teaching and learning of Hawaiian in schools and tertiary-level institutions. It is therefore important to know what is being taught in these institutions and how it is being taught. The survey reported here represents one part of a research project that explores the backgrounds and beliefs of HAL teachers and students using questionnaire-based and interview-based survey techniques, examines a range of relevant curricula and teaching resources and critiques a sample of Hawaiian language lessons that were recorded and then transcribed.

Review of selected literature on language teacher cognition

Research on language teacher cognition, which Borg (2006, p. 1) defines as "what language teachers think, know and believe – and . . . its relationship to teachers' classroom practices", is clearly central to "the process of understanding teaching". This brief review explores selected literature on language teacher cognition that relates to three central aspects of the survey reported here: (a) language teaching methodology and textbook use, (b) language proficiency, and (c) language teacher education.

Language teaching methodology

Communicative competence[17] and, associated with it, communicative language teaching[18], has occupied a very prominent place in the literature on the teaching and learning of additional languages for several decades. These concepts are significant in that they have played a central role in the gradual move away from (a) the translation-based methodology associated with grammar translation (which involved translation exercises, the memorization of long lists of vocabulary and the explicit presentation of named grammatical patterns (see, for example, Fotos, 2005, pp. 653-670; Howatt & Widdowson, 2004, pp. 326-327) and (b) the audio-lingual methodology (which focused on the gaining of grammatical competence through habit formation involving the imitation of decontetualized model sentences and drilling) that was associated with behaviourist psychology and linguistic structuralism). These concepts are also significant in that they are associated with (a) a range of meaning-centered approaches to the design of syllabuses for additional language (see, for example, Wilkins, 1976) that reflect some major developments in linguistics (including developments in the area of pragmatics and discourse analysis), and (b) a general move towards outcomes-based curricula that include a range of new approaches to the specification of achievement objectives/ learner outcomes, including, as well as *communicative outcomes*[19], both *cultural outcomes*[20] and *strategic outcomes*[21]. It is no doubt for these reasons that language teacher cognition research involving methodology has tended to focus on aspects of communicative language teaching (CLT).

Nunan (1987), Kervas-Doukas (1996), Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) and Sato and Kleinsasser (2004), who conducted research relating to language teachers operating in different contexts, uncovered considerable inconsistency between these teachers' beliefs about methodology, and, in particular about their beliefs in relation to CLT, and their classroom practices. All three of them observed that although the teachers involved in their studies had generally positive attitudes towards CLT, their classroom practices, with a few exceptions, deviated from the principles of CLT. In fact, the teachers involved in the study by Sato and Kleinsasser believed that there were serious problems associated with attempting to implement CLT, including lack of appropriate resources and excessive demands on preparation time (pp. 506-507). In addition, their beliefs about what CLT involved, while having *something* in common with what Howatt (1984, pp. 296-297) has referred to as a 'strong version' of CLT (which characterized much of the early literature in the area) had very little in common with the 'weak version' that largely superseded it.[22, 23]

Her (2007, pp. 144-190) and Wang (2008, pp. 79-126) conducted questionnaire-based surveys of teachers of English in Taiwan in which a number of the questions focused on CLT. Wang's survey involved 166 teachers of English in primary schools. Asked to indicate which of a number of entries was closest to their own approach to language teaching, 103 checked 'communicative'. Those who had checked 'communicative' were then asked to list three things that they believed to be primary characteristics of CLT. Only 83 did so, providing a list of 228 items. Of these, only 137 were judged by the researcher to be primary characteristics of CLT although the Taiwanese curriculum for English in schools recommends a communicative approach. Her's (2007) survey involved 66 teachers of English in tertiary-level institutions. Only 18 of the 66 participants in that survey (27%) indicated that they believed that CLT was possible in classes of 20 students or more. However, although almost all of the classes taught by all of the survey participants included 20 or more students, almost half of them (32/

48%) indicated that they believed that their own teaching could be described as 'communicative'.

Taken together, these responses suggest that there may be a disjunction between aspiration and reality so far as teaching methodology is concerned.

Language proficiency

There has been much debate about language proficiency and language proficiency testing over the past two decades. Although much of that debate is to be found in international journals such as *Language Testing* and *Language Assessment Quarterly* which are unlikely to be read by many language teachers, there are many sources of information in this area that are intended primarily for language teachers, including information provided on Internet sites by Ministries of Education which are struggling with the issue of proficiency benchmarking for various stages of language education. In this context, language teachers, especially those involved in tertiary-level institutions, might be expected to have a reasonable grasp of the concept of language proficiency.

In a survey conducted by Wang (2008) in which 166 teachers of English at primary level in Taiwan were asked to assess their own levels of proficiency in reading, writing, listening and speaking in English on the IELTS 9-band scale, only 14% of respondents indicated that they believed that they had an *overall* proficiency in English lower than band 6, and none that they had a proficiency level lower than band 4. In fact, 50 respondents (35%) placed themselves in bands 8 or 9 (the top two bands). That their self-assessed proficiency level is likely to be significantly higher overall than their actual proficiency level is evidenced by a number of studies of English language proficiency in Taiwan (see, for example, Chen & Johnson, 2004; Her, 2007, pp. 191-211). Butler (2004) conducted a survey in which 522 teachers of English (from Japan, Korea and Taiwan) were asked to assess their own level of competence in a number of areas (listening; oral fluency; reading comprehension; writing; vocabulary; grammar; pronunciation) and to indicate what level of competence in these areas they felt was necessary in order to teach English in primary schools successfully. In spite of the fact that the teachers' self-assessments were, overall, relatively high, the vast majority of these teachers (91% of the Korean teachers; 80.1% of the Taiwanese teachers; 85.3% of the Japanese teachers) rated their own level of competence to be lower than the level they considered necessary for successful teaching of English at primary school level (p. 258). The findings of these two studies, taken together, suggest that some language teachers may be less confident of their target language competences than is indicated in self-assessments. Furthermore, as Richards (1998, p. 7) observes, it is not only language proficiency *per se* that matters but also "how language proficiency interacts with other aspects of teaching skill".

Language teacher education

Calderhead (1988, p. 52) observed in the late 1980s that language teacher cognition research focusing on teacher education "promises to be of value in informing . . . policy and the practices of teacher educators". It is, however, important to be cautious about the interpretation of data and, in particular, to avoid generalizing on the basis of limited data. Thus, although Andrews (2006) has observed that discussion of grammar in a particular training course had little impact on the grammar-related beliefs of three

trainees, it may be that a similar study involving a different course and/ or different trainees would yield very different results. Equally, teachers' initial responses to questions about the training they have received need to be treated with circumspection. Although many respondents to a questionnaire-based survey conducted by Wang (2008, p. 39) indicated that they had had training that included a teaching practicum, it emerged during later semi-structured interviews that what they thought of as a practicum may have been "extremely limited in terms of scope" and/or may not have included "components (e.g. detailed feedback) that the researcher associated with the practicum component of training courses" (p. 117). In addition, it is important to relate what teachers say about their training to the actual nature of the training programs to which they have been exposed. Thus, although some researchers (e.g. Adams & Krockover, 1997) have concluded that teacher education can have a significant impact on the knowledge, skills and beliefs of teacher, others (e.g. Richardson, 1996) have argued that it may have little or no impact. It may be that different responses are a reflection of differences in the quality of the training provided.

What all of this indicates is that studies involving language teacher cognition should be considered in the context of as much additional data as possible. For this reason, the conclusions reached on the basis of the questionnaire-based survey should be regarded as tentative. The data have yet to be located in relation to data from semi-structured interviews with selected teachers, a questionnaire-based survey of students of HAL, evaluation of a selection of curriculum documents and textbooks and analysis of a sample of Hawaiian language lessons.

Background to the questionnaire-based survey

The overall aim of the questionnaire-based survey was to determine who teaches HAL in public high schools and tertiary educational institutions in Hawai'i and what are their beliefs about Hawaiian language and culture and the teaching and learning of Hawaiian are. The underlying questions were:

> What are the linguistic and professional backgrounds of a sample of teachers of Hawaiian in public high schools and tertiary educational institutions in Hawai'i and what are their reasons for learning and teaching Hawaiian?
>
> How proficient in the language do they consider themselves to be and what do they do outside of the classroom to further their linguistic and cultural knowledge and understanding?
>
> How do they decide what to teach, how to teach it and what resources to use and how effective do they consider their teaching to be?

It was decided to limit the target group to teachers of Hawaiian at first- and second-year levels in high schools and tertiary institutions. The decision to exclude teachers of the Hawaiian-immersion setting was related to the very different context in which they operate, one that inevitably has implications for approach and methodology. The decision to focus on teachers of first- and second-year courses only was related to consistency with other aspects of the overall research project in which the emphasis is on those courses that are required in order for students to proceed to more advanced study, courses that therefore have a major impact on students' long-term language goals.

The questionnaire was designed, trialled, revised and subjected to all of the appropriate ethics approval processes. It was then distributed, partly by surface mail (with pre-paid reply envelopes) and partly by hand-delivery, along with an outline of the research project and of the ethical protocols that applied, to all 81 teachers who had been identified as being involved in the teaching of HAL to first- and second-year classes in secondary schools and tertiary-level institutions in Hawai'i.

The questionnaire

The questionnaire (see *Appendix*) consisted of thirty-nine (39) questions in seven (7) main sections: *background information; language background and reasons for learning and teaching Hawaiian; interaction with native speakers of Hawaiian; words, concepts, domains and culture; language teacher training; teaching methodologies, teaching materials and assessment; proficiency in Hawaiian.* It ended with a question about how participants believed 'native speaker' could/ should be defined and an opportunity for respondents to make comments and/ or recommendations about the teaching of Hawaiian at first- and second-year levels and to add anything further that they wished.

Overview of the survey data

What is provided here is an overview of the survey data rather than a detailed breakdown of all of the responses.

Background information

Of the 81 potential survey participants identified, there were 30 respondents (a 37% response rate). Of those who did respond, the majority of whom were of Hawaiian ethnicity (87%), there were slightly more women (60%) than men. A majority taught in universities and/ or community colleges (77%) rather than high schools (23%) and had fewer than six (6) years experience of teaching HAL (57%).

Language background and reasons for learning and teaching Hawaiian

Eight (8/27%) of the respondents claimed to have been raised with Hawaiian and at least one other language. Twenty-eight (28/93%) indicated that they had attended Hawaiian classes at secondary and/or or post-secondary schools and two (2) that they had attended Hawaiian immersion pre-school or primary/ secondary schooling. Although only three (3/10%) indicated that at least one Hawaiian-speaking parent had had input into their learning of the language, a further seven (7/23%) referred, in direct responses to questions or in comments, to the fact that they had had contact with Hawaiian-speaking grandparents, elders or others, and one (1) to having used Hawaiian in singing and praying at church.

Over two-thirds of the participants gave as one of their reasons for learning Hawaiian the fact that they wanted to better understand native Hawaiian culture (25/83%), wanted to read old documents written in Hawaiian (24/80%), believed that it was important to perpetuate the language and culture of their ancestors (23/77%) or wanted to interact with native speakers (23/77%). Just under two-thirds indicated that one reason was a desire to interact with learners of HAL (18/54.5%) and almost half indicated that they wanted to become teachers of Hawaiian (14/47%). Among the additional reasons provided was a desire to pass on the language (2) and to understand the meaning of Hawaiian song and dance (2).

The most popular reason selected for wanting to teach Hawaiian was that respondents' enjoyed the language and culture (28/93%). This was closely followed by the desire to ensure that Hawaiian language and culture are perpetuated (26/87%) and the desire to raise awareness of Hawaiian issues (24/80%).

Interaction with native speakers of Hawaiian

All of the respondents indicated that they believed that interaction with native speakers was essential (23/78%), very important (5/11%) or important (4/11%) in terms of being effective as a teacher of HAL although several of the comments added by respondents referred to the difficulty of achieving this. Although over two-thirds of the respondents reported that they regularly engaged in reading Hawaiian language material at the time of the survey (21/70%), a considerably smaller number reported that they regularly listened to or viewed recordings of native speakers speaking Hawaiian (12/40%). Fewer than half of the respondents (11/37%) reported that they regularly engaged in conversations in Hawaiian with native speakers (although many more reported that they had done so regularly in the past). However, only eleven (11/30%) indicated that they did not find it difficult to meet with native speakers. Among those who indicated that they did find it difficult to do so, almost a quarter indicated that they did not know any native speakers (7/23%) or that those they knew lived far from them (8/27%). Among the comments was one that indicated that it would be good to have native speakers in the classroom from time to time.

Words, concepts, domains, and culture

Asked what they do when they do not know the word/ term for a particular concept in Hawaiian, almost half indicated that they would (presumably when other approaches failed) use an English term (13/45%). Asked when they used Hawaiian, fewer than half (13/45%) indicated that they always did so when speaking to other speakers of the language although the vast majority indicated that they believed it was essential or very important (27/90%) to use Hawaiian when speaking to second language Hawaiian speakers. Asked which of 12 listed aspects of Hawaiian culture they had experience of, or considerable knowledge about, only five (5) of the items in the list were selected by half or more than half of the respondents.

Only 12 (44%) of the respondents indicated that they had children. However, most of them indicated that they spoke to their children in Hawaiian for 50% of the time or more.

Language teacher training

Just under half (14/47%) of the participants claimed that they had a degree in second language teaching/ learning. However, the inclusion of 'learning' in the question made it ambiguous: some of those who responded in the affirmative may have done so because they had a degree that involved language learning. The number who indicated that their training had involved specific areas of language teaching may, therefore, be more reliable guide. In this respect, it is interesting to note that although just over half of the participants (16/53%) claimed that they had some training in language teaching methodologies, fewer than half, in most cases considerably fewer than half, indicated that they had training in any of the other areas listed, with only six (6/20%) claiming to have been involved in a language teaching practicum. Although most of the participants indicated that they believed that training in language teaching and learning was important for Hawaiian language teachers (25/85%) and indicated that they

believed that they would themselves benefit from further training, when asked which of eight (8) possible areas they might benefit from receiving further training in, the actual number who selected each area was very small, with, for example, only 2 selecting materials design and development.

Teaching methodologies, teaching materials, and assessment

That these Hawaiian language teachers might benefit from training in language teaching is evidenced by the fact that well over two-thirds of them (23/76%) claimed to use translation to explain meaning all of the time (7/23%), more than half of the time (15/50%) or about half of the time (1). Furthermore, although ten (10/33%) of the teachers indicated that they had received training in the area of communicative language teaching, and although the same number considered their teaching to be communicative, just under half indicated that they did not know whether it was or not (12/40%), indicated that it was not (2), and six (6/20%) did not respond to this question.

When asked to list two or three aspects of their teaching that they considered to be communicative, ten (10/33%) respondents provided 24 entries. These entries, however, did not indicate that all of them had any real understanding of what is involved in communicative language teaching (CLT).[24] Of the twenty-eight (28/93%) who responded to the relevant question, 22% indicated that they did not regard it as essential to include Hawaiian cultural elements in their classes. Just under half indicated that they did not refer to Hawaiian deities or the Hawaiian way of dividing time (46%) and over one-third that they did not refer to genealogy (39%).

When asked whether their courses were associated with a specific set of achievement objectives, a large number of respondents ticked both 'yes' and 'no' or both 'yes' and 'don't know', possibly indicating that some of them believed that the association of language classes with specific objectives was not relevant all of the time, but also suggesting that at least some of them were unclear about exactly what might be involved in setting specific objectives.

When averaged out over first and second year classes, only 9% of the respondents indicated that they spent 25% or less of their time in the classroom talking. Furthermore, two (2) of the five (5) respondents who provided comments at this point provided as evidence of student talking time the fact that their students repeated what they said.

More than half of the 28 participants who responded to a question about the amount of time they spent at the front of the class indicated that in the first semester of the first year they did so for 76% or more of the time (12/40%) or for between 51% and 75% of the time (7/23%). When asked how much of the time they spent speaking English in class, all 28 participants who responded indicated that they did so for more than 25% of the time in the case of first year, with 75% indicating that they did so for over 50% of the time in these classes. In the case of second year, second semester classes, only 39% indicated that they did so for 25% of class time or less.

Of the 28 participants who responded to the relevant questions, 60% signalled that their students spent 50% or less of class time in the first semester of their first year of study on pair work and group work and 34% indicated that they spent more than 50%

of their time at the front of the class in first year of classes, with only 39% indicating that they did so for 25% or less of the time in second year, second semester classes. A telling comment by one of the teachers was: *In the second year we tend to go through stories and translate them into English.*

Of the 27 participants who responded to a question asking whether they used textbooks, twenty-three (23/77%) indicated that they did. When asked why they used particular textbooks, all of the participants responded. However, overall, fewer than half (44%) indicated that they did so specifically because they liked the books.

Although many of the 27 who indicated the extent to which they regarded their courses to be successful selected 'very successful' or 'mostly successful', an average of 15% indicated that they regarded them as being only 'somewhat successful'. Of the seven (7) comments provided at this point, four (4) indicated dissatisfaction with what was being achieved and two (2) indicated that success was seen in terms of comparison with other teachers rather than the achievement of objectives.

Proficiency in Hawaiian

Asked to assess their own Hawaiian language proficiency on a scale from 1 (lowest) to 6 (highest), 28 responded. Of these, eleven (11) located themselves somewhere between bands 3 and 4.5 and seventeen (17) in bands 5, 5.5 or 6. Asked to indicate what proficiency level they regarded as being ideal for teachers of first- and second-year students, ten (10) selected bands 3, 4 or 4.5, one (1) selected 'from 3 to 6' and fourteen (14) selected bands 5, 5.5 and 6.

There was no overall agreement among the teachers when asked to indicate what they believed to be the average proficiency level of students on completion of different educational stages. Responses ranged through levels 1, 2, 4 and 5 for Year 1, Semester 1; 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 for Year 1, Semester 2; 1, 2, 3 and 4 for Year 2, Semester 1; and 2, 3 and 4 for Year 2, Semester 2. What this seems to indicate is that there is very little real understanding of the concept of proficiency among at least some of the respondents.

Respondents' views about the concept of 'native speaker' and comments/ recommendations concerning the teaching and learning of Hawaiian

Asked to select a definition of 'native speaker', ten (10) out of twenty-eight (28) respondents checked the following category: *Someone who has at least one parent/ guardian who learned to speak Hawaiian as a second language and raised them speaking Hawaiian since they were born.* What this suggests is the fact that the traditional definition of 'native speaker' is being replaced in Hawai'i by one that acknowledges/ accommodates the realities of a situation in which there are very few genuine native speakers left. This is something that will inevitably have an impact on the ways in which the language is thought of in the future.

Asked to provide comments or recommendations concerning the teaching of first- and second-year Hawaiian classes, eleven (11) participants responded. Among the comments provided were four (4) that emphasized the importance of culture and/ or native speaker input and two (2) that emphasized the importance of varied activities and/ or resources. However, among the comments was one (1) from a teacher with only one semester's teaching experience who recommended using English in teaching HAL.

Of the eight (8) participants who responded to an invitation to add any other comments they wished, three (3) indicated the need/ desire for ways of improving their teaching and/ or speaking skills, four (4) referred to some aspect of what one of them identified as a 'disconnect between language learning and culture', and one (1) referred to the need to ensure that the language was pertinent to every-day activities.

Conclusion

The overall picture provided by the questionnaire data is one of a fairly representative sample of teachers of Hawaiian, most of whom are of Hawaiian ethnicity, but many of whom appear to have had little contact with Hawaiian language and culture prior to their secondary- or tertiary-level educational experiences. Although these teachers appear to be deeply committed to the maintenance of Hawaiian language and, in many cases, also to Hawaiian culture, not all of them believe that interaction with native speakers is essential. Although many of these teachers indicated that they had had some training in language teaching, their responses to a range of questions about aspects of their own teaching and about their own proficiency in Hawaiian language and that of their students suggests that many of them have little knowledge or understanding of changes and developments in the teaching of additional languages that have taken place since the 1970s. One indicator of this is the extent to which they reported that they relied on translation to convey meaning. Another is the difficulty they clearly had in benchmarking the expected proficiency levels of their students. It is important to emphasize, however, that these conclusions are provisional ones: the questionnaire data needs to be carefully considered in the context of other aspects of the overall research program, some of which are still under way.

Endnotes

1. ***Acknowledgment.*** I would like to express my sincere appreciation to Dr Winifred Crombie, my chief PhD supervisor (School of Māori and Pacific Development at the University of Waikato), as well as my other supervisors, Dr Diane Johnson (Linguistics Department of the University of Waikato), Dr Hēmi Whaanga (School of Māori and Pacific Development at the University of Waikato) and Dr Victoria Anderson (Linguistics Department of the University of Hawai'i at Mānoa) for their diligent and proactive supervision and mentorship. I also want to thank Dr Rapata Wiri, who introduced me to the University of Waikato and my supervisors. This work is a tribute to my grandmother, Annie Kealoha Kaaialii Kauhane, and my uncle, Dr Hector Tahu (Ngāpuhi).

2. '*Kanaka Maoli*', with no initial long 'a' is the singular term and '*Kānaka Maoli*', with the long initial 'a' is plural.

3. CE = Common Era, a designation for the world's most commonly used year-numbering system.

4. Green (1966, p. 34) classifies the Hawaiian language as a branch of the Proto-Marquesic group of eastern Polynesian languages.

5. By the end of the 19th century, the Hawaiian Kingdom had entered into treaties with seventeen (17) countries, had over ninety (90) legations and consulates around the world, and was the first non-European member State of the Universal Postal Union (Thrum, 1892, p. 140).

6. Provisions of Hawaiian neutrality were also incorporated in the 1863 Hawaiian-Spanish treaty and 1852 Hawaiian-Swedish/Norwegian treaty (Sai, 2008, p. 75).

7. See http://www2.hawaii.edu/~speccoll/hawaiinewspapers-date.html for a listing of different Hawaiian language newspaper titles and their years of circulation.

8. A republic in name only.
9. As a unilateral action, a joint resolution has no effect outside the borders of the issuing State, therefore having no effect in the Hawaiian Kingdom, having been acknowledged as a sovereign State by the U.S. in multiple bilateral treaties with the Kingdom.
10. See Sai 2008 (p. 133) regarding how the U.S. began counting Kingdom subjects as U.S. citizens.
11. As an occupied territory, the U.S.'s installation of military bases, its movement of U.S. citizens to the Kingdom without regard for international protocols, and its conducting of a plebiscite, inter alia, constitute clear violations of the Fourth Geneva Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War of 1949, as a state of war persists as a consequence of establishing military bases in the Hawaiian Islands to support the U.S.'s war with Spain.
12. Matthew Craven (2002, p. 5) stated, "the continuity of the Hawaiian Kingdom . . . may be refuted only by reference to a valid demonstration of legal title, or sovereignty, on the part of the United States." Lacking a bilateral treaty of cession between the Hawaiian Kingdom and the United States of America, the U.S. has not been able to produce such a valid demonstration.
13. Act 57, Sec. 30 of the 1896 Laws of the Republic of Hawai'i: "The English Language shall be the medium and basis of instruction in all public and private schools, provided that where it is desired that another language shall be taught in addition to the English language, such instruction may be authorized by the Department, either by its rules, the curriculum of the school, or by direct order in any particular instance. Any schools that shall not conform to the provisions of this section shall not be recognized by the Department." [signed] June 8, 1896, Sanford B. Dole, President of the Republic of Hawai'i.
14. Owing largely to their relative isolation, many elderly among the Ni'ihau community do not speak English very well.
15. Taking into account students and teachers of Hawaiian immersion schools and mainstream schools and institutions.
16. The same year that Act 57 was finally repealled by the U.S. installed government.
17. Notions of **communicative competence** were initially outlined by Campbell and Wales (1970). For them, communicative competence involved (a) knowledge of rules (formal possibility); (b) understanding of the constraints on the application of these rules in particular contexts (implementational feasibility); (c) appreciation of contextual appropriacy; and (d) understanding of the performative role of utterances (i.e. the illocutionary component of speech acts). There have been many other accounts of communicative competence/s (see, for example, Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1995); Council of Europe, 2001; Habermas (1970); Hymes (1971); Jakobovits (1970)).
18. **CLT** has been described in different ways (see, for example, Bachman, 1990; Beretta, 1998, p. 233; Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1997; Howatt, 1984, pp. 296-297; Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p. 35). Thus, for example, Littlewood (1981) identified four (4) broad skills associated with CLT: manipulation of the language system; ability to relate form and communicative function; understanding of the social meanings of linguistic forms; and strategic control in the use of language to communicate effectively in specific situations (p. 6). He also identified three general principles: *the communication principle* (involving the belief that activities that engage genuine communication promote learning); *the task principle* (according to the extent to which language is used to carry out meaningful tasks is regarded as important to language learning); and *the meaningfulness principle* (according to which the learning process is supported to the extent that language is used meaningfully) (pp. 6, 77 & 78). What is common among the various descriptions is the emphasis on "teaching that encourages learners to engage in meaningful communication in the target language – communication that has a function over and above that of language learning itself" (Ministry of Education (New Zealand), 2002, p. 16).

19. ***Communicative outcomes*** involve the ability to understand and use language to achieve specified communicative goals such as, for example, communicating about likes and dislikes or about habits and routines.
20. ***Cultural outcomes*** involve knowledge and understanding of specific aspects of cultural knowledge and understanding and the ability to make use of this knowledge and understanding in communicative contexts.
21. ***Strategic outcomes*** include, for example, the ability to use a range of language learning strategies.
22. Howatt (1984, pp. 296-297) noted that there was both a 'strong' version of CLT and a 'weak' version. Only the strong version rejects communicative activities that include any type of structural focus.
23. Thompson (1996) notes that two common misconceptions about CLT among his colleagues were (a) that it focuses exclusively on speaking, and (b) that it involves the rejection of any focus on form.
24. Thus, for example, at least four (4) of the entries are wholly inappropriate and at least nine (9) appear to be predicated on the belief that CLT focuses exclusively on listening and speaking skills. The items that seem most relevant refer to 'the written and oral engagement of students' and 'the immediate application of learned materials'. However, there is no indication of what is involved in ensuring that this engagement/ application takes place. Furthermore, the three (3) comments provided in connection with this question indicate that at least some of the respondents confuse CLT and direct method.

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***Appendix*: Survey for teachers of first and second year Hawaiian in public high schools, community colleges and universities in Hawai'i**

THE UNIVERSITY OF
WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

Survey for teachers of first and second year Hawaiian

in public high schools, community colleges and universities in Hawai'i

This teacher survey is part of a research project conducted by Keao NeSmith for a PhD degree in Applied Linguistics in the School of Māori and Pacific Development at the University of Waikato in New Zealand (www.waikato.ac.nz). There are three phases to the survey and you have the freedom to participate in any, all or no part of it. Phase One is the attached questionnaire which takes about 20 minutes to fill out. Your students may also be invited to participate in a student survey (community college and university students only).

The overall aim of this research project is to investigate how Hawaiian language and culture are taught in public high schools, community colleges and universities in the first two years of study and to identify areas of best practice. It is hoped that the outcome of this research will be useful to all Hawaiian language teachers.

If you do not wish to participate, that is not a problem. If you do, please fill out the attached questionnaire (Phase One) as requested. Phases Two and Three are explained on the last two pages. Please fill in your contact information in Phases Two and/or Three ONLY IF you are willing to take part in either of those phases. Please do not fill in your contact information if you do not want to participate in Phases Two and/or Three.

The identity of participants will NOT be made available to anyone other than the researcher and his supervisors. Participants will NOT be named or identified in any way in the reporting of the research. A code will be created for the final report to represent each survey participant and their school to ensure anonymity. If you choose to participate in Phases Two and/or Three, and are selected for participation in them, your school will be provided a copy of the report after it is completed. **Please provide the mailing address of your school <u>only</u> if you wish to participate in Phases Two and/or Three.**

Instructions/Information

• Please place *either* a check in the appropriate boxes *or* provide a written response (in English or Hawaiian).
• If you are uncomfortable with any particular question, *please feel free to skip it* and move on to the next question.
• At the end of the questionnaire, you are asked to add any comments that you believe may be relevant to this research project.

Part 1: Background Information

1. What is your gender?
   Male ☐
   Female ☐

2. What is your ethnic background?
   Native Hawaiian ☐
   (i.e. having at least one ancestor who was born in the Hawaiian Islands before 1778)
   Other than Native Hawaiian ☐

3. How long have you been teaching Hawaiian?
   _____ year(s)
   _____ semester(s)

4. What level school do you currently teach at?
   High school ☐
   Community college ☐
   University ☐

5. What Hawaiian language course(s) do you teach? Please check all that apply.
   First year 1st semester (eg. 101, 1100, etc.) ☐
   First year 2nd semester (eg. 102, 1200, etc.) ☐
   Second year 1st semester (eg. 201, 2100, etc.) ☐
   Second year 2nd semester (eg. 202, 2200, etc.) ☐

Part 2: Language Background and Reasons for Learning and Teaching Hawaiian

6. What language(s) were you raised with from birth (i.e. the language used to communicate whole/complete thoughts, *not just words*)? Please check all that apply.

   Standard American English ☐
   Pidgin ☐
   Hawaiian ☐
   Other language(s) (please specify): ☐

7. Which of the following apply to you? Please check all that apply.

At least one of my parents/guardians raised me speaking Hawaiian since I was born, *and they were also raised in the same way.* ☐
I learned to speak Hawaiian by being raised by at least one parent/guardian *who learned to speak Hawaiian as a second language.* ☐
I learned to speak Hawaiian at Pūnana Leo. ☐
I learned to speak Hawaiian at a Kula Kaiapuni Hawai'i. ☐

I learned to speak Hawaiian by taking courses at an English-medium high school. ☐
I learned to speak Hawaiian by taking courses at a post-secondary school (i.e. community college or university). ☐
Other (please specify): ☐

8. What was your reason for learning Hawaiian? Please check all that apply.

Hawaiian is the primary language of my family. ☐
I am native Hawaiian and I believe that it is important for me to perpetuate the language and culture of my ancestors. ☐
I am not native Hawaiian, but I want to help preserve Hawaiian language and culture. ☐
I wanted to be able to interact with native speakers of Hawaiian in their language. ☐
I wanted to be able to interact with other second language learners of Hawaiian in the language. ☐
So that I can read old documents written in Hawaiian. ☐
To become a teacher of Hawaiian. ☐
To better understand native Hawaiian culture. ☐
Other reason(s) (please specify): ☐

9. What are your reasons for teaching Hawaiian? Please check all that apply.

I want to raise awareness about Hawaiian issues, including political and language issues. ☐
I enjoy teaching Hawaiian language and culture. ☐
I want to make sure that the Hawaiian language and culture are perpetuated. ☐
Other reason(s) (please specify): ☐

Part 3: Interaction with Native Speakers of Hawaiian

10. How important do you think it is to interact with native Hawaiian speakers in order to be an effective language teacher?

Essential ☐
Very important ☐
Important ☐
Not important ☐
Comment, if any:

11. What have you done *in the past* and what do you do *these days* to help you become more native-like in the way you speak Hawaiian?

	In the past	These days
Sometimes listen to or view recordings of native speakers speaking Hawaiian.	☐	☐
Regularly listen to or view recordings of native speakers speaking Hawaiian.	☐	☐
Sometimes engage in conversations in Hawaiian with native speakers.	☐	☐
Regularly engage in conversations in Hawaiian with native speakers.	☐	☐
Sometimes read Hawaiian language material (eg. newspapers, books, websites, etc.)	☐	☐

Regularly read Hawaiian language material (eg. newspapers, books, websites, etc.) ☐
Other activity (please specify): ☐

12. Is it difficult for you to get together with native speakers to engage in conversations in Hawaiian?

Yes ☐ No ☐

• If you answered 'yes', what is/are the problem(s)? Please check all that apply.

I don't know any native speakers that I can meet and carry on conversations with in Hawaiian. ☐
I know native speakers that I can carry on conversations with in Hawaiian, but not well enough to feel comfortable meeting with them during off-work hours. ☐
I don't have the time to meet and carry on conversations with native speakers. ☐
I am embarrassed to engage in conversations with native speakers in Hawaiian because I am afraid of making mistakes when I speak the language. ☐
Conversation topics are limited to topics I am not very interested in. ☐
The native speakers I know live far from me. ☐
Other problem(s) (please specify): ☐

Part 4: Words, Concepts, Domains and Culture

13. If you come across a concept or term that you don't know how to express in Hawaiian, what do you do? Please check all that apply.

Ask a native speaker. ☐
Ask a colleague. ☐
Search the Hawaiian language dictionaries. ☐
Use the English term. ☐
Create expressions/terms myself. ☐
Other (please specify): ☐

14. When do you use Hawaiian? Please check all that apply.

In class and at faculty meetings. ☐
Always with other Hawaiian speakers.
More than half of the time with other Hawaiian speakers.
Occasionally with other Hawaiian speakers.
With family members who speak Hawaiian. ☐
To compose oli/mele.
To read and write.
Other occasion(s) (please specify):

15. How important do you think it is to use Hawaiian when speaking to second language Hawaiian speakers?

Essential ☐
Very important ☐
Important ☐
Not important ☐
Comment, if any:

16. Which of the following elements of Hawaiian culture do you have experience in or considerable knowledge about?

- ☐ Preparation of traditional Hawaiian foods (eg. 'ō'io lomi, kō'elepālau, laulau, kālua imu, etc.)
- ☐ Putting together pā'ina, 'aha'aina, knowledge of customs associated with feasting, feasting occasions, etc.
- ☐ Fishing
- ☐ Farming (kalo, mai'a, vegetables, plants, etc.)
- ☐ Hula/oli/music
- ☐ Surfing/canoe paddling
- ☐ Fiber crafts (eg. lau hala weaving, kapa making, coconut leaf weaving, cordage making, etc.)
- ☐ Lei making
- ☐ Traditional Hawaiian tattoo
- ☐ Traditional Hawaiian wood or stone carving
- ☐ Rock wall or platform construction
- ☐ Lomilomi
- ☐ Other (please specify):

17. Do you have children?

Yes ☐ No ☐

• If you answered 'yes', approximately what percentage of the time do you speak Hawaiian to them? _____%

Comment, if any:

Part 5: Language teacher training

18. Please check the box or insert a number if any of the following statements applies to you.

I have a degree (please circle those which pertain to you: Certificate, Associates, Bachelors, Masters, PhD) in second language teaching/learning.	☐
I have qualifications in teaching that included second language teaching.	☐
I took *at least one* course in second language teaching or TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language) as an undergraduate or graduate student.	☐
As part of a course I have completed, I was involved in a practicum (i.e. a course that involved teaching a second language to real students under the supervision of a trainer).	☐
I have attended in-service workshops and/or conferences on second language teaching.	☐
How many in-service workshops on second language teaching have you attended?	_____

19. Which, if any, of the following areas relating to second language teaching/learning have you had some training in?

How students learn second languages	☐ How much training? _____ **circle one:** hrs/days/semesters
Materials design and development	☐ How much training? _____ **circle one:** hrs/days/semesters

Specification of achievement objectives	☐	How much training? _____ **circle one:** hrs/days/semesters
Language teaching methodologies	☐	How much training? _____ **circle one:** hrs/days/semesters
Critical evaluation of methodology	☐	How much training? _____ **circle one:** hrs/days/semesters
Textbook and materials evaluation	☐	How much training? _____ **circle one:** hrs/days/semesters
Assessment	☐	How much training? _____ **circle one:** hrs/days/semesters
Communicative language teaching	☐	How much training? _____ **circle one:** hrs/days/semesters

20. Do you feel that you would benefit from training/further training in any of the above areas listed in Question 19?

    Yes ☐ No ☐

    • If you answered 'yes', in which of these areas do you believe you would benefit from training?

21. Do you feel that training in some or all of the areas listed in Question 19 above is important for Hawaiian language teachers?

    Yes ☐ No ☐

    Why or why not? (please explain)

Part 6: Teaching Methodologies, Teaching Materials and Assessment

22. How often, if at all, do you use translation to explain the meaning of new words, phrases and constructions to your students in your first and/or second year level Hawaiian course(s)?

    All of the time ☐
    More than half of the time ☐
    Occasionally ☐
    Never ☐

23. Would you describe your teaching as 'communicative language teaching'?

    Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐

    • If you answered 'yes', what are two or three aspects of your teaching that you consider to be communicative?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Comment, if any:

24. Do you use one or more textbooks in teaching Hawaiian?

Yes ☐ No ☐

• If you answered 'yes', please give the title(s) and/or author(s) of the text(s) you use for the first and/or second year level course(s) you teach.

First Year, Semester 1 (eg. 101, 1100, etc.)	Title/author of Text 1:
	Title/author of Text 2:
First Year, Semester 2 (eg. 102, 1200, etc.)	Title/author of Text 1:
	Title/author of Text 2:
Second Year, Semester 1 (eg. 201, 2100, etc.)	Title/author of Text 1:
	Title/author of Text 2:
Second Year, Semester 2 (eg. 202, 2200, etc.)	Title/author of Text 1:
	Title/author of Text 2:

25. If you listed one or more textbooks in response to Question 24 above, why do you use this textbook/these textbooks? Please check all that apply.

	Text for First Year, Semester 1 (eg. 101, 1100, etc.)	Text for First Year, Semester 2 (eg. 102, 1200, etc.)	Text for Second Year, Semester 1 (eg. 201, 2100, etc.)	Text for Second Year, Semester 2 (eg. 202, 2200, etc.)
It is/they are required by my department.	☐	☐	☐	☐
It was/they were used by my Hawaiian language teachers.	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is/they are used by my colleagues.	☐	☐	☐	☐
I think it is/they are good.	☐	☐	☐	☐
I don't like it/them, but I can't find a textbook that I do like.	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other reason(s) (please specify):	☐	☐	☐	☐

26. On average, how much time do you spend talking in your first and/or second year Hawaiian course(s)?

	First Year, Semester 1 (eg. 101, 1100, etc.)	First Year, Semester 2 (eg. 102, 1200, etc.)	Second Year, Semester 1 (eg. 201, 2100, etc.)	Second Year, Semester 2 (eg. 202, 2200, etc.)
76% of the time or more	☐	☐	☐	☐
between 51% and 75% of the time	☐	☐	☐	☐
between 26% and 50% of the time	☐	☐	☐	☐
25% of the time or less	☐	☐	☐	☐
Comment, if any:	☐	☐	☐	☐

27. On average, how much time do you spend at the *front* of the classroom teaching (as opposed to any other location in the classroom) in your first and/or second year Hawaiian course(s)?

	First Year, Semester 1 (eg. 101, 1100, etc.)	First Year, Semester 2 (eg. 102, 1200, etc.)	Second Year, Semester 1 (eg. 201, 2100, etc.)	Second Year, Semester 2 (eg. 202, 2200, etc.)
76% of the time or more	☐	☐	☐	☐
between 51% and 75% of the time	☐	☐	☐	☐
between 26% and 50% of the time	☐	☐	☐	☐
25% of the time or less	☐	☐	☐	☐
Comment, if any:	☐	☐	☐	☐

28. On average, how much time in class do students spend doing pair or group work in your first and/or second year Hawaiian course(s)?

	First Year, Semester 1 (eg. 101, 1100, etc.)	First Year, Semester 2 (eg. 102, 1200, etc.)	Second Year, Semester 1 (eg. 201, 2100, etc.)	Second Year, Semester 2 (eg. 202, 2200, etc.)
76% of the time or more	☐	☐	☐	☐
between 51% and 75% of the time	☐	☐	☐	
between 26% and 50% of the time	☐	☐	☐	☐
25% of the time or less	☐	☐	☐	☐
Comment, if any:	☐	☐	☐	☐

29. How much time do you spend speaking English in class?

	First Year, Semester 1 (eg. 101, 1100, etc.)	First Year, Semester 2 (eg. 102, 1200, etc.)	Second Year, Semester 1 (eg. 201, 2100, etc.)	Second Year, Semester 2 (eg. 202, 2200, etc.)
76% of the time or more	☐	☐	☐	☐
between 51% and 75% of the time	☐	☐	☐	☐
between 26% and 50% of the time	☐	☐	☐	☐
25% of the time or less	☐	☐	☐	☐
Comment, if any:	☐	☐	☐	☐

30. What Hawaiian cultural elements do you teach in your Hawaiian language classes? Please check all that apply. Please see Question 16 for suggestions on cultural elements that you may list below.

	First Year, Semester 1 (eg. 101, 1100, etc.)	First Year, Semester 2 (eg. 102, 1200, etc.)	Second Year, Semester 1 (eg. 201, 2100, etc.)	Second Year, Semester 2 (eg. 202, 2200, etc.)
Behavior (eg. body language, cultural morés, values, difference between traditional and modern norms, etc.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Time division (eg. names of the moon phases, planting seasons, using the traditional Hawaiian calendar to mark special events, etc.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Genealogy (eg. ali'i of the various islands, students' families, patrilineal/matrilineal significance, etc.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Using Hawaiian values for problem solving (eg. political, legal, financial issues, traditional vs modern needs, etc.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Hawaiian deities and traditions associated with them, shift from traditional to modern belief systems, etc.	☐	☐	☐	☐

Other (please specify):

31. How important do you think it is to include Hawaiian culture in first and/or second year Hawaiian language course(s)?

Essential ☐
Very important ☐
Important ☐
Not important ☐
Comment, if any: ☐

32. Is there a specific set of achievement objectives for the first and/or second year Hawaiian course(s) you teach (in terms of what students should be able to do using the Hawaiian language at the end of the course, eg. being able to communicate about habitual or regular activities)?

First Year, Semester 1 (eg. 101, 1100, etc.)	First Year, Semester 2 (eg. 102, 1200, etc.)	Second Year, Semester 1 (eg. 201, 2100, etc.)	Second Year, Semester 2 (eg. 202, 2200, etc.)
Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐	Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐	Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐	Yes ☐ No ☐ Don't Know ☐

• If you checked 'yes' for any of the above courses you teach, who establishes these objectives? Please check all that apply.

Hawai'i State Department of Education ☐
Your Department ☐
You ☐
Someone else/some other office (please specify): ☐
Comment, if any:

33. In your opinion, how successful is the teaching of first and second year Hawaiian in your department?

	First Year, Semester 1 (eg. 101, 1100, etc.)	First Year, Semester 2 (eg. 102, 1200, etc.)	Second Year, Semester 1 (eg. 201, 2100, etc.)	Second Year, Semester 2 (eg. 202, 2200, etc.)
Very successful	☐	☐	☐	
Mostly successful	☐	☐	☐	
Somewhat successful	☐	☐	☐	
Not successful	☐	☐	☐	
Comment, if any:	☐	☐	☐	

Part 7: Proficiency in Hawaiian

Please use the following 6-point scale (**one** being *least capable* and **six** being *most capable*) to answer Questions 34-36:

1 **Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type.** (eg. can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.)

2 **Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance.** (eg. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment. Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate relevance.)

3 **Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc.** (eg. can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.)

4 **Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialization.** (eg. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.)

5 **Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning.** (eg. can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.)

6 **Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read.** (eg. can summarize information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.)

34. How do you rate your level of proficiency in Hawaiian? Based on the scale provided on the previous page, please circle the appropriate number:

Least					*Most*
Capable					*Capable*
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

Comment, if any:

35. How proficient do you believe a teacher of first or second year Hawaiian should ideally be? Based on the scale provided on the previous page, please circle the appropriate number:

Least					*Most*
Capable					*Capable*
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

Comment, if any:

36. Approximately how proficient do you believe average students are who complete your first or second year Hawaiian courses? Based on the scale provided on the previous page, please circle the appropriate number:

	Least Capable					*Most Capable*
First year, 1st semester (eg. 101, 1100, etc.)	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
First year, 2nd semester (eg. 102, 1200, etc.)	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Second year, 1st semester (eg. 201, 2100, etc.)	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Second year, 2nd semester (eg. 202, 2200, etc.)	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

Comment, if any:

Part 8: Your Views

37. Which of the following would you classify as a native speaker of Hawaiian? Please check all that apply.

Someone who has at least one parent/guardian who raised them speaking Hawaiian since they were born, *and was/were also raised in the same way.* ☐

Someone who has at least one parent/guardian *who learned to speak Hawaiian as a second language* and raised them speaking Hawaiian since they were born. ☐

Some other definition (please explain): ☐

38. What comments or recommendations do you have regarding the teaching of first and second year Hawaiian?

39. Is there anything you would like to add to the responses you have already supplied?

The impact on language teachers of trends in the literature on language teaching and learning: A questionnaire-based study involving teachers of English as an additional language

Anthea Fester
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato (University of Waikato)
Private Bag 3105, Hamilton, New Zealand
[amfester@waikato.ac.nz]

Abstract
I report here on specific aspects of a survey of a sample of 93 teachers of English as an additional language from five different countries who completed a questionnaire that included questions relating to objectives specification and the inclusion of coherence, cohesion and genre in their teaching. The data collected suggest that although literature on language teaching and learning appears to have had some impact on the beliefs and practices of these language teachers, that impact has, in general, been a superficial one.

Introduction

Over the past few decades, there has been increasing emphasis in the literature on the teaching and learning of additional languages and on the relevance of research on discourse analysis, including research on coherence, cohesion and genre. There has also been increasing emphasis on the specification of achievement objectives/ expected course outcomes in terms of what learners can be expected to be able to do at particular stages in their learning. In an attempt to determine the extent to which this literature has impacted on the attitudes and practices of teachers, a questionnaire-based survey was conducted. A draft questionnaire was trialled by three language teachers and then adapted in line with their recommendations. The final version of the questionnaire, along with the procedures associated with it, was approved by the appropriate research ethics committee.[1] It was then distributed to 220 full-time and part-time teachers of English as an additional language in both ESL and EFL environments. Of the 220 questionnaires distributed, 93 either fully or partially completed questionnaires were returned (a 42% response rate). Each of the returned questionnaires was allocated a number for convenience in relation to data entry and analysis. Only those aspects of the questionnaire that relate to coherence and cohesion, genre and objectives specification are reported here.

Review of selected literature on the teaching and learning of additional languages

There have been a number of major changes and developments in the teaching of additional languages since the mid-1970s. At the core of many of these changes and developments has been the impact of the challenge to behaviourism and linguistic structuralism that began to gain ground from the late 1950s onward and that, by the 1970s, had led to serious questioning of the structural approach to language syllabus design and the impact on language teaching of audio-lingual habit theory. Within this context, developments in discourse analysis played a major role in directing the attention of language teachers to the importance of supra-sentential considerations. Two major, inter-acting strands of research in the area of discourse analysis that have impacted on the teaching of additional languages are (a) research on semantic relations and their realization and (b) research on genre. These, along with a range of other developments, have led to new ways of thinking about the linguistic content of language courses and, associated with them, to new ways of conceptualizing the

achievement objectives associated with the teaching and learning of additional languages.

The concept of 'communicative competence' which emerged in the 1970s (see, for example, Campbell & Wales (1970); Habermas (1970); Hymes (1971); Jakobovits (1970)), was extended and developed by, among others, Bachman and Palmer (1996), Canale (1983), Canale and Swain (1980) and Oller (1983). In one of its most widely known articulations (Council of Europe, 2001), it includes linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences, the last of which includes 'discourse competence', that is "the ability of a user/learner to arrange sentences in sequence so as to produce coherent stretches of language" (p. 123). Fundamental to this are the concepts of coherence and cohesion. A text is *coherent* to the extent that it makes sense to us. A text is *cohesive* to the extent that it includes *cohesive devices*, that is, words, phrases, etc. that function to link its various parts together. Fundamental to both coherence and cohesion are inter-propositional semantic relations (that is, relationships of meaning that link propositions and groups of propositions together) and the ways in which these relationships may be signalled or signposted. As Crombie (1985a, pp. 21 & 5) observes:

> Underlying the theory of semantic relations is the observation that when we communicate with one another through language, we do not do so simply by means of individual words or clauses or even individual sentences. We communicate by means of coherent stretches of interrelated clauses and sentences, the meaning of each of which can be fully understood only in relation to the context (both linguistic and non-linguistic in which it occurs. . .
>
> Every language has a large number of words and expressions part of whose function is to make explicit the semantic relationships between units in a discourse. These words and expressions act as signals of those relationships between units which are the basis of the realization of active contextual meanings. . . . Words and expressions of this type are semantically important in that they act as signals of discourse value. They are also syntactically important in terms of the types of linkage that they make between propositions.

There is a very considerable literature on semantic relations (see Whaanga, 2006 for an overview) and these relations have been grouped and defined in different ways by different researchers: "There is no general agreement amongst linguists in terms of the specific groupings which would best reflect the significant shared features of the different relations. Indeed, any grouping which is proposed (as in the case of any type of classification) will to a certain extent reflect the individual preoccupation of the taxonomist" (Crombie, 1985b, p. 17). What is important to bear in mind here is not any particular classificatory system but simply the fact that these relations are fundamental to human communication and, therefore, of fundamental importance in the teaching and learning of languages.

Genre is another area of research in the area of discourse analysis that has had an impact of the teaching of additional languages, particularly in relation to the teaching of writing. Some research on genre focuses primarily on text types such as research articles or literature reviews (see, for example, Swales, 1981; 1990; Swales & Najjar, 1987); other research on genre focuses primarily on discourse modes such as

explanation and recount (see, for example, Bruce, 2003). Similarly, some of the textbooks that relate to the teaching of writing focus primarily on text types (see, for example, Swales & Feak, 1994; 2000); others focus primarily on discourse modes (see, for example, Johnson & Crombie, 2010). In the latter case, semantic relations generally play a critical role since, as Bruce (2003, p. 246) observes, certain semantic relations are more typically associated with certain discourse modes (which he refers to as 'cognitive genres') than others.

In the heyday of linguistic structuralism, the achievement objectives associated with courses in additional languages tended to be expressed in terms of 'knowledge of' particular lexical items and structures. More recently, they have often tended to be articulated in terms of 'can do' statements that indicate "in concrete terms . . . what . . . learners [are expected] . . . to be able to do with . . . language" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 43). Some examples of objectives of this type that appear in New Zealand Ministry of Education curriculum documents and include indirect or indirect reference to reference to semantic relations and/ or genre (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2002, pp. 36 & 78) are:

- communicate about likes and dislikes, giving reasons where appropriate;
- *recount* a series of events to inform, persuade or entertain.

A critical aspect of the questionnaire-based survey reported on here was an attempt to determine whether literature on the teaching of additional languages that has appeared since the mid 1970s, particularly literature in the area of semantic relations, genre and the specification of achievement objectives has had any real impact on language teachers.

Data and data analysis

The respondents

Of the 93 questionnaire respondents, 55(59%) were teaching in an ESL context and 38 (41%) in an EFL context. They included teachers of English who were working in Japan (18), Taiwan (23), Syria (4), Australia (12) and New Zealand (36). These teachers had taught English as an additional language for between one and twenty years.

The content of courses at different levels

Survey participants were asked which of a list of types of possible content they would include at different levels (beginner, elementary, intermediate, advanced). The responses are summarized in *Figures 1 - 4* below:

***Figure 1**: Number of respondents who would include **vocabulary** at different levels*

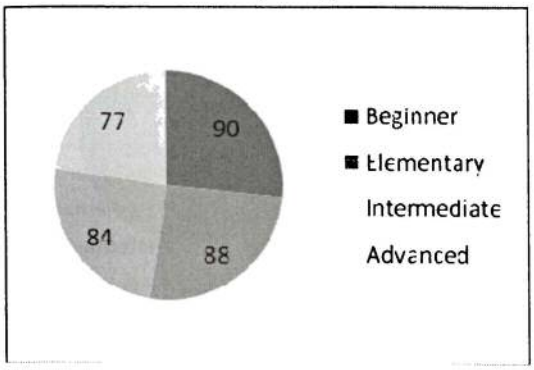


***Figure 2:** Number of respondents who would include **language structures** at different levels*

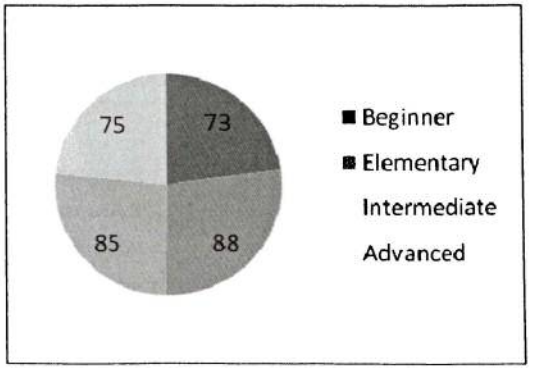


Figure 3: *Number of respondents who would include* ***cohesive devices*** *(e.g. because) at different levels*

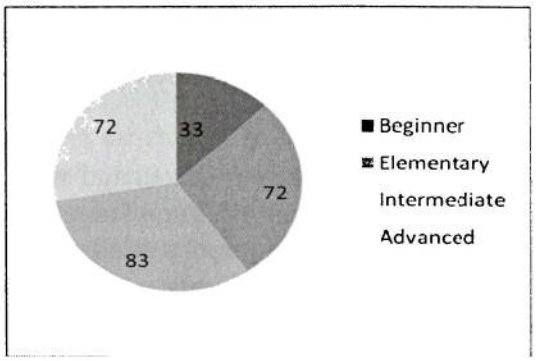
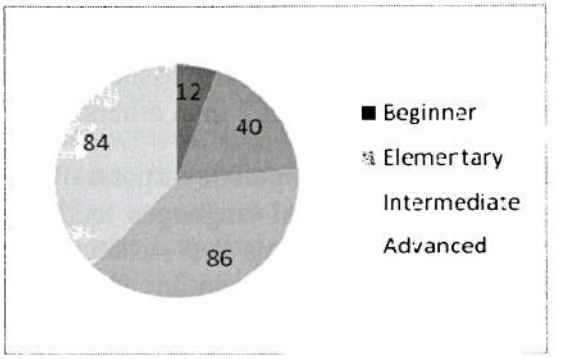


Figure 4*: Number of respondents who would include types of link between clauses and sentences (e.g. comparison, contrast, example) at different levels*



Although there are differences in terms of the number of teachers who indicated that they would introduce each of the areas of content listed in the earlier stages of learning, the number/ percentage who would do so in the later stages (intermediate and advanced) is almost the same in all cases.

When asked whether they would include cohesive devices such as the coordinating conjunction 'because' in their language courses, 33 (35%) indicated that they would do so at beginner level, 72 (77%) at elementary level, 83 (89%) at intermediate level and 72 (77%) at advanced level.

However, when asked whether they would include types of link between clauses and sentences (e.g., comparison, contrast, example), the number of affirmative responses was different in all cases, with as few as 12 (13%) indicating that they would do so at beginner level and 40 (43%) at elementary level. This suggests that respondents may not be fully aware of the link between certain types of cohesive device and coherence and, in particular between certain cohesive devices and the semantic relations that underpin them. In focusing on cohesive devices, they would appear to be indicating a preference for a structure-based rather than meaning-centred approach. Furthermore, the fact that considerably less than half of the respondents indicated that they would introduce links between clauses and sentences at beginner and elementary level suggests that their overall approach at these levels is essentially clause- and sentence-based.

Respondents were then asked when, if at all, they would introduce ellipsis and substitution into their language courses. The responses are summarized in *Figures 5 & 6* below.

Figure 5*: Number of respondents who would include* ***ellipsis*** (e.g. He wandered in, ∧ picked up a book and ∧ sat down) *at different levels*

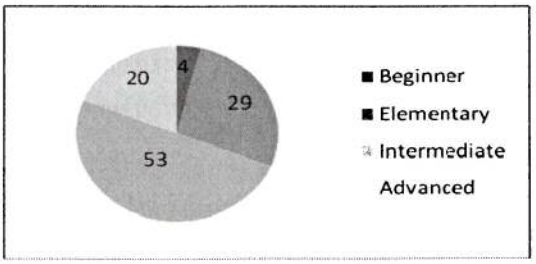
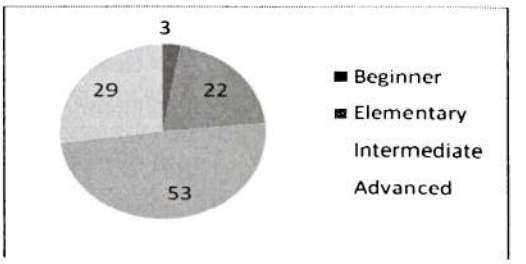


Figure 6*: Number of respondents who would include* ***substitution*** (e.g. *She. . . and* ***so*** *am I*) *at different levels*



They were then asked which of the following they would introduce at different levels:

- comparing and contrasting (e.g., *He's . . . and/but she's . . .*);
- temporal sequence (e.g. *He . . . (then) he . . .*);

The responses are summarized in *Figures 7 & 8* below.

***Figure 7**: Number of respondents who would include **comparison and contrast** at different levels*

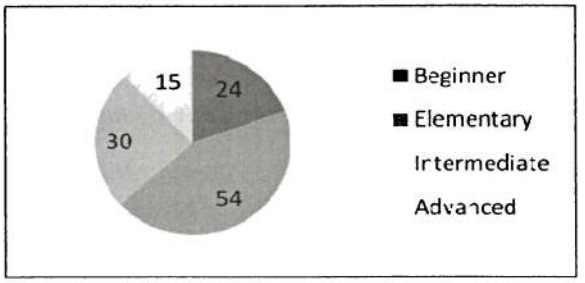
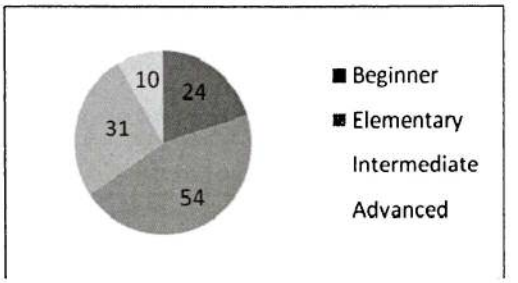


***Figure 8**: Number of respondents who would include **temporal sequence** at different levels*



The fact that such a small proportion of respondents indicate that they would include ellipsis, substitution, comparison and contrast and temporal sequence at intermediate and advanced levels suggests that they may be unaware of the fact that these may, in all cases, be associated with considerable complexity in terms of possible realizations in particular instances.

Respondents were also asked which of the following they would introduce at different levels:

- reasons signalled by 'because';
- reasons signalled by 'because of";
- results signalled by 'so';
- results signalled by 'therefore';
- reasons that are not explicitly signalled (e.g. *He took an umbrella. It was wet.*)

Responses are outlined in *Figures 9-13* below.

***Figure 9**: Number of respondents who would include **reasons signalled by 'because'** at different levels*

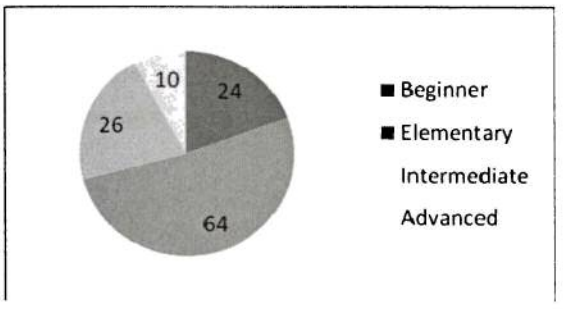


***Figure 10**: Number of respondents who would include **reasons signalled by 'because of'** at different levels*

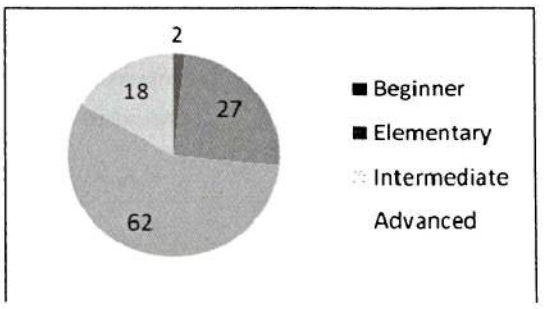


***Figure 11**: Number of respondents who would include **results signalled by 'so'** at different levels*

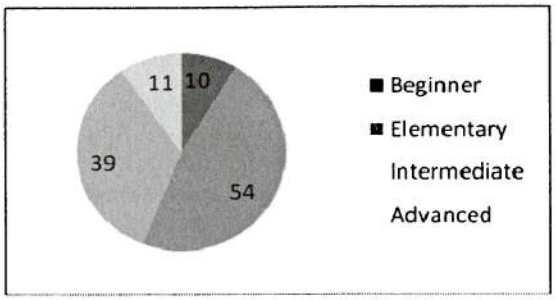


***Figure 12**: Number of respondents who would include **results signalled by 'therefore'** at different levels*

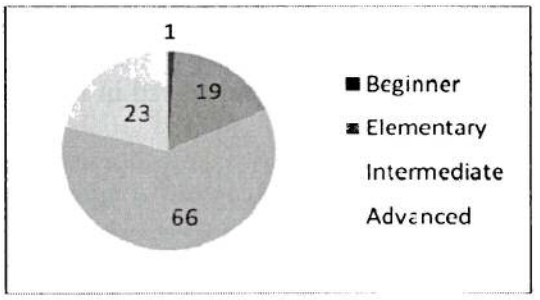
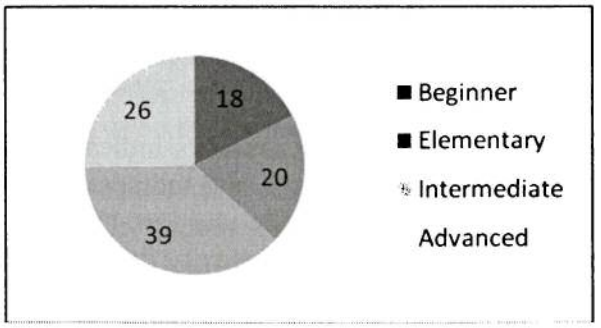


***Figure 13**: Number of respondents who would include **reasons that are not explicitly signalled** at different levels*



It is interesting to note how few of the respondents would introduce reasons that are not explicitly signalled at each level: 19 (10%) at beginner level; 20 (21.5%) at elementary level; 39 (42%) at intermediate level; and 26 (28%) at advanced level. This, combined with the considerably higher number indicating that they would introduce signals of reason and result suggests that these teachers are much more aware of grammatical signals and of their significance than they are of the semantic relations that underlie and motivate that grammatical signalling.

Participants were also asked which of a range of genres they would introduce at different levels. The responses are indicated in *Figures 14 – 17* below.

***Figure 14**: Number of respondents who would include **the recount genre** at different levels*

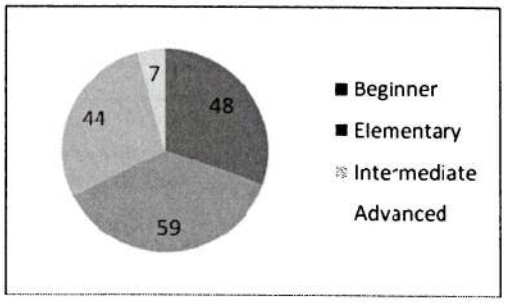


***Figure 15**: Number of respondents who would include **the instruction** at different levels*

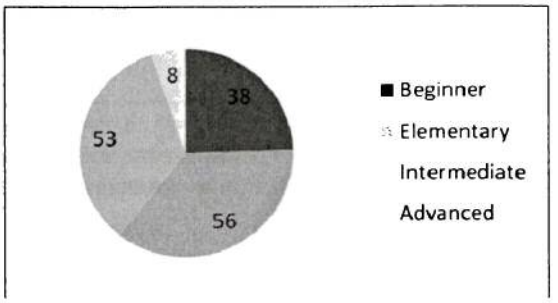


***Figure 16**: Number of respondents who would include **the argument genre** at different levels*

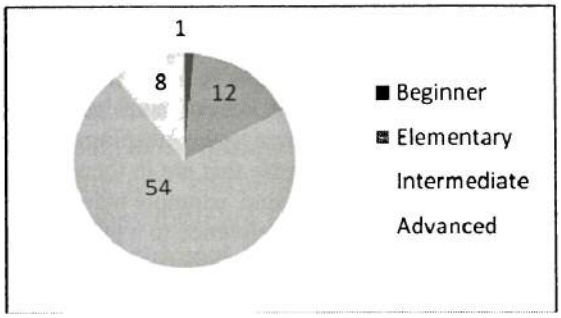
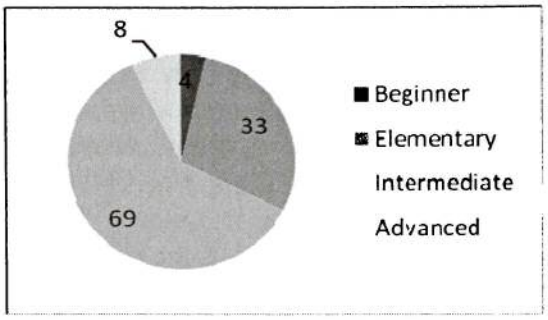


***Figure 17**: Number of respondents who would include **the explanation genre** at different levels*



It is interesting to note that 48 (52%) respondents indicated that they would include the recount genre in their teaching at beginner level. This presupposes the inclusion of the past simple tense, something that is often not introduced in beginner level textbooks in spite of the fact that use of regular past tense constructions need not necessarily present learners with any major difficulty. It is also interesting to note that although, at intermediate level, 69 (74%) respondents would include the explanation genre, 59 respondents (63%) would include the recount genre, 54 (58%) would include that argument genre, and 53 (57%) would include the instruction genre, the percentage who would do so at advanced level is, in no case, higher than 8% in spite of the fact that genre-based research has indicated just how complex the language and structuring of texts associated with each of these genres can be.

Survey participants were also asked whether they would be able to provide a list of the expected ***specific outcomes*** of each of their English courses (that is, a list of what students can do in English as a result of the course). Three of the participants did not respond to this question and 17 indicated that they could not do so or did not know whether they could do so. Those who indicated that they could (73/ 78%) were asked to provide one specific outcome relating to one course, specifying the year and type of the course. Only 62 attempted to do so. Of the 62 examples provided, only 15 were potentially measurable and linguistically grounded and some of these, as indicated in the comments included in the following Table (in which examples are provided) are problematic in some way.

***Table 1**: Examples of course outcomes provided by respondents*

Response types	Examples	Discussion
Responses that specify course outcomes in terms of measurable 'can do' statements that are linguistically grounded (total number = 15)	• Students will be able to ask for directions (Year 2- English conversation & writing) • Recognition of conjunctions showing similarity, contrast and alternative (Year 2 – reading). • Can use the present simple to talk about daily routines (Level 1). • Will be able to accurately select between 'will' and 'going to' for expressing predictions (General English Intermediate). • Students should be able to make polite requests (Elementary General English). • Increase confidence (Year 1 English conversation).	Although 15 examples are listed in this category, several of them are problematic in some respects. Thus, the first example below makes no reference to the meaning/s of past tense that are in focus and the second example below makes reference to a general area of vocabulary (food) but does not indicate whether money/ weight etc. are to be considered. *Master simple past tense forms* (Reading & Writing elementary level) *Hold a basic conversation in English relating to shopping for food* (Year 1- general English).
Responses that lack language indicators and are too general to be measurable (total number = 47)	• Literacy in reading & writing (Year 12 & 13 International English). • Understanding a written text with increased understanding & critical awareness (Upper intermediate –reading & writing). • Students are able to communicate adequately on general topics (Yr 2 – general communicative English). • Write a letter of complaint to a company for dissatisfaction (Intermediate level 4 – English communication). • By the end of this course students should have shown in their writing that they have converted data into oral & written reports (Year 1: EAP). • Students will be able to conduct research on a topic of their choice (related to the subject matter), present a 5 minute report to the class, and write a 500 word summary synthesizing their research (Upper level/ content course).	The last two examples here are indicative of a very common approach among respondents to the specification of course outcomes, one that is superficially more specific than the other examples in this section but provides very little real indication of what is expected in terms of overall structuring, internal organization or linguistic realization. Examples such as these refer, in general terms, to activities that will be included in a course (e.g. giving presentations, writing letters and reports) but lack language indicators.

What the examples of course outcome statements provided by the survey participants suggests is that the majority of them have difficulty in clearly specifying what they expect the outcomes of their courses to be. This suggests that the literature on learning outcomes has had little impact on the majority of these language teachers.

Conclusion

Literature in the area of the teaching of additional languages that has appeared since the 1970s and that has focused on semantic relations, genre and objectives specification appears to have had little impact on the attitudes and reported practices of most of those language teachers involved in the questionnaire-based survey reported here. Although it is not possible to infer from this either (a) that this is true in the case of language teachers in general or (b) that literature on other areas of the teaching and learning of additional languages has had an equally small impact, this study does indicate that these are possibilities worth pursuing. It may be that there is a major disconnect between the teaching of English as an additional language teaching and research on teaching English as an additional language. If this is the case, it seems likely that research on the teaching of additional languages, much of which relates directly to the teaching of English, is having even less impact on the teaching of other languages.

Endnotes

1. The Human Research Ethics Committee of the School of Māori and Pacific Development of the University of Waikato in New Zealand.

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Inflated proficiency self-assessment and its potential impact on language teaching: A Taiwan-based study involving teachers of English in elementary school settings

Wang, Wei Pei
Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages, Taiwan
[wpwang@mail.wtuc.edu.tw]

Abstract
There is a widespread belief that communicative language teaching necessarily involves using the target language for all of the time in the classroom. However, those who advocate exclusive use of the target language in classroom settings may not always be fully aware of the potential negative consequences of this advocacy. With reference to a study involving teachers of English in elementary schools in Taiwan, it is argued here that teachers believe that their own target language proficiency is higher than it actually is, attempts by teachers to use the target language at all times can have unfortunate consequences.

Introduction

In Taiwan, children now begin learning English in Form 3 of elementary schooling. This has created a need for more elementary school teachers who ate able to teach English and this, in turn, has led to the development of a number of training courses and programs and to the creation of locally produced textbooks that are intended to reflect the communicatively-oriented national curriculum guidelines (Her, 2007). However, there has been for some time, and continues to be, considerable disquiet about the English language achievements of Taiwanese students and this disquiet appears not to be without foundation.

So far as the teaching of English to young learners is concerned, as Dai (2002) and Yu (2003) have observed, many of those who argued that children should begin to learn English before entering Junior High School relied on the argument that young learners learn languages more easily than older learners. They relied, in other words, on some version of the critical period hypotheses (Penfield & Roberts, 1959), according to which there is a critical period after which language acquisition ability rapidly deteriorates. The problem is that, irrespective of the merits, or otherwise, of this hypothesis in relation to first language acquisition, it appears not to apply in contexts where children are learning a language in a classroom setting for, at best, a few hours each week. Except to the extent that they have a longer period of time in which to develop proficiency, very young language learners do not appear to have an advantage over older learners in classroom settings (see, for example, Genesee, 1987; Rixon, 1999; Sharpe, 2001). Nevertheless, the majority of Taiwanese parents appear to believe that there is no time to lose if their children are to have a bright future: "Don't lose at the very beginning" (Liu, 2002). In this, they are not alone. There is a global trend towards the introduction of languages in elementary school (Graddol, 2006, p. 88).

It was partly as a result of pressure from the public that the Taiwan Ministry of Education decided to gradually decrease the age at which English is introduced in schools. This began with a recommendation that the teaching of English should begin in Grade 5 of elementary schooling from 2002 rather than in the first year of secondary schooling (Ministry of Education (Taiwan), 1998). Because this was a

recommendation rather than a regulation, it led to the co-existence of a number of different systems throughout the country. In 2002, only 11 of Taiwan's 25 cities and counties had followed the Ministry's recommendation. Of the other 14, one introduced English at Grade 4, three at Grade 3, three at Grade 2, and seven at Grade 1 ("English Education", 2002). Even in 2003, according to a research project sponsored by the Citisuccess Fund and National Teachers' Association, ninety per cent of elementary schools in Taiwan were not following the Ministry's recommendation. Although all cities and counties throughout Taiwan were introducing English at some point in elementary schooling (including Taipei City, I-Lan Country and Hsin-Chu City), more than 80% of public elementary schools were offering English programmes to their first grade students.

In order to address this chaotic situation, the Ministry of Education decided to introduce nationwide standardized regulations for English at elementary school level. There was much debate and disagreement about the appropriate stage at which English instruction should be introduced, with many researchers recommending Grade 3 ("Introducing English from Third Grade", 2003). On November 21, 2002, in a formal oral report to the Education Committee, the Secretary to the Minister of Education, Legislator Yuan, announced that English was to be introduced at Grade 3 (when the majority of children are aged 9) in all schools from 2004 or 2005. In response, many of the schools that were then introducing English at Grade 5 announced that they would immediately move towards introduction of English at Grade 3. This exacerbated an already serious problem of under supply of qualified teachers of English at elementary school level. The Taiwanese Ministry of Education responded by recruiting teachers from new sources, by increasing training opportunities, and by organising language proficiency testing of elementary school English teachers (Ministry of Education (Taiwan), 2004, August 23).

Reducing the age at which English is introduced in schools was, in part, a response to the widespread perception that the English language proficiency of Taiwanese college entrants and college graduates was not at an acceptable level. Another response, one that has come directly from parents, is to send children, often from a very young age, to kindergartens in which English is used all or part of the time and/ or to after-school and week-end English programmes in private language schools. It has been estimated that in 2004 an average of eighty per cent of Taiwanese children had had some experience of learning English before they encountered it in their official school programme ("Win from the very beginning", 2004). The percentage is even higher in urban school districts such as Taipei city. As a result, teachers have to cope with a situation in which young learners in schools have had a wide range of different English language learning experiences, or none at all, when they begin to learn English at school. Partly in response to this, and partly in response to more general concern about the effect of introducing children to English at a very early age, the Ministry of Education announced in 2004 that English should not be taught either as an individual subject or in an immersion environment in kindergartens. There is, however, little, if any, evidence of any change in behavior as a result of this, with advertising for these programmes appearing to have continued unabated. Furthermore, there is some evidence that the best of private kindergartens and cram schools may be offering extremely effective and stimulating programmes that make effective use of a far wider range of resources in English than are typically used in public elementary schools (see, for example, Chang, 2007).

As Shih and Chu (1999, p. 1) observed at the end of the 1990s, the new curriculum guidelines for the teaching and learning of English in schools, which were introduced in 2001 as part of the *Grade 1~9 Integrated Coordinated Curriculum* - itself a response to the challenges posed by of increasing global competitiveness, - recommend a communicative approach to the teaching of English. Although no attempt is made in the guidelines to define precisely what is meant by this, it is clear from a review of the overall content of the guidelines (Her, 2007) that the intention is that the target language should be used as much as possible, that a wide variety of text-types and activities (including group work and pair work) should be introduced, and that learners should be encouraged to engage in authentic and meaningful communication (communication that has a function over and above that of language learning itself). Using the target language as much as possible in the language classroom poses problems for teachers whose target language proficiency is not high. However, teachers over-estimate their own proficiency, they also under-estimate these dangers.

The Taiwanese public educational system was not satisfactorily prepared for the significant changes foreshadowed in the new curriculum or for the teacher training demands that inevitably accompanied it, particularly as they related to the teaching of English to very young learners. The changes took place hastily and without adequate consultation and explanation. The result is that there is considerable confusion and uncertainty surrounding the teaching of English in elementary schools. So far as preparation for this type of teaching is concerned, there are four categories that are considered acceptable:

- Members of the public with a high level of English proficiency who took a two-year *Primary School English Teacher Training Programme* (PSETTP) which was available from 1999 to 2000;
- Graduates with an English-related degree, or graduates (any degree) who have undertaken a one year graduate Certificate in teaching English at primary level;
- Primary school teachers who can demonstrate that they have a level of proficiency in English equivalent to 213 or higher on a computer-based TOEFL test or high-intermediate level of in the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT);
- Trained primary school teachers who have participated in a variety of local government English training programmes (Ministry of Education, Taiwan, 2004, July 7).

What counts as a high level of proficiency in relation to the first category is a score (claimed to be equivalent to of 600 or above in the TOEFL) in an English Language Proficiency Test, available to teachers and members of the public, introduced in 1999 and sponsored by the Ministry of Education. This test is said to be based on based on the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT). Teachers who cannot demonstrate a sufficiently high level of competence in English in other ways (by, for example, gaining a score of 213 or higher on a computer-based TOEFL test or high-intermediate or above in the GEPT), may take this test. Teachers in the penultimate category are not required to undergo any training in the teaching of English.

In addition to, or as an alternative to attending pre-service training courses, a large number of teachers of English in Taiwanese primary schools attend in-service courses offered by a range of providers, including local government, teachers' colleges, private training institutions and textbook publishers. These in-service courses vary widely in terms of both content and quality. As Chang (2007, p. 4) has noted, primary school teachers of English are trained by different institutions (normal universities, teachers' colleges, and public and private universities that have established faculties, departments and graduate schools of education) and each of them has different standards. Furthermore, the public perception is that the training provided has not changed in line with the changes in policy and curriculum. This is indicated in the following headline from 中央日報 (Central Daily News) on 2001, October 19).

師資培育落差大準夫子巧婦難為
A big gap between teacher training and ELT curriculum reform makes it difficult for teachers-to-be to teach in real classrooms

Selected literature on teachers' target language proficiency

The importance of incorporating personal proficiency development into training programmes designed for those for whom the target language is an additional language has been emphasised by a number of writers, many of whom refer specifically to the need to include appropriate classroom language (see, for example, Butler, 2003, p. 5; Cullen, 1994, p. 163; 2001, p. 27; Murdoch, 1994, p. 257; Shih, 2001, p. 90, Shih & Chu, 1999, p. 5; Shrum & Glisan, 1994, p. 61; Snow, Kamhi-Stein & Brinton, 2006, pp. 262-264). A number of writers on language teacher education have also stressed the importance of providing trainees with knowledge *about* the English language and the ability and skill to use that knowledge in practical teaching contexts (see, for example, Butler, 2003, p. 5; Rausch, 2001, p. 1; Richards, 1998, pp. 4-5).

According to Murdoch (1994, p.253), high proficiency in the target language is often "the most valued aspect of a non-native teacher's competence" and Cullen (1994, p. 164) notes that teachers need to "improve their own command of the language so that they can use it more fluently and . . . confidently in the classroom" in order to teach English communicatively. Thus, Cullen argues that the language improvement component of teacher training courses should be "specifically linked to the kind of language the teachers will need to use in the classroom, e.g. for giving instructions [and] eliciting ideas and suggestions from the students" (p. 163). More recently, Cullen (2001) has not only repeated his earlier emphasis on the value of competence and confidence in using English in the classroom, but has also argued that that although it is the most important skill for English teachers all over the world, it is often neglected in pre-service and in-service training courses. He has therefore suggested using videos and lesson transcripts to "develop awareness of, and promote competence in the language needed for various types of classroom activity, such as eliciting ideas and contributions from the students, giving instructions, explaining, giving feedback and dealing with errors" (p. 27). For Shrum and Glisan (1994, p. 61), the training of teachers of foreign languages in primary schools must involve "[acquisition of] proficiency in [the] foreign language" as well as "expertise in integrating language instruction into their curricula". Shih (2001, p. 90), with particular reference to the training of teachers to deliver English language programmes in primary schools in Taiwan, argues for the inclusion of both language

training and teaching methodology, noting in particular that teachers need not only to understand what is meant by 'communicative language teaching' (given its significance within the Taiwanese curriculum) but also need to develop sufficient oral proficiency in English to apply the principles and techniques associated with communicative language teaching in their classrooms. Butler (2003, p. 5), in discussing the preparation of teachers of English in Taiwan, Korea and Japan, argues for the incorporation of a number of components, including proficiency development. Chen and Johnson (2004, p. 136) observed that "very little information is available about the current English language proficiency achievements of students following different programs in different institutions" and that this is one of the factors that makes the establishment of proficiency benchmarks problematic. Three years later, however, using an English C-test[1] that had initially been developed for use in a major European study involving 25,000 students of a number of different languages in seven European countries (see Coleman, 1996), Her (2007) reported on her survey of the proficiency achievements of 681 Taiwanese students at the point of entry to BA degrees and 297 at the point of exit from BA degrees, noting the wide variation in proficiency, with individual scores differing by as much as 64 percentage points in the case of exit-level students. At the point of exit from BA degrees, the mean percentage C-test score (including students for whom English was a major and minor component of their studies) was 12.4%. The mean percentage exit score for students majoring in English was 15.2%. For students for whom English was not a major subject, the mean percentage exit score was 11.3%. Overall, the mean percentage exit core of the Taiwanese students was 13.25%. In the case of the European students who were tested in English, the mean percentage exit score was 53.5%. Of the 297 students who participated in the exit C-tests in Her's (2007) study, 123 (41.41%) provided information about their performance on other proficiency tests. Comparison of the results of the C-test with the students' results in other proficiency tests suggests that the overall average score of 13.25% in the C-test is roughly equivalent to an 'elementary' level score in the GEPT or score of between 255 and 400 (out of a possible 900) in the TOEIC.

Butler (2004) conducted a study in which teachers of English in three countries (204 from Korea; 206 from Taiwan; 112 from Japan), were asked to assess their own proficiency in five domains (listening comprehension, oral fluency, vocabulary in speech, pronunciation and grammar in speech) on a 6-pont scale, from 1 (the lowest level) to 6 (the highest level). Not only were the Taiwanese teachers' self-assessment proficiency ratings consistently higher than those of the Korean and Japanese teachers (an average of 3.87, 3.03 and 2.67 respectively) but the gap between that level and the level they considered necessary for teaching English adequately in elementary school was smaller (0.6 as compared to 0.62 for the Korean teachers and 0.82 for the Japanese teachers). In particular, in the areas of speaking (oral fluency, oral vocabulary, oral grammar and pronunciation) and listening, the overall self-assessed ratings of the Taiwanese teachers were, in all cases, higher than those of the other teachers. This raises an important issue in relation to the Taiwanese Ministry of Education's recommendation that English should be used as much as possible in the classroom.

It is argued here that self-assessment of proficiency can have as much impact on classroom practices as can actual proficiency.

Research questions

Underlying the research reported here was the following research question:

> How do a sample of teachers of English in elementary schools in Taiwan asses their own level of proficiency in English and does the language they use in the classroom indicate self-assessed proficiency is generally accurate?

Methods

A self-completion questionnaire, which included questions on a range of issues relating to the teaching of English in elementary schools in Taiwan, was designed in English, translated into Chinese, and trialled. That questionnaire, the final version of which included 35 questions, was then distributed to 300 teachers who either (a) attended an in-service teacher training program held in Taipei, Hsinchu, Taichung, Kaohsiung, Hualien and Penphu, or (b) were personally known to the researcher. The decision to use a sample of convenience rather than a random sample was determined by the fact that unless a researcher is working in an official capacity for government, it is not possible to secure a list of the names and contact details of teachers of English language in Taiwan. There were 166 responses to this questionnaire (a response rate of 55%), which included one question that asked participant, using a scale (see *Appendix*) based on the International English Testing System (IELTS).[2] The lowest band on the scale was 1 (i.e. has a few isolated words), the highest was 9 (i.e. fully operational command of the language: appropriate, fluent, accurate, with complete understanding). Also included in that questionnaire was a question that asked participants to select any methodological approaches they personally favoured, selected from the following list: grammar translation: structural; functional; self-access; communicative; task-based; topic-based; other).

A second questionnaire, prepared in English only[3], and focusing on teacher training (pre-service and in-service) was developed and trialled. The final version of that questionnaire included 33 questions, including questions about any pre- and in-service training programmes that respondents had participated in. That questionnaire included the following questions:

> Did your course include a component whose aim was to further develop your own language proficiency?
> Were you provided with some useful classroom language (e.g., ***Look! Listen! Answer the question! Pairs! Groups!*** etc.) and given advice about how to introduce it and use it?

Email messages were sent to teachers known to the researcher who had participated in the first questionnaire-based survey asking whether they would be willing to participate in a further survey involving both a questionnaire and an interview. These messages outlined the aims and nature of the study and asked whether the recipients (or elementary school teachers of English known to them) might be willing to take part. Twenty three possible participants were identified in this way. In each case, the potential participants were contacted by telephone. The aims and nature of the research were outlined again and it was explained that participation was entirely voluntary and that the identity of participants would not be revealed in the reporting of the research. Of the 23 who initially indicated that they might be willing to participate, 13 decided at this stage not to proceed. All of the remaining ten were

homeroom primary school teachers with responsibility for teaching English and who had had some training in the teaching of English. All of them not only completed the second questionnaire but also took part in a semi-structured interview, conducted by phone in Mandarin Chinese. Although these interviews included a number of questions that related directly to questions included the questionnaire, the questions were not presented in any particular order, generally being included where they were relevant to the teachers' own discourse. Interview participants were also encouraged to raise any issues that they wanted to discuss.

Finally, twenty English language lessons taught by some of these teachers in Taiwanese elementary schools were recorded and transcribed and then analyzed in terms of a range of criteria derived from a review of literature on effective teaching of additional languages to young learners.

Findings

One hundred and forty five (145) participants in the first questionnaire-based survey responded to the question asking them to assess their own proficiency in English. Their overall self-assessed proficiency levels and their self-assessed proficiency levels in reading, writing listening and speaking are indicated in *Figures 1* and *2* below. The number of respondents who placed themselves in each of bands 6 – 9 in reading, writing, listening and speaking are indicated in *Table 1* below.

***Figure 1**: Overall self-assessed proficiency ratings*

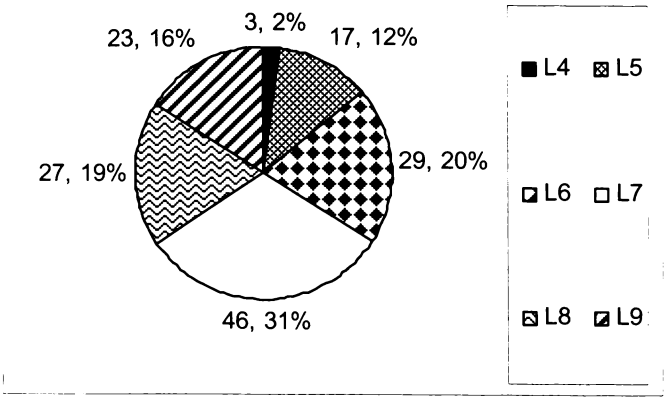

***Figure 2**: Self-assessed proficiency ratings for reading, writing, listening and speaking*

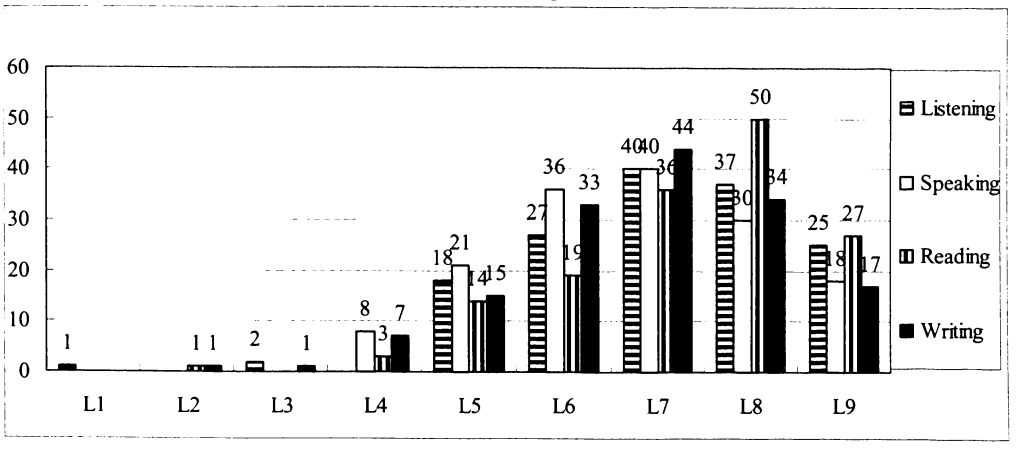

Table 1: *Self-assessed proficiency in reading, writing, listening and speaking: Numbers in each of bands 6 – 9*

Reading				**Writing**				**Listening**				**Speaking**			
L6	L7	L8	L9	L6	L7	L8	L9	L6	L7	L8	L9	L6	L7	L8	L9
19	36	50	27	33	44	34	17	27	40	37	25	36	40	30	18

As *Figures 1* and *2* and *Table 1* indicate, the self-assessed proficiency ratings were, overall, very high, with, in terms of overall proficiency, with 75% of respondents locating themselves in bands 6 – 9. In relation to each of the skill areas, the following number and percentage of respondents located themselves in bands 6 – 9: reading (132/80%); writing (128/77.5%); listening (129/78%); speaking (124/75%). In this connection, it is relevant to note that only three of the participants indicted that their first language was English, the others indicating that it was Mandarin, Hakka or Taiwanese.

All 166 participants in the first questionnaire-based survey responded to the question about their favoured methodologies. Of these, 103 (63%) selected 'communicative'. Of the 10 participants in the second survey (involving a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews):

- four were graduates of the Primary School English Teacher Training Programme (PSETTP) offered between 1999 and 2000;
- three had completed a four year degree, majoring in English, that included training in primary school teaching, one component of which was the teaching of English;
- two (H & I) were graduates who majored in English and had completed a primary level teaching Certificate that included a component on teaching English;
- one was a graduate who majored in English and who had completed a local government training programme in the teaching of English lasting for one week.

All seven of those who had completed a training programme that was not combined with the completion of a degree in which they majored in English indicated that personal proficiency development was not included in their training programmes. There would, in any case have been little point in including a proficiency development component in the one week training course attended by one of the participants.

In response to the question about whether their training course included the provision of some useful classroom language (e.g., ***Look! Listen! Answer the question! Pairs! Groups!*** etc.) and, if so, whether they had been given advice about how to introduce it and use it, two of those who had attended a PSEPPT course indicated in a questionnaire response that they had. However, it emerged during the interviews that this had amounted, in both cases, to being given a handout for reference. Furthermore, both indicated during the interviews that their course tutor believed that their level of proficiency was sufficiently high to make explicit discussion of classroom language unnecessary. In addition, another of the participants indicated during the interview not

only that there had been no specific reference to classroom language during the version of the PSETTP she attended, but also that she believed that there was no reason to have included such a component given the high level of proficiency of the course participants.

Of the three participants who had completed a four year degree that included training in primary school teaching, one component of which was the teaching of English, only one indicated that they had been given advice about classroom language, it emerged during the interview that, as in the case of two of the PSEPPT programme participants, this had been confined to a handout. Once again, it was observed that the course tutor had indicated that further assistance was unnecessary because the trainees' English language proficiency was considered adequate to the task.

In the observed lessons, the teachers talked for an average of 80% of the lesson time and there were problems associated with the attempts made by teachers to use English as much as possible. Frequently, their English was inaccurate as indicated in the examples below, where errors have been underlined:

> Now I want to do the pairs work./ What is the pairs work? /Please do the pair works./ Okay, today we have *some new for us*./ Very good, so look at here./ When we started at? /And let's who, let's who. / Okay, and would you something about today./ Okay, the boy is a better./ You have to talking the sentence. /I got two rule. You just come back from your trip, right?/ Next turn will girls./ I want someone tell me how was trip./ Are you a elephant?/ Red, I am bad, and she winner./ Sky are blue./ Back the table.

Discussion

Overall, the Taiwanese teachers involved in Butler's (2004) study rated their English language proficiency higher than did the Korean and Japanese teachers and in my own study, the self-assessed proficiency ratings of the teachers involved were very high. However, Her's (2007) study suggests that that the English language proficiency of Taiwanese students who have completed a Bachelor's degree in which English is a major or subsidiary subject is very much lower than that of European students who have done so and may, in fact, be, overall, very low indeed. Why, then, did the teachers involved in my study rate their proficiency so highly? There are a number of possible reasons for this. One of these may be the fact that members of the public who were granted entry to the PSETTP programme were regarded as having a high level of proficiency if they gained a score in the Taiwanese English Language Proficiency Test sponsored by the Ministry of Education and introduced in 1999 that was judged to be equivalent to 600 or above in the TOEFL although no research has been conducted that clearly indicates that performance in these two tests can be validly compared. Another reason may be that Taiwanese teachers who have a degree in which they have majored or minored in English assume that this means that they have a high level of proficiency in English. In addition, several of the teachers involved in my study reported that tutors on their training courses considered it unnecessary to include a component dealing with classroom language because participants' already had a high level of proficiency. Whatever the reason for the overall high self-proficiency ratings of the teachers involved in my study, the frequency and type of inaccuracies observed in the 20 English lessons taught in

Taiwanese elementary schools that I observed suggests that these self-assessed proficiency ratings are not an accurate reflection of their actual language proficiency. In the lessons I observed, the teachers used English for most of the time in class. They may have felt confident in doing so precisely because they considered their English language proficiency to be adequate to the task. However, the result was that much of the language the students heard in class was inaccurate. Furthermore, the language used by the teachers in class to give instructions was sometimes beyond the students' current level of understanding and this often caused confusion and uncertainty. What all of this indicates is that those who recommend use of the target language in class for all or most of the time should give careful consideration to the possible impact of this recommendation in cases where teachers lack training in classroom language and may, in addition, have an inflated view of their own proficiency.

Endnotes

1. The C-test was developed by Raatz and Klein-Braley (see, for example, Coleman, Grotjahn, Klein-Braley, & Raatz, 1994; Eckes & Grotjahn, 2006; Dörnyei & Katona, 1992; Jakschik. 1996; Klein-Braley, 1985, 1994a, 1994b; Raatz, & Klein-Braley, 1982; Raatz, Klein-Braley, & Mercator, 2000) at the University of Duisburg. It is similar to the cloze test except that in the C-test what is sometimes referred to as 'the rule of two' is applied, that is, the second half of every second word is deleted from the second sentence on. For a discussion of the theory of reduced redundancy on which C testing is based, see, for example, Oller, 1976 and Spolsky, Bengt, Sako, and Aterburn,1968.

2. The IELTS proficiency testing system is jointly managed by the British Council, IELTS Australia (a subsidiary of IDP: Australia) and the University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations Syndicate.

3. Respondents were urged to discuss any aspects of the questionnaire that they found difficult to interpret during later telephone interviews. In the event, none of the 10 participants indicated that they had had difficulty in interpreting any aspect of the questionnaire.

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Appendix: Proficiency scale used

1. **Non-user**
   A few isolated words.
2. **Intermittent User**
   No real communication possible except the most basic information using isolated words or short formulae in predicable situations to meet immediate needs. Great difficulty in understanding spoken and written language.
3. **Very Limited User**
   Conveys and understands only general meaning in very familiar situations. Frequent breakdowns in communication.
4. **Limited User**
   Basic competence is limited to familiar situations. Frequent problems in understanding and expression. Not able to use complex language.
5. **Modest User**
   Partial command of the language, coping with overall meaning in most situations though likely to make many mistakes. Should be able to handle basic communication in familiar areas.
6. **Competent User**
   Generally effective command of the language in spite of some inaccuracies, inappropriate usages and misunderstandings. Can use and understand fairly complex language, particularly in familiar situations.
7. **Good User**
   Has operational command of the language with occasional inaccuracies, inappropriate usages and misunderstandings in some situations. Generally understands and uses complex language well and can follow, and produce, detailed reasoning.
8. **Very Good User**
   Fully operational command of the language with only occasional unsystematic inaccuracies and inappropriate usages. Misunderstandings may occur in unfamiliar situations. Handles complex, detailed argumentation well.
9. **Expert User**
   Fully operational command of the language: appropriate, fluent, accurate with complete understanding.

Guidelines for Final Submission of Article for JMPD

General

Manuscripts should be in Times 12 cpi with 1.5 spacing and fully justified. There should be the equivalent of one line left between paragraphs within sections and new paragraphs should not be indented. Articles that are 20 pages in length or shorter are preferred. The manuscript should **NOT** have numbered pages but should have a footer on each page with the first three words of the title.

Title

The title should be in Times 12 cpi boldface and should be centred on the page. The title should indicate as clearly as possible the nature of the content of the manuscript. All content words of the title are to have an initial capital letter.

Abstract

Each article must include an abstract of not more than 200 words. The heading Abstract should be in Times 12 cpi boldface, and centered.

Headings

Level 1 headings should be capitalized in the same way as the main title, and centered. The font used is Times 12 boldface. The format for *level 2 headings* is the same as for *level 1 headings* except that the font is Times 11, and the heading is justified to the left of the column. There should be the equivalent of a one line space between level 1 and level 2 headings and the following text. The format for *level 3 headings* is the same as for level 2 headings, except that the font is Times 10, and there should be no space left between the heading and the text.

References within the text

All references within the text should be placed in parentheses containing the author's surname followed by a comma and a space before the date of publication (Jones, 1999). If the sentence already includes the author's name, then it is necessary only to put the date in parentheses: Jones (1999). When several works are cited, each entry should be separated by a semicolon: (Jones, 1999; Peters, 1995; Simon, 1993). When a reference has more than three authors, cite only the name of the first author followed by *et al* in every subsequent reference to the same work. When including page references, separate them from the date by a comma and a space (Jones, 1999, pp. 7 – 14). Page numbers should be indicated as follows: Peters (1999, p. 1), Jones (1998, pp. 4 - 7).

Endnotes

Endnotes are indicated within the text by a number[1] in superscript. They should be in Times 9, and appear together at the end of the article and before the reference list.

Tables and Figures

All tables and figures should be centered in the manuscript. Tables and figures should be numbered in the text, and should be preceded by a caption in Times 12 cpi italic. The equivalent of one line space should be left between captions and the tables or figures to which they refer. Captions and the tables or figures to which they refer should always appear together on the same page.

References

References should be listed in alphabetical order at the end of the article. The title of the section, 'References', should be a *level 1 heading*. The first line of each bibliographical reference must be justified to the left of the column, and the rest of the entry should be indented five spaces. The following examples (of fictitious references) illustrate the format required for conference proceedings, books, journals, articles, Ph.D. theses, and chapters of books respectively:

Jones, L. E. (1999). Marae Protocol. In *Proceedings of the First Annual Conference of the Society for Māori Language Revitalisation* (pp. 71 -- 133). Wellington, NZ: Te Rapa Books.

Peters, S. O. (1997). *Words and Meanings*. London: Groves and Parker.

Stephens, E. & Jones, A. E. (1987). An Experimental Approach to Case, *Journal of Case Studies*, 2 (3), 12 - 17.

Houia, A. (1992). Common Syntactic Errors in Young Learners of Greek. Doctoral Thesis. University of Te Rapa, Auckland.

Edmonds, A. B. (1991). Scaffolding Second Language Learning. In T. A. Stone, A. T. Bread & V. Matthews (Eds.), *Scaffolding in Education* (pp. 12-48). Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.

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The editors will respect the decisions made by authors in relation to their use of the macron in text written in English and/or Maori. Where Maori words are included by the editors themselves in text written in English, the macron will not be used in cases where a particular word (such as, for example, the word *Maori* itself) is deemed by the editors to have been fully integrated into New Zealand English. Thus, the macron is not used in the title of the Journal.

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The manuscript should be accompanied by a Word Disk and/or also sent by email attachment to <crombie@waikato.ac.nz>. Author's names should **NOT** be included in the manuscript but should be indicated in an accompanying letter in which institutional affiliations, institutional addresses, email addresses and phone and fax numbers are also included. The accompanying letter should indicate clearly whether the content of the manuscript has, in the same or similar form, either (a) been delivered as a conference paper and, if so, where and when, or (b) been produced or published in any other context and, if so, where and when.

Acknowledgments

Place all acknowledgements (including those concerning research grants and funding) in a separate section at the end of the article.